Mediating Knowledge and Constituting Subjectivities in Distance Education Materials for Language Teachers in South Africa

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Volume I

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Abstract

International and local guidelines for designing distance education materials advise designers to use feedback from students in the redesign of their materials. This study is a response to the researcher's failed attempt to elicit critical feedback from some of her students. It therefore sets out to devise a framework for a critical pedagogic analysis of distance learning materials designed for South African teacher education programmes.

It draws on theorisations of pedagogy, principally from the work of the sociologist of education Basil Bernstein and the applied linguist Suresh Canagarajah, theorisations of mediation, originating in the work of Lev Vygotsky, and theorisations of subjectivity. It also draws on international and local conceptualisations of a knowledge base for teacher education. In the analysis of the selection and organisation of knowledge on the page, the study draws on Halliday's systemic functional linguistics and the field of social semiotics to uncover the positions constructed for readers as students and as teachers in each multimodal design.

A pedagogic analysis of distance education materials for pre-service or in-service teachers responds to a series of questions: What elements of a knowledge base for teacher education do designers foreground and background? What is the orientation of the materials to the relationship between knowledge and practice? How is knowledge mediated through in-text activities, pedagogic episodes and scaffolded readings? What roles do linguistic and visual design choices play in the mediation of knowledge? A critical pedagogic analysis interrogates the subject positions that the multimodal designs constitute for ideal readers as students and as teachers. In the study, all of these questions frame a detailed analysis of three sets of materials designed for South African teacher education programmes and, finally, a critical reflection on materials for which the researcher was the principal designer.

The study concludes that a critical pedagogic analysis affords designers and evaluators the critical distance needed for evaluating the mediation of knowledge(s) and the constitution of readers' subjectivities in teacher education materials. As an alternative (or in some circumstances, as an addition) to reader feedback it has the potential to inform redesigning for the original local context(s) of use or reversioning for use in broader regional or global contexts.

Keywords

critical pedagogic analysis; mediation; pedagogy; subjectivity; distance education materials; design and redesign; multimodality; language teachers; teacher education

Declaration

I declare that this thesis is my own unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any other University.

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Yvonne Reed

_______ day of _______________ in the year 2010

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Table of Contents

Volume I

Chapter One: Introduction 1

1.1 Introducing the study: background; aims; rationale; research questions 1
1.2 Schooling and teacher education in South Africa prior to 1994 8
1.3 Schooling and teacher education, post 1994 13
1.4 Global and local trends in distance education 18
1.5 Global and local distance education programmes for teacher education 22
1.6 The contexts of design, production and reception of the teacher education materials analysed in this study 25
1.6.1 *Learners and Learning* 26
1.6.2 *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* 29
1.6.3 *Language, Literacy and Communication,* Imithamo 1 to 6 32
1.6.4 Similarities and differences in design and production 36
1.7 Thesis chapter titles 37

Chapter Two: Theoretical Framework 38

2.1 Introduction 38
2.2 Theorising Pedagogy 39
2.2.1 Bernstein's theorisation of pedagogy 40
2.2.2 Canagarajah's conceptualisation of 'mainstream' and 'critical' pedagogies 49
2.3 Teacher education pedagogy / ies 57
2.4 Distance education pedagogy: mediation on the page or screen 61
2.5 Mediation and subjectivity 68

Chapter Three: Research Design 78

3 .1 Introduction 78
3.2 'Traditional' approaches to evaluating distance education courses and materials: description and critique 79
3.3 Devising an alternative approach: a critical pedagogic textual analysis 85
3.3.1 Selecting the teacher education materials and selecting a topic focus within these materials 88
3.3.2 Analysing content selections 89
3.3.3 Analysing selected mediating strategies 90
3.3.3.1 Analysing in-text activities 91
3.3.3.2 Analysing pedagogic episodes or 'cases' 92
3.3.3.3 Analysing the scaffolding of readings 93
3.3.4 Analysing the designs of the materials 94

3.3.4.1 Analysing language 96
3.3.4.2 Analysing visual designs 98
3.4 A note on research ethics 100

Chapter Four: Mediating knowledge through the selection and organization of content 101

4.1 Introduction 101
4. 2 Conceptualising a knowledge base for teaching: the content of teacher education programmes 104
4.2.1 Content selections in 'Text as a context for learning' – *Learners and Learning*, Section Four 116
4.2.2 Content selections in *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, 'A whole language approach' 125
4.2.3 Content selections in 'Teaching reading' – *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT),* Unit Two 130
4.2.4 Some concluding observations on differences and similarities in content selections 135
4.3 Conceptualising the organization of knowledge on the page in teacher education materials 139
4.3.1 The organization of content in *Learners and Learning* 145
4.3.2 The organization of content in *Language, Literacy and Communication* (Imithamo 1 to 6) 149
4.3.3 The organization of content in *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)* 156
4.4 Selecting and organizing content: 'shaping' the subjectivities of students and teachers 161

Chapter Five: Language, in-text activities, pedagogic episodes and scaffolded readings as mediating tools 167

5.1 Introduction 167
5.2 The role of language in materials designing 168
5.3 Using in-text activities to mediate knowledge 172
5.3.1 General introductions to in-text activities 173
5.3.1.1 General introduction to activities in *Learners and Learning* 173
5.3.1.2 General introduction to activities in *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* 177
5.3.1.3 General introduction to activities in *Language, Literacy and Communication* 180
5.3.1.4 The learner-teachers and teacher-learners constituted in the introductions to activities in each set of materials 183
5.3.2 Activity 'types' in the three sets of materials 184
5.3.2.1 An activity from *Learners and Learning*, Section Four 188
5.3.2.2 An activity from *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT*), Unit Two 191
5.3.2.3 An activity from *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2,* Unit Four 195
5.3.2.4 The learner-teachers and teacher-learners constituted in the activity 'types' 201
5.4 Using 'cases' or 'pedagogic episodes' to mediate knowledge 202
5.4.1 Pedagogic episodes in Section 4 of *Learners and Learning* 202
5.4.2 Pedagogic episodes in Units 2 and 3 of *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2* 212

5.4.3 A pedagogic episode from Unit 2 in *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)* 220
5.4.4 The dominant 'message' in the pedagogic episodes 223
5.5 Scaffolding the reading of experts' texts 223
5.5.1 An example of scaffolded reading from *Learners and Learning,* Section Four 224
5.5.2 An example of scaffolded reading from *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT), Unit 2* 232
5.5.3 An example of scaffolded reading from *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2* 237
5.5.4 Contrasting approaches to scaffolding and to the constitution of the reading Subject 240
5.6 Designers and readers as innovative users of mediational means 241

Chapter Six: Using a range of semiotic resources to mediate knowledge and support learning 243

6.1 Introduction 243
6. 2 Uncovering the covers 244
6.2.1 The covers of *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* 247
6.2.2 The covers of *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 1* 252
6.2.3 The covers of *Learners and Learning* 257
6.2.4 Teacher and learner identities 'offered' in the cover designs 262
6.3 Access devices 264
6.3.1 Icons 265
6.3.1.1 Icons in the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo 265
6.3.1.2 Icons in *Learners and Learning* 268
6.3.1.3 The absence of icons in *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* 270
6.3.2 Other margin texts 270
6.3.2.1 Margin texts in *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2* 271
6.3.2.2 Margin texts in *Learners and Learning* 272
6.3.2.3 Margin texts in *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* 275
6. 4 Images on the page: drawings, photographs and diagrams 276
6.4.1 Photographs and drawings in Units 3 and 4 of *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2* 278
6.4.2 Drawings and diagrams in *Learners and Learning,* Section Four 283
6.4.3 Possible contribution of images on the page to the mediation of knowledge(s) and to the constitution of reader subjectivity/ies 290
6.5 Inscriptions on the page 291
6.6 Subject positions offered by the designers' selection and use of a range of semiotic resources 294

Chapter Seven: The affordances of critical pedagogic analysis for understanding how designers of teacher education materials mediate knowledge(s) and constitute readers' subjectivities 297

7.1 Introduction 297
7.2 Summary of findings from a critical pedagogic analysis of three sets of teacher education materials 299
7.2.1 The affordances of CPA for understanding the constitution of particular identities for readers – as students and as teachers 299

7.2.2 The affordances of CPA for understanding the 'versioning potential' of local materials for regional or global teacher education programmes 304
7.3 The affordances of CPA for evaluating and redesigning the researcher's materials 307
7.3.1 Content selections in *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching,* Unit Three: Literacy practices inside and outside the classroom 307
7.3.2 Organisational design of Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching 310
7.3.3 Mediation through activities, pedagogic episodes and scaffolded readings in Unit Three of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching* 312
7.3.4 Mediation through the use of a range of semiotic resources in *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching* 314
7.3.5 Insights that could inform a redesign of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching* 315
7.4 What a critical pedagogic analysis cannot achieve 317
7.5 Further research 317
7.6 Conclusion 318

Reference List 319

List of Figures

Figure 4.1 A model for conceptualising teachers' professional knowledge, with examples from a group of English teachers 107

Figure 4.2 A conceptualisation of a knowledge base for teaching 109

Figure 6.1 Front Cover: *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* 249

Figure 6.2 Back Cover: *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* 250

Figure 6.3 Front Cover: *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 1* 254

Figure 6.4 Back Cover: *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 1* 255

Figure 6.5 Front Cover: *Learners and Learning* 259

Figure 6.6 Back Cover: *Learners and Learning* 260

Figure 6.7 Icons used in the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo 266

Figure 6.8 Icons used in *Learners and Learning* 268

Figure 6.9 Learning to study better (*Learners and Learning*) 275

Figure 6.10 Zozo Figlan drawing 280

Figure 6.11 Mrs Zenani photograph 280

Figure 6.12 Talking head 284

Figure 6.13 The 'ideal' literate subject 285

Figure 6.14 Towards a definition of reading 286

Figure 6.15 The road to reading pleasure 288

List of Tables

Table 2.1	Contrasting orientations to pedagogy identified by Canagarajah (1999)	52
Table 2.2	Four ways to view identity	70
Table 3.1	Changes in school textbook design	95
Table 4.1	Designers' content choices for a section or unit on Reading	114
Table 4.2 :	Knowledge-Practice relationships in three conceptions of teacher learning	141
Table 5.1	Explanation of the linguistic features discussed in this study	169
Table 5.2	A classification by purpose(s) and model(s) of activities in *Learners and Learning,* Section Four, 'Text as a context for learning'	185
Table 5.3	A classification by purpose(s) and model(s) of activities in *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT),* Unit 2, 'Teaching Reading'	186
Table 5.4	A classification by purpose(s) and model(s) of activities in *Language*, *Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2, A Whole Language Approach*, Unit 3 'Experiencing a Whole Language Approach' and Unit 4 'Introducing a Literature-based Whole Language Approach in a Primary Classroom'	187
Table 6.1	The information structure of a vertical / horizontal page	246
Table 6.2	Identities foregrounded, backgrounded or absent in three sets of cover designs	263
Table 6.3	Photographs, drawings and diagrams in sections of the materials in which 'Reading' is a focus	277
Table 6.4	Inscriptions on the page	292
Table 7.1	Elements of a knowledge base for teaching in *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching,* Unit Three: Literacy practices inside and outside the classroom	308
Table 7.2	A classification by purpose(s) and model(s) of activities in Unit 3 of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching*	312

List of Textboxes

Textbox 4.1	Introductory questions about schooling and literacy	116
Textbox 4.2	Extracts from the introduction to four readings on 'Reading and schooling' in the *Learners and Learning Reader*	117
Textbox 4.3	Locating Paolo Freire in a South African context	118
Textbox 4.4	A pre-reading activity	119
Textbox 4.5	A post-reading activity	120
Textbox 4.6	Positioning teachers to value textbooks and to use them 'well'	121
Textbox 4.7	Positioning readers to follow instructions	122
Textbox 4.8	Constituting readers simultaneously as learners and teachers	123
Textbox 4.9	One of the aims of the *Study of Education* series	124
Textbox 4.10	Questions to guide journal writing	126
Textbox 4.11	Positioning teachers to value traditional culture and its custodians	127
Textbox 4.12	First part of the introduction to a whole language approach, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*	129
Textbox 4.13	The value of surveying a textbook	130
Textbox 4.14	Guidance for reflective reading and writing	131
Textbox 4.15	Further guidance for active, reflective reading	132
Textbox 4.16	Positioning teachers to value an understanding of 'the reading process'	132
Textbox 4.17	Positioning teachers as experienced practitioners	133
Textbox 4.18	Making a textbook 'accessible' to learners	134
Textbox 4.19	Part of the introduction to *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)*	135
Textbox 4.20	An explanation of metacognition	136
Textbox 4.21	Deficit constructions of literacy in the home	137
Textbox 4.22	Environmental print in rural contexts	138

Textbox 4.23	Mapping the content of *Learners and Learning*	147
Textbox 4.24	An alternative mapping of the content of *Learners and Learning*	148
Textbox 4.25	Teachers constituted as 'thinkers'	149
Textbox 4.26	Explanation of key organisational strategies used in the University of Fort Hare programme	151
Textbox 4.27	Introduction to Umthamo 3	154
Textbox 4.28	Conclusion to Umthamo 3	155
Textbox 4.29	Learning outcomes for the LILT module	158
Textbox 4.30	Explaining the limitations of 'knowledge on the page' and constructing teachers as active knowledge makers	159
Textbox 4.31	Core questions which frame the LILT module	160
Textbox 4.32	A statement about the role of 'action' in learning	163
Textbox 5.1	The importance of active learning	174
Textbox 5.2	How to develop a depth of understanding	175
Textbox 5.3	How to listen to the audiotape	175
Textbox 5.4	Learning as an active, non-linear process	178
Textbox 5.5	Using a workbook to reflect on learning	179
Textbox 5.6	Instructions for journal writing	181
Textbox 5.7	Instructions for a Key Activity	182
Textbox 5.8	*Learners and Learning, '* More half-truths to think through'	189
Textbox 5.9	*Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*, Activity 25: Sources of reading problems	192
Textbox 5.10	Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2, Activity 7: Introducing a literature-based whole language approach in the classroom	197
Textbox 5.11	*Learners and Learning:* The story of a struggling reader	204
Textbox 5.12	*Learners and Learning*: Personal reflections on reading	206
Textbox 5.13	*Learners and Learning*: Revisiting a learners' difficulties with reading	208

Textbox 5.14 *Learners and Learning*: a concluding comment on the story of a struggling reader 209

Textbox 5.15 *Learners and Learning*: Learners' responses to a teacher's question 210

Textbox 5.16 *Learners and Learning*: Levels of meaning 211

Textbox 5.17 Tillie Tshangela's experience of the benefits of project-based learning 212

Textbox 5.18 *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*: The introduction to a narrative about story collecting 216

Textbox 5.19 Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2 The intsomi collecting process 217

Textbox 5.20 Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2: The importance of collecting a whole story and of writing it in two languages 219

Textbox 5.21 *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*: A home-school reading Project 221

Textbox 5.22 *Learners and Learning*, Activity 35: Reading and responding to Bettelheim and Zelan's 'The magic of reading' 225

Textbox 5.23 *Learners and Learning*, Feedback on aspects of Activity 35 228

Textbox 5.24 *Learners and Learning, Reader*, The final paragraphs, with annotation, of the extract from Bettelheim and Zelan 231

Textbox 5.25 Pre-reading questions in preparation for the Jackson text 233

Textbox 5.26 Scaffolding readings of the Jackson text 234

Textbox 5.27 *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, Activity 9: The introduction to a reading and the first paragraphs of the extract 238

Textbox 5.28 Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2: The conclusion to the umthamo 239

Textbox 6.1 Explanation of the purpose of the icons in the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo 267

Textbox 6.2 Introducing the icon for 'Thinking activities' in *Learners and Learning* 269

Textbox 6.3 A margin note next to instructions for an information-sharing activity (*Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2)* 271

Textbox 6.4 A margin note next to instructions for a story development activity (*Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2)* 271

Textbox 6.5	A margin note next to instructions for sharing with learners the beginning of a story (*Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2)*	272
Textbox 6.6	Using a grammatical metaphor in a margin text to direct learning (*Learners and Learning)*	273
Textbox 6.7	Combining grammatical metaphor and polite request to direct learning (*Learners and Learning*)	274
Textbox 6.8	Scaffolding a 'compare and contrast' activity *(Learners and Learning)*	274
Textbox 6.9	The placement and purpose of word glosses (*Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT))*	276
Textbox 6.10	The first two paragraphs of the introduction to Umthamo 2	282
Textbox 6.11	The mind-expanding possibilities of books	286
Textbox 6.12	An activity based on 'The Road to Reading Pleasure'	289
Textbox 6.13	Constituting ideal identities for readers of the *LILT* materials	291

Volume II Appendices

Appendix 1 Descriptors attached to the term 'pedagogy'

Appendix 2 Extracts from the NADEOSA Quality Criteria for Distance Education in South Africa (2005): Criterion 4 Course design; Criterion 5 Course Materials; Criterion 7 Learner Support

Appendix 3 *Learners and Learning:* front cover, table of contents, extracts from the general introduction, Section Four of the *Learning Guide,* reading 15 in the *Reader*

Appendix 4 *Language, Literacy and Communication*: front cover, table of contents and full text of *Umthamo 2*

Appendix 5 *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*: front cover, table of contents, general introduction, Unit 2 of the *Learning Guide,* Chapter 4 of the *Reader*

Appendix 6 *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching*: front cover, table of contents, general introduction, sections 3.1 to 3.5 of Unit 3

Appendix 7 An example of material redesigned in response to a critical pedagogic analysis of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching*, Unit 3

Publications and Presentations emanating from this research

Conference Presentations

Reed, Y. (2003). Using students as informants in the re-designing process: possibilities and constraints. Paper presented at the NADEOSA Conference, Johannesburg, August 2003.

Reed, Y. (2005). Constituting language teachers' subjectivities in South African distance education texts: the role of cover designs. Paper presented at the 14th World Congress of Applied Linguistics, Madison, Wisconsin, August 2005.

Reed, Y. (2006). Taking rural teachers into account: designing 'safe houses' and 'contact zones' in distance education materials. Paper presented at the second KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Teacher Development Conference, 'Developing Teachers for Rural Education', Edgewood Campus, University of KwaZulu-Natal, February 2006.

Reed, Y. (2006). Mediating knowledge and constituting subjectivities in South African teacher education materials. Paper presented at the AARE Conference, 'Engaging Pedagogies', University of Adelaide, November 2006.

Reed, Y. (2008). Designing teacher education materials: designing teachers? Paper presented at Kenton Ko Thabeng Tsa Mogala, annual conference of the Kenton Education Association, Magaliesberg Conference Centre, October 2008.

Reed, Y. (2009). Designing reading teachers. Paper presented at the Reading Association of South Africa (RASA) Conference, University of the Witwatersrand, October 2009.

Publications

Reed, Y. (2005). Using students as informants in redesigning distance learning materials: possibilities and constraints, *Open Learning, 20*(3), pp. 265-275.

Reed, Y. (2006). Mediating knowledge and constituting subjectivities in South African teacher education materials. Australian Association for Research in Education (AARE) 2006 International Education Research Conference Proceedings: 'Engaging Pedagogies'. CD version: ISSN 1324-9320; WWW version ISSN 1324-9339

Reed, Y. (2008). Making meanings with cover designs. *Per Linguam, 24*(2), pp. 45-61.

Reed, Y. (2009). A conceptual framework for analysing the selection and organisation of content in teacher education materials. *Journal of Education*, (49) pp. 173-194.

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introducing the study: background; aims; rationale; research questions
1.2 Schooling and teacher education in South Africa, prior to 1994
1.3 Schooling and teacher education in South Africa, post 1994
1.4 Global and local trends in distance education
1.5 Global and local distance education programmes for teacher education
1.6 The contexts of design, production and reception of the teacher education materials analysed in this study
1.7 Thesis chapter titles

1.1 Introducing the study: background; aims; rationale; research questions

My interest in the design and production of materials for distance education in general, and for teacher education programmes in particular, began in 1995 when I participated in a review of distance education materials for the National Audit of Teacher Education in South Africa[1]. As explained later in this chapter (section 1.5), the reviewers were, for the most part, critical of the designers' content selections and pedagogy and of their constructions of teachers – unsurprising in view of the legacy of apartheid education. In the latter part of the same year I joined a team at the University of the Witwatersrand who were tasked with designing the first distance learning materials for teacher education produced by the university. Though our materials for the *Further Diploma in English Language Teaching* won the inaugural NADEOSA[2] award for excellence, classroom-based research into teachers' take-up from the courses in which these materials were located,[3] suggested that this take-up was uneven. The reasons for this included:

- our underestimation of the diversity of teachers' conceptual knowledge-in-practice (Adler, Slonimsky & Reed, 2002);

[1] This review was commissioned by the national Department of Education.
[2] National Association of Distance Education Organisations of South Africa
[3] In addition to studying from printed course books, in-service teachers enrolled in the FDE programme participated in residential sessions at the university during school holidays.

- our inadequate knowledge of the contexts in which they worked (Adler, Slonimsky & Reed, 2002);
- insufficient understanding of the differences among the 'figured worlds' (Bartlett & Holland, 2002; Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner & Cain, 1998) of the teachers and between their 'figured worlds' and those of the designers[4].

In 2002 I planned to redesign the materials for *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching* (Reed, 1996) by working with teachers who had successfully completed this module while studying for the Further Diploma in English Language Teaching. The project was an instructive failure:

> Overall the 'gap', or more accurately the 'chasm' between my expectations of what I would learn from the teachers and what they told me, could be summarised in the following points:
>
> - I expected teacher graduates to offer critical readings of the text, but most did not.
> - I hoped the teachers would imagine new possibilities for the text, but they made very few suggestions for substantive changes.
> - I expected the teachers to reveal details about their lifeworlds (schools, classrooms, homes, communities) but they were almost silent about themselves.
> - For the most part the teacher graduates chose to write and speak as 'satisfied customers', praising the text and revealing little about any difficulties or frustrations they may have had in using it for their studies or for their work in classrooms.
> - The anticipated wealth of information to use in redesigning the text was not forthcoming. (Reed, 2005, p. 270)

In the article from which this quotation is taken I argue that I was naïve in my positioning of these teachers as 'empowered' respondents who would give me access to their figured worlds, who would be critical of weaknesses in the text and who would author alternatives:

> I had not structured the research in a way that gave teachers access to and control of the 'liberating literacy' (a new Discourse in Gee's terms) that I expected them to use and in addition I did not invite them to code-switch between English and their primary languages when responding to the questions. Even had I done so, the histories of

[4] Holland and her research colleagues define a figured world as a socially produced and culturally constructed "realm of interpretation in which a particular set of characters and actors are recognized, significance is assigned to certain acts, and particular outcomes are valued over others" (Holland et al, 1998, p. 52).

> these teachers in apartheid South Africa may have made it difficult for them to contest the perceived expertise of a university academic. (Reed, 2005, p. 273)

In an attempt to find an alternative way of improving my practice as a materials designer, this study aims to:

(i) develop a framework and identify tools for a critical pedagogic analysis of the mediation of knowledge(s) in teacher education materials;
(ii) use the framework and tools to understand how knowledge is mediated and what subject positions are offered to readers as students and to readers as teachers, by the designers of three sets of South African teacher education materials;
(iii) reflect critically on the potential of the framework and tools to inform the design and the evaluation of materials for teacher education.

In South Africa, more teachers are enrolled in distance education than in 'contact' programmes, when studying for both initial and professional development qualifications (Glennie, 2003). Despite a recommendation from the Department of Education that ICTs (Information and Communications Technologies) be "wisely used" in teacher education programmes (Department of Education, 2006, p. 15), print is still the most widely used medium for mediating the distance between teacher-educators and learner-teachers[5] in pre-service teacher preparation programmes or between teacher educators and teacher-learners in in-service or continuing professional development programmes[6].

At the centre of this thesis is the challenge of providing initial and continuing professional development, through distance education, for teachers whose experiences of schooling and teacher education have their roots in South Africa's apartheid past. Ensor (2004) suggests that teacher education may currently enjoy a greater significance in South Africa (and in other developing countries) than in Britain,

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[5] See page 6 for a brief discussion of the terms 'learner-teacher' and 'teacher-learner'.
[6] Some use is now being made of the internet to disseminate open educational resources which teacher educators can download and adapt in designing print materials.

Europe and the United States because, for the first time, an agenda has been put in place to support the provision of mass schooling. For teacher education, as for the entire higher education sector, one of the challenges is "to redress past inequalities and to transform the higher education system to serve a new social order, to meet pressing national needs, and to respond to new realities and opportunities". (National Commission on Higher Education, 1996, p. 7)

Registering for a programme of study is likely to open up new possibilities for pre-service and in-service teachers' ongoing "process of becoming" (Hall, 1996, p. 4) within this new social order. However, by taking this action, teachers also "symbolically submit to their positioning, disciplining and shaping by the subjectivities projected in the curriculum and the pedagogy" (Doherty, 2005, p. 3). Given the centrality of printed course materials in South African teacher education programmes, the focus of analysis in this study is the *design* of selected materials and the subject positions offered to readers by such designing. In view of this focus, it is important to define the concept of design. I find most generative for this study the definition formulated by Bezemer and Kress:

> Design is the practice where modes, media, frames, and sites of display on the one hand, and rhetorical purposes, the designer's interests and the characteristics of the audience on the other are brought into coherence with each other. From the designer's perspective, design is the (intermediary) process of giving shape to the interests, purposes, and intentions of the rhetor in relation to the semiotic resources available for realizing /materializing these purposes as apt materials, complex signs, texts for the assumed characteristics of a specific audience. (2008a, p. 9)

Also valuable for this study are two observations made by Janks (2010) about 'design'. Firstly, she comments on the usefulness of the word:

> De*sign* is a useful word to talk about the production of texts that use multiple *sign* systems. Rede*sign* necessitates re-*sign*-ing. (Janks, 2010, p. 18)

Secondly, she suggests that texts have designs on readers, listeners or viewers:

> They entice us into their way of seeing and understanding the world – into their versions of reality. Every text is just one set of perspectives on the world, a representation of it: language, together with other signs, works to construct reality. This is as true of nonfiction as it is of fiction. (Janks, 2010, p. 61)

In their work on textbook designs Bezemer and Kress note that the category of textbook designer includes "authors as well as illustrators, editors as well as typesetters, and other professionals as well" (2008b, p. 1). They suggest that together these professionals "operate as an ensemble" as do their contributions to an overall design (2008b, p. 1). As will be outlined in section 1.6, similar ensembles operate in the designing of teacher education materials in South Africa.

It is also important to acknowledge that *design* includes the notion of productive power which Janks defines as "the ability to harness the multiplicity of semiotic systems across diverse cultural locations to challenge and change existing discourses" (2010, p. 25). The extent to which the designers of the teacher education materials selected for this study attempt to challenge and change existing teaching and learning discourses and to offer opportunities for further redesigning (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000) to their readers, is examined as one aspect of a critical pedagogic analysis of the selected materials.

Much of the literature in the broad field of education theory and practices appears to take for granted that there is consensus on the meaning(s) of pedagogy and to leave this concept unexamined. For example, as her contribution to a book on understandings of literacy, Levine (1992) wrote a chapter with the title *Pedagogy: the case of the missing concept*. The thirteen quality criteria for distance education in South Africa, published by the National Association of Distance Education Organisations of South Africa in 2005, make no specific reference to pedagogy, though some of the 212 elements of these criteria address pedagogic concerns[7].

Writers who discuss what they hope pedagogy can accomplish, or who are critics of these aspirational texts, have tended to attach a range of nouns or adjectives to the word. The list of examples in Appendix 1 begins with Freire's 'radical pedagogy' and 'pedagogy of the oppressed' (1968/1970) and concludes with Jansen's 'post-conflict pedagogy' (2009). It includes both frequently quoted concepts such as Bernstein's

[7] These criteria are listed in Welch & Reed (2005).

‘explicit pedagogy’ and ‘competence and performance’ pedagogies (1996) and more unusual ones such as ‘pedagogies of indifference’ (Lima, 2000; Lingard, 2006), ‘ambulatory pedagogy’ (Brenner & Andrew, 2006) and ‘capability pedagogies’ (Walker, 2008). However, a number of writers in the field of educational theory and practice, including some of those listed above and in Appendix 1, have attempted to understand the concept itself. Their work contributes to the theoretical framework of this study which is discussed in Chapter Two and to the formulation of the main research questions to be addressed in a critical pedagogic analysis of selected distance learning materials for teacher education.

The analysis which is at the heart of this study should not be considered as synonymous with ‘critical pedagogy’. Rather, as will be explained in Chapter Three, it is critical in its orientation to the analysis of the pedagogy / ies evident in teacher education materials**.** It is framed by three broad questions:

- What counts as knowledge for teacher education?
- How do designers of distance learning materials for teacher education mediate knowledge(s)?
- What subject positions are constituted for readers as students and as teachers when designers make particular knowledge selections and mediate knowledge in particular ways?

The fourth question addressed in the study is a methodological one:

- What kind of conceptual framework and what kinds of tools could enable a textual analysis to respond to the three questions listed above?

With reference to the third of the four questions, some writers on teacher education (e.g. Devereux and Amos, 2005; Mays, 2005) use the hyphenated term ‘teacher-learner’ to refer to teachers who have enrolled in professional development or ‘in-service’ programmes in order to distinguish these students from the ‘learner-teacher’

enrolled in initial or 'pre-service' teacher education programmes[8]. While I use these shorthand descriptors in this study, I suggest that designers of materials for in-service professional development programmes may wittingly or unwittingly construct an imagined readership of 'teacher-learners' as 'learner-teachers' and equally that designers of materials for pre-service programmes may shift between constructions of 'learner-teacher' and 'teacher-learner'. Such constructions may influence how the materials are read and 'taken up'.

Moletsane (2003) argues that in South Africa, teacher educators' lack of focus on factors that shape the identities of teachers has limited the impact of teacher education programmes which aim to improve teaching practices in schools. She uses the umbrella term 'student teachers' to refer to both learner-teachers and teacher-learners in her argument that teacher education programmes need to recognize and respond to these teachers' diverse 'life histories':

> … curriculum transformation needs to develop programmes that aim to address all kinds of identities that student teachers bring if it is to contribute ultimately to the development of an effective teaching force. (Moletsane, 2003, p. 325)

In her longitudinal case study of immigrant women learning English in Canada, Norton (2000) argues that it is important to consider the 'investment' of these women in language learning:

> …when language learners speak, they are not only exchanging information with target language speakers, but they are constantly organizing and reorganizing a sense of who they are and how they relate to the social world. Thus an investment in a target language is also an investment in a learner's own identity, an identity which is constantly changing across time and space. (Norton, 2000, p. 10-11)

Like Moletsane I am interested in how readers' identities as students and as teachers are constituted in the designs of teacher education materials and programmes. Like Norton, I believe that 'identity investment' is an important factor in learning and argue that it is equally important in the enactment of professional practices. Such

[8] This use of the term 'teacher-learner' is different from Freire's (1970) use of the terms 'teacher-student' and 'students-teacher' which he used to describe situations in which teachers and students learn from one another in dialogue.

investment may be either encouraged or discouraged by the identity positions constituted in distance learning materials for teacher education.

Section 1.2 of this chapter provides an overview of apartheid era schooling and teacher education policies and practices which are likely to have impacted on the 'life histories' of learner-teachers and teacher-learners (and also on materials designers). This is followed in section 1.3 by an account of aspects of the re-visioning of education policy and practice which began around 1990 (Jansen, 1999; Parker, 2003), and which is still underway[9]. As all of the teacher education materials to be analysed were designed and produced between 1999 and 2001, it is new education policy and its implementation during these years that is the focus of this account. The transformation of distance education programmes for teacher education is part of a complex process of systemic change in education.

Section 1.4 outlines global and local trends in distance education and section 1.5 briefly sketches trends in distance education programmes for teacher education. Section 1.6 provides contextual information in regard to the design, production and reception of the materials that are the focus of this study. The chapter concludes with a list of the titles of the chapters to follow.

1.2 Schooling and teacher education in South Africa prior to 1994

> Nowhere has the effect of colonialism and apartheid been more devastating than in the field of education. …apartheid education and its aftermath of resistance destroyed the culture of learning in large sections of our communities. (Glennie, 1996, p. 21-22)

Shulman (1987) observes that one of the challenges faced by teacher educators is that of "overcoming" the long "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975) that students have completed during their school days and programmes of undergraduate study.

[9] For example, in July 2009 the Minister of Education commissioned an investigation into "the nature of the challenges and problems experienced in the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement and to develop a set of recommendations designed to improve the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement" (Department of Education, 2009, p. 5).

They are likely to have accumulated models of teaching and learning that are deeply entrenched. This observation has particular significance in South Africa. In an historical overview of both school and teacher education in South Africa, Welch states that each was characterized for a very long time by “[S]egregation, fragmentation, authoritarian and bureaucratic control of the curriculum, institutions and governance, inefficiency and inequity” (2002, p. 18).

Segregated schooling and the unequal allocation of resources pre-date the period of ‘grand apartheid’ with education already organized according to four separate schooling systems for ‘white’, ‘Indian’, ‘coloured’ and ‘native’ learners in the first two decades of the twentieth century. Prior to the introduction of the Bantu Education Act in 1953, “a key instrument in the imposition of separate development policies” (Kraak, 1999, p. 23), there were no dedicated teacher education institutions for Africans (Sayed, 2004; Welch, 2002). “[S]econdary schooling *was* teacher education” (Welch, 2002, p. 19). When the bantustan or ‘homelands’ policy took root, each of the ‘independent’ bantustans / homelands took control of school and teacher education in its own area. By the 1960s, teacher education colleges “were segregated along the lines of race and ethnicity, creating partial, multiple and separate pathways to teacher education” and a fragmented teacher education system determined “whether individuals were trained, how they were trained and where they were posted” (Sayed, 2004, p. 247). As noted by Parker “[B]uilding colleges of education to train its ‘own’ teachers quickly became a source of status and patronage for the homelands” (2003, p. 20). The mushrooming of these colleges reached a peak of approximately 120 in 1994. After the Department of Education and Training (DET) was established in 1979, some colleges for African student teachers were established outside the bantustans. However, the autonomy of these institutions was severely restricted. The washback effect from examinations set and marked by DET examiners encouraged conformity with a narrow curriculum and limited range of textbooks (Welch & Gultig, 2002).

Moll, Welch and Naidoo (2004) describe apartheid-era teacher education as based on a costing model that resulted in large class tuition in school teaching subjects and minimal supervision and support for practice teaching for the majority of the country's pre-service teachers. The exceptions were the trainee teachers in the well-resourced colleges for 'white' students. These colleges catered separately for English and Afrikaans speaking student teachers with the latter receiving an education that was similar in one respect to that offered in the colleges for 'black' students: it was underpinned by the educational philosophy of fundamental pedagogics. Welch offers a succinct account of the way in which fundamental pedagogics positioned teachers and learners:

> This philosophy claimed to arrive at a set of immutable truths about education – divorced from the socio-political context of education. In this way it avoided a critique of the ideology which informed its own world view. It positioned both teacher and learner as passive subjects, and the child as a product of original sin needing to be led to enlightenment by the wiser pedagogicians. (Welch, 2002, p. 20)

According to Baxen and Soudien (1999) one effect of fundamental pedagogics was that teachers' professional identities were distorted, leaving them "without the intellectual resources to critically assess their professional practice" (1999, p. 132).

These bleak descriptions of school and teacher education in the apartheid era have been included in the contextual background to this study to illustrate the kinds of learning experiences that were available to children in schools and to adults in teacher education programmes. Designers of materials for both pre-service and in-service teacher education programmes in the post-apartheid era are designing for readers with very different experiences of apartheid education, experiences which are likely to have resulted in the construction of very different professional identities. Samuel (2008) describes one of these differences:

> Engagement with political resistance was second nature to many Black teachers who were on the receiving end of apartheid's inequities. On the contrary, their White counterparts, who were relatively cocooned from the direct inequities through their privileged schooling system, interpreted the public political insurrections of Black teachers as "unprofessional". (Samuel, 2008, p. 8)

Reflection on my experiences of working in formal and non-formal teacher education programmes in the apartheid and post-apartheid eras leads me to agree with Samuel (2008) that in the apartheid years, the professional focus of many white teachers (and perhaps of some Indian and coloured teachers) was on 'in-classroom' and 'in-school activities', independent of the social and political struggle and that the divide between teachers who belong to professional associations and those who belong to teacher unions has persisted largely along racial lines in post-apartheid South Africa. Teachers' differing conceptualisations of what constitutes their professional identity/ies add to the challenges of designing teacher education materials to be used by South Africa's pre-service and in-service teachers in the post-apartheid era.

Not only did apartheid schooling and teacher education impact on teachers' professional identities, it also 'under-prepared' [10] many of them for tertiary study. In reporting on an academic literacy intervention undertaken at the University of Natal (now the University of KwaZulu-Natal) in the early 1990s, Craig and Kernoff identify "inadequate mediation into literacy and the paucity of opportunity to engage with printed material" as factors contributing to the 'under-preparedness' for university study experienced by some students (1995, p. 24). In her detailed and critical review of language syllabus documents and Matriculation examination papers in KwaZulu-Natal (1969 to 2000), Prinsloo (2002) shows how apartheid-era schooling severely limited opportunities for critical reading and for writing in a range of genres for all learners, but most of all for African learners. In similar vein, Slonimsky and Shalem argue that the 'under-preparedness' of many students for engaging with the forms of learning and of independent thought required in tertiary study, stems from "authoritarian and unsystematic knowledge practices in an authoritarian school system" (2004, p. 81). In a review of research into teaching practices in urban and rural schools in KwaZulu-Natal, Harley and Timm (1999) found that rural teachers in this

[10] I place this term between inverted commas because I agree with Steinberg and Slonimsky that whether or not a student is under-prepared is "a relative construct, which depends on the expectations and the assumed Zone of Proximal Development of the specific educational context" (Steinberg & Slonimsky, 2004, p. 105).

province had very low English literacy levels which made reading and learning from texts extremely difficult and that both urban and rural teachers lacked capacity to be 'reflective practitioners'. In their response to Harley and Timm, Welch and Gultig make the following observation:

> This research points strongly to the need for developing programmes that move teacher-learners from where they currently are – struggling to read, predisposed to rote learn, teaching in uncritical and rather authoritarian ways, and unable to reflect at any meaningful level – to positions in which they can operate with greater ease at a metacognitive level. (2002, p. 28)

One of the challenges for in-service teacher education since 1994 has been to find ways of providing professional development opportunities for teachers with very different experiences of pre-service teacher education (Cross & Chisholm, 1990; Chisholm, 2010) and of school curricula and examinations (Prinsloo, 2002). Given the continued inequalities in education at school level that are a legacy of apartheid education, pre-service providers face a similar challenge. As Ensor observes:

> In carrying out its task, teacher education faces complex challenges. Of particular significance in South Africa is the chasm that often exists between the school experiences of student teachers, and the notions of 'best practice' incorporated within government policy and presented on initial and in-service teacher education programmes. Most black student teachers, for example, have emerged from schools characterised by authoritarian relations and rote learning, if pedagogy in these schools has not broken down altogether. This school experience is very different from the notions of 'best practice' into which they are to be inducted. This places a particular responsibility on initial and in-service providers. (Ensor, 2004, p. 218)

The responsibility and the challenge are arguably greater when in-service or pre-service programmes are offered primarily through distance learning materials rather than in the lecture or tutorial room. Designers of distance learning materials can only hypothesize what it is that their students already know and what they have not had opportunities to learn or experience.

In the post-apartheid education literature there is a high degree of consensus among writers that change in teacher education was, and continues to be, both necessary and very complex (e.g. Adler, 2002; Baxen & Soudien, 1999; Chisholm, 2004; Ensor, 2004;

Harley & Parker, 1999; Harley & Wedekind, 2004; Hemson, 2006; Jansen & Christie, 1999; Johnson, Monk & Hodges, 2000; Papier, 2008; Parker, 2003; Sayed, 2004; Welch, 2002). Some of the reasons for the complexity of the task are outlined in section 1.3.

1.3 Schooling and teacher education, post 1994

> The policy-makers for and the educators of, South Africa's teachers face a daunting task – to transform the identities and roles of teachers. (Harley & Parker, 1999, p. 198)

I agree with Harley and Parker that such 'transformation' is a daunting task and argue that the reasons why it is so include the following:

- The specification of norms and standards for teacher education, firstly as a discussion document (Department of Education, 1997a) and then as policy (DoE, 1998a; 2000). The *Norms and Standards for Educators* (DoE, 1998a; 2000) specifies seven roles for teachers: learning mediators; interpreters and designers of learning programmes; leaders; administrators and managers; players of pastoral and citizenship roles in the community; learning area specialists; scholars, researchers and life-long learners. Morrow (2007a) argues that by defining teaching as if it is a name for the roles and responsibilities of teachers employed in the schooling system, the *Norms and Standards* document "generates an understanding of teachers as civil servants rather than as members of a profession" and "inflates the work of school teachers". In his view it also "forecloses on the possibility of other ways of teaching" (2007, p. 3). As pointed out by Parker and Deacon (undated) the Norms and Standards document provides "little description of pacing, sequencing, or progression, or of appropriate depths of content knowledge and cognitive processes" (n.d. p. 6).
- The relocation of teacher education to universities which also "shifted teacher education from a provincial to a national competency" (Sayed, 2004, p. 248). In 1994 teacher education was provided by 18 education departments, 32 'autonomous' universities and technikons and over 120 colleges of education.

By 2002 the majority of the colleges had been closed and the remainder 'incorporated' into a university or in a very few instances ear-marked for development as 'multi-site institutions'.

- The need for universities to reorient their own teacher education staff at the same time as they have needed to induct pre-service teachers into the new curriculum (for both schooling and teacher education) and provide in-service support for teachers already in the school system. Papier (2008) has investigated how 'education academics' in South Africa construct curricula for initial teacher preparation in the light of official policy requirements aimed at education transformation. Using data from a case study of practices at three institutions, she argues that there are no assurances that changed teacher education policies will result in changed teacher education practices because of the "multiple and mediating institutional contexts in which teacher education takes place", in each of which there are "deeply ingrained histories, ideologies, traditions and identities" (Papier, 2008, p. 23).
- The loss to the education system of teachers who opted for the voluntary severance packages that were part of the teacher rationalization policy introduced in 1996. Jansen and Taylor suggest that "the majority of those opting for retrenchment were teachers with relatively high levels of skills and experience who were more likely to find employment elsewhere" (2003, p. 31). Vally and Tleane argue that in addition to "the departure of many committed educators", other negative consequences of the rationalization policy included "job insecurity, lack of enthusiasm and low morale among teachers" (2001, p. 178).
- Rapid school curriculum change. Curriculum 2005 (phased in from 1998) and its successor, the National Curriculum Statement (phased in from 2003) are outcomes-based, with the emphasis in grades 1 to 9 on learning areas rather than discrete subjects. Sayed sums up the key epistemological change as a shift to "a focus on learner-centred approaches, identifying different types of

competencies that learners are expected to achieve, and the different roles that educators are expected to play" (2004, p. 257).

- In some schools, greatly increased learner diversity which encompasses racial, class, religious, physical and other differences (Hemson, 2006).
- New discourses in school curricula and in teacher education which have been widely criticized as unnecessarily complex and confusing. In many instances this complex "language of innovation" (Jansen, 1999) is available only in English or Afrikaans – additional languages for the majority of South Africa's teachers.
- A new curriculum "put in place in top-down ways that strongly resemble the imposition of apartheid curricula", with, in many instances, insufficient in-service support (Christie, 1999, p. 283) and a failure to recognize the racial, cultural and socio-economic diversity of South Africa's teachers and learners. Baxen and Soudien call for curriculum making that is "more sensitive to the multiplicity of differences" that have animated South Africa's history:

  > What is being foreclosed in the consensual language of OBE are the more complex manifestations of difference and inequality, therefore of equality and equity. (1999, p. 141)

In late 1998 and early 1999, under the auspices of the President's Education Initiative, 35 studies "investigated the teaching and learning of reading, mathematics, science, geography and English; the use of progressive pedagogies; the deployment of materials; assessment practices; school management; and language issues in over 300 schools of all types in most regions of the country" (Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999, p. 229). While Taylor and Vinjevold recognise that "these studies can in no scientific sense be said to represent what happens in the schooling sector as a whole" (1999, p. 229), they argue that the convergence of key findings across the studies is suggestive of conditions in schools across the country. These findings have important implications for pre-service and in-service, contact and distance learning / mixed-mode teacher education programmes. Taylor and Vinjevold consider the most definite point of convergence across the PEI studies to be "teachers' poor conceptual knowledge of the subjects they are teaching".   They observe that

> Implementing classroom practices which result in learning which is more effective and intelligent is not a question of ideology or will on the part of teachers. Teachers by and large support the intentions of the new curriculum, but lack the knowledge resources to give effect to these in the classroom …
>
> In the area of curriculum development, teachers observed by the PEI studies do not have the knowledge base either to interpret the broad guidelines of Curriculum 2005 or to ensure that the every-day approach prescribed by the new curriculum will result in learners developing sound conceptual frameworks. …
>
> On the issue of pedagogy, many teachers model the surface forms of learner-centred activities, without apparently understanding the learning theories underlying them, and certainly without using them as a medium for enabling learners to engage with substantive knowledge and skills. (Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999, p. 230)

Harley and Wedekind (2004) cite a number of studies which support Taylor and Vinjevold's claim that the majority of teachers "support the intentions of the new curriculum". These authors argue that this support for Curriculum 2005 "pivots on support for its *political* project" with teachers hoping that the new curriculum will help to achieve equity and redress even when they do not understand what they are expected to do in their classrooms (Harley & Wedekind, 2004, p. 207). Findings from a number of studies conducted across historically advantaged and disadvantaged schools point to what Jansen (2001) has described as the racialised nature of the implementation of the new curriculum in schools. Harley and Wedekind present five 'cameos' of implementation of Curriculum 2005 in very different and unequal school contexts which suggest that "schools and individual teachers have responded to its design features in very different ways" (2004, p. 205). They conclude that "the schools most historically advantaged were flourishing with Curriculum 2005; those most disadvantaged appeared to be floundering" (2004, p.205). Joseph's (2005) study in grade nine classrooms in six suburban and township schools produced similar findings: in the most disadvantaged schools, teacher enthusiasm for the new curriculum was not matched by implementation of the assessment practices outlined in it; in historically advantaged schools, while some teachers were critical of aspects of the new curriculum, there was evidence in learners' portfolio work that these teachers were successfully implementing its requirements.

These authors and others (e.g. Baxen & Soudien, 1999; Christie 1999; Harley & Parker, 1999; Johnson, Monk & Hodges, 2000; Morrow, 2007b) all raise concerns that the new curriculum may be widening, rather than closing the gap between historically advantaged and disadvantaged schools. Of significance for designers of distance education materials for teachers, is Jansen's claim that the new curriculum has displaced teachers and their pedagogy. In an article which poses as problematic the relationship between 'policy images' and the 'personal identities' of teachers (2001, p. 242) he suggests that as teachers have "disappeared" and been replaced in the policy documents by "facilitators", "they have lost ground in terms of symbolic space, physical control and textual authority" (2001, pp. 243-244). They are now required to move physically from the centre to the margins of the classroom, to avoid using corporal punishment and to encourage learners to generate knowledge out of environmental experience rather than from a textbook[11].

Many of the challenges for teacher educators outlined in this section can be summarized in a paragraph from the *National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa* (2006):

> *The apartheid legacy*
> Most currently serving teachers received their professional education and entered teaching when education was an integral part of the apartheid project and organized in racially and ethnically divided sub-systems. The current generation of teachers is the first to experience the new non-racial, democratic transformation of the education system.
>
> Since 1994 they have had to cope with the rationalization of the teaching community into a single national system, the introduction of new curricula, which emphasise greater professional autonomy and require teachers to have new knowledge and applied competences, including the use of new technologies, and radical change in the

[11] The pendulum may be about to swing yet again. According to a recent Department of Education report "[T]he proper and comprehensive use of textbooks was discouraged and undermined by Curriculum 2005, and teachers were encouraged to produce their own materials. Yet both local and international research has shown that the textbook is the most effective tool to ensure consistency, coverage, appropriate pacing and better quality instruction in implementing a curriculum" (Department of Education, 2009, p.9). This statement is followed by the recommendation that the "useful role and benefits of textbooks" be communicated to all teachers and that "each learner from Grade 4 to Grade 12 should have a textbook for each learning area or subject" (Department of Education, 2009, p.9).

> demographic, cultural and linguistic composition of our classrooms. (Department of Education, 2006, p. 6)

The materials analysed in this study were designed at a time of significant change in both teacher education and school curricula in South Africa. They were also designed during a period of debate about the nature and roles of distance education both locally and globally.

1.4 Global and local trends in distance education

'Distance education' is currently a very diverse set of practices with terms such as 'flexible learning', 'distributed learning', 'open and distance learning' (ODL) and 'guided self-study' often being used concurrently or interchangeably to describe these. For example, the African Council for Distance Education (ACDE) lists the first of its "goals and objectives" as being to "[P]romote open and distance learning, flexible and continuing education in Africa" (ACDE, launch brochure, July, 2006). A DFID[12] (2008) paper on Open and Distance Learning states that ODL is "a blanket term for learning systems that offer varying mixes of openness and distance" which contrast with "'conventional' relatively face to face systems" (2008, p.1). While some writers include 'open learning' in their descriptive terms, for others this term is best used to describe a set of principles that should apply to any learning programme (Welch & Glennie, 2005, p. 7). Of interest for this study is the recent argument of Stuart, Croft & Akyeampong (2009) that one of these principles should be increased social justice through the provision of educational opportunities to "disadvantaged groups such as women, poorer people, ethnic minorities and those living in remote places" (2009, p. 139).

Keegan (1996), whose argument is summarised in Bernard et al. (2004), claims that there are five features of distance education that distinguish it from other forms of education: (a) the quasi-permanent separation of teacher and learner, (b) the

[12] The Department for International Development (DFID) is a United Kingdom Government Department.

influence of an educational organisation in planning, preparation and provision of student support, (c) the use of technical media, (d) the provision of two-way communication, and (e) the quasi-permanent absence of learning groups (2004, p. 380).

In 2003 Mary Thorpe, at that time the director of the Institute of Educational Technology at the Open University (UK), suggested that the focus of distance education should be on delivering access and flexible learning opportunities, particularly to adults, at a time and place of their choosing. In the conclusion to her keynote address to the tenth Cambridge International Conference on Open and Distance Learning, she argued that distance education has an assured future. In her view, it thrives "because of its unrivalled capacity for flexible access suited to a wide variety of social and economic contexts" (2003, p. 10). The first chairperson of the ACDE, observed at the launch of the organisation's secretariat that

> Distance education and open learning has a very critical role in advancing the development of Africa as it plays a central part in enhancing participation and access in higher education, within the current context where demand far exceeds resources and opportunities available in the conventional contact institutions. (Pityana, quoted in ACDE Newsletter, 2006, p. 2)

The key role of distance education in development was also the focus of a keynote address by the head of the Commonwealth of Learning at the Open and Distance Learning Association of Australia's 2005 conference. In this address Sir John Daniels argued that the challenge of development, "which is the challenge of expanding the freedoms that people enjoy", is fundamentally "'a massive challenge of learning' – a challenge that involves moving beyond the limitations of classroom-based teaching and learning to using a range of technologies to make learning 'the common wealth of humankind'" (J. Daniels, 2006, pp. 8-9).

In many distance education contexts, courses are now offered entirely, or at least substantially, through the new information technologies ('e-learning'; 'web-based learning'; 'online-learning'). Kang and Gyorke (2008) suggest that as a result of these

technological innovations distance education has entered into a "post-modern development phase" in which "individual learners have been empowered with more control over what to learn, how to learn, when to learn and how much to learn" (2008, p. 203). However, distance education experts recognise that printed texts, which are the focus of this study, still have an important role to play and, in some contexts, are the only possible medium of course delivery. For example, in their editors' introduction to *Distributed Learning* Lea and Nicoll (2002) recognise the key roles that can be played by the new information technologies, but also state that they have "learned to re-affirm and recognise the value and importance of the use of more traditional technologies, for example, the use of printed course material in global course delivery" (2002, p. 2). In her study of teachers' views on and uses of printed materials in a distance learning teacher education course, Fung (2004) argues that "print is still an important medium for course delivery" (2004, p. 175). Hagel and Shaw (2006) investigated how 552 Bachelor of Commerce students at an Australian university perceived the benefits of three broad study modes: face-to- face classes, web-based study and print-based study. Their respondents "rated face-to-face classes highest on engagement and print-based study highest on functionality" and "distinguished only marginally between the engagement and functionality benefits of print-based and web-based study" (2006, p. 283). Web-based delivery "did not outperform print-based delivery on convenience, time-efficiency and flexibility" (2006, p. 299). Accounts of teacher education offered through distance learning programmes in Uganda, Tanzania, Ghana and Nigeria indicate that printed course materials are the norm in these four countries (Aguti & Fraser, 2005; Bhalalusesa, 2006; Kwapong, 2007; Onwu Ukpo, 2006), as is still the case in South Africa, though teacher educators are beginning to download and adapt open-education resources (OERs)[13] for some of the contact and distance learning programmes that their institutions offer (Welch, 2010).

[13] "In brief, the concept of OER describes educational resources that are freely available for use by educators and learners, without an accompanying need to pay royalties or licence fees" (SAIDE, 2009, p. 1).

Thorpe's 2003 keynote address, referred to above, ends with a challenge to designers and producers of all types of distance learning courses. In her view, the future of distance education rests on striving to offer students "the best and most innovatory provision, whether we define that in terms of pedagogy or technology, or a combination of both" (2003, p. 10).

Prior to 1994, a significant number of South Africa's current leaders – in national and provincial government, in business and the trade unions – were distance education students while incarcerated on Robben Island or in other prisons, for their opposition to apartheid. The ANC Education Department's 1994 *Policy Framework for Education and Training* "included a commitment to increasing access to education through the use of distance education methods" (Welch & Glennie, 2005, p. 6) which is evident in this extract from the policy framework:

> The development of a well-designed and quality distance education system based on the principles of open learning is the only feasible approach to meeting the needs of vast numbers of our people who were systematically deprived of educational opportunity in the past, while at the same time providing opportunities for the youth coming up through the educational system at present. It will allow people access to education and training and the ability to determine where, when, what and how they want to learn. (ANC, 1994, p.78)

The government's *White Paper on Education and Training* (1995) and *White Paper 3: A Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education* (1997b) each refer to the key role of high quality distance education in offering not only opportunities for access to programmes of studies but also for access to success for 'non-traditional' students.

While what is 'best' and 'innovatory' in distance education (as in other fields) can never be static, given changes in educational thinking and practices and changes in technology (Welch & Glennie, 2005), specification of criteria to be addressed in the provision of distance education programmes of high quality can offer useful guidelines to designers and producers of such programmes. In 1996 the Department of Education initiated a research and consultation process aimed at improving the quality of distance education in South Africa. This process culminated in a draft policy

statement titled *Criteria for Quality Distance Education in South Africa: Draft Policy* (1998b). Subsequently these criteria were revised by the National Association of Distance Education Organizations of South Africa (NADEOSA) after extensive consultation with stakeholders in the South African distance education community. In 2005, NADEOSA published its 'Quality Criteria for Distance Education in South Africa'. There are 13 criteria with 212 individual elements. The three criteria most pertinent to this study are 'course design', 'course materials' and 'learner support'. They are presented in full (the three criteria and their individual elements) in Appendix 2. At the heart of these criteria are understanding the needs of learners, designing learner-friendly materials, promoting active learning and critical thinking, and providing support for academic literacy. Representatives of each of the universities and of the education NGO whose materials are analysed in this study, participated in the process of researching and developing the quality criteria guidelines for both the 1998 and the 2005 documents.

Of interest for this study is a statement made in the Council on Higher Education's 2009 report on the state of higher education in South Africa:

> Distance education has in the past been assumed to be less costly than contact programmes and continues to be funded at a lower level. As understandings of teaching and learning develop, it has been recognized that good distance education requires significant investment in programme design and materials development and providing support for students is costly. If the distinction between distance and contact programmes is indeed blurring, the different levels of funding may be questioned. (CHE, 2009, p. 14)

This section has outlined global and local thinking about distance education in general. Section 1.5 narrows the focus to teacher education offered at a distance.

1.5 Global and local distance education programmes for teacher education

Internationally, distance education has established its legitimacy as a provider of teacher education programmes (DFID, 2008; Perraton, 1993; Robinson and Latchem, 2003). A key finding from a New Zealand study, of the impact on classroom practice of a pre-service teacher education programme offered through distance learning, was

that participants in this programme believed that the 'self-oriented skills' of organisation, time management, independence and resourcefulness benefited their classroom work (Anderson & Simpson, 2006, p. 139).

In South Africa, between December 1990 and August 1992, the National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) "interrogated policy options in all areas of education within a value framework derived from the ideals of the broad democratic movement" (Gerwel, 1992, p. vi). With a view to improving both quality and equity of access, the NEPI research group on teacher education recommended the "development" of "good teacher education texts" for use in both contact and distance education programmes:

> … good teacher education texts (with analytical depth, a progressive approach, and an African and South African context) need to be developed for use in reconstructed teacher education institutions. Distance education, in which the text is the principal learning tool, puts the writing and production of texts firmly on the agenda. Appropriately written texts can play a major part in enhancing teachers' subject knowledge. (NEPI Teacher Education Research Group, 1992, p. 74)

At the time of the Department of Education's national audit of teacher education in 1995, more than one third of South Africa's teachers were involved in some form of distance learning, making distance teacher education the largest teacher education sector in the country (SAIDE, 1996, p. iv). Most of these teachers were African women and most were involved in in-service education (SAIDE, 1996, p. vi). For the audit SAIDE was commissioned to manage the process of researching and writing a report on all teacher education offered through distance learning. The key findings that are most relevant to this study are the following:

- Most print materials had been designed "in a didactic, content-centred manner as opposed to interactive, problem-centred style" (SAIDE, 1996, p. v).
- Courses showed "little understanding of South African schools and the lives of teachers" (SAIDE, 1996, p. vii).
- Courses showed little concern with improving teaching practice (SAIDE, 1996, p. vii).
- Designers seemed more concerned that teachers memorize one theory than use theory to enlighten practice (SAIDE, 1996, p. vii).

- Learner support was very limited (SAIDE, 1996, p. vii).

The executive summary to *Teacher Education Offered at a Distance in South Africa* concluded with the statement that "teachers faced with the task of building a new system of education are being prepared for it in a system still firmly located – in terms of curriculum content and pedagogic style – in the undemocratic, teacher-centred, apartheid-serving system of the past" (SAIDE, 1996, p. viii).

The audit recommended that materials designers be responsive to the contexts in which teachers live and work, to their prior learning experiences and to their language and academic literacy needs. Materials should provide opportunities for active learning and for theorizing practice, with improved classroom practice being a key goal.

A decade later, the Department of Education's *National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa* (2006) included distance learning in the "modes of delivery" recommended for both initial teacher education and continuing professional development programmes.

The challenge for South African designers of distance learning teacher education programmes is to respond to local and international research findings and guidelines for developing materials in ways that offer quality learning experiences to both pre-service and in-service teachers.

1.6 The contexts of design, production and reception of the teacher education materials analysed in this study

All texts are shaped by the process of their production and by the social conditions which influence this process (Fairclough, 1989, p. 25). What is common to the designers of the three sets of materials and to the materials they have designed, is location in the changing landscapes (Chisholm, 2004) of South African school and teacher education. However, there are also differences in the contexts of design and production. Donor funding supported the design process of *Learners and Learning* and of *Language, Literacy and Communication, Imithamo 1 to 6* and enabled the participation of a range of South African and international teacher educators in this process. By contrast, *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* was designed and trialled incrementally by lecturers within the School of Education at the University of Natal (now University of KwaZulu-Natal) as part of their teaching workload over a five year period. Both *Learners and Learning* and *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* have been commercially published and marketed while the imithamo for *Language, Literacy and Communication* were produced by an Eastern Cape general printing house for the sole use of University of Fort Hare students.

The differences in material capital available to designers and producers are likely to have affected not only the materiality of the texts (glossy covers, use of visuals, etc.) but also the time allocated to design and production and the number of contributors to the process of mediating content. In other words, there are differences across the materials in the terms of material and intellectual capital.

This section describes features of the context of the design, production and reception of the three sets of materials to be analysed in this study. The front cover of the Learning Guide for *Learners and Learning*, the front cover of the combined Learning Guide and Reader for *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)* and the front cover of *Language, Literacy and Communication Umthamo 1* are reproduced in colour in this section. A small black and white version of the cover designs is used to identify each

set of materials when they are discussed in Chapters Four to Six. Extracts from the three sets of materials are reproduced in Appendices 3, 4 and 5.

1.6.1 *Learners and Learning*

The material for this module consists of a *Learning Guide* which "operates as your teacher", a *Reader* which "contains the edited writings of a range of expert theorists and practitioners which the *Learning Guide* refers you to at appropriate moments" and an audiotape which "consists of interviews with learning experts, conversations with teachers, and recordings of excerpts from lessons" (Gultig, 2001, p. 5). The front cover of the *Learning Guide* is reproduced on the next page. *Learners and Learning* was designed and produced by the South African Institute of Distance Education (SAIDE), a non-governmental organisation which has guided transformation in distance education in South Africa since 1992. According to its mission statement, SAIDE's main function is to "[I]ncrease equitable and meaningful access to knowledge, skills and learning through the adoption of open learning principles and distance education methods" (SAIDE, 2002, back cover).

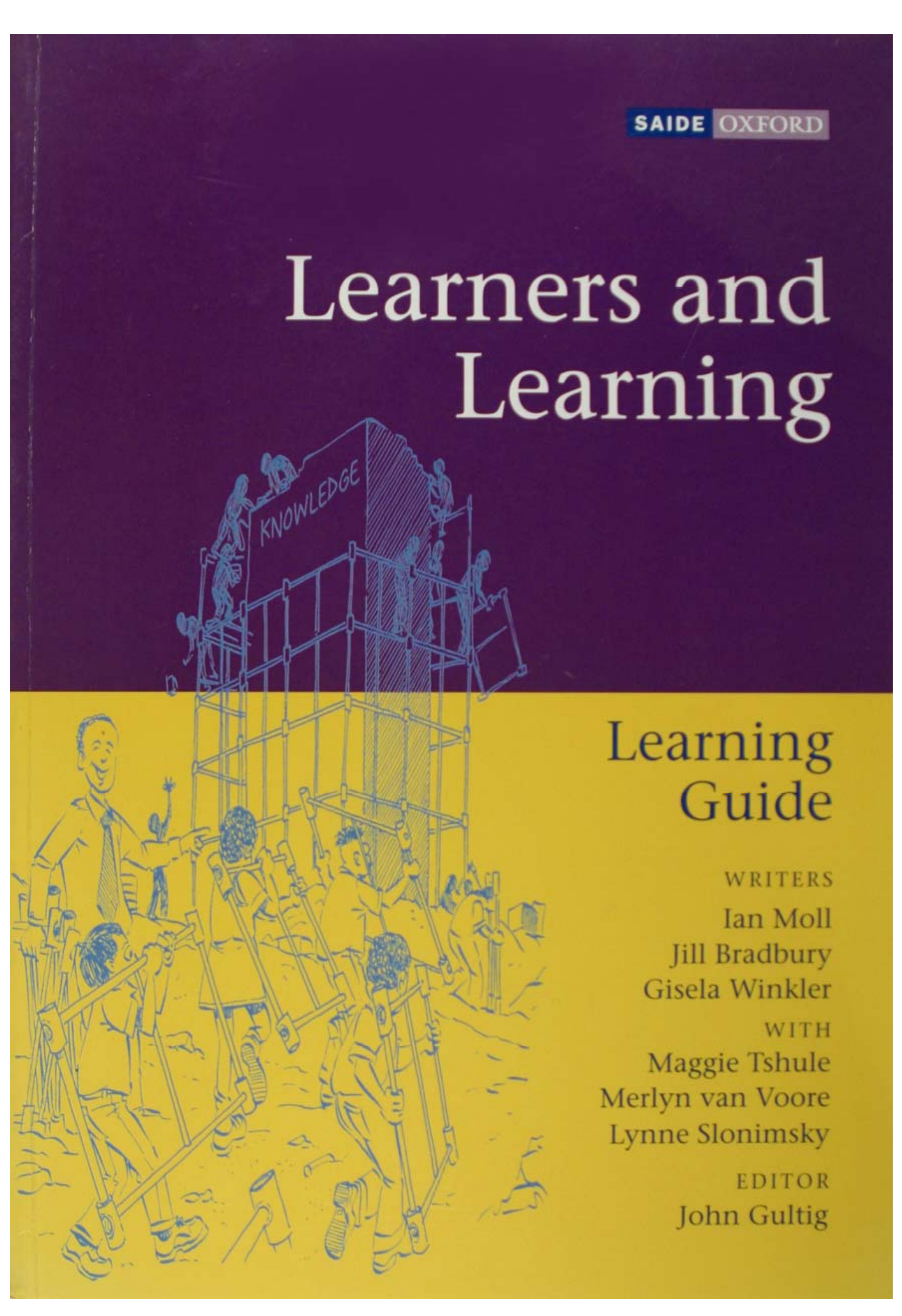
Learners and Learning, first published in 2001*,* is a module in the 'Study of Education' project initiated by SAIDE in 1996. The goals of this project were to:

- Produce nine mixed-media modules for use in the education of teachers;
- Develop a cadre of skilled writers of learning materials;
- Model new forms of distance education texts and delivery; and
- Deepen understanding of distance education in South Africa through research.

(Gultig, 2002, p. 22)

Financial support for the achievement of these ambitious goals was provided by the W K Kellogg Foundation and the materials for each module were co-published by SAIDE and Oxford University Press[14]. The "writing teams" included "core" and "development" writers and aimed at "redressing one of apartheid's legacies, a

[14] A decade after the first modules in the series were published, some are out of print (including *Learners and Learning*) and two have been revised and reformatted (*Curriculum: from Plans to Practices*; *Getting Practical*). In 2010 *Learners and Learning* is being redesigned as an open education resource (OER) for the OER Africa website.


SAIDE OXFORD
Learners and Learning
KNOWLEDGE
Learning Guide
WRITERS
Ian Moll
Jill Bradbury
Gisela Winkler
WITH
Maggie Tshule
Merlyn van Voore
Lynne Slonimsky
EDITOR
John Gultig

shortage of skilled writers of learning materials in all sectors of South African society" (Gultig, 2002, p.22). The design, production and use of the Study of Education materials has been researched and evaluated by SAIDE (2001). Published reviews of some modules are also available. In his review of *Learners and Learning* the director of the Centre for Research and Development at the Open University (UK) described the module as "an invaluable resource for those designing pre-service and professional courses for teachers" (Moon, 2002, p. 27).

Unlike the other materials to be analysed, the materials in the Study of Education series are designed for a very wide readership:

> Aimed at formal and informal teacher education, this series presents valuable open-learning materials for use in distance education or in face to face teaching. Intended for use in colleges of education at diploma level, these modules may also be used with additional readings in higher or post-graduate diploma courses. (*Learners and Learning,* 2001, backcover blurb)

In accordance with this aim, throughout the materials there are examples of classroom practice located in both primary and secondary school classrooms in a range of contexts.

For each module, writers were expected to:

- *Teach theory primarily as a means of resolving typical educational problems.* This would be achieved by writing inductively, and by using frequent case studies, exemplars and problems to introduce theoretical ideas and link them back to solving problems.
- *Contextualize their teaching.* This would be achieved through evocative examples and case studies but also through teacher dialogues, and photographs or sketches.
- *Write interactively, with frequent activities that allow learners to practise critical thinking and problem solving.* This would be achieved by using frequent self-assessment questions and problems, and then responding to likely learner responses.
- *Write in a friendly, accessible language.* Writers were asked to use the familiar first-person register, be sensitive to the language needs of non-mother tongue learners, and use a tentative, questioning, rather than didactic tone.
- *Teach learning and language skills explicitly.* Thinking, academic and reading skills are taught within each module, often through *modelling* the ways of thinking being discussed, and through thorough mediation of academic readings. (Gultig, 2002, p. 22; italics in the original)

The Study of Education project did not adopt a discipline, subject or learning area approach to teacher education, but the module designers make frequent references to language and literacy issues across the curriculum. *Learners and Learning* includes a section on reading and its importance for learning and it is this section that is analysed in this study. On the back cover of *Learners and Learning* the aims of the module and how the designers plan to achieve these are summarised as follows:

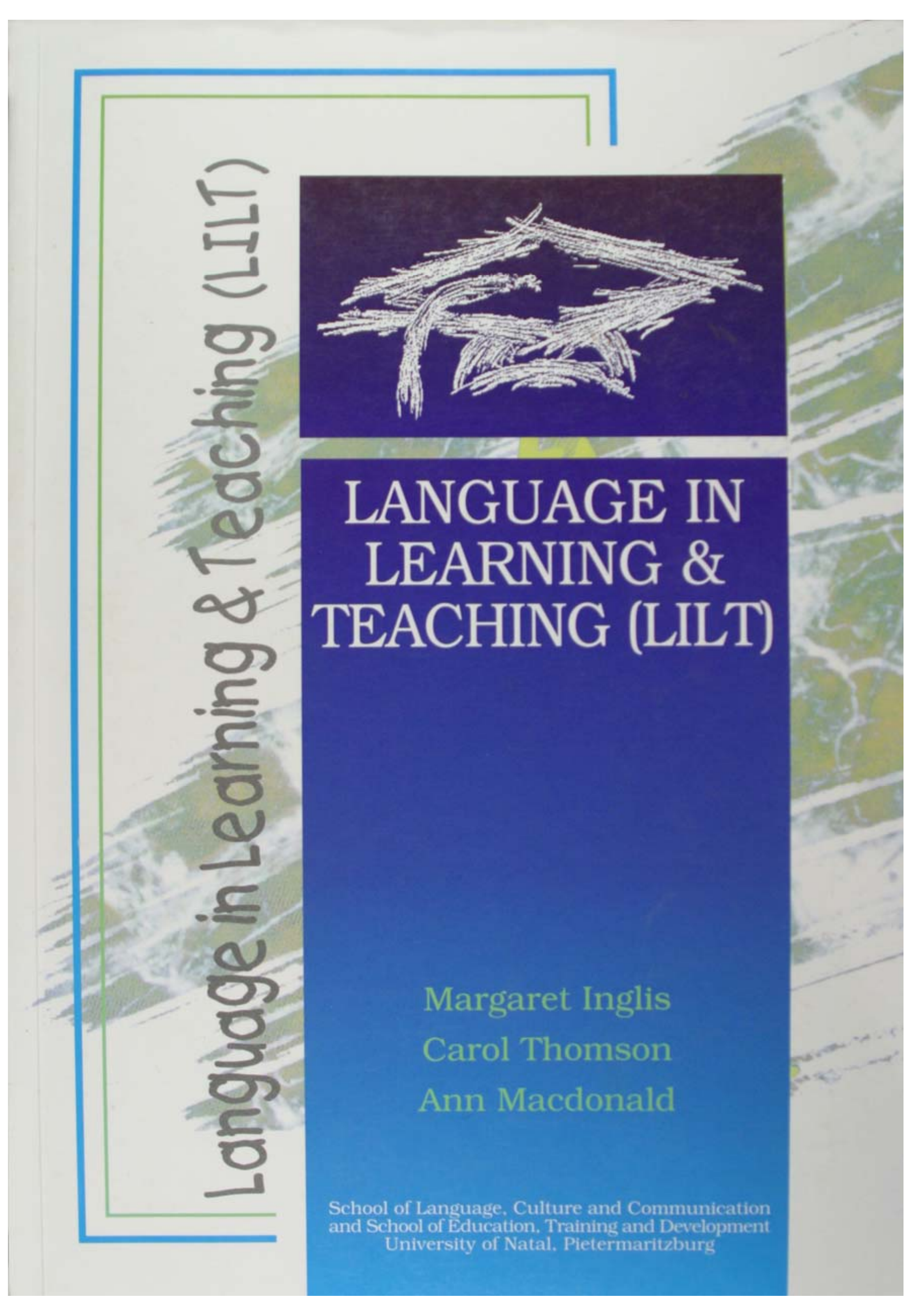
> … it aims to enable teachers to analyse learning and reflect on what they can do to improve it. It draws on the learning theories of various writers including Piaget and Vygotsky, and grounds these in examples, practical exercises and case studies drawn from schools. (Gultig, 2001, back cover)

1.6.2 *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*

The material for this module consists of an "interactive" *Learning Guide* and a *Reader* within a single publication, with the *Reader* forming "an important part of your journey towards understanding issues that surround language, reading and writing" (Inglis, Thomson & Macdonald, 2000, pp. 4-5). In addition to this published material, at monthly tutorial sessions teacher-learners receive information on assignments and printed feedback on their work. The front cover of *LILT* is reproduced on the next page.

The *LILT Learning Guide* and *Reader* has also been commercially published. However, in this instance the publication by the University of Natal Press followed the initial use of the materials by cohorts of teacher-learners for whom they were originally designed by lecturers at the University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg campus. Thomson states that the version of the materials published in 2000 was "the culmination of five years of extensive revision and rewriting" in response both to evaluations offered by teacher-learners and module tutors and to the module designers' "sense of where change and development was needed" (2001, p. 48). While this commercial publication enabled widespread distribution of the materials[15], the programme staff have decided

[15] Copies purchased by the Applied English Language Studies division in the School of Education at the University of the Witwatersrand were still being used as reference material in both B Ed and PGCE modules in 2010.


Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)
LANGUAGE IN
LEARNING &
TEACHING (LILT)
Margaret Inglis
Carol Thomson
Ann Macdonald
School of Language, Culture and Communication
and School of Education, Training and Development
University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg

that the fixed nature of a 'textbook' inhibits the flexibility of their teaching and so the published material is no longer used by them as a course book (Bertram, personal communication, 2006).

Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT) is part of a mixed-mode professional development qualification for teachers who already have at least a four year qualification. A student profile compiled in 2000, indicated that only 16% of the students in that cohort had a degree, with the remainder having a four year teaching diploma. Seventy-five per cent were women, 66% were primary school teachers and 93% spoke English as an additional language (Bertram, 2003, p. 73). At the time of their design, the materials were for a B Ed degree. With changes to the teacher qualifications structure, this degree is now classified as a B Ed Honours degree. Thus this module was designed for a higher level qualification than the other two to be analysed.

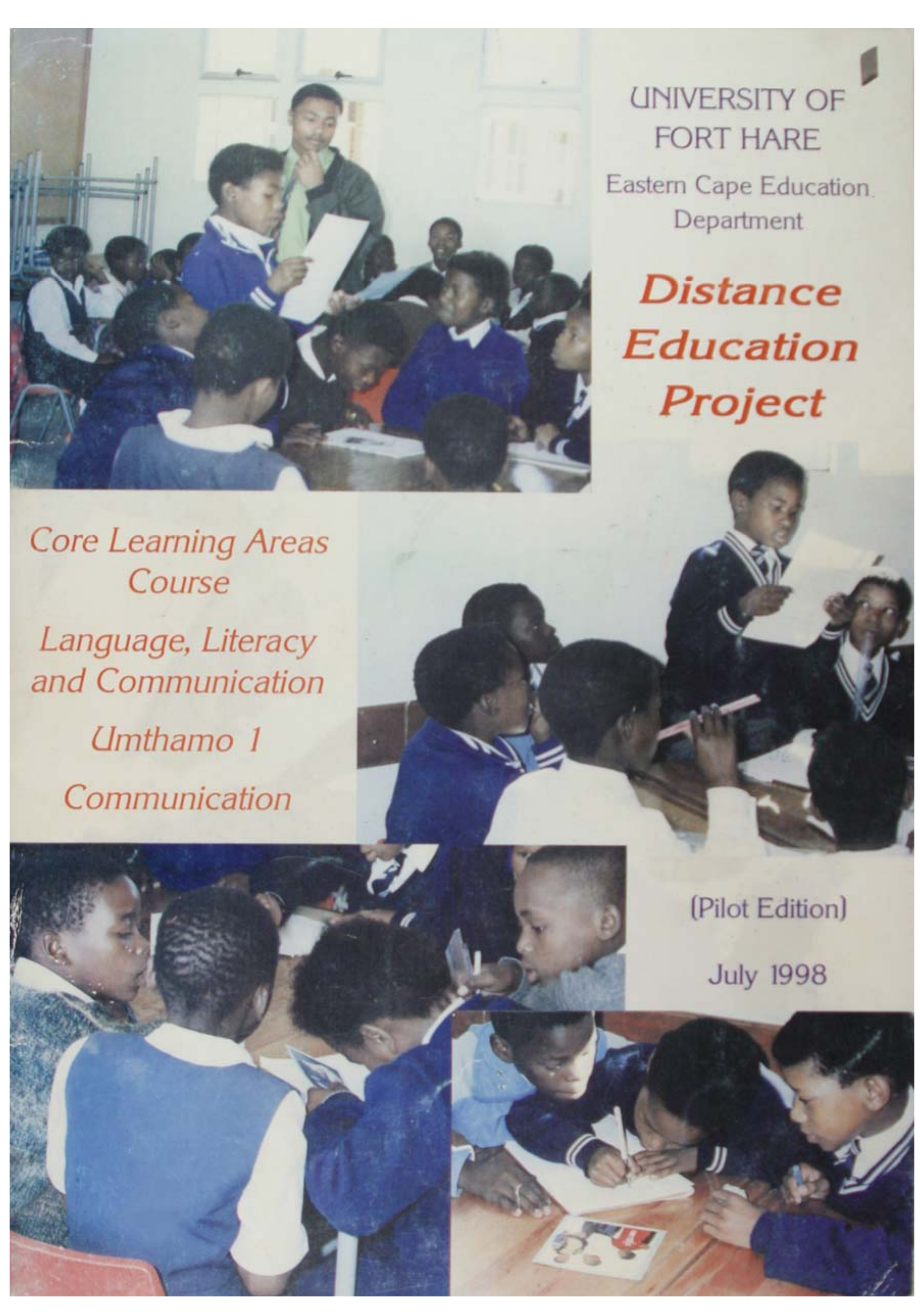
The eight modules for the qualification would normally be completed in two years of part-time study. In this mixed mode programme teacher-learners attend monthly tutorial sessions "which are planned on the assumption that they have done all the prior reading and activities" in the printed materials (Bertram, 2003, p. 75). The programme's overall aim is "to develop teachers' reflexive competences, where they are able to use theoretical concepts to think about, and change their own practice" (Bertram, 2003, p. 80). The overall aim of the *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* module within the programme is summarised on the back cover of the *Learning Guide/Reader* as providing "an opportunity for teachers in all learning areas to develop an informed understanding of how learners use language for thinking and learning, and how teachers can facilitate the development of communicative skills in talking, listening, reading and writing". According to the module co-ordinator, another aim is to offer teacher-learners "an experience of transformative learning" which will assist them to spearhead change in their classrooms (Thomson, 2001, p. 7-8). The designers include examples of practice located in both primary and secondary school classrooms.

This B Ed Hons programme has been the subject of on-going research by university staff (e.g. Bertram, 2000, 2001, 2003, 2006; Bertram & Thomson, 2005; John, 2001; Thomson, 2001). At the inaugural NADEOSA distance learning courseware awards in 2000, the material for one of its modules, *Learning and teaching: A psychological perspective*, was awarded 'highly commended status' as one of two runners-up to the award winner. This award recognised the high quality of the University of Natal's B Ed Honours materials.

1.6.3 *Language, Literacy and Communication,* Imithamo 1 to 6

In isiXhosa, an *umthamo* (plural *imithamo*) is a 'bite-sized chunk'. The University of Fort Hare design team decided to produce a series of 32 to 48 page booklets, rather than one book-length text per module, for in-service teachers upgrading their qualifications to the level of a Bachelor of Primary Education degree over four years of part-time study. Short extracts from book chapters or journal articles are included in some of the imithamo but there is no course Reader. The front cover of *Language, Literacy and Communication Umthamo 1* is reproduced on the next page and discussed in Chapter Six because this is the module with which teacher-learners begin their studies. In Chapters Four, Five and Six the small black and white image is of the front cover of *Umthamo 2* because it is in this umthamo that the designers include content on the topic of 'reading' which is the focus of analysis across the three sets of materials. The analysis presented in these chapters includes occasional quotations from other *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo where pertinent.

For this design and production project, donor funding enabled academics from the University of South Australia and from the Open University (UK), two institutions with extensive experience in distance education, to work with locally-based teacher educators on the design of the materials and of the overall B Primary Ed programme. The initial academic co-ordinator summed up advice from the Open University (UK) which guided the materials design process:


UNIVERSITY OF
FORT HARE
Eastern Cape Education
Department
Distance
Education
Project
Core Learning Areas
Course
Language, Literacy
and Communication
Umthamo 1
Communication
(Pilot Edition)
July 1998

> Write to the target audience. Don't worry about the academics. If you look after your target audience and lead them along, you're going to astound the academics anyway. More of the same isn't going to fix it. (Alan Kenyon, quoted in SAIDE, 2003, p. 27)

With this advice in mind the design team decided to:

- Affirm teachers as experienced in the classroom, in community and family life;
- Foreground the local;
- Offer an integrated curriculum with explicit links between one umthamo and another;
- Guide and support a process of change in classroom practices;
- Assist teachers to theorize old and new practices and to become reflective practitioners. (Reed, 2005, p. 105)

The designers did not have time to develop the entire curriculum prior to the delivery of the first modules to the first cohort of teacher-learners. The initial academic co-ordinator described the design process as "[I]nvent things as you go. Solve things as they immediately hit you" (Alan Kenyon, quoted in SAIDE, 2003, p. 27). However, such ad hoc responses were made within a carefully conceptualised programme which had as its focus the following:

- Providing award-bearing and accredited courses that are commensurate with South Africa's new curricular thrusts;
- Addressing the scarcity of trained teachers in maths, science and technology education, language teaching and its use across the curriculum, school management and early childhood development;
- Introducing and modelling the training of teachers in multi-grade teaching, a situation that faces many of our province's primary teachers but is mostly not addressed in development;
- Enhancing the classroom performance of teachers through researching and propagating best practices – generic and learning area specific, determined both locally and internationally;
- Impacting whole school development through teacher learning activities and programmes.

(Distance Education Project: Input to Fort Hare Institutional Plan, quoted in SAIDE, 2003, p. 14)

In addition to using the isiXhosa word umthamo to name the 'booklets', the design team coined the term 'teacher-learner', which has subsequently been taken up by others in the South African distance education community (e.g. Mays, 2005; SAIDE, 2002), to "underscore the point that teaching and learning are entwined and that the

teachers involved in this project learn from their own classrooms and students as well as from the university work that they are undertaking" (Chartres & Paige, 2005, p. 9).

The Eastern Cape Department of Education not only endorsed the University of Fort Hare B Prim Ed programme but also provided personnel for some of the administrative work associated with it and many of the tutors for the fortnightly Saturday morning contact sessions at centres throughout the province. At these sessions teacher-learners come together to work on aspects of the imithamo with a tutor named in isiXhosa as an *umkhwezeli* – someone whose job is to "keep the fire burning just right so that the food in the pot would cook well" (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 1*, 1998, p. 2).

The design team decided to focus explicitly on the local – teachers and schools in the Eastern Cape province – and to trial in local primary schools the activities which form the core of each umthamo. Each completed umthamo was printed by a local printer for distribution only to teacher-learners registered for the B Prim Ed degree. In 2004 the modules for the University of Fort Hare's B Primary Ed won the NADEOSA courseware award for collaboratively developed materials.

A case study of the project (SAIDE, 2003) was undertaken by SAIDE as part of a larger research project, funded by the Kellogg Foundation, which investigated 'best practice' in distance education programmes in rural contexts. One of the goals of this project was to develop quality guidelines for distance education programmes offered in rural contexts. Another was to develop, in collaboration with distance education providers, proposals to the Kellogg Foundation for funding for high quality programmes that could contribute to the eradication of poverty by addressing the needs of rural communities. Two academics from the University of South Australia collected 'stories' from teachers participating in the B Prim Ed programme by interviewing them and observing their teaching. Eight of these stories have been published in a book with the evocative title *One pencil to share* in which the co-authors state that these stories

"describe many aspects of professional transformation, including the struggles involved in change, the development of a deeper education philosophy and new values, classroom practices and ways of integrating schools with their communities" (Chartres & Paige, 2005, p. 8). Academics from the Open University (UK) have been involved in researching the impact of the B Prim Ed programme on teachers' perceptions of their classroom practices. Devereux and Amos report that their analysis of data from questionnaires and semi-structured interviews indicates that teacher-learners find the focus on local context and culture in the materials to be highly motivating (2005, p. 285).

1.6.4 Similarities and differences in design and production

From this brief account the following broad similarities emerge:

- responsiveness to guidelines for 'good practice' in designing distance education materials – particularly in regard to interactivity;
- awareness of designing in a time of change, both local and global;
- concern with improving classroom practice – addressed in different ways;
- concern with theorising practice – to a greater or lesser degree;
- support for teachers as reflective practitioners and as participants in communities of practice;
- commitment to researching the reception of the materials;
- recognition by the South African distance education community of the quality of the materials.

Differences include:

- resources: of time, number of participants in design teams, involvement of designers from more than one institutional base, financial support for either in-house or commercial production;
- qualification 'level' of learner-teachers or teacher-learners that is addressed;
- local or national / regional focus;

- exclusive focus on primary school teaching and learning or inclusion of both primary and secondary school teaching and learning;
- greater or lesser emphasis on academic readings and academic literacy development.

As will be explained in Chapter Three, the procedure of comparison and contrast is central to the analysis undertaken in this study and thus the similarities and differences summarised above will be discussed in detail in the data analysis chapters. As an indication of the overall structure of the thesis, its chapter titles are listed below.

1.7 Thesis chapter titles

Chapter One	Introduction
Chapter Two	Theoretical Framework
Chapter Three	Research Design
Chapter Four	Mediating knowledge through the selection and organization of content
Chapter Five	Language, in-text activities, pedagogic episodes and scaffolded readings as mediating tools
Chapter Six	Using a range of semiotic resources to mediate knowledge and support learning
Chapter Seven	The affordances of critical pedagogic analysis

Chapter Two: Theoretical Framework

2.1 Introduction
2.2 Theorising Pedagogy
2.3 Teacher education pedagogy / ies
2.4 Distance education pedagogy: mediation on the page
2.5 Mediation and subjectivity

2.1 Introduction

Understanding how pedagogy has been theorised in the education literature is central to the project of developing a framework for a critical pedagogic analysis of the mediation of knowledge in distance education materials for teacher education. Gore (1997) argues that both what she terms "philosophical scholarship" and empirical research are essential to developing a theory of pedagogy (1997, p. 211). For this study I have drawn mainly on the scholarship and research on pedagogy of the sociologist of education Basil Bernstein (sections 2.2.1 and 2.3) and of the applied linguist Suresh Canagarajah (section 2.2.2). I selected Bernstein, firstly because I consider some of the concepts which he elaborated over four decades of writing to be particularly helpful for analysing what knowledge is selected and how this knowledge is mediated in materials designed for use in teacher education programmes, and secondly because his work has influenced and continues to influence the teaching and research of many academics in Schools of Education in South African universities. Canagarajah's theorisation of pedagogy is useful for analysing materials designed and produced in the global south because of his interest in the contrasting features of what he terms 'centre' (the global north) and 'periphery' (the global south) pedagogies and because of the contrasts he makes between features of 'mainstream' and 'critical' pedagogies, which may be evident in classrooms in either the north or the south.

As the framework developed in this research is used to analyse how knowledges are mediated in distance education texts for teachers, it is important to understand how

the concept of mediation has been theorised. Current theoretical and empirical work on mediation (e.g. H. Daniels, 2001; Lantolf and Thorne, 2006; L. Moll, 2001; Wertsch, 1991) acknowledges the foundational work of Vygotsky and so a brief review of some of his key ideas and of their 'take-up' in the work of these and other authors is provided in section 2.4. Finally, because I argue in this study that the particular ways in which knowledge is mediated on the page or screen contributes to the constitution of particular subject positions for readers as students and as teachers, I review selections from the extensive literature on identity and subjectivity.

2.2 Theorising Pedagogy

In her introduction to 'Defining Pedagogy', Murphy (2008) observes that although pedagogy is a term widely used in educational writing, all too often its meaning is assumed to be self-evident. Loughran (2006) argues that pedagogy is a concept that has developed a life of its own "as a diversity of definitions, understandings and interpretations" has emerged over time (2006, p. 3). He is concerned that such diversity may result in the meaning of pedagogy becoming "less definitive, less purposeful and more easily misunderstood" (2006, p. 3). As indicated in Chapter One, in the field of education and teacher education many authors do not define pedagogy at all. If they do, their definitions are often very narrow with pedagogy frequently used as a synonym for teaching (Alexander, 2008a; Gore, 1993; Lusted, 1986).

In his critique of these narrow definitions Alexander states that "teaching is an act, while pedagogy is both act and *discourse"* (2008a, p. 3, italics in the original). He conceptualizes pedagogy as "ideas (which at the classroom level *enable* teaching, at the system or policy level which *legitimate* teaching and at the cultural or societal level which *locate* teaching) and as practices" (Alexander, 2008b, p. 30, italics in the original). In my view, both ideas (operating at Alexander's three levels) and practices can be encompassed in Gore's conceptualisation of pedagogy as "the process of knowledge production" (1993, p. 5) and in Bernstein's (1999a) elaboration of what this process involves:

> Pedagogy is a sustained process whereby somebody(s) acquires new forms or develops existing forms of conduct, knowledge, practice and criteria, from somebody(s) or something deemed to be an appropriate provider and evaluator. Appropriate either from the point of view of the acquirer or by some other body(s) or both. (Bernstein, 1999a, p. 259)

For Bernstein, any pedagogic practice can be understood as a "cultural relay" which he defines as "a uniquely human device for both the reproduction and the production of culture" (1990, p. 64). Both Gore (1993; 1997) and Bernstein (1990; 1996; 1999a) argue that it is important to question how and in whose interests knowledge is produced and reproduced. Such questions are central to a critical pedagogic analysis of distance education materials. They are addressed by Bernstein in an extensive collection of articles and books published between 1958 and 2000 and by Canagarajah in a series of articles and books published from the 1990s onwards.

2.2.1 Bernstein's theorisation of pedagogy

While it is impossible to do any justice to the depth and complexity of his work in a few pages, Bernstein's conceptualisations of pedagogic discourse, of the classification and framing of knowledge and of competence and performance models of pedagogy are outlined in this section, as each informs aspects of the analysis undertaken in subsequent chapters.

Theorising discourses; theorising pedagogic discourse

Bernstein makes an important distinction between what he terms discourses as "singulars" and discourses as "regions" (1996, p. 23). He suggests that a singular discourse "has appropriated a space to give itself a unique name", for example the discourse of psychology or physics, while discourses as regions or fields are created by "a recontextualizing of singulars" (1996, p. 23). He includes medicine, architecture and engineering in his examples of the "regionalization of knowledge" (1996, p.23). Such recontextualising and regionalization raises questions about which singulars are to be selected and what knowledge within the singular is to be introduced and related (Bernstein, 1996, p. 23). I suggest that teacher education is a further example of such

regionalization of knowledge. In Chapter Four I outline some recent conceptualisations of a knowledge base for teacher education programmes and the implications of these conceptualisations for knowledge selection and for the constitution of readers of distance education materials as particular 'types' of students and teachers.

For Bernstein, pedagogic discourse is more a principle than a discourse – "a principle for the circulation and reordering of discourses" (1996, p. 47). When teacher educators or teachers use this recontextualising principle they selectively appropriate, relocate, refocus and relate other discourses to constitute pedagogic discourse:

> As pedagogic discourse appropriates various discourses, unmediated discourses are transformed into mediated, virtual or imaginary discourses. (Bernstein, 1996, p. 47)

Pedagogic discourse is "virtual or imaginary" because it transforms 'real' discourse outside of pedagogy (e.g. the discourse of physics) into classroom discourse (e.g. physics in school). In this pedagogic discourse *instructional discourse* (a discourse of mediated knowledges and skills of various kinds and of their relationship to each other) is embedded in *regulative discourse* (a discourse of social order). In her discussion of Bernstein's instructional discourse Christie suggests that

> [T]he regulative discourse takes or appropriates discourses from sites beyond the school and relocates these as instructional discourses for the specialized pedagogical purposes of schooling. In the process of relocation, the instructional discourse is transformed, and the manner of its introduction, pacing and sequencing, is determined by the operation of the regulative discourse. The recontextualising principle involved in all this creates agents whose function is to recontextualise; in schools these agents are teachers. (Christie, 1999, p. 159-160)

The designers of distance learning materials for teacher education are also recontextualising 'agents' and their mediating choices include choices about the extent to which they will employ what Bernstein terms *horizontal* and *vertical* discourses. Bernstein describes a horizontal discourse as entailing "a set of strategies which are local, segmentally organised, context specific and dependent, for maximising encounters with persons and habitats" (1999b, p. 159) and suggests that "segmental

pedagogy" is directed towards the acquisition of a particular competence. Segmental pedagogy draws on learners' experiences and 'everyday knowledge' and assists them in using what they learn in their everyday lives and work (Hoadley & Jansen, 2009, p. 175). Bernstein argues that "segmental competence literacies" are "culturally localised" and are "evoked by contexts whose reading is unproblematic" (1999b, p. 161). By contrast, a vertical discourse "takes the form of a coherent, explicit and systematically principled structure, hierarchically organised as in the sciences, or it takes the form of a series of specialised languages with specialised modes of interrogation and specialised criteria for the production and circulation of texts, as in the social sciences and humanities" (1999b, p. 159). Bernstein argues that each of these specialised languages has its own criteria for legitimate texts, for what counts as evidence and for what counts as legitimate questions – with contestations likely between supporters of 'old' and 'new' languages (1999b, p. 163). In the process of designing teacher education materials for language teachers, design teams working with "specialised languages" are likely to construct vertical discourse in ways that are both similar and different in each set of materials.

In reflecting on the use of horizontal and vertical discourses in schooling, Bernstein suggests that there may be two reasons for recontextualising segments of horizontal discourse and inserting these into the vertical discourses of school subjects. Firstly, this recontextualisation may be an attempt to make specialised knowledge more accessible to learners, with questions needing to be asked about the possible gains and losses for knowledge acquisition. Secondly, horizontal discourse "may be seen as a crucial resource for pedagogic populism in the name of empowering or unsilencing voices to combat the elitism and alleged authoritarianism of vertical discourse" (1999b, p. 169). The choices made by design teams in regard to the use of horizontal and vertical discourse in teacher education materials are likely to contribute to the constitution of particular subject positions for readers as students and as teachers. Of interest for this study is Daniel's (2001) observation that Bernstein's distinction between horizontal and vertical discourses is a more powerful means of

conceptualising the distinctions between 'everyday' / 'spontaneous' and 'scientific' / 'schooled' concepts introduced by Vygotsky in his work on mediation.

In education policy and practice, Bernstein distinguishes between "an official recontextualising field (ORF) created and dominated by the state and its selected agents and ministers" and "a pedagogic recontextualised field (PRF)" consisting of teachers and education researchers (1996, p. 48). He argues that the "bias and focus" of the official discourse and the educational knowledge which the state "constructs and distributes to educational institutions" aims to "construct in teachers and students a particular moral disposition, motivation and aspiration, embedded in particular performances and practices" (1999a, p. 246). I suggest that designers and producers of distance education materials for teacher education in South Africa are primarily located in the PRF as mediators of texts – some of which are located in the ORF (for example, Department of Education statements on outcomes-based education) and some of which are located in disciplinary discourses. However, the learner-teachers or teacher-learners who read the materials will engage in further pedagogic recontextualisation. One of the aims of the critical pedagogic analysis is to identify whether particular texts encourage such further recontextualisation – in Bernstein's terms, whether the mediated discourses promote teacher autonomy (social agency) – and if so, how this is done by the designers and producers.

The classification and framing of knowledge

The frequent references in the education literature to Bernstein's concepts of classification and framing support the claim made by Singh and Luke (1996) that these concepts, first developed in the 1970s, "remain among the most powerful and illuminating tools" for anyone working in the area of curriculum studies (1996, p. xi). In this study, one of the questions addressed in a critical pedagogic analysis of three sets of teacher education materials is how knowledge is classified and framed in the curriculum selected for learner-teachers or teacher-learners. Having observed that the selection and organisation of what is to be learned is a central characteristic of any

curriculum, Bernstein uses the concept of classification to refer to the strength or weakness of the boundaries between subjects or disciplines within a curriculum at school or university level. In a strongly classified curriculum there are clear boundaries between one subject and another and subjects have distinct disciplinary rules and discourses. Conversely, a weakly classified curriculum is characterised by integration or linkages across subjects and topics.

While classification is concerned with *what* meanings are put together in a category or discourse and how distinct these are from the meanings in any other category, framing is concerned with *how* meanings are put together:

> Framing refers to the nature of control over:
> - the selection of the communication;
> - its sequencing (what comes first, what comes second);
> - its pacing (the rate of expected acquisition);
> - the criteria; and
> - the social base which makes this transmission possible
>
> (Bernstein, 1996, p. 27).

Each of the above is important in the design of distance learning materials. Bernstein argues that where framing is strong, "the transmitter has explicit control over selection, sequence, pacing, criteria and the social base" and where it is weak, "the acquirer has more apparent control over the communication and its social base" (1996, p. 27). He makes the important point that framing values may vary with respect to particular elements of a practice: weak framing over pacing could be accompanied by stronger framing over other aspects of the discourse. Designers and producers of distance learning materials are one category of "transmitters" and this study is interested in how they constitute the "acquirers" (learner-teachers or teacher-learners) as students and as classroom practitioners. Bernstein suggests that an acquirer "can be seen as a potential for labels" and that which labels are selected is one of the functions of the framing:

> Where the framing is strong, the candidates for labelling will be terms such as conscientious, attentive, industrious, careful, receptive. Where such framing is

> apparently weak, then conditions for candidature for labels will become equally trying for the acquirer as he or she struggles to be creative, to be interactive, to attempt to make his or her mark. (1996, pp. 27-28)

I suggest that in distance education materials such "labels" may be constructed either overtly or covertly.

In view of the focus on teacher education materials in this study, section 2.3.1 of this chapter includes a brief account of how Ensor (2004) has used Bernstein's concepts of classification and framing to inform her empirical research on modalities of teacher education.

Two pedagogic models: competence and performance

In addition to theorizing the classification and framing of knowledge, Bernstein also theorized what he terms "pedagogic models": a performance model and a competence model. The models share the following features:

- categories of time, space and discourse;
- pedagogic orientation to evaluation;
- pedagogic control;
- pedagogic text;
- pedagogic autonomy;
- pedagogic economy. (Bernstein, 1996, p. 58)

However, given that within a competence model competences are "intrinsically creative and tacitly acquired in informal interactions" (1996, p. 55), while a performance model of pedagogic practice and context "places the emphasis upon a specific output of the acquirer, upon a particular text the acquirer is expected to construct, and upon the specialized skills necessary to the production of this specific output, text or product" (1996, pp. 57-58), these features are realised in contrasting ways in a classroom or other pedagogic space. Features that may be useful for a critical pedagogic analysis of distance education materials for teacher education programmes are outlined below, beginning with *discourse.*

In a competence model, pedagogic discourse "issues in the form of projects, themes, range of experience" (Bernstein, 1996, p. 58) with acquirers apparently having "a great measure of control over selection, sequence and pace" (p. 58). In terms of contemporary South African education discourse, a competence model is learner centred and the teacher acts as facilitator or guide to learning. The model emphasizes "the realization of competences that acquirers already possess, or are thought to possess" (p. 58). By contrast, in a performance model, pedagogic discourse "issues in the form of the specialization of subjects, skills, procedures which are clearly marked with respect to form and function" (p. 58). Acquirers have "relatively less control over selection, sequence and pace" (p. 58) and are expected to produce specific types of texts. In other words, the pedagogy is more content-focused and teacher-centred.

With reference to assessment (evaluation), Bernstein suggests that in a competence model the focus is on what is present in the acquirer's product (the pedagogic text), from the perspective of the teacher, while in a performance model it is on what is absent (in relation to specific assessment criteria). Discipline and control are also starkly contrasted in the two models. In a performance model learners' behaviours are highly regulated whereas in a competence model such regulation, according to Bernstein, is "a low priority strategy" (1996, p. 60).

Teacher and learner autonomy are greater in the competence than the performance model. Learners are constituted as active and creative meaning makers and teachers as designers of many of their teaching materials and activities. For example, Bernstein suggests that "[T]he pedagogic resources required by competency models are less likely to be pre-packaged as textbooks or teaching routines" (Bernstein, 1996, pp. 61-62).

In his discussion of "pedagogic economy" Bernstein (1996) makes explicit reference to teacher education, arguing that it is more expensive to "train" teachers to work within a competency model because of its more extensive "theoretical base" (1996, p. 62),

more expensive for these teachers to work in schools because of the greater amount of time they need for designing resources, facilitating group work and evaluating learners individually and finally, more likely that there will be teacher burnout because of the demands of this model in contexts where there are constraints such as limited support for teachers (in terms of time and other resources) or a demanding educational bureaucracy. Conversely, training in the case of a performance model requires a less elaborate theoretical base, “may well entail packages and algorithms which reduce training costs” (1996, p. 63) and requires less planning and evaluation time on the part of teachers because of the prescriptive nature of the curriculum and of assessment. These arguments are pertinent to an analysis of in-service or pre-service teacher education materials designed at a time when the “policy images” (Jansen, 2001) evident in a range of documents[16] constitute teachers as able to move from a performance to a competence model without (at least for the majority), the extensive training or resource support that Bernstein suggests is needed.

Bernstein concludes his description of the models with the observation that he does not rule out the importance of individual teacher commitment, motivation and personal attributes but he argues that these qualities operate within particular models of teacher education and of classroom practice. Designers of materials for teacher education offer learner-teachers or teacher-learners particular models of both.

Possible limitations of Bernsteinian theory for empirical research in the global south

After describing the key features of each of the two models and of the modes through which each may be realized, Bernstein states that “[T]he models and modes may give rise to what could be called a pedagogic pallet (sic) where mixes can take place” (1996, p. 68). While noting this qualification, Barrett (2007), who applies Bernstein’s models to findings from her research in Tanzanian primary schools, argues that “analytical frameworks developed in western contexts” have limitations when applied to teachers’ pedagogic practices in “low income countries” such as Tanzania. Barrett

[16] Two examples are Curriculum 2005 (Department of Education, 1997c) and Norms and Standards for Educators (Department of Education, 2000).

found that some of the Tanzanian teachers were able to “domesticate progressive ideas” associated with Bernstein’s competence model in ways that enabled them to work productively within a performance model. For example, she observed teachers who recognized and built on learners’ prior knowledge and who celebrated the contributions of individual learners (features of a competence model) within tightly structured whole class teacher-centred lessons (associated with a performance model) (Barrett, 2007, p. 288-290). She suggests that in view of the systemic barriers to change to a competence mode, improvement of pedagogy within a performance mode is the more feasible approach to educational development for Tanzania and also argues for acceptance of the possibility of the two models co-existing in a country’s education system. While they do not refer to Bernstein, Johnson, Monk and Hodges (2000), whose work has been in the area of professional development for science teachers in South Africa, also acknowledge the importance of systemic barriers and argue for the matching of pedagogical change to local conditions (Johnson, Monk & Hodges, 2000, p. 182).

Barrett challenges international and comparative education researchers to review theory “generated solely with reference to education systems in Anglophone western countries” (2007, p. 292). She argues that findings from her research, and that of other researchers working in Asia, Africa, central and eastern Europe to whom she refers, suggest that outside these systems, models such as Bernstein’s do not enable the complexities of teachers’ practices and values to be fully understood (Barrett, 2007, p. 292). Hugo, Bertram, Green and Naidoo’s (2008) account of using Bernstein as their “initial theoretical guide” to the analysis of data from a research project located in South African high schools, suggests that they came to a similar conclusion. While they found Bernstein’s theorisation “immensely useful” for identifying key variables in how pedagogic messages were transmitted in the classrooms that were the focus of their study, they concluded that “[A]fter attending history and science classes at opposite ends of the social class spectrum and observing the respective teachers deliver mainly content driven, teacher directed lessons, our classification and

framing analyses often looked fairly similar across the schools even though we intuitively felt that the lessons were of noticeably differing qualities" (2008, p. 33).

While I argue that in Bernstein's theorization of pedagogy there is evidence that he recognized and considered links between pedagogy, social structures and cultures in ways that could be valuable to empirical researchers in contexts other than "the western Anglophone", the work of Barrett (2007) and of Hugo et al (2008) raises questions to which the critical pedagogic analysis offered in this study needs to respond. One such question, arising from the work of Hugo et al, is whether, and if so, how, the designers of materials for teacher education programmes in South Africa address the complex issue of quality teaching and learning in diverse classrooms.

Pedagogy that is deeply connected to the local is at the heart of Canagarajah's theoretical and empirical work in the field of English language teaching and learning and it is this work that is discussed in section 2.2.2. I argue that his contrasting conceptualisations of pedagogy are productive for an analysis of teaching and learning in all educational sites and not just the language classroom which is his focus, while acknowledging that this focus makes his work particularly pertinent for this study.

2.2.2 Canagarajah's conceptualisation of 'mainstream' and 'critical' pedagogies

Like Bernstein, Canagarajah addresses the key pedagogic question of how and in whose interests knowledge is produced and reproduced. He does this by contrasting what he terms mainstream traditional and critical pedagogies "emanating from the center" with pedagogy "that is motivated by the lived reality and everyday experiences of periphery subjects" (1999, p. 5). He uses the terms *centre* and *periphery* in two ways: (i) to contrast "the technologically advanced communities of the West which, at least in part, sustain their material dominance by keeping less developed communities in periphery status" (1999, p. 4) and (ii) to make a linguistic distinction between the "center Englishes" of traditionally English speaking centre communities which claim

ownership of the language and the "periphery Englishes" of those periphery communities worldwide who have recently appropriated the language (1999, p. 4). He argues that in periphery contexts a critical orientation to pedagogy is in the interests of teachers and learners of English. I suggest that in South Africa the centre and the periphery co-exist, both technologically and linguistically. Thus the defining features of both a "pedagogy of the mainstream" and of a "broadly critical pedagogy" that are identified and contrasted by Canagarajah are of interest for a critical pedagogic analysis of materials for teacher education programmes – programmes in which the two may well be "entangled" (Nuttall, 2009).

The philosophical underpinnings of established, mainstream pedagogy are to be found in such intellectual movements as the Enlightenment, rationalism, science and modernism, all of which had a radical beginning. As Canagarajah notes, these movements "championed the thinking, observation, and experience of the individual against the dogmas of the state, aristocracy, and Church" (1999, p. 17). However, as he also observes, the Enlightenment movement assisted in the development of industrialism, capitalism and colonialism all of which contributed to the domination of periphery communities, to the ascendancy of Western scientific knowledge and to the suppression of the knowledge systems of the periphery (1999, p. 18-19). In terms of the knowledge paradigm that it privileges, mainstream pedagogy has played a key role in what Canagarajah describes as "the legitimation of the Western intellectual tradition" (1999, p. 19).

Post-colonial, post-modern scholarship in the field of education has questioned the assumptions and practices of mainstream pedagogies. Canagarajah argues that this scholarship had its origins in the practices of those on the periphery. For example, he writes that for the decade prior to its becoming "sanctified scripture" for academics in the West, Freire's *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* had served as "a little known handbook for social workers, and church-based literacy organisations" (1999, p. 20).

As a concept, *critical pedagogy* is widely considered to have its origins in Freire's work in the field of adult literacy (1968/1970). The idea of "conscientization" or "consciousness-changing" is central to his conceptualisation of a pedagogy of empowerment and of "liberation" from oppression, in contrast to a pedagogy of "domestication". Freire used the term "pedagogy of the oppressed" to indicate that "pedagogy must be forged *with*, not *for*, the oppressed" (1970, p. 33; italics in the original). He argued for a "problem-posing" approach to education in which teachers and students are "critical co-investigators" (1970, p. 68), in contrast to a "banking" approach in which a teacher "deposits" knowledge which students "receive, memorize and repeat" (1970, p. 58). What Freire terms "dialogue" is central to a problem posing approach:

> Through dialogue, the teacher-of-the-students and the students-of-the-teacher cease to exist and a new term emerges: teacher-student with students-teachers. The teacher is no longer merely the-one-who-teaches, but one who is himself (sic) taught in dialogue with the students, who in turn while being taught, also teach. They become jointly responsible for a process in which they all grow. (1970, p. 67)

In a teaching and learning context in which knowledge is "problematized", "a class is not a class in the traditional sense, but a meeting place where knowledge is sought and not where it is transmitted" (Freire, 1974, p. 148).

From the late 1970s, often with Freire's work as their point of departure, writers on pedagogy began to question and critique mainstream pedagogy (e.g. Giroux & Simon, 1984; Giroux, 1990; Lusted, 1986; Simon, 1992). Canagarajah cautions against viewing critical pedagogy as "a settled body of thought, with a uniform set of pedagogical practices and assumptions" (1999, p. 22). For example, he distinguishes between what he terms "reproduction" and "resistance" models of critical pedagogy which theorize the nature of education and schooling in contrasting ways:

> In brief, while ***reproduction theories*** are based on somewhat deterministic brands of structuralist and Marxist thinking that developed around the 1970s, ***resistance theories*** are more open-ended post-structuralist perspectives. (Canagarajah, 1999, p. 22; italics in the original)

Canagarajah argues that both have value – the reproduction model for its provision of a language of critique for deconstructing dominant school processes and the resistance model for its offer of “a language of possibility” for alternative conceptualisations of schooling (1999, p. 26)[17].

Having acknowledged that there is diversity within the broad church that is usually termed critical pedagogy, and that at least some of its ‘priests’ can be criticized for work that is “sometimes reductive and jargon ridden” [18], Canagarajah still finds it useful to contrast what he terms “a pedagogy of the mainstream” with “critical pedagogy” in order to understand the orientation of teachers of English to learners, learning and teaching. In order to sharpen the contrasts, he constructs the six binaries which are presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Contrasting orientations to pedagogy identified by Canagarajah (1999)

Pedagogy of the mainstream	**Critical pedagogy**
learning as a detached cognitive activity	learning as personal
learning as transcendental	learning as situated
learning processes as universal	learning as cultural
knowledge as value-free	knowledge as ideological
knowledge as pre-constructed	knowledge as negotiated
learning as instrumental	learning as political

While recognising the limitations inherent in such binary oppositions, I argue that they nevertheless provide useful lenses through which to view distance education materials

[17] Canagarajah does not consider the important distinction, made by Janks, 1995, McKinney, 2003 and others, between resistance as a theoretical concept in critical pedagogy and the problem of students resisting critical approaches.
[18] While Canagarajah does not name them, this is the view of such critics as Ellsworth (1992), Lather, (1992) and Gore (1993).

designed for teachers in South Africa.   Canagarajah's explanation of each one is outlined below.

Learning as a detached cognitive activity vs. learning as personal

Mainstream pedagogy privileges reason and objectivity. One of its key assumptions is that "learning involves the mind solely (or primarily) in analysis, comprehension and interpretation" (Canagarajah, 1999, p. 15). By contrast, critical pedagogy acknowledges the role of the emotions, imagination and intuition in learning and recognises that the learner's "consciousness, identity and relationships are implicated in the learning process" (p. 15).

Learning as transcendental vs. learning as situated

Canagarajah uses the term "transcendental" to describe the belief that the learner should "rise above everything in the environment (i.e. society, culture, ideology) in order to be impartial and neutral in the acquisition of knowledge" (p. 15) – a belief that he locates within the mainstream pedagogic tradition which also considers schooling to be a neutral site. For proponents of critical pedagogy, schooling is shaped by (and also shapes) the context in which the school is situated. Learners and learning are grounded in particular sociocultural and political contexts, and practices and knowledges are socially constructed.

Learning processes as universal vs. learning processes as cultural

The traditional mainstream position has been that modes of learning and thinking are common across all communities and thus that the same, or at least very similar, approaches to teaching and learning can be 'effective' in all contexts. The position most commonly taken by advocates of critical pedagogy is that modes of learning and thinking "vary according to the social practices and cultural traditions of different communities" (p. 15) and that mainstream pedagogy, in privileging the preferred ways of learning of the dominant community, may "create conflicts for learners from other pedagogical traditions" (pp. 15-16).   A frequently quoted example of such conflict is

that described by Heath (1983) who found that the “ways with words” of children from ‘white’ working class and African-American families did not equip them for success in classrooms in which the linguistic and cultural practices of the middle class were dominant.

Knowledge as value-free vs. knowledge as ideological

According to Canagarajah, mainstream pedagogy treats knowledge as if it were devoid of moral, cultural or ethical values whereas critical pedagogy treats all knowledge as “value-laden”, with teachers having the responsibility to help learners to “interrogate the hidden assumptions and values that accompany knowledge” (p. 16).

Knowledge as pre-constructed vs. knowledge as negotiated

Mainstream pedagogy considers teaching to involve the transfer of information, rules, skills, etc. from teacher to learner through a process that Freire describes as “banking”, whereas central to critical pedagogy is the notion that knowledge is a “changing construct shaped by the social and cultural practices of those who produce it” (p. 16). Teachers and students are co-constructors of learning.

Learning as instrumental vs. learning as political

This binary encapsulates much of what has been outlined in the previous contrasts and can be summed up in three sentences from Canagarajah’s explanation. Firstly, “[S]ince mainstream pedagogues assume that learning is value-free, pragmatic and autonomous, they can practice teaching as an innocent and practical activity of passing on correct facts, truths and skills to students” (pp. 16-17). Secondly, the contrasting position of critical pedagogy is that because key aspects of education are defined by the groups and institutions that control society, “[L]earning, therefore, is a highly contested, conflict-ridden enterprise where the competing knowledge, values and practices of diverse communities struggle for dominance” (p. 16). Thirdly, given that the position of critical pedagogy is that there is always a political dimension to learning, “teachers have the ethical responsibility of negotiating the hidden values and

interests behind knowledge, and are expected to help students to adopt a critical approach to learning" (p. 17).

For Canagarajah, critical pedagogy offers the possibility of responding to "the challenges, aspirations and interests" of "marginalized communities" more effectively than mainstream pedagogy because of its sociocultural orientation and its recognition of the "hidden values and interests behind knowledge" (1999, p. 17). The teacher education materials analysed in this study were designed in the early years of South Africa's democracy at a time of substantive change to education policy and to curriculum. These changes were expected to be responsive to the needs of the entire society, but particularly to the needs of the 'previously disadvantaged' – a phrase much used in the media to refer to marginalised communities and individuals.

For this study the contrasting orientations to pedagogy outlined by Canagarajah offer possibilities for a critical analysis of both the pedagogy / ies of the materials (their design) and the pedagogy / ies that these materials offer to teachers to guide their work in classrooms. However, in undertaking such an analysis it is also important to be open to the possibility that the two orientations are 'entangled' in the materials. Nuttall describes entanglement as "a condition of being twisted together or entwined, involved with ... It works with difference and sameness but also with their limits, their predicaments, their moments of complication" (2009, p. 1).

I find important for a critical pedagogic analysis of materials for teacher education the observation of Luke (2008) that elements of traditional pedagogy have proved "remarkably resilient" in the teaching and learning of literacy across cultures and historical periods. Included in this traditional didactic pedagogy is "some element of direct instruction in elements of the code, memorization, rote reproduction of the symbol system, enforced bodily discipline and training" (Luke, 2008, p. 79). Luke suggests that it may be possible to "join" elements of traditional and critical pedagogies by viewing overt instruction in terms of "mentor-apprentice, elder-youth"

relationships in which the instruction is “a form of cultural gifting” rather than a “marketised exchange” (2008, p. 81). Features of an approach which he terms ‘pedagogy as gift’ are [19]:

- the participation of community / family elders;
- a focus on culturally significant texts;
- an alteration of the exchange structures in the classroom to approximate those of gifting, with these involving reciprocal responsibilities to speak, read and write from first entry into schooling;
- a formal ritualisation of more traditional aspects of pedagogy – including choral and oral reading and singing around culturally significant texts;
- a routinised weaving of elements of rote pedagogy into more dialogic critical education;
- an engagement with both residual and emergent traditions and modes of representation which would encourage weaving between digital, print and oral texts.

(Luke, 2008, pp. 85-86)

If these features are evident in the design of teacher education materials, they may contribute to the constitution of relationships between teacher educator and learner-teacher or teacher-learner (through the pedagogy *of* the materials) and relationships between teachers and the learners in their classrooms (through the pedagogy advocated *in* the materials) that differ in some respects from either of the orientations to pedagogy outlined in Canagarajah’s binary contrasts.

While much of the literature on theorising pedagogy can be considered to be inclusive of teacher education pedagogy / ies, some teacher educators (e.g. Loughran, 2008) argue that specific attention needs to be given to the conceptualisation of teacher education pedagogy. Given that teacher education materials are the focus of analysis in this study, section 2.3 outlines some of the recommendations for the development of teacher education pedagogy that have been made by researchers in this field.

[19] Each bullet point is a heading used by Luke to introduce his explanation of what would be involved in teaching in this way.

2.3 Teacher education pedagogy / ies

From the 1990s onwards, a number of authors whose research interest is in teacher education have argued for the "development" (e.g. Korthagen, 2001; Loughran, 2006, 2008; Russell, 1997) or "reconceptualisation" (e.g. Moletsane, 2003) of pedagogy for teacher education. I draw on this work to support my view that teaching teachers is a particularly complex kind of teaching. One of its dominant themes is the challenge to teacher educators to 'practise what they preach'. For example, Russell argues that "[I]n teacher education, what and how we teach are interactive, and we ignore this interaction at our peril. Just as actions are said to speak louder than words, so how we teach may speak more loudly than what we teach" (Russell, 1998, in Loughran, 2006, p. 82). In similar vein Murphy argues that "[T]he pedagogy advocated within schools should be mirrored in the pedagogy of teacher education" (2008, p. 38).

Like Russell and Murphy, Loughran has written extensively on teacher education. He proposes a teacher education pedagogy that enables students of teaching to become "conscious of their own learning so that they overtly develop their understanding of the teaching practices they experience in order to purposefully link the manner in which they learn in a given situation with the nature of the teaching itself" (2006, p. 4). He argues that teacher educators must not only teach content, but also teach in ways that give students of teaching access to the pedagogical reasoning that underpins the teaching they are experiencing (2006, p. 5). One of his aspirations for teacher education pedagogy is that it might enable students of teaching to develop confidence in their own professional judgements "as a consequence of explicating their pedagogical reasoning" (Loughran, 2008, p. 1180) and to understand the value of doing so. Teacher education pedagogy needs to be "a site for inquiry and growth" (Loughran, 2008, p. 1179).

Loughran asks teacher educators to focus on "the dilemmas, puzzles, issues and concerns that comprise the problematic nature of teaching so that that which is so often hidden and therefore implicit in practice is better able to be seen" (2006, p. 42).

He suggests that one way of doing this is to create and offer *pedagogic episodes* to students of teaching:

> A pedagogy of teacher education involves a knowledge of teaching about teaching and a knowledge of learning about teaching and how the two influence one another in the pedagogic episodes that teacher educators create to offer students of teaching experiences that might inform their developing views of practice. (Loughran, 2008, p. 1180)

Rodgers and Scott are critical of teacher educators who do not always pay sufficient attention to "the developmental diversity" of student teachers. They argue that "prospective teachers should have the capacity to be self-authoring and self-critical" (2008, p. 751-752). In view of their diverse experiences of school and teacher education in the apartheid past, South Africa's learner-teachers and teacher-learners are likely to have had particularly diverse experiences of learning. For Rodgers and Scott "developmental diversity" refers to what they describe as differing "developmental levels" in pre-service and in-service teachers' capacities to reflect on and make sense of their experiences, including their experiences as students and as teachers. They challenge teacher educators to facilitate the shift of teachers from "being authored" to "authoring their own stories" (2008, p. 752). Authoring of identities is a focus of Clarke's study of the first cohort of women to participate in a new teacher education programme in the United Arab Emirates. This study was framed by sociocultural theory which, according to Clarke, has informed recent conceptualizations of learning to teach as principally concerned with "the development of teacher identity" rather than with "the acquisition of a set of skills and techniques" (2008, p. 8). He quotes Britzman's argument that "[L]earning to teach – like teaching itself – is always the process of becoming: a time of formation and transformation, of scrutiny into what one is doing, and who one can become" (Britzman, 1991, p.8, quoted in Clarke, 2008, p. 8). Such a reflective orientation to teaching and to teacher education is also advocated by Johnson (1999):

> If teachers' epistemic beliefs are to be refined, expanded or transformed, and teachers' projected or newly emerging beliefs are to become more dominant, teachers must become cognizant of their own beliefs; question those beliefs in light of what they intellectually know and not simply what they intuitively feel; resolve

> conflicting images within their own belief systems; and have access to, develop an understanding of, and have successful encounters with alternative images of teachers and teaching. (Johnson, 1999, p. 39)

In my view, providing students of teaching with a 'pedagogical mirror' and with both the opportunities and the skills to look beneath the surface of the looking glass, is very important for their professional development. Such provision is conceptually and practically challenging for all teacher educators but most of all for those working in distance education programmes whose students are not physically present in the classroom. In this study, the critical pedagogic analysis of selected materials includes consideration of whether and how, the designers address the challenge of providing models and supporting self-reflection. For example, do they create "pedagogic episodes" as advocated by Loughran (2008) and if so what subject positions do these episodes offer to readers? Do they encourage readers to be reflective and if so, what is the object of reflection? Do they take into account the "developmental diversity" of their readers?

With reference to in-service teacher education, Bernstein claims that "training" programmes most often position teachers' knowledge to serve agendas other than those of teachers and that teachers' identities are "formed and re-formed according to technological, organizational and market contingencies" (1996, p. 73). This claim is likely to be supported by those in the field of English Language Teaching such as Breen (2007) and Canagarajah, (1999; 2005) who critique the "pedagogic imperialism" of course providers from the "centre" who promote "imported innovations" rather than acknowledging "the authenticity of local pedagogic principles and frameworks for classroom practice that are generated by teachers in real and diverse situations" (Breen, 2007, p. 1073). Canagarajah argues that the question "What counts as good pedagogy?" should be rephrased as "What counts as good pedagogy *in specific sociocultural contexts*?" (2005, p. 210; italics in the original). Addressing diversity of classroom and community context is one of the many challenges to be faced by the designers of distance education materials for teacher education in South Africa (and

elsewhere) and the ways and the extent to which this is done is considered in the analysis of the materials selected for this study.

While Bernstein wrote little about teacher education specifically, his theorization of pedagogic discourse, referred to in Section 2.2, has been taken up by teacher educators working in a range of contexts. For example, Ensor uses his concepts of classification and framing to describe "different types or modalities of teacher education discourse" (2004, p. 217). Ensor's explications of classification and of framing are quoted at length because of what they offer to a critical analysis of the pedagogy of teacher education materials:

> Classification for Bernstein embodies power relations and is concerned with the strength of the boundaries between categories, contents and agents of symbolic and material space. Classification of teacher education discourse refers to the distinctiveness and degree of specialisation of the discourse as reflected, for example, in the use of a specialized vocabulary or register. Teacher education programmes vary in strength of classification, both internally – say, between philosophy of education and life skills – and externally, in relation to other academic discourses and to the everyday. The greater the degree of specialisation, the greater the distinctiveness of the discourse in relation to others, and the stronger its classification. (Ensor, 2004, pp. 219-220)

As outlined in Section 2.2.1, while classification refers to relations between discourses, framing refers to relations within, or control relations. Ensor is particularly interested in "variation in the relative control (or framing) by the teacher educator (or classroom teacher) and student teachers (or classroom learners) over selection, sequencing and pacing of content, and evaluative criteria" (2004, p. 220). She relates this cluster of concerns to Bernstein's "instructional discourse": the content, skills and competences to be acquired by students. In addition, she is interested in "who controls the social and moral order of the pedagogic context, those aspects that Bernstein refers to as the 'regulative discourse'" (2004, p. 220). Ensor describes the likely effects of strong framing of content selections, sequencing and pacing on the subjectivities of students of teaching:

> Strong framing over the selection of content in teacher education discourse implies that there are few opportunities for students to insert their own narratives or choices

> into the programme or course on offer. Strong framing over sequencing likewise implies that teacher educators rather than students control the ordering of content both within sessions and over a course of study. Strong framing over pacing suggests that students have few opportunities to vary the pace of the teacher education course, and strong framing over the criteria of evaluation indicates that the rules for successful performance are made explicit to students and are not open to negotiation. Strong framing over hierarchical rules means that the teacher educator adopts a positional role and is relatively closed to potential variation from established social norms. Weak framing over hierarchical rules suggests personal control in a more open relationship. (Ensor, 2004, p. 220)

Ensor's explication for teacher education of Bernstein's theory of classification and framing (the pedagogizing of knowledge) is useful both for analyzing the content selected for the materials that are the focus of this study and for analyzing how this content is mediated on the page. In section 2.4, in preparation for this analysis, I draw on the work of Vygotsky and of some of the many writers on learning and teaching who have discussed and extended his thinking about the role of mediation in learning.

2.4 Distance education pedagogy: mediation on the page or screen

While Vygotsky's theoretical and experimental work in the fields of developmental psychology and education focused on the child, several of the key concepts introduced in this work have influenced research which has both child and adult learning as its focus. One of these concepts is mediation, which, like pedagogy, is frequently used in writing on education without being defined. Although he writes extensively on mediation in *Mind in Society*, the closest that Vygotsky comes to a definition is in glossing "mediated" as a synonym for the "indirect", as in "indirect (mediated) activity" and "indirect (mediated) function" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 54). Lantolf and Thorne (2006), whose research in second language acquisition acknowledges Vygotsky's sociocultural theory as its foundation, define mediation as:

> the process through which humans deploy culturally constructed artifacts, concepts and activities to regulate (i.e. gain voluntary control over and transform) the material world of their own and each other's social and mental activity. (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006, p.79)

For distance education, what is particularly significant about this definition is that it includes, as did Vygotsky, both the self and others as agents in the mediating process.

Mediational means and processes

Vygotsky argued that the material tools (for example, a string tied around a finger as a reminder to take a particular action) and the symbols or sign systems (for example, language, writing, number systems) used in a mediating process have been created by societies over the course of human history and change with the form of society and the level of its cultural development. In his view the learner's internalization of culturally produced sign systems involves a series of behavioural transformations which begin on the social level and continue on the individual level:

> An operation that initially represents an external activity is reconstructed and begins to occur internally ... An interpersonal process is transformed into an intrapersonal one. Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice; first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relations between human individuals. (Vygotsky, 1978, pp. 56-57; italics in the translation)

For Vygotsky language plays a key role in these transformations:

> ... the most significant moment in the course of intellectual development, which gives birth to the purely human forms of practical and abstract intelligence, occurs when speech and practical activity, two previously completely independent lines of development, converge. Although children's use of tools during their preverbal period is comparable to that of apes, as soon as speech and the use of signs are incorporated into any action, the action becomes transformed and organised along entirely new lines. (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 24; italics in the translation)

The zone of proximal development

Vygotsky argued that in any mediating process it is important for the 'teacher' (parent, community member, more knowledgeable peer, classroom teacher or distance education materials designer) to understand the difference between the learner's actual and potential developmental levels. The actual level of development refers to what a learner can do or understand without assistance. The potential level of development refers to what a learner can do or understand with optimal guidance

from a teacher (Gultig, 2001, p. 96). Vygotsky defined the 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD) as:

> ... the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers. (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86; italics in the translation)

Central to Vygotsky's thinking on mediation is the idea that "the only "good learning" is that which is in advance of development" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 89). In the Afterword to the 1978 translation of *Mind in Society*, John-Steiner and Souberman observe that he was critical of "educational intervention that lags behind developed psychological processes instead of focusing upon emerging functions and capabilities" (1978, p. 131). In their discussion of Vygotsky's conceptualisation of the ZPD, Johnson and Golombek (2003) suggest that in this zone individuals and groups "have the opportunity to outperform their competence" (2003, p. 733). In order for this to happen there needs to be what Bruner (1985) terms a "match" between the support system in the social environment and the acquisition process in the learner (1985, p. 28). In his discussion of "mediational means" Wertsch (1991) argues that it is important to understand which of these means is (or are) "privileged" by teachers and researchers in particular sociocultural settings and whether or not the means selected are well-matched to the previous socialisation experiences of the learners (1991, p. 31-32). I suggest that in working with adult learners it is important for the mediator to provide support for critical reflection on these experiences as the basis for new learning in the ZPD.

Inghilleri (2002) argues that the nature and consequences of social interactions in the ZPD have been interpreted differently by theorists with differing ideological / theoretical positions. She gives as contrasting examples the writing on language and education of Britton and Bernstein[20], arguing that the former, located in the liberal discourse of a personal growth model of education, interpreted the ZPD as "a site of

[20] Both became influential in education in the United Kingdom (and beyond) from the 1960s onwards – Britton for his advocacy of opportunities for exploratory talk and personal writing in the language classroom and Bernstein for his sociolinguistic code theory.

benign interactive processes" (2002, p. 474) involving "the creation or exchange of mutually interpretable meanings" (2002, p. 475) while the latter "emphasised the diverse cultural sources (and resources) of both the meaning-makers and the meanings that were made" (2002, p. 475) and argued that in view of this diversity, social interaction in the ZPD is likely to involve contestation over meanings.

Designers of distance education materials have to make assumptions about their readers' previous socialisation experiences and about their current developmental level. They face the challenge of constructing what I. Moll (2003, p. 21) refers to as "learning pathways" between their readers' presumed existing networks of knowledge and skill and those which the to-be-acquired knowledge domain contains. Analysis of how this is done and from what ideological / theoretical position(s) forms part of this study.

Adult readers of teacher education texts already have considerable knowledge of everyday (what Vygotsky termed "spontaneous") concepts and of "schooled" or scientific concepts, so the challenge for designers of these texts is to work with both kinds of concepts in ways that enable readers to acquire new knowledge. As a result of his research (and that of his colleagues) on the development of scientific concepts in childhood, Vygotsky argued that "it is essential first to bring spontaneous concepts up to a certain level of development that would guarantee that the scientific concepts are actually just above the spontaneous ones" (Vygotsky, 1986, pp. 193-194). As observed by L. Moll (2001), everyday or spontaneous concepts provide the "conceptual fabric" for the development of schooled or scientific concepts and in the process the everyday concepts are transformed through their connection to the more systematic (schooled or scientific) ones (2001, p.114).

The scaffolding metaphor

While Vygotsky did not use the word *scaffolding*, he did argue that "properly organised learning" (1978, p. 90) has an important role to play in the transformation that results

in mental development. Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976) who first used the conceptual metaphor of scaffolding and many others who have subsequently written about teacher intervention in learning (e.g. Bruner, 1985; Hammond and Gibbons, 2001; Kostogriz, 2002; Maybin, Mercer & Stierer, 1992), acknowledge that Vygotsky's theorisation of the zone of proximal development and of the role of the adult guide or more knowledgeable peer, underpin their work. For example, in his research on child language development Bruner (1985) acknowledges the central role of social transaction in learning and development. According to him the scaffolding process involves:

(i) modelling the task "to establish that something is possible and interesting" and encouraging the learner to risk trying the new;
(ii) setting up manageable "task chunks" for the learner;
(iii) gradually adding new challenges for the learner in response to what s/he has already achieved;
(iv) commenting on / discussing the task and involving the learner in dialogue.

(Bruner, 1985, p. 29)

Tharp (1993), in H. Daniels (1996), extends these four parts of the process to seven means of assisting the performance of learners and of facilitating learning. These seven means are quoted in full because although Tharp is describing face to face interactions, each of them is likely to be drawn on (in both similar and different ways) by designers of distance education materials:

1. Modelling: offering behaviour for imitation. Modelling assists by giving the learner information and a remembered image that can serve as a performance standard.

2. Feedback: the process of providing information on a performance as it compares to a standard. Feedback is essential in assisting performance because it allows performance to be compared to the standard and this allows self-correction. Feedback assists performance in every domain from tennis to nuclear physics. Ensuring feedback is the most common and single most effective form of self-assistance.

3. Contingency management: application of the principles of reinforcement and punishment to behaviour.

4. Instructing: requesting specific action. It assists by selecting the correct response and by providing clarity, information and decision making. It is most useful when the learner can perform some segment of the task but cannot yet analyse the entire performance or make judgements about the elements to choose.

5. Questioning: a request for a verbal response that assists by producing a mental operation the learner cannot or would not produce alone. This interaction assists further by giving the assistor information about the learner's developing understanding.

6. Cognitive structuring: "explanations". Cognitive structuring assists by providing explanatory and belief structures that organise and justify new learning and perceptions and allow the creation of new or modified schemata.

7. Task structuring: chunking, segregating, sequencing, or otherwise structuring a task into or from components. It assists learners by modifying the task itself, so the units presented by the learner fit into the ZPD when the entire structured task is beyond that zone.

(Tharp, 1993, pp. 271-272, in H. Daniels, 1996, pp. 12-13)

Some writers on scaffolding would be critical of the prescriptive nature of some of the mediational means described by Tharp. Kinginger (2002, pp. 245-247) argues that interpretations of the ZPD can be placed along a continuum. At one extreme is the "skills" interpretation which focuses on "the transmission of discrete bits of knowledge via social interaction from the knower to the learner". At the other is an interpretation which emphasizes the "co-construction of new knowledge" – an interpretation favoured by those working within a sociocultural frame (e.g. Hammond and Gibbons, 2001; Kostogriz, 2002; Rogoff, 2003). This interpretation offers more 'space' to learners as agentive subjects. Rogoff (2003) argues that as people of each generation engage in sociocultural endeavours with other people, they make use of and extend the cultural tools and practices inherited from previous generations:

> As people develop through their shared use of cultural tools and practices, they simultaneously contribute to the transformation of cultural tools, practices and institutions. (2003, p. 52)

In his discussion of semiotic mediation, Kostogriz argues that "discourses, texts and other forms of semiotic representation (images, songs, toys, pictures, etc.) are sociopolitical tools for positioning people and for producing their subjectivities" (2002, p. 22). They function as "a means for reproducing certain ideologies, desires and

behaviours" (2002, p. 22). However, he also suggests that mediating artefacts are characterised by their internal contradictoriness:

> On the one hand, they carry a relatively fixed meaning and hence their specific functions become recognisable by the participants in a practice. On the other hand, mediating artefacts also embody a potential for multiple meanings and uses. (Kostogriz, 2002, p. 181)

While a text in which an author's main purpose is to transmit particular information may be read resistantly, a text which has been designed and produced as a 'thinking device' for the generation of multiple meanings is more likely to be 'taken up' from a range of subject positions by its readers. I suggest that where readers have been schooled to decode and accept single meanings in texts (as in teacher education curricula based on fundamental pedagogics), the process of becoming a critical reader and a maker of multiple meanings is likely to require what Kostogriz terms "cognitive scaffolding" (2002, p. 228).

In his discussion of what is involved in active and critical learning in a new semiotic domain – a domain in which a learner is likely to need supportive scaffolding – Gee (2003) argues that a learner needs to learn (i) how to understand and produce meanings in the particular semiotic domain that are recognisable to those affiliated with the domain, (ii) how to think about the domain at a 'meta' level as a complex system of interrelated parts and (iii) how to innovate in the domain in order to produce meanings "that, while recognizable, are seen as somehow novel or unpredictable" (2003, p. 23). In this study I aim to understand what (if any) cognitive scaffolding the designers of the selected materials offer to readers to support them in becoming "active and critical learners" (Gee, 2003), to become co-constructors of knowledge and thus to be 'subjects' in the agentive sense discussed in the next section.

2.5 Mediation and subjectivity

Given that I argue that the ways in which designers mediate knowledge on the page constitute "ideal readers" (Hall, 1980) as particular kinds of subject (as students and teachers), I conclude this theoretical framework chapter with a review of some of the extensive literature on identity and subjectivity which has informed my analysis of selected teacher education materials.

The previous section included quotations from Kostogriz's exploration of Vygotsky's cultural-historical approach to learning and pyschological development. Kostogriz is one of many contemporary writers who choose to use the term subjectivity rather than identity. While the theorisation of subjectivity has produced different models and approaches (Mansfield, 2000), what is common to all of them is critique of "the notion of an integral, originary and unified identity" (Hall, 1996, p. 1) because subject positions, or "ways of being an individual" (Weedon, 1987, p. 2), are neither "unified nor fixed" (Weedon, 1997, p. 87) and subjectivity is always "socially and historically embedded" (McKinney, 2003, p. 44). While Hall acknowledges that identity can no longer be thought of as unified and fixed, he argues that it is a concept "without which certain key questions cannot be thought at all" (1996, p. 2). He chooses to continue using the term, in its plural form, and to conceptualise identities as "points of temporary attachment to the subject positions which discursive practices construct for us" (1996, p. 6). He argues that "an effective suturing of the subject to a subject position, requires not only that the subject is 'hailed', but that the subject invests in the position" (1996, p. 6). This duality in the constitution of the subject has been discussed by a number of authors. For example, in the introduction to *The Foucault Reader*, Rabinow outlines Foucault's schema of three modes of objectification of the subject: "those that categorize, distribute and manipulate, those through which we have come to understand ourselves scientifically, those that we have used to form ourselves into meaning-giving selves" (1984, p. 12). Rabinow points out that in the first two modes Foucault considers the subject to be "basically in a passive constrained

position" whereas in the third, "the subject is actively involved in self-formation" (1984, p. 11). Janks argues that the word *subject* is "usefully ambiguous":

> One sense captures the idea of being subjected to outside forces, subjected by discourse or being the subject of someone or something – an essentially disempowered view of the subject. The other sense of 'subject' is of the subject as agent or actor. The grammatical subject is the 'doer', not the one 'done to'. (1995, p. 115)

A critical pedagogic analysis of teacher education materials needs to consider what subject positions are offered to readers as students and as teachers, how they are encouraged to invest in these positions and whether they are constituted as active or passive.

Some authors who continue to use the term identity [21] rather than subjectivity indicate that identity is not singular and fixed by attaching to it descriptors such as "socially-situated" or "socio-culturally situated" (e.g. Gee, 1999). In a discussion of identity as an analytic lens for research in education, Gee (2001) defines identity as "[B]eing recognised as a certain 'kind of person', in a given context" and suggests that in this sense of the term "all people have multiple identities connected not to their 'internal states' but to their performances in society" (2001, p. 99). They may perform hyphenated identities such as Italian-American, African-American, trainee-chef, or, as discussed in this study, teacher-learner or learner-teacher. Gee summarises four perspectives on identity in the table reproduced below.

[21] There are also authors who appear to use the terms identity and subjectivity interchangeably (e.g. N. Rose, 1996, p. 130; Norton, 1997, pp. 410-411; Norton, 2000, pp. 124-129) and at least one who uses the term 'subjective identities' (Fataar, 2008, p. 5).

Table 2.2 Four ways to view identity

PROCESS		POWER	SOURCE OF POWER
1. Nature-identity: a state	developed from	forces	in nature[22]
2. Institution-identity: A position	authorized by	authorities	within institutions
3. Discourse-identity: an individual trait	recognised in	the discourse / dialogue	of / with "rational" individuals
4. Affinity-identity: experiences	shared in	the practice	of "affinity groups"

(Gee, 2001, p. 100)

According to Gee, the part of our identity that he terms "natural" is outside an individual's control as the source of power is "nature" and not the individual or the society. He gives as an example the state of being an identical twin. However, he argues that natural identities "must always gain their force as identities through the work of institutions, discourse and dialogue, or affinity groups" (2001, p. 102). An individual's institutional identities are authored (or authorized) by an institution. Gee argues that institutional identities can be viewed as either "a calling" or "an imposition", giving as an example of the former his own vocation as a university professor (a position which he attempts to fulfil to the best of his abilities) and of the latter, the position of a prisoner who is "forced" to carry out certain activities which he or she may attempt to resist. I suggest that the institutional identity of a learner-teacher or teacher-learner may include elements of both "calling" and "imposition". While she or he may consider teaching a vocation and to have chosen to enrol for either a pre-service teacher education programme or an in-service professional development programme, once enrolled, in order to achieve certification, particular institutional requirements must be met. While the materials designed for an institutional programme are not solely responsible for the authoring of particular

[22] Gee is referring to biological 'forces'.

identities as student or as teacher, in a distance education programme they are likely to play an important role in this process[23].

Gee suggests that an individual's discursive identities are constructed in discourse or dialogue, in the way that others "treat, talk about and interact with" her or him. In distance education materials, such 'treatment' appears on the page or screen. He also suggests that discursive identities can be placed along a continuum in terms of how active or passive an individual is in "recruiting" them, so that such identities may be considered as either "achieved" or "ascribed" (Gee, 2001, pp. 103-104). The roles of discourse in the constitution of identities / subjectivities are discussed further in the final pages of this chapter.

Whereas discourse is constitutive of an individual's discursive identities, what is central to identity from an affinity perspective is participation in a particular social practice:

> What people in the group share, and must share to constitute an affinity group, is allegiance to, access to, and participation in specific practices that provide each of the group's members the requisite experiences. (Gee, 2001, p. 105)

Gee suggests that while it may seem that an affinity group is one that an individual must actively choose to join, businesses and institutions, including schools, attempt to create affinity groups among workers and clients. His example from education is of the efforts of "school reformers" to create classrooms as "communities of learners" in which learners' identities are those of "proactive enquirers" who are responsible for each other's learning (Gee, 2001, p. 107). He argues that in the context of such school reform "[T]he learners become something like an affinity group, although once again, one that is sponsored by an institution that still retains a good deal of power (i.e., the school, the teacher, and the reformers/researchers)" (2001, p. 107). In post-apartheid South Africa designers of distance education materials for South Africa's teachers may be aiming to constitute teachers as members of an affinity group (or groups) tasked with transforming schooling. If this is the case, I am interested in analysing how the

[23] Other important roles are played by assignments, examinations and various bureaucratic requirements and procedures.

mediation of knowledge on the page is likely to contribute to the realisation of the designers' transformation agendas.

Gee observes that "human beings must see each other in certain ways and not others if there are to be identities of any sort" (2001, p. 109). Such identity construction is the focus of Samuel's (2008) survey of research studies in the field of teacher education from the 1960s onwards in which he draws on international studies to inform his focus on South Africa. I summarise Samuel's article at some length (if that is not a contradiction in terms) because the current identities of many teacher educators (including those who design materials for distance education programmes) and teachers will have been influenced by successive constructions of teacher identity over decades.

Samuel suggests that in the 1960s, influenced by "behaviourist scientificity", researchers and policy makers explained poor learner achievement as deriving from "the lack of structured learning environments in which learners could be taught specific objectives for each lesson" (Samuel, 2008, p. 4). Teachers were constructed as the "villains" responsible for the large scale failure of learners in Western societies to compete with the "scientifically literate" learners produced by schooling in the Soviet Union. To improve what was offered in schools teachers were expected to be "instrumental technicians" who enacted "the expressed goals of the authorities" (Samuel, 2008, p. 4). In South Africa these goals were expressed in racialised apartheid terms and a "good teacher" was one "who adhered, both ideologically and politically" (p. 4), to the goals of the State education authorities. Samuel argues that both internationally and in South Africa, the 1970s was an era in which teachers "attempted to overturn the negative and servile role" (p. 5) that had been constructed for them in the 1960s. In this era micro-contextual analysis of schools and their sociological cultures resulted in findings that teachers were often "victims" of their circumstances.

By the 1980s teachers became "a more critical presence" (p. 5), increasingly engaging in action research in their classrooms and schools and in collaborations with outside researchers. Samuel characterises this shift in roles as a shift from "victim" to "individual free agent" (p. 5). In South Africa this was a period in which many of the country's teachers took on a "worker identity" (p. 5), participating in the activities of teacher movements and teacher unions to demand an end to the differing conditions of service for teachers in different 'racial' and gender groups, and in the campaigns to demand democratic government.

From the mid1990s to the beginning of the twenty-first century, in the first years of South Africa's democracy, teachers were viewed as "reconstructionists" (p. 5) at a time when educational policies "became infused with the plot of transformation and the political struggles of the early resistance to apartheid" (p. 5). They were expected to take on a range of roles which went beyond classroom practice to include social responsibilities in the community. It is in this era that the materials analysed in this study were designed.

Towards the end of the first decade of the twenty-first century, the pendulum has swung:

> The new era of teacher education more than ten years into democratic governance in South Africa sees an increasingly judgmental approach concerning teachers being meted out. Teachers are increasingly constructed as the villains who are not able to realise adequately the goals of the new education and training system. ... Whereas teachers were in the forefront of campaigns to topple the apartheid system, post-apartheid teachers are considered to lack the "competence" to be agents of the new agenda. These increasing demands on teachers reflect back to an earlier era in which teachers were being framed to become technicians of the State agenda, ***albeit*** a new State with a new "transformatory agenda". (Samuel, 2008, p. 6; italics in the original)

Samuel contends that there are "many different forces which push and pull teachers' roles and identities in different directions" (p. 11). He posits a model of teacher identity which he terms "the force field" model (p. 11) in which the key forces are a

teacher's biography, context (macro-social, political and historical), institutional setting (micro-contextual forces) and programmatic impact (conceptions of curricula). These forces are neither stable nor unitary and may influence each individual teacher's identities in different ways. Samuel suggests that they should all be taken into account by teacher educators who aim to support teachers in their professional development as teachers "who are competent and committed to the enterprise of organising systematic learning for their learners" (p. 15).

As this study aims to identify the subject positions (both passive and active) that are constructed for readers as students and as teachers by designers of teacher education materials, the final part of this chapter outlines some of the ideas on power, knowledge and discourse which have been contributed to theories of subjectivity by Foucault and others who have explicated and / or elaborated his ideas.

For Foucault (1980), power and knowledge are joined together in discourse and discourses are bodies of social knowledge which are produced by those who are in a position to make authoritative statements about an object of knowledge (Comber, 1996; Dixon, 2007; McHoul and Grace, 1993). Foucault uses the term discourse to refer to "a group of statements which structure the way a thing is thought, and the way we act on the basis of that thinking" (G. Rose, 2001, p. 136). Designers of materials for teacher education programmes are in a position to do such structuring and to influence the actions of readers.

Foucault's conceptualisation of discourse moves away from a focus on language towards a focus on discipline and he uses discipline to refer to both scholarly disciplines (e.g. science, psychiatry) and disciplinary institutions such as the prison, the hospital and the school (McHoul & Grace, 1993). Comber expresses succinctly the relationship between power and disciplinary knowledge in Foucault's work:

> According to Foucault, modern societies are governed through the exercise of power in local sites, the family, the school, the hospital, the asylum, the prison and so on and in these institutions professional knowledges are used to classify and record the individual against specified norms. (Comber, 1996, p. 38)

In the teacher education materials analysed in this study, readers are 'disciplined' both as students and as teachers of whom the designers have particular expectations in terms of disciplinary practices associated with being a student engaged in a range of learning practices, and with being a teacher engaged in a range of teaching practices in a classroom.

Foucault (1980) argues that discourses produce truth. He understands truth to be "a system of ordered procedures for the production, regulation, distribution, circulation and operation of statements" and argues that truth is "linked in a circular relation with systems of power which produce and sustain it, and to effects of power which it induces and which explain it" (1980, p. 133). Within a discipline or field of knowledge competing, and sometimes contradictory, discourses may be involved in producing particular "regimes of truth" and particular subjects. Of importance for this study is the observation made by Janks (2010) that texts are instantiations of discourse/s:

> 'Discourse' is an abstract concept. Socially patterned ways of speaking/writing/designing and constructing truth are not tangible. They only become visible when they are realised in texts. Every text is an instance, hence 'instantiation' of a discourse. They are the material form that discourses take. (Janks, 2010, p. 55)

I argue that in texts designed for teacher education programmes in South Africa there is likely to be evidence of competing discourses and of hybrid discourses, of discourses that include traces of the apartheid past – instances of what Janks (2010) describes as the 'tenacious discourses' of old patterns of thinking – and of discourses of transformation. For example, in post-apartheid South Africa, in-service professional development programmes for teachers need to relate to, and work with, qualified teachers as professionals who are experienced in the work they have done and knowledgeable about their current practices in their local contexts. At the same time, however, these programmes have to take cognisance of the history of neglect and dysfunction in education referred to in Chapter One. Designers and producers of teacher education programmes face the challenge of finding ways to work effectively with contradictory messages. One message to teachers is that they are to be "active inventors of a new educational vision for South Africa" (Adler, 2002, pp. 7-8) and that

what they know and have learned is valued. Another message is that this knowledge may be an inadequate base for their professional development. A critical pedagogic analysis of the discourses instantiated in the three sets of materials may enable understanding of the subject positions offered to readers by designers who are themselves subject to specific discursive regimes and historical periods (Hall, 2001, p. 80).

As noted by Dixon (2007), in his later work Foucault became increasingly interested in the ways in which people are directed to manage or "govern" themselves. In 'Technologies of the Self' his focus is on "a history of the different ways in our culture that humans develop knowledge about themselves" (Foucault, 1994a, p. 224). He suggests that technologies of the self "permit individuals to effect by their own means, or with the help of others, a certain number of operations on their own bodies and souls, thoughts, conduct and way of being, so as to transform themselves in order to attain a certain state of happiness, purity, wisdom, perfection or immortality" (1994a, p. 225). These operations include both reading and writing, with Foucault making a distinction between writing for oneself and writing to communicate with others. He argues that one of the central purposes of writing for oneself is to "capture the already said, to collect what one has managed to hear or read, and for a purpose that is nothing less than the shaping of the self' (1994b, p. 211).   He describes writing to others as offering oneself to their gaze (1994b, p. 216).

Comber argues that the concept of technologies of the self "can be applied to a number of moves in educational discourses which emphasise self-regulation (self-assessment, behaviour management) and self-awareness (metacognition, metalinguistic awareness)" (1996, p. 41). She suggests that in such moves "the pedagogical imperative is directed at producing particular kinds of self-knowledge and self-control in the student" (1996, p. 41). This study includes analysis of 'moves' made by materials designers which encourage particular kinds of self-regulation and self-awareness by readers as students and as teachers. Such moves may include references

to the importance of self-discipline with regard to studying regularly and for prescribed periods of time, to completing assignments timeously and to writing journal entries and assignments.

In this chapter I have reviewed literature which informs the overall study. However, additional authors are referred to in Chapters Four, Five and Six because their work is pertinent to the data which is the focus of analysis in each of these chapters. In this chapter repeated references have been made to ‘critical pedagogic analysis’. In Chapter Three this analytic approach is described and discussed.

Chapter Three: Research Design

3.1 Introduction
3.2 'Traditional' approaches to evaluating distance education courses and materials: description and critique
3.3 Devising an alternative approach: a critical pedagogic textual analysis
3.3.1 Selecting the teacher education materials and selecting a topic focus within these materials
3.3.2 Analysing content selections
3.3.3 Analysing selected mediating strategies
3.3.3.1 Analysing in-text activities
3.3.3.2 Analysing pedagogic episodes or 'cases'
3.3.3.3 Analysing the scaffolding of readings
3.3.4 Analysing the designs of the materials
3.3.4.1 Analysing language
3.3.4.2 Analysing visual designs
3.4 A note on research ethics

3 .1 Introduction

The approaches most commonly used to review or evaluate distance education courses and materials and to inform new designs or re-designs are (i) elicitation of responses from users (both students and course tutors) to a series of questions about the course and the materials and / or to tasks based on the materials; (ii) impact studies; (iii) review by experts in the subject area and in instructional design.

Central to this study is the argument that while each of these approaches may be helpful to materials designers, each also has limitations in South African contexts (and probably elsewhere). In terms of teacher education materials, none of them addresses explicitly the question of the subject positions constituted for learner-teachers (as students and as future teachers) or teacher-learners (as professionals in the classroom and as students), when knowledge is mediated in particular ways on the page (or screen). In addition, they do not foreground sufficiently the 'potential epistemological and pedagogic effects of multimodal designs' (Bezemer and Kress, 2008a, p.1).

The chapter begins with an outline of each of the three approaches listed in the first paragraph and a brief discussion of their possible limitations. This outline is followed by a more detailed description of and rationale for the alternative approach devised for this study: a critical pedagogic textual analysis.

The procedure of comparison and contrast is central to this analysis as it draws attention to the various ways in which designers use resources to design "potentials for learning" (Bezemer & Kress, 2008b, p. 4). Alexander (2000) argues that comparison is "essential to educational progress":

> ... education by its nature requires hard choices of both a technical and a moral kind. To make such choices requires an awareness of options and alternatives, together with the capacity to judge what is most fitting in a given set of circumstances. The vocabulary of possibilities is vastly increased and enriched if we extend it beyond the boundaries of one school to others, one region to others, one culture to others and one country to others. Education positively requires, and positively benefits from, a comparative imagination and a comparative understanding. (2000, p. 27)

3.2 'Traditional' approaches to evaluating distance education courses and materials: description and critique

Using student feedback

Writing in support of users as informants, Evans has argued that the quality of any development in distance education is "absolutely dependent on its usefulness to the students concerned. Therefore there is an imperative that potential developments to educational practice are based on and informed by research with students" (1995, p. 68). "Research with students" or "using students as informants" tends to be presented as unproblematic in much of the distance education literature. For example, Hounsell, Tait and Day describe feedback from students as making an "indispensable contribution" to course monitoring and evaluation (1997, p. 39) while Woodley describes feedback on UK Open University courses obtained from mail questionnaires as "frequent" and "valuable" (1998, p. 71). Potter's account of evaluation of distance education course materials at the University of Victoria in Canada presents responses of students to questionnaires as the norm: "[E]valuations always focus on the

student's experience and how to improve it. Many will recognize its similarity to that used by the British Open University and by various Australian institutions..." (1998, p. 34). Rekkedal's account of formative evaluation of materials at a distance education institution in Norway also treats feedback from students as a normal, unproblematic practice: "[W]ith the help of postal questionnaires or more intensive methods, such as telephone or direct interviews, student attitudes and experiences are collected before final production" (1998, p. 53). In an African context, Shubani and Okebukola advise that "[D]eliberate evaluation can also be done through discussion and interviews with tutors and learners in groups" (2001, p. 218).

My own experiences of eliciting feedback on distance learning materials from teachers have led me to suggest that this is a task of greater complexity than is acknowledged in much of the literature. In 2001, I co-ordinated a SAIDE research project in which teachers who were enrolled in a particular distance learning INSET programme were asked to complete a series of materials evaluation tasks. For these tasks the teachers read materials in which similar content was presented in texts developed by a range of universities and educational publishers. The overwhelming preference of the teacher-evaluators was for the texts designed and produced by the institution through which they were studying. While these texts have many excellent features, most of the comments offered by the teachers indicated that they were responding positively to the familiar. For example, one of the teachers reported finding the materials from the institution through which she was studying to be the most interesting "because I am used to the way it is put" (Reed, 2003, p. 55).

As described in Chapter One, my attempt to use teacher-learners as informants who would guide me in the re-design of some distance learning materials (for which I had been the principal designer and which they had used in their studies) was a failure, with the teachers offering very few critical comments or suggestions for changes. Researchers from SAIDE reported similar experiences when they attempted to elicit

comment on the Education and English courses in the University of the Witwatersrand's FDE in English Language Teaching programme (SAIDE, 1999).

Some of my reflections on this failed redesigning project have already been quoted in Chapter One. Here I add a further quotation from the article I wrote about this failure:

> … It seems to me that the distance education literature that advocates this form of materials evaluation may not have considered sufficiently the habitus of both researchers and informants – 'socially and historically constituted, durable, embodied dispositions to act in certain ways' (Bartlett & Holland, 2002, p.12). A student's habitus is not easily modified by an invitation to participate in a new kind of literacy event, that of offering critical comments on texts, of making suggestions for alternative texts and of giving a university lecturer access to his or her figured worlds. In order to act in new ways, informants are likely to need new discourses, new forms of symbolic capital and opportunities for sustained dialogue, all of which take both more time and more linguistics resources than I allowed for in this small research project. It is also possible that where there are significant differences between the figured worlds of student informants and course designer-researchers, the latter will need new questions or new ways of working with students. (Reed, 2005, p. 273)

A different kind of concern about users as informants has been expressed by some South African researchers working in the field of education. Taylor and Vinjevold (1999) and Taylor, Muller and Vinjevold (2003) have questioned the trustworthiness of what they term "self-report or perspectival data". They argue that there may be significant differences between the espoused and enacted practices of teachers. In their view, teacher-learners and learner-teachers may use a new discourse (i.e. talk a new talk) without taking up new practices as students or as teachers (i.e. walking a new walk).

Using impact studies

It is possible that the concern expressed by Taylor, Muller and Vinjevold could be addressed through the use of impact studies (the second approach listed in section 3.1). However, researchers wishing to investigate the impact of teacher education programmes on teaching and learning in the classroom are also likely to face a number of challenges. In a four year, classroom-based project which investigated teachers'

‘take-up’ of both subject and pedagogic content knowledge from the University of the Witwatersrand’s mixed-mode Further Diploma in Education programme, the researchers found that the diversity and complexity of the research sites and the instability of teaching and learning in some of them made cross-case generalisation extremely difficult (Adler and Reed, 2002, p. 43). In addition, such classroom-focused impact studies are very costly in terms of time and financial resources.

Taylor and Vinjevold suggest that learner performance on “carefully designed tasks” can be an indicator of teacher quality and of the quality of a teacher education programme (1999, p. 66). However, Adler and Reed (2002) argue that these authors underestimate both the complexity of test design and administration, and the contextual variables within and between schools. As one illustration of the difficulty of using learner tests to infer teacher ‘take-up’ from the University of the Witwatersrand FDE programme, Adler and Reed describe a mathematics teacher whose teaching in an overcrowded, impoverished context demonstrated “extraordinary take-up” but whose learners arrived in her secondary school classes “considerably underprepared for the levels at which she was expected to teach and to assess them” and whose performance on tests administered both by her and by the researchers was very poor (2002, p. 47).

Using published design and evaluation guidelines

In the broad field of distance education, expert review typically includes the use of one or more sets of published guidelines for the evaluation of distance learning materials. Such guidelines may be either generic or specific to a particular evaluation (as was the case for those prepared for the national audit of distance learning teacher education in South Africa in 1995, referred to in Chapter One). Since the late 1980s a range of guidelines for the design and evaluation of distance learning materials has been produced by individuals (e.g. Evans, 1994; Lockwood, 1992, 1994, 1995; Mills & Tait, 1996; Race, 1989, 1992; Rowntree, 1990) and by institutions such as the Commonwealth of Learning (2003), the South African Institute of Distance Education

(2002) and the National Association of Distance Education Organizations of South Africa (2005).   Some of these guidelines are presented in the form of checklists while others offer explanations for the choice of particular evaluative criteria (for example, SAIDE, 2002; NADEOSA, 2005).

Each of the generic guidelines reviewed in preparation for this study includes numerous questions or statements that foreground mediation of learning. For example:

> ...clear explanation of concepts and a range of examples, as well as sufficient and appropriate ways for learners to process new concepts... (SAIDE, 2002, p. 1)
>
> Are analogies, examples, case studies and illustrations used where appropriate to develop understanding? (colonline, 2003, p. 4)
>
> Content is presented in the form of an unfolding argument, rather than discrete bits of information that have no obvious connection. (NADEOSA, 2005, p. 29)

However, these guidelines either background or ignore the constitution of readers' subjectivities, though there are brief references to recognising their prior knowledge and experience and to recognising differences in students' needs and interests. For example:

> Learners should be given opportunities to interrogate what they learn, and their prior knowledge and experience should be valued and used in the development of new ideas and practices. (SAIDE, 2002, p. 1)
>
> Does the structure ... provide a means that allows learners with different needs to use the lesson in different ways? (colonline, 2003, p. 4)

Course design and assessment in open and distance learning are the crucial areas for attention if we are to develop activities which will encourage learners to take a 'deep approach' to their learning and also encourage them to become more intrinsically oriented towards their learning (Morgan, 1994, p. 113).

Each of the sets of guidelines reviewed for this study foregrounds *quality* in the design and production of materials but, as noted by Robinson (1994), while there is general

agreement among distance education practitioners on the desirability of quality in distance education programmes, there is less agreement on what this is and still less on how to measure it "because 'quality' does not exist in isolation from its context of use and judgements differ according to whose views are being sought" (1994, p. 186). Calder makes a similar point, suggesting that what counts as quality in an open and distance learning programme may differ for the various stakeholders who are listed as "the course designers, the programme managers, the organisation providing the course, the funders or sponsors of the course, the students themselves, and, increasingly, their employers" (1994, p. 195).

With reference to stakeholder influence, at the time at which the materials analysed in this study were being designed and produced, new requirements for teacher education in South Africa were under discussion and were published in 2000 as the *Norms and Standards for Educators* (See section 1.3 in Chapter One). Teacher educators in South Africa, including those working in distance education programmes, have been required to take the stipulations of this document into account when engaging in pedagogic recontextualisation (Bernstein, 1996) of disciplinary knowledge. In 2007, Morrow noted that the *Norms and Standards for Educators* "remains the ruling policy for Teacher Education" and expressed concern about the way in which this document "entangles" a conception of teaching on the one hand and the roles of those employed as teachers on the other, and as a result "inflates the work of teachers beyond the capacity of all but the exceptionally talented and obsessively committed" (2007b, p. 96).

Given its narrower focus, it is perhaps not surprising that literature which offers guidelines for the design and evaluation of distance education materials for language and literacy teachers, appears to be less extensive. One early collection of papers, *Distance Education for Language Teachers* (Howard & McGrath, 1995), is subtitled 'A UK Perspective'. A somewhat more recent article, 'Educating Language Teachers Through Distance Learning: the need for culturally-appropriate DL methodology',

focuses on teachers in Europe (Fay & Hill, 2003). As the majority of course books for English language teaching have been written in 'centre' countries (see 2.2.2) such as England, the United States and Australia, articles or book chapters with a focus on the development and evaluation of textbooks for use in language teaching tend to focus on designing and producing texts from the 'centre' for use both in the 'centre' and on the 'periphery' (in countries in which English is an additional or a foreign language). In addition to Canagarajah (1999, 2005), writers of several chapters in Byrd (1995) and Tomlinson (1998) and also Mayor and Swann (2002) address this issue of writing for the world from the centre. Mayor and Swann describe experiences of drafting course materials in which American or British examples are represented as part of common experience and examples from other countries as "other". They note that such representation may be realised through the deictic expressions chosen by writers. For example, "[A] teaching text may refer to the situation *here* (either explicitly or by implication in the UK) or *there* (in another part of the world)" (2002, p. 120-121). They also suggest that a sense of common experience may be constructed without recourse to specific deictic expressions when certain practices are represented as "normal" while others are carefully explained.

I have not been able to locate any literature with a specific focus on guidelines for developing or evaluating materials for language and literacy teachers in South Africa, though some of the findings from the research project which investigated teachers' 'take-up' from the University of the Witwatersrand's Further Diploma in Education programme (Adler and Reed, 2002) could be used to formulate such guidelines as could the review of the same university's FDE in English Language Teaching undertaken for the NADEOSA Courseware Awards in 2000.

3.3 Devising an alternative approach: a critical pedagogic textual analysis

While acknowledging that claims about effects of representations require a study of texts in use, Bezemer and Kress (2008b) argue that textual analysis makes it possible to 'formulate hypotheses, more or less securely founded' about textual designs:

> We acknowledge the significance of studies of the situated use of texts and the production of users' accounts of their usages of texts. These help provide securer foundations. At the same time we consider texts to be *potentials* of a quite specific kind, which in their specificity allow an unlimited (in number) yet constrained (in semantic scope) number of readings. These potentials can be understood as the sign-makers' shaping of signs such that the text-as-complex-sign fits the purposes of a rhetor (who frequently is also the designer), the designer and their sense of audience. (Bezemer & Kress, 2008b, pp. 4-5; italics in the original)

It is these purposes of teacher-educator designers, and their sense of audience, that this critical pedagogic analysis of materials for teacher education programmes seeks to identify and understand.

Following Janks (2010)**,** I suggest that a critical pedagogic analysis of texts is informed by two meanings of the word *critical*. It is interested in whether (and if so, how) designers of materials encourage readers to 'think critically' in the conventional sense of developing a "reasoned analysis based on an examination of evidence and argument" (Janks, 2010, p. 12). However, its main concern is to uncover the social interests at work in texts.

Janks argues that in "post-structuralist, neo-Marxist discourses", the primary concern of critical textual analysis is to reveal how power works in a text to privilege or to subjugate particular subjects and particular disciplinary knowledges (Janks, 2010, pp. 35-36). In the case of distance education materials for language teachers, questions to be asked in such an analysis could include the following:

- Who do the designers consider to be the 'ideal subject' – as student and as teacher?
- Who may be advantaged or disadvantaged by a particular constitution of this ideal subject?
- Who is included or excluded?
- What actions of the subject are sanctioned or 'prohibited'?
- What knowledge selections are included and excluded?

I argue that while it is important to address all of these questions, it is also important to work with Foucault's notion of the subject as both "acted upon" and "active" (Foucault, 1980, p. 98). From his analysis of how institutional "professional knowledges" work to position individuals – in Comber's words, "to classify and record the individual against specified norms" (1996, p. 38) – Foucault developed the argument that individuals are always in the position of simultaneously undergoing and exercising power (Foucault, 1980, p. 98). One way in which students in a distance education programme can exercise power, is to read texts resistantly (or not read them at all). However, as indicated in Chapter One, when students enrol for a course of study they submit 'symbolically' to being positioned by the subjectivities projected in curricula and pedagog(ies) (Doherty, 2005). Thus resistant reading is not very likely, unless officially encouraged. As part of a critical pedagogic analysis of selected texts, I am interested in what (if any) possibilities for contesting 'knowledge on the page' are offered to readers, as students and as teachers.

Thus far I have focused on orientations to 'the critical' in textual analysis. In this study the object of analysis is the designers' pedagogic choices[24]. With Gore's (1993) and Bernstein's (1996) conceptualisation of pedagogy as "the process of knowledge production" as a point of departure, key questions for a critical pedagogic analysis of texts for any distance education programme are how and in whose interests knowledge is produced and reproduced. The theoretical and empirical work of scholars such as Bernstein and Canagarajah (See section 2.2.1 and 2.2.2), enables these general questions to become more focused. For example, how do designers classify and frame disciplinary knowledges (Bernstein, 1996)? Is their orientation towards 'mainstream' or critical pedagogies (Canagarajah, 1999, 2005)?

As this study analyses materials for teacher education programmes it is interested in pedagogy at two 'levels': the pedagogy / ies *of* the materials and the constitution of

[24] While designers do make pedagogic 'choices', I suggest that it is also important to recognise that because designers are members of particular discourse communities, they may be unaware of how particular 'naturalised discourses' speak through them (Janks, 2010).

pedagogy / ies as content (subject matter) *in* the materials. The first is likely to contribute to the constitution of the reader as both student and teacher and the second to contribute mainly to constructions of the teacher. As the pedagogy / ies *of* the material also offer pedagogic models to teachers, the two 'levels' are interrelated or 'entangled'.

Although each of the three data analysis chapters focuses on particular aspects of the designers' pedagogies, these aspects are also interrelated. For example, when mediation through in-text activities is the focus of analysis, the visual design of such activities and the modality of the instructions also contribute to the constitution of the subject positions offered to readers.

The procedure of comparison and contrast is central to the analysis developed in each chapter and to the overall critical pedagogic analysis of the texts. Bezemer and Kress (2008b) suggest that comparisons and contrasts draw attention to the various dimensions along which designers make semiotic decisions in regard to the learning objectives they set for students. In this study, the focus of analysis is mediation through the selection and organisation of content in three sets of teacher education materials (Chapter Four), mediation through language, in-text activities, vignettes or 'pedagogic episodes' and scaffolded readings in these materials (Chapter Five) and mediation through the use of a range of semiotic resources, including images (Chapter Six).

3.3.1 Selecting the teacher education materials and selecting a topic focus within these materials

The materials selected were described in section 1.6 of Chapter One. Given that my own disciplinary base is in language and literacy education, my primary interest is in materials for language and literacy teachers – both language / literacy as subject and across the curriculum. From the South African distance learning teacher education materials available in this area, I selected three sets of materials that have been

recognized as examples of good quality by local and international distance education practitioners. As indicated in Chapter One, the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo from the University of Fort Hare won the 2004 NADEOSA award for excellence; materials from the University of KwaZulu-Natal's B Ed Honours programme have been highly commended by the NADEOSA awards committee and the SAIDE Study of Education series has received international recognition from, among others, the UK Open University.

In addition to selecting materials on the basis of content focus and quality, I chose to analyse materials designed with a local or a national focus, for pre-service or in-service teachers or for both, for particular qualification levels and with particular resources to draw on, in order to investigate the possible influence(s) of these differences on the materials designed.

Each of the sets of materials selected includes sections or units on reading and the teaching of reading. Given the enormous concern about the 'standard' of reading proficiency in South Africa (with Grade 4 learners being placed 40th and last in the 2006 PIRLS tests[25]), I chose these sections or units as the main focus of analysis. Each of them is reproduced in full in Appendices 3, 4 and 5.

3.3.2 Analysing content selections

Adler argues that all teacher development programmes "are required to manage the tensions inherent in the nature of the knowledge selected by the programme – how to balance educational activity between subject and pedagogic knowledge, and between theoretical and practical knowledge" (2002, p. 3). She quotes Cohen who claims that "learning to teach prominently includes learning both how to use disciplinary knowledge pedagogically, and learning how disciplinary knowledge is acquired" (Cohen, 1999, p. 169 in Adler, 2002, p. 4). Cohen's argument is based on the work of

[25] Progress in International Reading Literacy Study is an international comparative study in which South Africa participated for the first time, in 2006. The test was conducted with grade four and five learners in all provinces in all eleven official languages.

Shulman (1987) on pedagogic content knowledge. For Shulman, pedagogic content knowledge combines knowledge of a subject, knowledge of how that subject or disciplinary knowledge is acquired and contextual knowledge.

In the first part of Chapter Four I use literature on conceptualisations of knowledge for teacher education programmes, in some of which there is critique and extension of Shulman's still widely influential work (e.g. Banks, Leach and Moon, 1999; Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1999), to identify themes for an analysis of content on 'reading' in each set of materials. In the second part of the chapter I turn from 'the what' to 'the how' of teacher education programmes and adapt a framework developed by Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999) in order to analyse the orientation to content which is evident in the organisation of each set of materials. This focus on 'the how' of teacher education continues in Chapter Five in which I analyse the designers' use of particular mediating 'devices' such as in-text activities, illustrative pedagogic episodes (Loughran, 2006) and scaffolded readings, and in Chapter Six in which the contribution of a range of semiotic resources to the mediation of content is analysed.

3.3.3 Analysing selected mediating strategies

For the socio-cultural and activity theorists whose work is outlined in section 2.4, mediation is central to knowledge construction: mental growth is a consequence of social intervention. Social interaction and cultural tools enable learners "to engage in activities and perform tasks beyond their individual level of competence" (Toohey, Day & Manyak, 2007, p. 629). As stated in Chapter Two, in a distance learning programme the dominant form of social intervention is course designers' selection, sequencing and presentation of knowledge(s) and the main cultural tools are words and images on page or screen. I have chosen to analyse examples of three mediating strategies that are widely considered to be central to the design of good quality distance learning materials:

- in-text activities;

- illustrative ‘cases’ or ‘vignettes’ (in these teacher education materials mainly ‘pedagogic episodes’);
- the scaffolding of readings that form part of the course materials.

3.3.3.1 Analysing in-text activities

Guidelines for the design of distance education materials emphasize the key role of in-text activities for learning (e.g. Lockwood, 1994; Moon, Leach and Stevens, 2005; NADEOSA, 2005). Designers construct activities based on different models and do so for different purposes. In order to select activities for analysis in Chapter Five, I identified five categories of ‘activity purpose’ in the three sets of materials and used these in combination with three models for the design of in-text activities described by Lockwood (1994), to establish the models and purposes represented in the activities in the sections or units on ‘reading’. Lockwood labels his three models “tutorial-in-print”, “reflective action guide” and “dialogue” with each having fairly distinctive pedagogic purposes.

The tutorial-in-print “tries to simulate the personal tutor but in a situation where the tutor can predict fairly accurately the sort of response a learner is likely to make” (1994, p. 91). Activities based on this model are most appropriate when “the topic in question or the body of knowledge can be clearly identified” (1994, p. 91). Such activities are often followed by feedback on the likely responses made by students.

Activities based on a reflective action guide “offer advice and guidance to the learner’s actions – actions in real and varied contexts, where some skill or ability is developed or refined, and where it is undertaken outside the context of the printed text” (1994, p. 92). The learner “must be involved in thinking critically and reflectively on his or her actions in order to guide the learning experience” (1994, p. 92). It is virtually impossible to provide printed feedback in the materials because of the situatedness of the activity.

According to Lockwood, in the early 1990s "dialogue" was considered to be a productive new way to encourage learners to construct meanings for themselves by considering and responding to a range of views expressed in print, for example, through the use of 'talking heads', or varied typefaces or comment boxes or through the posing of provocative questions. In the first years of the twenty-first century, the introduction of more and more on-line courses for distance education has promoted such dialogue.

Lockwood concludes his account of the models with the observation that they are not mutually exclusive and can be used in combination.

In a section or unit on 'reading' in the three sets of materials, I have identified five purposes for activities:

- extension of readers' academic literacy;
- use of readers' life experiences (inside and outside the classroom) as a basis for reflection and as a 'platform' for building new knowledges and skills;
- development of content knowledge as a 'frame' for classroom practice;
- development of pedagogic content knowledge for realisation in particular classroom practices;
- development of resources for use in teaching.

In Chapter Five I first use Lockwood's model and these five purposes to establish the 'pattern' of the activities in a unit or section on reading in each set of materials. I then analyse one activity which I consider to be representative of this 'pattern' in each set of materials.

3.3.3.2 Analysing pedagogic episodes or 'cases'

In an article titled 'Beyond our differences: a reassembling of what matters in teacher education', Gore (2001) argues for a framework for teacher education which places pedagogy, used broadly to refer to "what takes place in classrooms and other teaching

sites", at the core of teacher education programmes. She suggests that this central placement "has implications for both what we emphasize to students in teacher education programs (our curricula) and how we go about our own teaching (our pedagogy)" (2001, p. 124). As indicated in section 2.3, Loughran (2008) suggests that aspects of 'the what' and 'the how' of teaching can be productively addressed if teacher educators create "pedagogic episodes" that offer "students of teaching" (both learner-teachers and teacher-learners) experiences which they can use to inform their professional development. In similar vein, Shulman (2004) argues for the inclusion of what he terms "case studies" in the representation of knowledge to teacher education students. In using this term he is not referring to the detailed empirical research within a particular site that is usually termed case study, but rather to a teaching tool that seems similar to Loughran's pedagogic episode. For Shulman, to call something a case is "to argue that it is a "case of something" or to argue that it is an instance of a larger class" (2004, p. 207). It is the knowledge that the case represents that makes it a case and thus "a case must be explicated, interpreted, argued, dissected and reassembled" (2004, p. 209). Mayor and Swann (2002) advocate the inclusion of cases in distance education materials designed for global use because these may assist students to relate abstract ideas to their own experiences. However, they also caution that designers cannot be certain how such cases will be taken up in particular local contexts or how meaningful the cases will be to some students.

In section 5.4 the designers' use of pedagogic episodes or 'cases' is analysed. Questions that are addressed include: What is this a case of? What purposes is it likely to serve? Who is included or excluded in the episode or case? Do the designers of the three sets of materials use pedagogic episodes or cases for similar or different purposes?

3.3.3.3 Analysing the scaffolding of readings

The concept of scaffolding was discussed briefly in section 2.4. At its core is a teacher who provides support that enables a learner to acquire knowledge and skills which in turn enable her or him to achieve a new level of independent competence (Maybin, Mercer & Stierer, 1992). In distance education materials for teacher education

programmes, many of the forms of scaffolding provided by the designers are examples of the two 'levels' of pedagogy referred to in section 3.3. The pedagogy *of* the materials (scaffolding of readings, in the sections chosen for analysis) provides examples of pedagogy which learner-teachers and teacher-learners can adapt for use *in* their classrooms. In this study, the various forms of scaffolding of readings (about 'reading') used by the designers of each set of materials are compared and contrasted. These forms include the use of glossaries, introductions, sub-headings to introduce sections of text, and pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading activities. I argue that such scaffolding contributes to the constitution of particular subject positions for readers as students and as teachers.

3.3.4 Analysing the designs of the materials

Bezemer and Kress (2008a) define design as "the practice where modes, media, frames and sites of display on the one hand, and rhetorical purposes, the designers' interests, and the characteristics of the audience on the other are brought into coherence with each other" (2008a, p. 174). A mode is a socially and culturally shaped resource for making meaning, and the designers of the materials analysed in this study make use of the modes of writing, image, typography and layout. The designers of *Learners and Learning* also make use of the mode of speech in an audiotape which is part of the material designed for the module [26]. The medium of the materials analysed in this study is print-on-paper materialised in a course book (or books). Bezemer and Kress (2008a) suggest that in a textbook the kinds of frames used by the designers are recognisable as genres – for example, the genre of a set of task instructions or the genre of a summary. Different types of textbooks offer different "sites of display" (2008a, p. 172). For example, a chapter on a topic differs from a double page spread. As indicated in the quotation at the beginning of this paragraph, the designers' choices of modes, media, frames and sites of display are all made in relation to their pedagogic purposes and in relation to their imagined readers.

[26] The audiotape is not analysed in this study.

In 2007 researchers from the Centre for Multimodal Research at London University's Institute of Education began work on a project which is investigating changes in the multimodal design of textbooks between 1930 and the present. Bezemer and Kress (2008b) describe three major changes which the research team has identified in the overall design of textbooks during this period. These are summarised in Table 3.1

Table 3.1 Changes in school textbook design

School textbooks in 1930	School textbooks post-2000
Information is presented largely as a continuous flow – 'breaks' such as paragraph indentations still maintain continuity	Information is 'chunked' into recognisable entities with separate, clearly demarcated blocks of writing, images and functional textboxes (e.g. for assessment tasks)
Textbooks use a largely one dimensional site of display and a sequential form of organisation; image is usually subordinate to writing	Contemporary resources enable designers to use colour, fonts, images and writing in two dimensional sites of display; 'chunks' within a text may be placed in a range of configurations (e.g. images and writing presented in parallel)
Sequential, 'first, then..' navigation or reading path constructed for readers	Navigation path less fixed – design more likely to involve 'back and forth' directionality (e.g. in a two page spread with overlapping blocks of writing and images)

(based on Bezemer & Kress, 2008b)

Bezemer and Kress argue that contemporary designs suggest categories for understanding the world and for relations between these categories that differ from those offered in the textbooks designed in 1930. While the three sets of materials analysed in this study are materials designed for use in tertiary education and were all designed between 1999 and 2001, I am interested in how the designers use features of older and newer textbook designs to 'present' information to readers, whether there are significant differences in the designs and if so, how these differences contribute to the mediation of knowledge and constitution of readers' subjectivities.

3.3.4.1 Analysing language

Mayor and Swann (2002) draw on their experiences as designers of "supported open learning materials" for the UK Open University and on related research on language and global communication, to discuss linguistic and cultural issues in the teaching and assessment of students enrolled for distance education courses. They describe the users of distance learning materials as students "who are distributed globally across place and time and who are located in diverse local contexts; who are likely to bring different expectations and understandings to their learning; and who are, to a large extent unknown, and perhaps unknowable, to course designers" (2002, p. 111). While the materials analysed in this study are likely to be used only by learner-teachers and teacher-learners in southern Africa, like many of the UK Open University students worldwide, the majority of these students use English as an additional language and bring to their studies diverse linguistic and cultural experiences.

The question of how, if at all, designers recognise and respond to linguistic and cultural diversity in addressing readers as students and as teachers working in linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms is addressed in Chapters Five and Six. For example, the designers may choose to include individual words or phrases from the readers' primary language(s) for such purposes as explaining a concept, offering an illustration, making a comparison or affirming the importance of the primary language. Codeswitching practices of bilingual or multilingual teachers and learners have been investigated in primary and secondary school classrooms in southern Africa and elsewhere. Findings from this research suggest that the first or main language of learners is a valuable classroom resource which can be used productively by both teachers and learners for such diverse purposes as exploring ideas, supporting the development of conceptual understanding, facilitating creativity or giving instructions (Adendorff,1993; Adler, 1996; Fradd and Lee, 1999; Rollnick & Rutherford, 1996; Setati, Adler, Reed & Bapoo, 2002; Stein, 1994). In a small scale investigation which I undertook with teachers in a distance learning programme, one of the findings was that the majority of the teacher-learners favoured the inclusion of opportunities to switch between their main

language(s) and English when asked to write reflectively about their classroom or other personal experiences (Reed, 2002). The linguistic analysis of the materials selected includes a brief consideration of the purposes for which African languages are included.

Both within and between cultures, speakers tend to use different rhetorical strategies from writers. Mayor and Swann argue that because distance learning materials “stand in place of an oral relationship between teacher and student their interactional style tends to be relatively informal and to draw pedagogically on shared points of reference (whether real or assumed)” (2002, p. 116). Rowntree advises writers of distance learning materials to “write in a friendly, conversational style” and to “use a light touch” (1990, p. 232). George advises writers to incorporate features of both spoken and written language in order to produce “guided didactic conversation” (1994, p. 88). Ridge and Waghid encourage writers to promote “dialogue” with readers (2000, p. 89). If designers of distance learning texts choose to write in a speechlike, conversational style, such a style is likely to influence how they mediate knowledge and how their readers ‘process’ and use this knowledge.

In order to analyse some of the linguistic features of the materials selected for this study, I have drawn on the pioneering work of Michael Halliday (1978; 1985; 1994) in systemic functional linguistics and on that of Martin (1985), Gee (1999), Fairclough (2003), Janks (1995, 2000, 2010), Polias (2001); Unsworth (2001) and Martin and Rose (2003), all of whom have used and extended this work. Halliday (1985) describes language as “meaning potential”. When designers of texts make lexical, grammatical and sequencing choices, they realise this potential in particular ways (Janks, 2010). In section 5.2, I describe the features selected for use in analysing the designers’ linguistic choices.

To facilitate this aspect of the analysis I have reformatted paragraphs from the materials into central textboxes and then placed smaller textboxes to the left and right

of each central box. In each small textbox, I identify, and in some instances comment on, a particular linguistic feature in the central textbox as a starting point for the discussion below the annotated text.

3.3.4.2 Analysing visual designs

In *Literacy in the New Media Age* Kress argues that "the broad move from the now centuries-long dominance of writing to the new dominance of the image" and "the move from the dominance of the medium of the book to the dominance of the medium of the screen" are "producing a revolution in the uses and effects of literacy" (2003, p. 1). As a result of these shifts – from monomodality to multimodality and from the dominance of one mode and medium to another – semiotic resources, that is, resources for making meaning, are being used in new ways.

Halliday (1978) and Hodge and Kress (1988) contrast traditional semiotic theory in which signs are considered to be "arbitrary conjunctions of form and meaning" and in which "arbitrariness is sustained by convention", with social semiotic theory in which "the agency of socially situated humans" is central to sign making. In social semiotics, "signs are viewed as constantly newly made, in a process in which the signified (what is to be meant) is realised through the most apt signifier (that which is available to give realisation to that which is meant) in a specific social context" (Jewitt & Kress, 2003, p. 10). A third position is that while the sign is arbitrary, the choice from a range of such arbitrarily made signs is motivated by the interests of individuals or groups (Janks, personal communication). As Stein (2004) points out, each meaning-making choice signifies the interests of its maker – it is "interested" action.

Designers of distance learning materials make choices about what is to be meant (the signified) and about how it is to be meant (through the selection and arrangement of signifiers) for readers in a range of social contexts – some of which are likely to be unknown or only partially known to them. They do not have available the full range of possibilities for multimodal pedagogy that are available to a teacher in a classroom.

(See Stein, 2004 for a detailed account of multimodal pedagogy.) In analysing the printed distance learning texts chosen for this study I am interested in the designers' and producers' choices and uses of images (drawings, photographs or diagrams) and layout (including fonts, tables, boxes, frames, white space) to mediate learning. Gee argues that where texts mix words and images, "the combination of the two modes communicates things that neither of the modes does separately" (2003, p. 14). One such combination of words and images that interests me, in relation to the subject positions offered to teachers, is the inclusion of cartoon drawings of 'talking heads' in some distance education texts for teachers. From the 1990s these have been a design feature of many South African school and adult basic education textbooks but they are uncommon in tertiary education texts.

In discussing what he terms 'the logic of space' Kress (2003) argues that the space into which an image on a page (or screen) is placed has meaning: "...being *central* can mean being in the 'centre', in whatever way; being above can mean being 'superior', and being below can mean 'inferior' (2003, p. 2). In addition to making decisions about which images to use and where these should be placed, designers decide on the arrangement or layout of writing on a page. Kress (2003) offers the following in support of his argument that layout affects meaning:

> It matters whether I put my ideas smoothly flowing along the lines of the page, or whether I present them to you as bullet points:
> - The 'force' and
> - the 'feel' of the text has changed. It has become
> - the more insistent,
> - the more urgent,
> - the more official. It is now about
> - presenting information.
>
> Bullet points are, as their name suggests, bullets of information. They are 'fired' at us, abrupt and challenging, not meant to be continuous and coherent, not inviting reflection and consideration, not insinuating themselves into our thinking. They are hard and direct and not to be argued with. (Kress, 2003, pp. 16-17**)**

Headings and subheadings, font size and font style, use of bold or italic type, the presence or absence of bullets, the presence or absence of 'boxes' or drawings in the margins of the page all affect how meanings are constructed and 'received'.

For the analysis of visual design in the materials I have drawn principally on aspects of the grammar of visual design developed by Kress and Van Leeuwen (1996; 2006) and on work that I did with Hilary Janks in which we aimed to turn Kress and van Leeuwen's work into a tool for text analysis[27]. Aspects of Kress and van Leeuwen's grammar of visual design are described in section 6.2.1 and then used in this section to analyse

(i) the front and back cover designs of each set of materials;
(ii) selected access devices – icons; margin texts;
(iii) images on the page – photographs, drawings, diagrams.

For the analysis of the covers, I have used the approach devised by Alder (2004) to superimpose written comment on visual images in order to present the image and its analysis simultaneously (See also Janks, 2010).

3.4 A note on research ethics

This research has not involved working with human subjects. The texts *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)* and *Learners and Learning* are both commercially published and thus available in the public domain. I received permission from one of the leaders of the University of Fort Hare Distance Education Project to analyse the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo.

In the following three data analysis chapters I aim to demonstrate critical pedagogic textual analysis 'in action'. This analysis begins in Chapter Four with a focus on the mediation of knowledge and constitution of readers' subjectivities through the designers' selection and organisation of content in the three sets of materials.

[27] See Janks (2010), pages 81 to 94.

Chapter Four: Mediating knowledge through the selection and organization of content

4 .1 Introduction
4. 2 Conceptualising a knowledge base for teaching: the content of teacher education programmes
4. 2.1 Content selections in 'Text as a context for learning' – *Learners and Learning*, Section Four
4.2.2 Content selections in *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2, 'A Whole Language Approach'*
4.2.3 Content selections in 'Teaching reading' – *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT),* Unit Two
4.2.4 Some concluding observations on content selection
4.3 Conceptualising the organization of knowledge on the page in teacher education materials
4.3.1 The organization of content in *Learners and Learning*
4.3.2 The organization of content in *Language, Literacy and Communication* (Imithamo 1 to 6)
4.3.3 The organization of content in *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)*
4.4 Selecting and organizing content: 'shaping' the subjectivities of students and teachers

4.1 Introduction

> Any educational activity must address the issue of what kind of knowledge is being transmitted or constructed in classroom settings (Wallace, 2003, p. 49).

In this chapter the 'kind(s) of knowledge' offered to learner-teachers or teacher-learners for further recontextualisation (Bernstein, 1996) in their classrooms is the focus of analysis. I argue that the mediation of knowledge, through the designers' selection and organization of content on the pages of teacher education materials, contributes to the constitution of particular subject positions for readers as students and as teachers.

The chapter numbering provides a guide to its structure. Section 4.2 outlines four conceptualisations of a knowledge base for teacher education programmes. These inform the design of a framework which is used in sections 4.2.1 to 4.2.4 to analyse

content selected for the topic 'reading' in the three sets of "culturally constructed artefacts" (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006, p. 79) described in Chapter One. In section 4.3, the focus shifts from 'the what' to 'the how' of teacher education programmes. A framework developed by Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999) has been adapted and used to analyse the orientation to teacher knowledge suggested by the designers' organisation of content and activities on the pages of the materials. The chapter concludes with a discussion of how the organisational design contributes to the shaping of the subjectivities of readers as students and as teachers.

The focus on 'the how' of teacher education begun in the latter part of Chapter Four continues in Chapter Five in which the designers' use of particular mediating tools is analysed, and in Chapter Six in which the analysis focuses on the contribution of a range of semiotic resources to the mediation of content.

As a starting point for the analysis presented in all three chapters, some of the key ideas on mediation outlined in section 2.4 are repeated in order to foreground the particular mediational challenges faced by designers of distance education materials.

For Vygotsky (1978; 1986) and for the theorists who have built on his work (e.g. Bruner, 1985; H. Daniels, 2001; Engestrom, 1999; Lantolf, 2000, 2007; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; L. Moll, 1990, 2001; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Toohey, Day & Manyak, 2007; Wertsch, 1991, 1998), mediation is central to knowledge construction: mental growth is a consequence of social intervention. By participating in social interaction and using a range of cultural tools and symbols, learners are able to "engage in activities and perform tasks beyond their individual level of competence" (Toohey, Day & Manyak, 2007, p. 629). In a distance learning programme, the dominant form of social intervention is course designers' selection, organisation and presentation of knowledge(s) and the main cultural symbols are words and images on page or screen with which students individually, or in some instances collaboratively (e.g. in face to face or on-line study groups), interact. The designers construct what Bernstein (1996)

terms “pedagogic discourse”. As outlined in 2.2.1, this construction involves making decisions about which other discourses are to be appropriated and brought into a relationship with one another (Bernstein, 1996, p. 47) and also about how this is to be done.

It is likely that experiences of apartheid-era schooling and teacher education and its on-going legacies (described in section 1.2), in conjunction with social and historical roots in orality rather than print, have ‘under-prepared’[28] many South African students for productive engagement with some aspects of the “text-based realities” (Wertsch, 1991) of teacher education programmes offered face to face or at a distance. In any academic environment, but particularly in post-apartheid South Africa, if course designers are to be successful mediators of knowledge they need to understand who their students are, what they know and can do and what is entailed in acquiring new knowledges and practices. In designing pre-service and in-service teacher education materials they also need to understand the physical, social and political contexts in which teachers work (Johnson, Monk & Hodges, 2000; Christie, 2008).

With reference to context, in their critique of twentieth century teacher education in the United States, Zeichner and Liston (1991) argue that the dominant position of teacher educators has been to accept the social context of schooling and to divorce teacher education from attempts at social reconstruction (1991, pp. xvii-xviii). These authors argue for a social justice agenda which goes beyond strengthening teachers’ intellectual competence to “include a passionate commitment to educational equity” (1991, p. xviii). In post-apartheid South Africa it could be expected that the social justice agenda advocated by Zeichner and Liston would inform the pedagogic discourse of materials designed for pre-service and in-service teacher education programmes. However, as Ensor (2004) demonstrated in her tracking of a group of pre-service teacher education students through a mathematics methods course and into their first

[28] See footnote 10 in Chapter One

year of teaching, new discourses need to be made accessible to students before they can be taken up.

As outlined in Chapter Two, for Vygotsky and for Bruner, central to mediation and to the acquisition of knowledges and skills is the 'match' between a support system in the social environment and an acquisition process in the learner (Bruner, 1985, p. 28). All teacher educators face the challenge of imagining what the actual developmental level of their students is likely to be and then constructing "learning pathways" between students' existing networks of knowledge and skill and those of the to-be-acquired knowledge domain (I. Moll, 2003, p. 21). In campus-based pre-service and in-service programmes, teacher educators can adapt their teaching to respond to evidence in the lecture or tutorial room of their failure to construct these pathways appropriately. Designers of print-based distance learning materials have to mediate content in ways that anticipate the difficulties that readers may experience when they engage with materials.

4. 2 Conceptualising a knowledge base for teaching: the content of teacher education programmes

> … there is recognition that competing (and perhaps irreconcilable) theoretical conceptions characterize the field of teacher education (Samuel, 2008, p.14).

For this study I have drawn on conceptualisations of a knowledge-base for teacher education proposed by teacher educators widely regarded as leaders in their field both within their own countries and internationally[29]. I find it interesting, and useful for this

[29] Banks, Leach and Moon have been leaders in the development of teacher education pedagogy at the UK Open University and Leach and Moon have been leaders of the Research Group on Teacher Education Across Societies and Cultures and also of the Teacher Education for Sub-Saharan Africa (TESSA) project. At Stanford University Darling-Hammond launched the School Redesign Network and the Stanford Educational Leadership Institute. She has authored or edited numerous books and more than 300 articles on education policy and practice and was education advisor to Barack Obama's presidential campaign. Alexander is based at Cambridge University and is also professor emeritus of education at Warwick University. His book *Culture and Pedagogy* won the AERA outstanding book award in 2001. In 2008-09 he was president of the British Association for International and Comparative Education. In 2008 Morrow was awarded the Education Association of South Africa's Honorary Medal for his contributions to education over 43 years. He held positions as Dean of Education at the University of the Western Cape and at the University of Port Elizabeth and chaired the Ministerial Committee on Teacher Education. He was a founder member of the Kenton Conference, established the journal *Perspectives in Education* and published extensively, with his final book being *Learning to Teach in South Africa* (2007b).

study, that their conceptualisations are more complementary than 'competing'. This section begins with an outline of key features of each one.

In the introduction to a chapter titled 'Teachers' Knowledge and How It Develops', written for the fourth edition of the *Handbook of Research on Teaching,* Munby, Russell and Martin (2001) claim that it is difficult to imagine a chapter with this title appearing in the handbook's first edition in 1963:

> The category "teachers' knowledge" is new in the last 20 years, and the nature and development of that knowledge is only beginning to be understood by the current generation of researchers in teaching and teacher education. (2001, p. 877)

After an extensive review of the literature on teachers' knowledge published up to the beginning of the new millennium, these authors suggest that this literature "seems characterized by a root tension: Different views have developed about what counts as professional knowledge and even how to conceptualize knowledge" (2001, p. 878). They note that this tension is manifested differently in different domains of educational practice:

> 1. Within the academy, there is a tension among conflicting approaches to depicting teachers' knowledge, and these conflicting approaches do not share the same turf. For example researchers in teacher education and educational psychology often seem to be working at cross purposes: Helping teachers to acquire knowledge and generating psychological accounts of how teachers acquire knowledge are not necessarily miscible.
> 2. There is a tension between the academy of research and the professional field of teaching, especially when these two solitudes are as tenuously linked as they are in both preservice and inservice teacher education.
> 3. There is a tension in the teaching profession between teachers' development, understanding and use of practical knowledge, and the generally acceptable understanding that knowledge is propositional. For example, teachers know that there is much more to their knowledge than knowing the subject matter. (2001, p. 878)

Munby, Russell and Martin's description of these tensions suggests that *teachers' knowledge* is an example of what Bernstein refers to as a "regionalization" of knowledge in which competing "singular discourses" are at play and in which knowledge is weakly classified (See 2.2.1). Bernstein argues that as classification

becomes weaker "we must have an understanding of the recontextualizing principles which construct the new discourses and the ideological bias that underlies any such recontextualizing" (1996, p.24).

Since its publication in 1987, Shulman's categorisation of a knowledge base for teaching and, in particular, his work on pedagogic content knowledge, has been accepted by many teacher educators as useful for addressing some of the tensions described above. While acknowledging the value of Shulman's work, by the end of the 1990s some teacher educators were expressing concern about the 'static' nature of his categories (e.g. Banks, Leach and Moon, 1999) and about the perpetuation of a divide between 'formal' and 'practical' knowledge through the very attempt to provide a bridge between the two (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1999). In each of the conceptualisations outlined below, elements of a knowledge base for teacher education are constituted as dynamically interrelated.

Banks, Leach and Moon (1999): a model for conceptualizing teachers' professional knowledge

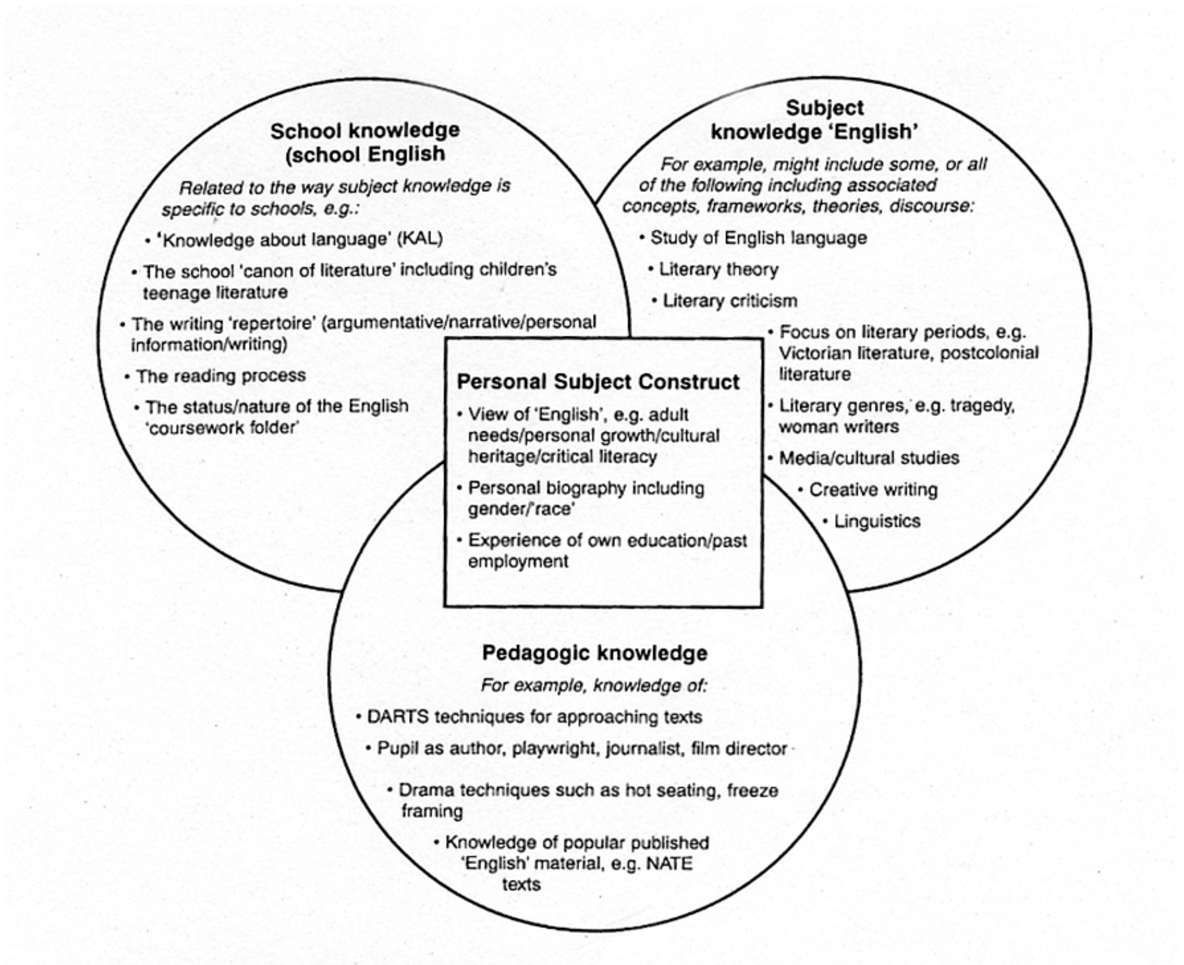
These authors address the complex question of what Wilson and Berne (1999) and Morrow (2007a) refer to as the 'what' of teacher education. They draw on a wide range of theorists and on their own research in classrooms to develop a model in which subject or disciplinary knowledge, pedagogic knowledge and school knowledge – which includes curriculum knowledge – are dynamically interrelated. They place teachers' personal subject constructs at the heart of professional knowledge-making. Pertinent to an analysis of materials designed for in-service or for both pre-service and in-service teacher education, is their view that the model is applicable both to student teachers working out a rationale for their classroom practice and to 'expert' teachers working in times of curriculum and social change (Banks, Leach & Moon, 1999, p. 95). The diagram in Figure 4.1 presents subject, school and pedagogic knowledge as interactive:

> … a teacher's subject knowledge is transformed by his or her own pedagogy in practice and by the resources which form part of his or her school

knowledge. (Banks, Leach & Moon, 1999, p. 95)

The examples of what could be included within each element in the diagram were developed by a group of English teachers with whom the authors worked. Banks, Leach and Moon argue that the development of a teacher's professional knowledge is a dynamic process and that this knowledge is brought into existence by the learning context in which the teacher is situated. This argument suggests that each of the elements in the model could be positioned inside an outer 'contexts circle'.

Figure 4.1 A model for conceptualising teachers' professional knowledge, with examples from a group of English teachers



(Banks, Leach & Moon, 1999, p. 96)

Darling-Hammond (2006): a knowledge base for teaching

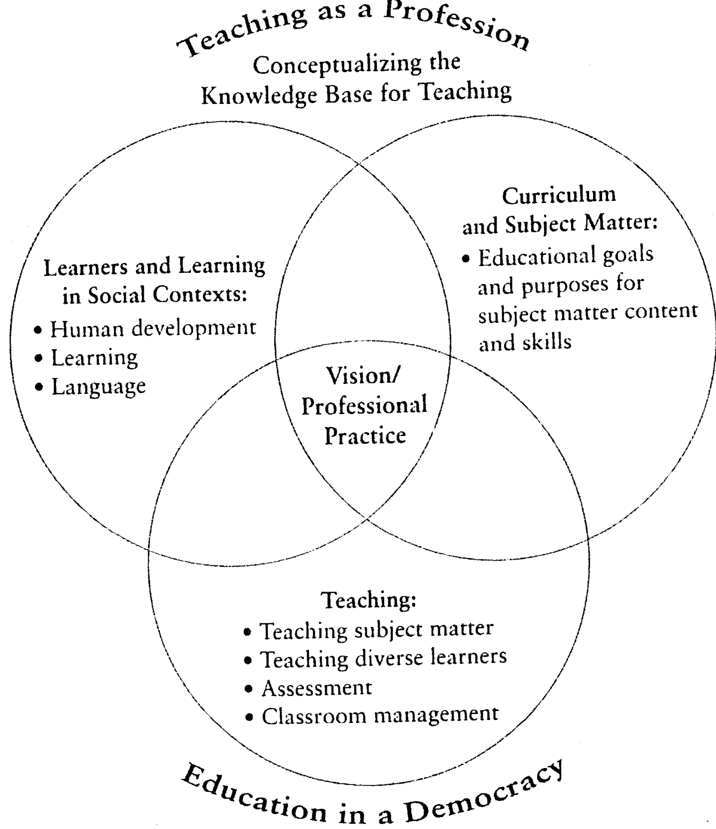
In reporting on an extensive study of "successful teacher education programs" in the USA, Darling-Hammond states that "[H]ow these programs conceptualize the knowledge base for teacher education involves a set of ideas about *what* teachers need to learn – the content of preparation – and *how* they need to learn it – the processes that allow teachers to develop useful knowledge that can be enacted in ways that respond to the complexity of the classroom" (2006, p. 80; italics in the original). In this study Darling-Hammond and Bransford identified eight elements characteristic of new conceptualisations of knowledge for teaching which Darling-Hammond contrasts with "traditional teacher education curriculum". These new conceptualisations:

- emphasize understanding learners and learning as central to making sound teaching decisions;
- understand that the subject matters and that subject-specific pedagogical knowledge is important;
- unite the study of subject matter and children in the analysis and design of curriculum;
- see learners, subject matter and curriculum as existing in a socio-cultural context;
- seek to develop a repertoire of teaching strategies and an understanding of their purposes and potential uses for diverse goals and contexts;
- place extraordinary emphasis on the processes of assessment and feedback as essential to both student and teacher learning;
- seek to develop teachers' abilities as reflective decision makers;
- see teaching as a collaborative activity conducted within a professional community that feeds on-going teacher learning[30].

Figure 4.2 on the next page reproduces Darling-Hammond and Bransford's representation of these eight inter-related constituents of a knowledge base for teaching (Darling-Hammond and Bransford, 2005, in Darling-Hammond, 2006, p. 84).

[30] Each of these conceptualisations is explained in more detail in Darling-Hammond (2006, pp. 81- 82).

Figure 4.2 A conceptualisation of a knowledge base for teaching



Source: *Darling-Hammond and Bransford, 2005, p. 11.*

(Darling-Hammond, 2006, p. 84)

Alexander (2008c): the domains of ideas and values with which teachers need to engage

While he is writing about conceptualisations of pedagogy rather than explicitly about teacher education, Alexander (2008c) outlines three related 'domains of ideas and values' (2008c, p. 48) with which he argues all teachers need to engage. The first of these is concerned with:

- *children*: their characteristics, development, motivation, needs and differences;
- *learning*: its nature, facilitation, achievement and assessment;
- *teaching*: its planning, execution and evaluation;
- *curriculum*: the various ways of knowing, doing, creating, investigating and making sense which it is desirable for children to encounter, and how these are most appropriately translated and structured for teaching.

(Alexander, 2008c, p. 48, bullet points and italics in the original)

The second domain is concerned with the institutional and legal contexts in which teaching takes place and thus teachers also need understanding of:

- *school* as a formal institution, a microculture and a conveyor of pedagogical messages over and above those of the classroom;
- *policy*, national and local, which prescribes or proscribes, enables or inhibits what is taught and how. (Alexander, 2008c, p. 48, bullet points and italics in the original)

In the third domain Alexander places teachers' need for understanding of:

- *community*, the familial and local expectations, attitudes, opportunities and constraints to which schools are subject, and the way these shape learners' outlooks;
- *culture*: the web of values, ideas, institutions and processes that inform, shape and explain a society's views of education, teaching and learning, and which throw up a complex burden of choices and dilemmas for those whose job it is to translate these into a practical pedagogy;
- *self*: what it is to be a person, an individual relating to others and to the wider society, and how through education and other early experiences selfhood is acquired. (Alexander, 2008c, p. 48, bullet points and italics in the original)

Morrow (2007b): categories of competence for teacher education in South Africa

Morrow lists four fundamental categories of competence which teacher educators in South Africa need to take into account:

- a strong and properly-grounded conception of teaching and an effective grasp of the definitive ideals of the professional practice of organizing systematic learning…
- the kind of second-order knowledge of content needed in order for it to be possible to teach it…
- knowledge of the social, organisational and institutional contexts, and other conditions of the practice of teaching…
- competence in organising systematic learning… (Morrow, 2007b, pp. 84-85)

While there are some variations in these four conceptualisations, what they have in common are:

- substantive knowledge of the subject or discipline to be taught;
- pedagogic content knowledge (for Banks, Leach and Moon this includes aspects of what they term 'school knowledge' as well as 'pedagogic knowledge' and for Morrow it includes both second order knowledge of content, and competence in organising systematic learning);
- knowledge of learners and of how they learn;
- knowledge of the curriculum;

- contextual knowledge.

At the heart of the models proposed by Darling-Hammond and Bransford and by Banks et al is an 'element' which suggests that teachers' histories and identities are central to the choices they make in regard to subject content and to pedagogy, while Alexander makes explicit reference to understanding the self. In the framework below I have included the element 'knowledge of self as student and teacher'. I have also included 'academic literacy' as there is evidence of a specific focus on aspects of academic reading and writing development in a wide range of pre-service and in-service teacher education programmes in South Africa.

Thus the framework proposed for analyzing content selections consists of seven elements. Next to each one is an example from content on the topic of 'reading' to illustrate the knowledge focus of this element:

- **subject / disciplinary knowledge** – material that relates to theories and research about reading[31];
- **pedagogic knowledge –** material that relates to methods of teaching reading;
- **knowledge of how learners learn** – material that relates to what is involved in learning to read, both cognitive processes and sociocultural processes;
- **knowledge of the curriculum** – material that focuses on current curriculum statements about reading and their 'translation' into classroom practice;
- **contextual knowledge –** material that locates reading and the teaching of reading in sociocultural context;
- **knowledge of self as learner and teacher** – at a metacognitive level this includes material that promotes reflection on past and present learning and teaching practices but also on other factors contributing to identity formation, including identity as a reader;

[31] What is included in the subject knowledge category will vary according to the 'information focus' of teacher education materials. The examples given by the teachers in Banks et al's (1999) study indicate what these teachers considered to be the subject or disciplinary knowledge needed by teachers of English in the United Kingdom.

- **academic literacy** – material that aims to extend teachers' academic reading and writing competencies.

Provocatively, Tinning (2007) questions the idea of any stable 'knowledge base' for teacher education:

> While it is the case that the certainty of foundational knowledge that represents the disciplines, what Shulman (1986) called subject-matter content knowledge, is increasingly challenged, there is even less certainty available in 'spaces' of curriculum content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. Accordingly, both the teacher educator and the student teacher must learn to live with uncertainty (2007, p. 166).

In the space of a short chapter Tinning does not offer a curriculum for teacher education but he suggests that learners – in schools, in teacher education programmes and in many other contexts – need a capacity to 'unlearn' and to adapt to uncertainty. He argues that teacher educators "should seek to develop forms of pedagogy that are more modest than certain" in their orientation to knowledge claims and that such forms of pedagogy should enable student teachers to critique "discourses of essential learnings, criteria and standards, best practice and benchmarking" (2007, pp. 167-169). However, he also acknowledges the responsibility of teacher educators to prepare student teachers to have the skills, knowledges and discourses to qualify as teachers in contemporary education systems. Tinning's inclusion of "discourses" alongside knowledges and skills – rather than 'values' which completes the triumvirate in contemporary South African curriculum documents[32] – is of interest in relation to teacher subjectivity.

Three points need to be made as background to an analysis of three design teams' content selections for the topic 'reading'. Firstly, in a teacher education programme for language and literacy teachers, both subject knowledge and pedagogic knowledge are arguably even more difficult to define than is the case in programmes for teachers

[32] For example, the Revised National Curriculum Statement for English Home Language states that '[W]hen we use language, … we integrate knowledge, skills and values' (Department of Education, 2002, p. 6).

of science or history or mathematics. In Bernstein's terms, subject knowledge for language teachers is weakly classified and may include literature in a range of genres; syntax, semantics and pragmatics; semiotics; language acquisition; language across the curriculum (e.g. the English used in a science textbook); media studies and popular culture. In the diagram on page 107 the list of examples of subject knowledge for English generated by the teachers in Banks, Leach and Moon's study includes many of these examples, but also some others. What should be included in pedagogic knowledge is also a matter for debate. With reference to the teaching of English, questions being asked by academics with an interest in teacher education and in curricula for schools and universities include 'What is English for?' (Kress, 2002); 'What disciplinary knowledges are specific to school English?' (McIntyre, 2002); 'Literacy or English?' (Hardage, 2002); 'Does English teaching have a literacy project of its own?' (Green, 2002). Secondly, as explained in 1.6, the materials were designed for differing 'readerships' and these differences are likely to have influenced the conceptualisations of particular 'knowledge bases' for the teaching of reading. Finally, the elements or categories (to use a Bernsteinian term) of a knowledge base for teaching that are presented in Table 4.1 (on pages 114 and 115) as discrete entities, are sometimes 'entangled' on the pages of the materials.

While acknowledging the limitations of a schematic tabulation, Table 4.1 records the pages on which the designers of the materials selected for this study focus on one or more elements or categories of a knowledge base for teaching content on the broad topic of 'reading'.   As a starting point for the analysis that follows, the table indicates which elements are foregrounded, backgrounded or absent in these materials.

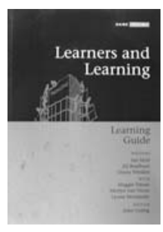
Table 4.1 Designers' content choices for a section or unit on Reading

Elements of a knowledge base for teaching	*Learners and Learning,* Learning Guide Section 4 pages 113-148; Reader Section 4 pages 131-166	*Language in Learning & Teaching,* Learning Guide Unit 2 pages 57-82 Reader Chapter 4 pages 155-168	*Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2* pages 1-48
Subject/disciplinary knowledge	LG: Learning to read (114-115) LG: What kinds of reading support school learning? (128-9; 131-132); LG: Different levels of reading (134-135) Reader: The act of study (133-136); The magic of reading (137-144); Guided adventures in learning (145-153)	LG: Importance of reading/learning to read/reading theory (57, 59, 61-62) LG: Different genres for different purposes (76-79) Reader: Understanding the reading process (155-168)	Whole language: the easy way to language development (38-42)
Pedagogic knowledge	LG: Developing active and independent readers (132-134) Reader: Developing communities of reading and learning (154-166)	LG: Textbook survey (58); Teaching reading in grade 1 (65); Making reading a focus of content lessons (71); Designing and using a reading questionnaire (73-75); Strategies for teaching/encouraging reading across the curriculum (80-82)	Classroom management and timetabling (2 & 4-9; Collecting iintsomi: (16-24); Using iintsomi in the classroom (25-36); Appendix: Making a Big Book (43-48)
Knowledge of how learners learn	LG: Module title; LG: What happens when we read a book? (116-119); Why is reading so difficult? (119-123); What makes reading a meaningful experience? (124-126)	LG: Introduction of metacognition (59) Reader: Understanding the reading process (155-168)	Benefits for learners of an integrated curriculum (10-13)
Knowledge of the curriculum	LG: Languages Learning Area (137); OBE (144-145)		OBE: (2); Languages Learning Area (23)

Elements of a knowledge base for teaching	***Learners and Learning,*** **Learning Guide Section 4 pages 113-148; Reader Section 4 pages 131-166**	***Language in Learning & Teaching,*** **Learning Guide Unit 2 pages 57-82 Reader Chapter 4 pages 155-168**	***Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*** **pages 1-48**
Contextual knowledge	LG: EAL readers (117); EAL readers' homes (126); Literacy in Africa: (127)	LG: References to EAL readers (60, 64, 66-67); Reading contexts in SA (68); Resource constraints in schools (82)	Oral literature (2); Collecting an intsomi: (16-18 &25); An intsomi presented in both isiXhosa & English (19-21); Giving status to all languages of our province (23)
Knowledge of self as learner and teacher	LG: Responses to 'half-truths' about reading (113); Views on differences between spoken & written language (115); Reflections on own experiences of learning to read/being a reader: (121 & 125); Own views on teaching reading (122, 126 & 143) Reader: Personal response to ideas in readings (144 & 150)	LG: Reflecting on self as young reader and as reader of academic texts (59,60,63, 64); Reflecting on teaching (68); Reflecting on views on reading (72) Reader: Reflecting on self as adult reader (155)	Reflections on work experiences; position on school timetables: (4,6,8,12); Reflections on experiencing 'whole language' (15-16); Reflections on story-collecting experiences: (24, 26); Reflection on using the stories in the classroom (28 &31 & 33 &35)
Academic literacy	LG: Note-making: (115 &125); turning notes into academic discourse (125); Understanding text structures (139-141)	LG: Surveying study material (58); Previewing a text (59); making notes & scanning a text for specific information (68)	

This tabulation of 'knowledge on the page' cannot adequately represent the content selections made by the designers and it is not always easy to categorise knowledge elements. However, the table does indicate how three design teams have conceptualized content on a broadly similar topic (in this instance, 'reading') in

comparable or contrasting ways. Key features of the three conceptualisations are discussed in sections 4.2.1 to 4.2.3.



4.2.1 Content selections in 'Text as a context for learning' – *Learners and Learning*, Section Four

In Section Four of both the *Learning Guide* and the *Reader* the designers of *Learners and Learning* foreground subject or disciplinary knowledge about learning to read and reading to learn and the advantages of both, together with knowledge about how learners – including the learner-teachers or teacher-learners[33] – learn.

In the *Reader*, they begin their introduction to four readings on 'Reading and schooling' with two questions, reproduced in Textbox 4.1. The wording of these questions positions readers to accept that schooling and literacy do bring changes and that 'people' do acquire 'new powers' from school learning and from learning to read.

Textbox 4.1 Introductory questions about schooling and literacy

> What kinds of changes do schooling and literacy bring with them? What new powers do people acquire when they learn at school or when they learn to read? (Moll, Gultig, Bradbury & Winkler, 2001, p. 131)

The designers state that answers to these questions "have become extremely controversial" and support their statement with a lengthy quotation from the work of an author who illustrates some of the concerns about schooling and literacy expressed by "older members of traditional societies". However, the concluding statements in this quotation are that "members of most societies have decided that the benefits of formal education exceed their disadvantages" and that "throughout the world they are

[33] As explained in 1.6, unlike the other two sets of materials, those designed for *Learners and Learning* were designed for use in a range of formal and informal teacher pre-service and in-service education sites.

sending their children to school in ever-increasing numbers" (Stevenson, 1982, quoted in Moll, Gultig, Bradbury & Winkler, 2001, p. 131). Unsurprisingly, given that the *Reader* is part of a teacher education module, schooling and literacy are presented as beneficial and this orientation is made explicit in the opening sentence of the next paragraph which introduces the first of the readings. The remainder of the designers' introduction to *Reading and schooling* is quoted in the central textbox below as an example of how the selection and recontextualisation of content is used to establish the reading positions preferred by the designers. The quotation has been reformatted to facilitate annotation.

Textbox 4.2 Extracts from the introduction to four readings on 'Reading and schooling' in the *Learners and Learning Reader*

In this section, the articles explore what the benefits are of learning at school and, more specifically, of learning to read. Freire (Reading 14, page 133) explores how reading can be either an active liberating process or a mind-numbing, passive process. He is critical of schooling regimes that narrow reading to 'recitation', but on the other hand recognizes that *the act* of reading is crucial to 'deeper reflection on any topic'. He also recognizes that reading and study involve hard work, and his call is for teaching and learning processes that foster this critical attitude towards the world.

Bettelheim and Zelan (Reading 15, page 137) pursue the theme of the power of reading to open up the imagination, and Floden and Bachman (Reading 16, page 145) do the same for the new understandings that learners acquire from schooling. More controversially, the latter authors insist that the power of school knowledge lies in the fact that it ruptures the everyday experiences of learners, and thus allows them to understand the world in new and imaginative ways that are not consistent with their everyday experiences.

In the final paper, Brown and Campione (Reading 17, page 154) explore the consequences of schooling for the development of children's knowledge. …
Specifically, Brown and Campione are interested in the power of learning to read in the context of schooling, and argue that it allows the acquisition of skills of wide applicability. (Moll, Gultig, Bradbury & Winkler, 2001, pp. 131-132)

Annotations (left):

Pairing of active with liberating and passive with mind-numbing sets up 'good' / 'bad' binary.

The authority favours hard work and teaching that fosters criticality. Hard work and critical attitude are equated.

Two pairs of authorities cited. Possible distancing of the designers from the strong views of the second pair.

Annotations (right):

Articles focus on benefits only.

The authority is cited as critical of a practice common SA schools ('reci-tation') but in favour of the contribution of reading to reflection.

Three ideas repeated: power linked to reading and school know-ledge; impor-tance of imagination; importance of moving beyond the everyday.

Reiteration of the power of learning to read/reading; focus here on transferable skills.

Analysis of this introduction suggests that the position of the designers on reading and reading pedagogy (what Bernstein would term their "ideological bias"), and the position that they wish teachers to take, is aligned more with features of "critical" than of "mainstream" pedagogy. (See 2.2.2 for Canagarajah's description of key features of each.) They begin Section Four of the *Reader* with an extract from the work of Paolo Freire, widely accepted as a formative influence on much of the subsequent writing on critical pedagogy. In Section 4.6 of the *Learning Guide*, in the body of the text, they introduce him to readers as "the famous writer and educator" and then in a margin box, reproduced as Textbox 4.3, they emphasize his importance by giving him what South Africans would identify as 'struggle credentials'[34].

Textbox 4.3 Locating Paolo Freire in a South African context

Paolo Freire was a Brazilian educator who lived from 1921 to 1997. His ideas were very influential in South Africa, first in the radical Christian groups and the black consciousness movement and then in the development of people's education in the late 1980s. (Gultig, 2001, p. 141)

The designers position readers to accept the authority of Freire on reading and thus to reject the notion of reading as passive recitation in favour of reading as active critique and liberation. Ironically, if Canagarajah's conceptualisation of contrasting features of mainstream and critical pedagogy is valid, it could be argued that the position of the designers, in this instance, is located in the mainstream. Canagarajah argues that the mainstream, in privileging the preferred ways of learning of the dominant community (in this instance the teacher educators who are the materials designers), may "create conflicts for learners from other pedagogical traditions" (1999, pp.15-16). Reading as a teacher-led recitation activity is likely to be a pedagogic tradition for many of the readers of *Learners and Learning* (MacDonald & Burroughs, 1991; Zimmerman & Long,

[34] To have 'struggle credentials' is to be identified as a person who played a role in South Africa's liberation from apartheid. The use of the past tense is interesting as it suggests that Freire's ideas were more important in the past than in the present.

2008). However, overall, the designers' emphasis on the liberating possibilities offered by reading and the roles of teachers in supporting learners in developing imaginative and critical responses to text and to the world ("reading the word and reading the world", in Freire's words[35]), suggests that through their choices of content and of pedagogic discourse they position themselves, and wish to position teachers, within a critical pedagogic frame.

The majority of the activities in Section Four of the *Learning Guide* support understanding of subject knowledge about reading (theories and research findings) and of its importance for what the designers term "school learning". For example, on pages 114 and 115 they have selected an extract from the work of Margaret Donaldson on the differences between spoken and written language and have designed pre- and post-reading activities in relation to it. The pre-reading activity requires readers to use their own experiential knowledge (referred to as "knowledge of the world" on page 118 of the *Learning Guide*) to respond to the five statements reproduced in Textbox 4.4.

Textbox 4.4 A pre-reading activity

Differences between the spoken and written word

Activity 31

1. Here are a few open-ended sentences about the spoken and written word. Complete each sentence in any way you like.
   a. The written word mostly …
   b. The spoken word only …
   c. Without spoken words …
   d. The written word can …
   e. The biggest difference between spoken and written words is …
2. Now read what Margaret Donaldson says about the differences between written and spoken language (Gultig, 2001, p. 114, bold type in original headings).

[35] Freire and Macedo (1987) include this concept in the title of their book: *Literacy: Reading the Word and the World.*

The post-reading activities reproduced in Textbox 4.5 focus on comprehension of the extract but also encourage readers to express their own ideas and to make conceptual links between what they have just read, what they have encountered in the previous section of the module and what they will revisit at the end of the current section.

Textbox 4.5 A post-reading activity

3. Answer the following questions:
    a. What, according to Donaldson, is the most important difference between spoken and written language?
    b. What do you think it means to become 'aware of language in its own right'?
    c. What is the significance of the distinction between spoken and written language for learning? (In addition to the last paragraph of Donaldson's extract, it may also help to look again at the discussion of discourse in Section Three on pages 85-93.)
    d. Donaldson makes a strong claim that reading has 'important consequences for the development of kinds of thinking.' What do you think the relationship between reading and thinking is? Make some notes in your workbook. We will return to this question again at the end of the section. (Gultig, 2001, p. 115)

It could be argued that some of the questions posed by the designers encourage further pedagogic recontextualisation on the part of readers, though this weaker 'framing', with its opportunities for readers to insert their own ideas (Bernstein, 1996; Ensor, 2004) may not always be valued by them because of the extra work involved.

The content selected for the section on reading is aligned with the module's overall focus on learning and learners – both young learners in the school classroom and learner-teachers or teacher-learners. Throughout this section of both the *Learning Guide* and the *Reader*, readers are directed to read about what is involved in learning to read and why reading is so important for school learning. After subject knowledge and knowledge of how learners learn, the next most frequently included 'element' is knowledge of self as learner and as teacher. The designers aim to extend this knowledge through the questions they pose in relation to the content they have

selected and through the guidance they offer in regard to conceptual links within and between the various sections of the module.

Throughout *Learners and Learning* the designers give some attention to academic literacy. Their instructions to readers to make notes as a record of their thinking (page 115), or as a summary of their reading (p125), constitute these readers as already knowledgeable about note making. However, they are imagined as novices with regard to understanding text structures. The designers introduce sub-section 4.5 of the *Learning Guide,* 'Learning to read better', with the statements reproduced in Textbox 4.6.

Textbox 4.6 Positioning teachers to value textbooks and to use them 'well'

> Earlier we looked at how textbooks are used for learning. We agreed that they are important sources of information and that learners need them to succeed at school.
>
> However, we also know that many teachers either don't use textbooks in their teaching or they use them ineffectively, and many learners simply learn them off by heart. As the content and the demands of their courses become more complex, many learners feel stressed and anxious about reading books or using libraries to help them study. Even though learners may *want* to learn, the difficulty of textbook language makes reading tiring and, sometimes, almost impossible.
>
> We know that successful reading is about 'cracking the code'. Let's take a closer look at this code and find out how textbooks are written. (Gultig, 2001, p. 138; italics in the original)

In these paragraphs readers, as teachers, are constituted firstly as members of a community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991) who agree that textbooks are important and who know that they must be used effectively (in contrast to "many teachers" who don't know this), but secondly as apprentices in this community who

need to learn how textbooks are structured.   As apprentices they are required to follow carefully the instructions reproduced in Textbox 4.7.

Textbox 4.7 Positioning readers to follow instructions

> Work through the following activity on text patterns. Although it requires you to repeat a similar process each time, we encourage you to not skip any of the pattern exercises as each one establishes a *different kind of relationship* between ideas in the text. Once you have worked through the whole activity you will have deepened your understanding about the way textbooks work. You will also have *practised* a critical approach to reading text. (Gultig, 2001, p. 139; italics in the original)

The activity requires readers to identify a sequence structure, a compare and contrast structure and a cause and effect structure in specified extracts from the *Learning Guide.* Both the detailed task instructions and the margin blocks which list words that signal sequencing, comparison or contrast, cause or effect, offer scaffolding for the three tasks on pages 139 and 140 of the guide. The designers attempt to persuade readers of the value of working through "the whole activity". They draw their attention to its main pedagogic purpose by using italics to foreground the key point – that particular text patterns establish different kinds of relationships between ideas. Then they offer the rewards of deepened understanding of textbook structure and of an experience of critical reading – in the conventional sense of the critical as involving the development of "a reasoned analysis based on an examination of evidence and argument" (Janks, 2010, p. 12). Sub-section 4.5 ends with five paragraphs under the heading 'Why text structures are important'. The final one, reproduced in textbox 4.8, is an example of how the designers imagine and constitute readers as simultaneously learners and teachers.

Textbox 4.8 Constituting readers simultaneously as learners and teachers

> By understanding text structures we can begin to recognize the relationships between parts of a text and become aware of our own thinking while we read. This awareness is the essence of intellectual self-control and will help us to be active and independent readers, able to use a text effectively in service of learning and teaching. (Gultig, 2001, p. 140)

The designers' use of inclusive 'we' signals that learner-teachers and teacher-learners are part of a community of 'active' and 'independent' readers who have a responsibility to use texts 'effectively' in their own learning and also in their teaching. However, they are given little explicit guidance about how to teach because pedagogic content knowledge is backgrounded in both the *Learning Guide* and the *Reader*.

Bernstein argues that pedagogic discourse can be instantiated in what he terms competence or performance models of pedagogic practice (See 2.2.1). In Section Four of the *Learning Guide,* when the designers include academic literacy content I suggest they are working with both models. When asking readers to make their own notes on their reading, the discourse is located within Bernstein's competence model because readers are imagined as already possessing the required skills. By contrast, the discourse of the detailed and prescriptive task instructions for the 'text pattern' activity on pages 139 -140 is located within Bernstein's performance model: specific steps must be followed in order to produce a specified outcome.

Analysis of the elements of a knowledge base for teacher education about 'reading' that are foregrounded and backgrounded in Section Four of the *Learning Guide* and the *Reader* suggests that the designers have constituted their readers as learner-teachers or teacher-learners who will:

- accept that reading is of central importance to 'school learning';
- engage with and respond positively to particular theories about learning to read and reading to learn;

- reflect on implications of these theories for their own practices as adult learners and as teachers in South African classrooms;
- be responsive to opportunities to extend their academic literacy skills.

Their focus in this section is consistent with one of the stated aims of the *Study of Education* series of modules, reproduced in Textbox 4.9.

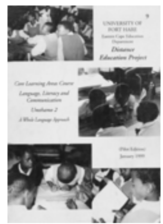
Textbox 4.9 One of the aims of the *Study of Education* series

> We believed, however, that teachers who have to *change* the old system and *implement* the new curriculum, who have to help *build a democratic order* and not simply run the old system more efficiently, need an education which develops the ability to think, problem solve, and make value judgements. But, like many educators we had a distinct dislike for the abstract and decontextualised theory that characterized South African teacher education in the past. This series attempts to teach theory as a *valuable element of practice* which teachers can use to understand and improve their lives and practices as teachers. (Gultig, 2001, p. v; italics in the original)

This part of the overall introduction to *Learners and Learning* constitutes both the designers and the readers as 'change agents'. Among the responsibilities of the former is the provision of teacher education materials that enable teachers to develop their ability "to think, problem solve and make value judgements" in order to fulfill their responsibilities of changing "the old system", implementing (though not designing) the new curriculum and helping to "build a democratic order". While the overall design of the materials encourages a critically reflective orientation to learning and teaching, the very limited pedagogic content (i.e. content with a focus on how to teach aspects of reading) may not give teachers sufficient access to practices that would enable them to achieve what is advocated in the *Learning Guide* and the *Reader*[36]. For example, on

[36] It should be noted that the teacher educators responsible for the Study of Education series designed what they termed 'two practical teaching modules' – *Getting Practical* and *Using Media in Teaching.* However, information on sales of the series suggests that the 'theoretical' and the 'practical' modules have not always been used in complementary ways. For example, figures for 2005 to 2009 indicate that *Getting Practical* outsold *Learners and Learning* in a ratio of approximately 5 to 1 (figures supplied by SAIDE).

page 117 of the *Learning Guide* the importance of “knowledge of the language in which we read” is acknowledged, but there is no reference to local and international research on the value of learning to read in one’s home language(s) and no information on how to assist learners to move successfully from learning to read in this language to learning to read in their school’s language of learning and teaching, and finally to reading in order to learn across the curriculum.



4.2.2 Content selections in *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, ‘A whole language approach’

None of the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo has the explicit focus on the role of reading in school learning and the teaching of reading that is identifiable in the other two sets of materials. However, references to collecting and using stories for classroom reading (and also speaking, writing and thinking) activities are threaded through *Umthamo 2.*

In contrast to *Learners and Learning*, content that is best categorized, following Shulman (1987), as either general pedagogic knowledge or pedagogic content knowledge, is the focus of approximately 35 of the 48 pages of *Umthamo 2*. For Shulman, general pedagogic knowledge refers to “broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organisation that appear to transcend subject matter” (1987, p. 8). In *Umthamo 2* the content of pages 4 to 9, in which the designers problematize the construction of school timetables, could be considered an example of general pedagogic knowledge. The designers use these pages as background to the arguments they subsequently develop in favour of a “whole language” approach to language and literacy learning within an integrated curriculum.

According to Shulman, pedagogic content knowledge “represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, directed and adapted to the direct interests of learners and

presented for instruction" (1987, p. 8). In *Umthamo 2* the designers provide detailed guidance to teacher-learners for the collection of isiXhosa traditional moral tales (iintsomi), for their use of these tales in a "whole language" classroom and for the preparation of Big Books in which to record learners' stories for subsequent use in reading activities.

The designers also encourage teacher-learners to deepen their self-knowledge by reflecting on their experiences of collecting the iintsomi and of using them for "whole language" activities. For example, they are asked to reflect on their second experience of telling learners the beginning of an intsomi as a stimulus for story creation, by responding in their journals to the questions reproduced in Textbox 4.10.

Textbox 4.10 Questions to guide journal writing

How did the activity go this time?
What surprised you?
What was different from the first time you tried out a whole language activity?
What have you learned from this experience?
What do you think your learners learned?
How did you feel when you were with your learners? Why?
How do you feel now? Why?
(University of Fort Hare, *Language Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, 1999, p. 35)

This detailed guidance for the construction of journal notes contrasts with the much briefer instructions for making notes given by the designers of *Learners and Learning*. However, the inclusion of questions to guide reflection at several points in the umthamo is the only instance of what could be regarded as explicit support for teachers' writing.

In *Umthamo 2* the content focus is on pedagogic knowledge, with teacher-learners experiencing and reflecting on what the designers construct as 'new' ways of working in the classroom. Subject knowledge is included as a support for this teaching focus or

to confirm and extend the knowledge that teachers have gained experientially. The designers guide teacher-learners through a carefully sequenced process of collecting stories and using them in accordance with a whole language approach to language and literacy learning, and then conclude the umthamo with an extract from Kenneth Goodman's book *What's Whole in Whole Language?*

Analysis of the content of *Umthamo 2* suggests that the designers are constituting readers as teachers who need to change some of their traditional classroom practices and as responsive to an opportunity to do so. However, a theme that recurs in the six *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo is that what is constructed as 'international and new' pedagogy (such as a "whole language" approach to language and literacy) can incorporate the 'local and traditional' (e.g. isiXhosa moral tales). For example, in *Umthamo 4* there is a six page unit on involving families in their children's education which includes the statements reproduced in Textbox 4.11.

Textbox 4.11 Positioning teachers to value traditional culture and its custodians

… it is terribly important that learners experience and know their culture. Older people in our communities are the custodians of the culture. They hold memories of the past. They have important knowledge, knowledge we should be incorporating into the curriculum. And they can play an important role in our classrooms. (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 4*, 2000, p. 11)

These statements, written almost a decade before Luke (2008) published his intriguing model of pedagogy as gift (outlined in section 2. 2.2), position teachers to value culturally significant texts and to involve family and community elders – two of the key elements in the model in which Luke brings together elements of traditional and critical pedagogies.

In 2.2.2, in commenting on Canagarajah's conceptualisation of centre and periphery pedagogies I suggested that these are likely to co-exist in some sites of practice in South Africa. In my view, there is evidence of this co-existence in the overall design of

Umthamo 2. The paragraphs from the introduction to a whole language approach on page 2 of *Umthamo 2*, reformatted in Textbox 4.12, are one example of this 'hybrid' pedagogic design.

Textbox 4.12 First part of the introduction to a whole language approach, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*

In this umthamo, we are going to look at a way of teaching language which fits in with Outcomes Based Education (OBE). It is not such a 'new' way, but it may be new to some teachers, and to some primary schools in South Africa.

This approach to language learning and teaching does not divide language into different parts. It is about the links between ***all*** aspects of language. The ideas and activities in this umthamo combine a **whole language** approach with a **literature-based** approach to language teaching and learning.

Many people assume that the word 'literature' refers to stories, poems and plays that have been written down. But this is not true. It has been said that it is 'an accident' that we have come to think of literature in this way. Literature includes both the art of speaking, and the art of writing.

> *In 'civilised' countries we are inclined to associate literature with writing; but such an association is accidental … Millions of people throughout Asia, Polynesia, Africa and even Europe, who practise the art of literature, have no knowledge of letters. Writing is unessential to either the composition, or the preservation, of literature. (Chadwick,N.K. 1939:77 quoted in Finnegan 1970:15-16)*

In this umthamo we are concerned with *oral literature*. We will ask you to collect samples of oral literature. You will use these iintsomi as a base for the *whole language* work that you do with your learners.

In high schools it has been the custom for some time to separate subjects. Sadly, this has filtered down into the primary school. So much so, that in some schools even aspects of one subject (or learning area) are divided into separate parts.

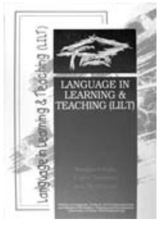
We suggest that this is unnatural. It is high time that we caught up with other parts of the world (our 'global village'), and adopted a whole language approach in our interactions with young learners.

(University of Fort Hare*, Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, 1999, p. 2)

Annotations:

- Inclusive 'we' – TLs and designers working together; recognition of a range of school contexts.
- Terminology from the ORF (Bernstein, 1996) is foregrounded
- Restatement of key idea in words 'not divide', 'links'; 'combine', suggests teachers have been 'dividing language'; use of bold and italic type for emphasis.
- High modality in the short sentence emphasizes the designers' view.
- Quotation chosen to support designers' position that oral literature is widely practised.
- Inclusive 'we' – designers and TLs, followed by exclusive 'We' in the regulative discourse.
- Adverbial comment in marked position makes clear the designers' view.
- Primary schools in SA positioned as behind the times and needing to join the mainstream.

What is perhaps most interesting about *Umthamo 2* is not the privileging of pedagogic knowledge in the design, but the connections which the designers construct for teacher-learners between the oral literature of traditional isiXhosa communities in the Eastern Cape in South Africa (arguably an example of Canagarajah's 'periphery communities') and a whole language approach to language and literacy education. In the late 1990s, when these materials were designed, this approach was widely accepted by the educational 'centre' as 'good practice'. The designers appropriate discourses from anthropology (on oral literature and its value) and from 'mainstream' pedagogy (the 'whole language' approach) and recontextualise them in a pedagogic discourse which encourages teacher-learners to use the 'old' (isiXhosa moral tales) in the service of a 'new' way of teaching which integrates speaking, listening, reading, writing and thinking.



4.2.3 Content selections in 'Teaching reading' – *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT),* Unit Two

While the designers of *Learners and Learning* foreground subject knowledge and the designers of *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2* focus on pedagogic knowledge, the designers of *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)* weave together subject knowledge, pedagogic knowledge and academic literacy. For example, the introduction to the unit in the *Learning Guide* begins with information about the importance of reading and the relationship between writing and reading, and ends with an activity which takes teacher-learners through a process of surveying both the materials they are studying and the textbooks they use in the classroom. In the introduction to this activity, reproduced in Textbox 4.13, the designers address the teacher-learners as both teachers and learners.

Textbox 4.13 The value of surveying a textbook

> Surveying a textbook is an important reading skill that you can teach learners to do with all their subject textbooks. When you know your way around a book you use it more efficiently. (Inglis, Thomson & Macdonald, 2000, p. 58)

While the designers use ‘you’ in the first sentence to address teacher-learners as teachers, in the second sentence they use the same pronoun generically so that teacher-learners are included as both teachers who should help learners to survey their textbooks and as learners who will study more “efficiently” if they undertake such surveys. The modality of the statements positions teacher-learners to accept, without argument, the designers’ perspective.

This surveying activity is followed immediately by a directive to preview the article in the *Reader* titled ‘Ways of understanding the reading process: Implications for teaching’. The designers constitute teacher-learners as readers who may need to be reminded of how to preview a text (“Remember that when you preview any text you …”) and then provide guidelines for doing so. The article is scaffolded further in three ways. Firstly, it is introduced with a number of pre-reading tasks. Secondly, in Activity 21, reproduced in Textbox 4.14, the designers provide a framework for the teacher-learners to use for making notes from the article and for using these to reflect on their experiences as classroom teachers. Thirdly, in Activity 22, reproduced in Textbox 4.15, they summarise key points from the article and then construct tasks which encourage teacher-learners to use these summaries to support active and reflective reading in their classrooms.

Textbox 4.14 Guidance for reflective reading and writing

Activity 21

(Suggested time: 45 minutes)

Thinking and writing
Write a heading ‘Levels of Reading Interaction – Adams and Collins’ in your Workbook, followed by the sub-headings: letter, word, syntax, semantics and interpretation.

Think about each of the levels of reading described by Adams and Collins that are referred to in Chapter 4 of the Reader, and write down any difficulties that your learners have at each level. Try to identify at which level most of your learners have a problem. (Inglis et al., 2000, p. 60; bold type in original

Textbox 4.15 Further guidance for active, reflective reading

> ## Activity 22
>
> (Suggested time: 30 minutes)
>
> 1. Does having a schema (in this case gained through a summary of key points) assist you in your reading, understanding and remembering?
> 2. Read the key points given below. Then turn to Chapter 4 of the Reader (page 155) to search for and understand those key concepts in the chapter.
>
> (Inglis et al., 2000, p. 60; bold type in original heading and numbering)

Unlike the designers of *Learners and Learning* who chose to use extracts from the writing of internationally recognised experts in the field, with the work of only one local expert included in the 17 readings, the designers of the *LILT* materials briefed colleagues from their own university to write six of the seven chapters in the *Reader.* These experts in the local recontextualise knowledge from the work of the local and international authorities cited in their reference lists, to complement the subject and pedagogic knowledges presented in the *Learning Guide*. The paragraphs reproduced in Textbox 4.16 are an example of this design strategy.

Textbox 4.16 Positioning teachers to value an understanding of 'the reading process'

> If you are to encourage your learners to be efficient readers for information and ideas, it is important that you understand the reading process itself. After all, how can we teach others to read meaningfully, if we don't know enough about reading ourselves?
>
> Chapter 4 in the Reader outlines how our understanding of the reading process has grown over the last 30 years. In this chapter Fiona Jackson gives a brief outline of a number of ways in which reading researchers have described the reading process. (Inglis et al., 2000, p. 59)

In the first section of the unit titled 'Teaching reading' the designers of the *LILT* materials introduce content knowledge and model a way of engaging with text that teacher-learners can use for their own studies and adapt for use with the learners whom they

teach. In subsequent sections they introduce what they imagine to be new content knowledge about reading, and offer further guidance for the teacher-learners' reading and note-making, while at the same time acknowledging and drawing on their teaching and learning experiences. For example, in Activity 25, after instructing teacher-learners to make notes within a prescribed format and to respond to several specific 'reading comprehension' questions based on a section of an article in the *Reader* titled 'Sources of reading problems', the designers conclude the activity with the question reproduced in Textbox 4.17. It recognizes the teacher-learners as experienced practitioners and also indicates that the authority of a text can be contested.

Textbox 4.17 Positioning teachers as experienced practitioners

> From your own teaching and learning experience in the South African context, are there any explanations of reading disabilities that you feel have been left out by Jackson? If so, make a note of them in your workbook. (Inglis et al., 2000, p. 68)

While the designers of the *LILT* materials include pedagogic knowledge in the unit on Reading, they do so in a very different way from the designers of the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo who provide detailed instructions for classroom activities. For example, on pages 78 to 80 the designers of *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)* report findings from research on what makes textbooks accessible or inaccessible and then include an activity, reproduced in Textbox 4.18, which requires teacher-learners to draw on their classroom experience and their learning from the course to find strategies that will assist learners to read textbooks.

Textbox 4.18 Making a textbook 'accessible' to learners

> **Activity 29**
> (Suggested time: 60 minutes)
> Choose a particular textbook that you use with one of your classes. If the textbook seems inaccessible to your learners, how could you make it possible for them to learn from it?
> For this activity you will need to look at what may be inconsiderate and then think of ways to 'unpack' some of these aspects for your learners so that they are able to engage with the reading task. (Inglis et al., 2000, p. 79; bold type in original heading)

When they subsequently offer some strategies (pedagogic knowledge) for scaffolding textbook reading, the designers do this in ways that leave the detail up to the teacher-learners.

Drawing on readers' classroom experience foregrounds their teacher subjectivities. Analysis of the content selected for Unit 2 suggests that the designers are constituting teacher-learners as teachers with both subject and pedagogic knowledge – which they will be able to use productively in new ways after working with the materials – but also as learners with an interest in extending these knowledges and further developing their own academic literacy and that of the learners whom they teach. They are to be models for the learners in their classes to emulate. What the designers foreground in their content selections is consistent with what they state in the module's introduction, part of which is reproduced in Textbox 4.19.

Textbox 4.19 Part of the introduction to *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)*

> In a country such as South Africa, where reading resources and practices have been severely limited in the past, it is imperative that we as teachers do all we can to create opportunities for our learners to read more. But learners will only do this if we model good reading habits ourselves, and provide them with interesting and relevant reading material. (Inglis et al., 2000, p. 5).

4.2.4 Some concluding observations on differences and similarities in content selections

Analysis of what is foregrounded, backgrounded or absent in the content selected for each set of materials suggests that there are significant differences in what the designers have identified as important for learner-teachers or teacher-learners to know about 'reading'. Even where the same 'knowledge element' is included in all three designs it is often realised differently. This is particularly evident with regard to knowledge of self and knowledge of context.

Loughran claims that "[R]eflection has become the cornerstone of many teacher education programs" (2006, p. 129) and while it does not seem to have quite such a central position in these three sets of materials, each team of designers does include activities that focus on teachers' self-knowledge or "personal constructs". Banks, Leach and Moon describe a teacher's personal construct as:

> … a complex amalgam of past knowledge, experiences of learning, a personal view of what constitutes 'good' teaching and a belief in the purposes of the subject. (1999, p. 95)

They argue that this construct underpins teachers' professional knowledge and is equally important for both novice and experienced teachers:

> A student teacher needs to question his or her personal beliefs about his or her subject as he or she works out a rationale for classroom practice. But so must those teachers who, although more expert, have experienced profound changes of what contributes (sic) 'school knowledge' during their career. (1999, p. 95)

However, even though each design team requires learner-teachers or teacher-learners to be reflective, the focus of the reflections is not the same. In *Learners and Learning* and in *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)* teachers are required to reflect on their past experiences as child readers and their present experiences as adult readers as well as on their views on reading and teaching reading. The focus is reflection on experiences with printed texts and with learning from them and the reflections have a metacognitive purpose which the designers of the *LILT* materials make explicit in the paragraphs reproduced in Textbox 4.20.

Textbox 4.20 An explanation of metacognition

> While you study the rest of this unit, we would like you to think about your own reading experience and the reading experience of your learners. … This conscious awareness of how you are reading and how you are learning through reading is called '*metacognition*'.
> Metacognition is the knowledge you have about thinking and the control you have over your own thinking. … If learners become more aware of the way that they read, and are able to think about their reading style, and articulate their thoughts, then they are better placed to be able to modify their reading style to be more strategic and focused. (Inglis et al., 2000, p. 59; italics in the original)

At the beginning of the long section in *Umthamo 2* on 'A literature-based whole language experience', teacher-learners are required to reflect for a metacognitive purpose. For example, they are asked to write in their journals about what part of the materials they re-read and why (University of Fort Hare, 1999, Umthamo 2). However, for the most part they are asked to reflect on 'new' experiences of collecting traditional stories and of using them as a 'springboard' (University of Fort Hare, 1999, Umthamo 2) for listening, speaking, reading, writing and thinking activities in the classroom (as in the example of reflection questions quoted on page 126). While some of these questions also encourage metacognition, many are concerned with the affective dimension of teacher-learners' experiences (e.g. 'What surprised you…? How did you feel …?). In some cases the questions focus on teacher-learners as learners (as

in ‘What have you learned from this experience?’) while in others the questions address them as teachers (as in ‘What do you think your learners learned?’)[37].

Darling-Hammond argues that when knowledge of sociocultural context is an important element in a teacher education programme, “teachers learn to understand and adapt their teaching to the content taught, the experiences of learners (their home, community, language and cultural backgrounds), and the purposes for education held by society, local communities, and families” (2006, p. 82). While all of the designers locate reading and other literacy practices in sociocultural context, there are differences in the aspects of context which they have chosen to foreground. In *Learners and Learning* and in *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)* there is broadly similar recognition of the challenges to be faced by teachers of reading when learners are learning to read and reading to learn in an additional language. There are also broadly similar references to the lack of a reading culture in many homes as is evident in the two quotations in Textbox 4.21.

Textbox 4.21 Deficit constructions of literacy in the home

> In the South African context we need to understand that many people do not grow up in a reading environment. (Inglis et al., 2000, p. 68)
>
> Many learners come from homes which have no books, and where parents have been denied (by our history) the joy of literacy. So they enter schools with no model of reading as a joyful and meaningful activity. (Gultig, 2001, p. 126)

In addition, the designers of *Learners and Learning* include a newspaper report on the First All Africa Conference on Children’s Reading in which the author expresses concerns about teachers’ and librarians’ limited reading.

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[37] However, it should be noted that in *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 5, ‘Developing and Extending Literacy’,* which teacher-learners use in the third of their four years of part-time study, they are required to reflect on their own literacy histories as preparation for reading a selection of texts about becoming a reader.

In contrast to this placement of literacy teaching and learning in a national and, in one instance, an international context, the designers of *Language, Literacy and Communication Umthamo 2* locate teaching and learning firmly within the Eastern Cape province. When these designers re-visit reading and the teaching of reading in *Umthamo 5* they include case studies of local children's experiences with print. While they refer to the local ("even in the most rural settings"), in contrast to the designers of the other two sets of materials, they do not construct this learning environment in deficit terms as the paragraph reproduced in Textbox 4.22 demonstrates.

Textbox 4.22 Environmental print in rural contexts

> In the studies which follow, you will see that young children are very observant of their surroundings, and generally notice far more than we realize. Think about the printed words that your learners see in their homes and their communities. There are labels on the different packagings of the foods and groceries in their homes. Think of a bar of soap. There, on the bar of soap is the name of the brand, and sometimes even the symbol or logo, which can be 'traced and felt'. Even in the most rural settings, children find samples of print.
> (University of Fort Hare, 2000, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 5*, p. 21)

Common to all three sets of materials is a lack of explicit attention to the curriculum documents produced for post-apartheid, outcomes-based schooling. There are several possible reasons for this. Firstly, in the years in which the materials were designed (1999, 2000 and 2001) the new curriculum was still in development for some phases of schooling and under revision for others. Secondly, while the sections and units chosen for analysis focus on language and literacy, this is language and literacy across the curriculum in the case of *Learners and Learning* and *Language in Learning and Teaching*. Thirdly, more explicit reference to the curriculum may be made in other modules within the overall programme (for example, in the Study of Education series designed by SAIDE there is an entire module titled *Curriculum: From Plans to Practices*) or in other sections of the material being analysed (for example, there are several

references to the new school curriculum in Unit One of *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* and in *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo Four*). Finally, it is possible that the designers chose to work mainly in what Bernstein terms "the pedagogic recontextualising field" rather than "the official recontextualising field" because this is the field that they value and in which they have expertise.

While analysis of the content on Reading suggests that readers are being constituted differently in each set of materials, I suggest that there are at least two very important similarities. Firstly, each design team constitutes the content selected for the materials as a knowledge base or foundation from which to construct further knowledge. Readers are encouraged to reflect on their past experiences as learners and as teachers and on new theories and accounts of research findings that they are encountering in the pages of the materials. In *Learners and Learning* and in *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT*) they are offered points of departure for extending their academic literacy skills and in all three sets of materials they are offered guidelines for new classroom practices (though much less so in *Learners and Learning* than the other two). Secondly, readers, together with the designers, are positioned as responsible for contributing to the post-apartheid project of transforming schooling in South Africa. With reference to Canagarajah's conceptualization of characteristic features of mainstream and critical pedagogy, I suggest that the orientation of all three design teams is towards the critical in which learning is personal, situated, cultural and political and knowledge is ideological and negotiated (See section 2.2.2).

4.3 Conceptualising the organization of knowledge on the page in teacher education materials

In the introduction to *Developing a Pedagogy of Teacher Education* Loughran argues that teacher education programmes usually place considerable emphasis on what Russell (1997) has described as "the content turn", while "the need to pay careful attention to the practices employed in presenting the subject matter 'the pedagogical turn' (Russell, 1997) is easily overlooked" (Loughran, 2006, pp. 3-4). While some

references have already been made to the pedagogical turn in the discussion of content selections, 'the how' of teacher education is the focus of the rest of this chapter and also of Chapters Five and Six.

Alongside the on-going debate about what should constitute the knowledge base for teacher education has been debate about "the sources of teacher knowledge and the kinds of cognitive processes associated with such knowledge" (Webb, 2007, p. 280). For Webb, the essence of this debate is the extent to which teacher knowledge is more appropriately conceptualized as "codifiable and generalizable" or as "event-structured and personal" (2007, pp. 280-281). If codifiable and generalisable, then it is assumed that teacher knowledge is propositional and theoretical – termed "epistemic knowledge" by Loughran (2006) – and that it is learned through a combination of knowledge transfer, in the form of instruction, and knowledge application, in the form of the teaching practicum. If event-structured and personal, then teachers create knowledge in contexts of practice, in the process developing practical wisdom or phronesis (Loughran, 2006). Loughran argues that teacher educators need to bridge the gap between these two conceptualisations by drawing on both:

> It is not that one is more important than another, both inform good teaching, but it is the manner in which each are (sic) called upon and used that dramatically influences the way that each are (sic) interpreted by students of teaching, and therefore ultimately accepted, rejected, understood and valued (Loughran, 2006, p. 65).

The framework for understanding teacher learning proposed by Cochran-Smith and Lytle at the end of the 1990s addresses 'the how' of teacher education by conceptualising knowledge-practice relationships in terms of "knowledge-for-practice", "knowledge-in-practice" or "knowledge-of-practice". Knowledge, teachers, teaching and educational change are imagined in different ways in each of the three conceptualisations outlined in Table 4.2 which is an adaptation of this framework.

Table 4.2 Knowledge-Practice relationships in three conceptions of teacher learning

Knowledge-Practice Relationship	**Subject / 'book-based' knowledge for practice**	**Practice-based knowledge in practice**	**Meta knowledge of subject and practice in relation to each other and to context**
Images of Knowledge	Defined and distinctive 'formal' knowledge of 'subjects', educational theory and pedagogy – produced mainly by university-based academics	Knowledge base is what very competent teachers have come to know through their practice; knowledge acquired through reflections on experience – groups/dyads of more and less experienced teachers generate knowledge through working together in and on practice	Through enquiry teachers problematize 'formal' and 'practical' knowledges – knowers and knowledge located in socio-political contexts
Images of Teachers, Teaching and Professional Practice	Teaching involves applying 'received knowledge' in a practical situation – knowledge for use	Teachers generate knowledge through reflection on 'wise practice' – the classroom is a 'knowledge landscape'	Teachers expected to be transformative Teaching as praxis
Images of Teacher Learning and Teachers' Roles in Educational Change	Teachers come to know what is already known and use this knowledge to effect change	Teachers learn through reflecting on their own and other teachers' practices in order to improve these practices	Teachers learn through participation in on-going action research communities
Current Initiatives in Teacher Education, Professional Development and/or Teacher Assessment	Programmes in which teachers learn and demonstrate knowledge for certification purposes	Pre-service teachers learn through 'assisted performance' with mentors; in-service teachers through professional development opportunities supported by external facilitators	School or district-based teacher enquiry communities, teacher conference presentations and publications

(An adaptation of a framework devised by Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1999)

Cochran-Smith and Lytle argue that such a framework

> … exposes a number of provocative issues about the whole topic of teacher learning and the role of communities. These issues are at once subtle, in that very different meanings are often embedded beneath the surface of similar language and structures, and also striking, in that the differences are enormously significant for how teachers understand and position themselves in various initiatives for school improvement as well as how universities and other educational institutions position teachers and teacher learning in relation to change. (1999, p. 295)

Some of these provocative issues are raised in the work of Canadian teacher educators Connelly and Clandinin who distinguish between "knowledge for teachers" and "teacher knowledge". They are critical of those who support a "knowledge for teachers" approach to teacher education, arguing that this view constructs knowledge as a possession:

> In this view knowledge needs continual updating and may lead to the stripping of knowledge, sometimes called deskilling (Apple, 1979), or to the continual accumulation of knowledge which is what the teacher-testing movement is after. (2007, p. 90)

They support an alternative conceptualisation which they term "teacher knowledge": "teachers hold knowledge that comes from experience, is learned in context and expressed in practice" (Connelly & Clandinin, 2007, p. 90). It is a conceptualization that may be easier for teacher educators to identify with and support in the global north, where the majority of teachers are likely to have had opportunities for quality education and where many of them work in well-resourced schools and communities, than in the global south. In many countries in the south, while teachers' experiential and contextual knowledge is vitally important, it may need to be supported by "knowledge for teachers" in situations where quality education for teachers and quality resource provision in schools has been, and may still be, in short supply.

In *Developing a Pedagogy of Teacher Education* Loughran argues that teacher education "is where all students of teaching should learn to challenge their deeply held views of teaching and learning; so often implicit in practice but so rarely articulated, confronted and examined" and that teacher educators should "model" such processes

(2006, p. 42). In his view modeling must go beyond the traditional notion of demonstration lessons "to focus attention on the dilemmas, puzzles, issues and concerns that comprise the problematic nature of teaching" (2006, p. 42), so that students of teaching are encouraged "to learn about and better value the knowledge, skills and abilities that are inherent in good teaching" (2006, p. 177).

For teacher educators, modeling a process of interrogating "deeply held views of teaching" is already a considerable challenge in an on-campus programme but in a distance learning programme it is an even more daunting task when 'unpacking teaching' must be done on the screen or on the page, as in the materials analysed in this study. In South Africa, the quantitative and qualitative differences in readers' experiences of schooling and of teacher education (in the case of in-service teachers), further complicates the teacher education materials designers' task.

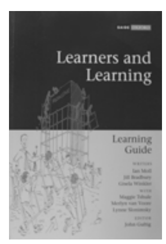
In distance education materials, *text comprehensibility* is fundamental to the designers' project of mediating knowledge and skills. Early work on text comprehensibility focused on the development of readability formulae and resulted in instruments such as the Coleman-Liau Readability Formula, the Dale-Chall Readability Formula, the Flesch Readability Tool, Fry's Readability Graph and Gunning's Fog Index (Coleman & Liau, 1975; Dale & Chall, 1948; Flesch, 1951; Fry, 1972; Gunning, 1952). These instruments, based on sentence length, numbers of syllables in words and /or common or uncommon vocabulary, claim to measure 'objectively' the level of difficulty of a text. While there are those who still argue that these measuring devices are useful to writers of instructional text (e.g. Weitzel, 2003) and there are numerous references to them on contemporary internet sites, since the 1980s there has been widespread recognition of their limitations. In 1982 Davison and Kantor published a study in which they compared the original versions of texts with those in which adaptations for 'less skilled' readers were made according to readability formulae. They provide evidence that attempts by writers to conform to these formulae could result in texts that are difficult to understand and make the following claim:

> …adherence to vocabulary restrictions and constraints on sentence length (and passage length) are often given primary importance at the expense of other factors which no-one would deny are related to readability. These include "Black Box" features such as the explicitness of connection between clauses, the extrasentential pragmatic factors of discourse and sentence topic and focus, the inference load placed on a reader, the epistemological status of statements, and finally, the appropriateness of vocabulary for a particular audience reading with limited background knowledge.
>
> We have found that the most successful changes in the text often run directly counter to what readability formulas would suggest, and that the most unsuccessful changes are those motivated by the strictures of readability formulas. (Davison & Kantor, 1982, p. 191)

Davison and Kantor argue that readability formulae fail to offer guidance to writers for how to *create* comprehensible texts. Duffy et al (1989), who cite Davison and Kantor's study, argue that key questions in relation to text comprehensibility should be "How should text be written so that it best facilitates learning?" and "What kind of learning do we want to facilitate?" (1989, pp. 436-7). These authors refer to a range of research findings which suggest that "learning will be facilitated by texts designed to highlight text structure, point the reader to the main ideas and clearly relate supporting detail to these main ideas" (1989, p. 437).

If a text is to facilitate learning, then it must be comprehensible to readers. Duffy et al (1989) foreground text structure as an important contributor to comprehensibility. In similar vein, Martin and Rose (2003) state that the ways in which meanings are "packaged" in an "information flow" make texts easier or more difficult to follow. They describe information flow as "giving readers some idea about what to expect, fulfilling those expectations and then reviewing them" (2003, p. 175).

In sections 4.3.1 to 4.3.3 I use an adaptation of Cochran-Smith and Lytle's model together with Loughran's advice to teacher educators, to analyse one aspect of 'the how' of teacher education in the three sets of distance learning materials: how content is organised to construct an information flow on the pages of these texts. Other aspects of the 'pedagogical turn' are the focus of Chapters Five and Six.



4.3.1 The organization of content in *Learners and Learning*

In the introduction to the *Learning Guide,* the designers explain in considerable detail how the module is organized. In Loughran's terms, through the content they have selected and through its organization on the page, they attempt to 'model' how to provide support for learning.

In the *Learning Guide, Reader* and audiotape prepared for *Learners and Learning* the following organizational strategies are evident:

(i) the *Learning Guide* begins with detailed information about the module and 'how to work with' it;

(ii) the *Guide* is divided into six sections, each with a clearly defined content focus;

(iii) each section begins with a contents page which states the headings for the sub-sections within it;

(iv) each section and sub-section has a defined content focus which is indicated in the heading, with many of these headings phrased to arouse a reader's interest (e.g. How do we begin to know what we don't know?);

(v) one of the sub-sections in each of five content sections focuses on outcomes-based education;

(vi) each section begins with an introduction, which for sections 2 to 6 includes an activity which requires readers to "consider a number of *contentious statements about learning"* (Gultig, 2001, p. 8; italics in the original);

(vii) each section ends with a reconsideration of the contentious statements (termed "half-truths" in the *Guide*) and a summary of what the designers consider to be "key learning points" from the section;

(viii) the module concludes with an articulation of the designers' theory of learning;

(ix) an accompanying *Reader* which "contains the edited writing of a range of expert theorists and practitioners" (Gultig, 2001, p. 5) is divided into four

sections and an introduction is provided for each section;

(x) for each reading within a section there are introductory notes to frame the reading;

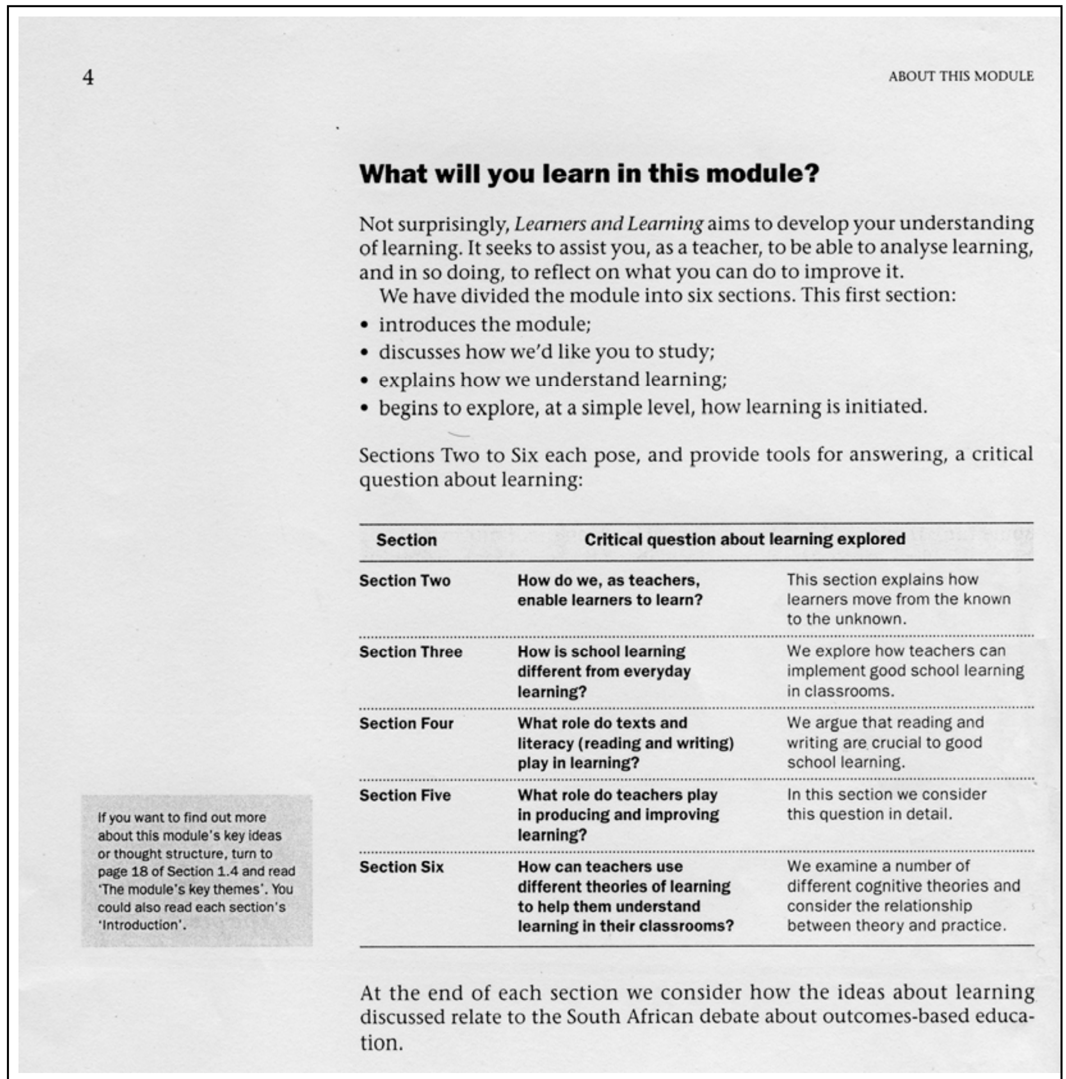
(xi) an audiotape is included to provide “learning variety”, “to dramatize learning events so that interactions between teachers and learners come alive” and to provide examples of how “teacher experts” use ideas from the *Learning Guide* in conversation (Gultig, 2001, pp. 6-7);

(xii) instructions for working with the *Reader* and the audiotape are included in the *Learning Guide*, together with commentary on the readings and the taped extracts;

(xiii) activities throughout the *Learning Guide* have been designed to assist readers to “learn something new, or to acquire a new understanding about something” (Gultig, 2001, p. 6);

(xiv) the content of the module is ‘mapped’ in two different ways in the introductory section as shown in Textboxes 4.23 and 4.24.

Textbox 4.23 Mapping the content of *Learners and Learning*



4 ABOUT THIS MODULE

What will you learn in this module?

Not surprisingly, *Learners and Learning* aims to develop your understanding of learning. It seeks to assist you, as a teacher, to be able to analyse learning, and in so doing, to reflect on what you can do to improve it.

We have divided the module into six sections. This first section:

- introduces the module;
- discusses how we'd like you to study;
- explains how we understand learning;
- begins to explore, at a simple level, how learning is initiated.

Sections Two to Six each pose, and provide tools for answering, a critical question about learning:

Section	Critical question about learning explored	
Section Two	**How do we, as teachers, enable learners to learn?**	This section explains how learners move from the known to the unknown.
Section Three	**How is school learning different from everyday learning?**	We explore how teachers can implement good school learning in classrooms.
Section Four	**What role do texts and literacy (reading and writing) play in learning?**	We argue that reading and writing are crucial to good school learning.
Section Five	**What role do teachers play in producing and improving learning?**	In this section we consider this question in detail.
Section Six	**How can teachers use different theories of learning to help them understand learning in their classrooms?**	We examine a number of different cognitive theories and consider the relationship between theory and practice.

If you want to find out more about this module's key ideas or thought structure, turn to page 18 of Section 1.4 and read 'The module's key themes'. You could also read each section's 'Introduction'.

At the end of each section we consider how the ideas about learning discussed relate to the South African debate about outcomes-based education.

(Gultig, 2001, p. 4)

Textbox 4.24 An alternative mapping of the content of *Learners and Learning*

ABOUT THIS MODULE

The module's key themes

The central themes that you will find running through the whole module arise from this discussion of the learning paradox. We proceed from the insight that activities involving both *self-generated action and engagement with the knowledge of others* are necessary for learning to occur. Throughout, we emphasize that learning is only possible through action.

Section	Key theme
Section Two	We discuss the spontaneous mental action by which people create connections between ideas using their previous knowledge to understand new information. We also explore the active strategies of guessing, questioning, and imagining as ways to move from the known to the unknown.
Section Three	We identify particular kinds of *unknown* that characterize the formal schooling context and demand new and different kinds of learning actions.
Section Four	We explore the important role of reading in learning. Through reading we gain access to the knowledge of others (and in particular, disciplinary knowledge) which is probably the most important function of school learning.
Section Five	We explain how teachers can guide and direct learners' actions to effect new understandings.
Section Six	We explore different ways that important theorists have explained the learning process.

(Gultig, 2001, p. 18)

This overview of the designers' organizational strategies, together with their own summaries of the structure and themes of *Learners and Learning*, suggests that they are constituting learner-teachers and teacher-learners primarily as "students of teaching" (Loughran, 2006, p. 42) who are learning about learning. The overall orientation to teacher learning is most closely aligned to Cochran-Smith and Lytle's "knowledge-for-practice". "Engagement with the knowledge of others" is foregrounded in a module in which students of teaching are deepening their understanding of the learning process so that in future, as teachers, they can "reflect theoretically on their own practices in a context of rapid change in education" (Gultig,

2001, p. 207). In the statement reproduced in Textbox 4.25 the designers constitute teachers first and foremost as ‘thinkers’:

Textbox 4.25 Teachers constituted as ‘thinkers’

> Classrooms are incredibly complex places and children are incredibly complex creatures, and thinking is therefore something that teachers must do a lot!
> (Gultig, 2001, p. 207)

In these statements about classrooms, children and thinking from the final pages of the module, the high modality of the verbs and the final exclamation mark position students of teaching to accept them without question, though there are many examples in the module of activities in which the designers problematize knowledge and encourage readers to make their own meanings from texts (a ‘knowledge-of-practice’ orientation to teacher learning)[38]. Finally, the careful scaffolding evident in the organization of the materials models for teachers ways of assisting learners to “enter into new, formal knowledge” (Gultig, 2001, p. 209).

4.3.2 The organization of content in *Language, Literacy and Communication* (Imithamo 1 to 6)

The six imithamo for *Language, Literacy and Communication* constitute one ‘strand’ in the curriculum of the University of Fort Hare’s Bachelor of Primary Education programme. Analysis of these imithamo suggests that the designers have used seven main organizational strategies:

(i) presentation of the content in six 32 to 48 page booklets rather than in one book-length learning guide;

[38] Some of these activities are analysed in Chapter Five.

(ii) provision of fortnightly or monthly contact sessions facilitated by a tutor at which teacher-learners review the content and activities in an umthamo which they have completed, or on which they are still working, and at which they are introduced to a new umthamo;

(iii) presentation of content in a sequence which is designed to support teacher-learners in their completion of the Key Activity for each umthamo;

(iv) provision on the first page of each umthamo of a table of contents which gives the page reference for each unit heading and for each of the activities in the umthamo, with Key Activities indicated as such;

(v) provision of an introduction to each umthamo in a form which foregrounds the designers' pedagogic intentions;

(vi) provision of a conclusion to each umthamo which summarizes what the designers consider to be key learning points but which also challenges teacher-learners to be providers of quality learning experiences in their classrooms;

(vii) specification of content and activity links across the imithamo.

In the first two pages of *Language, Literacy and Communication Umthamo 1, 'Communication'*, the designers use the genre of a fairy story or traditional tale to explain the strategies of presenting content in a series of short booklets and of providing tutor support at fortnightly contact sessions. Their narrative is reproduced in Textbox 4.26 on the next two pages.

Textbox 4.26 Explanation of key organisational strategies used in the University of Fort Hare programme

The story of umthamo and umkwezeli

Once upon a time, in a new country, there was a new project. And the people in the project were starting something completely new and different and special, something that had never been tried before, and they were very excited.

But there was a problem. When they used the old names and the old words, like 'modules' and 'tutorials', to describe the new things that they were trying to do, it didn't work. Everyone had their own ideas about what these old words meant. And they couldn't shake off these old ideas, no matter how hard they tried.

So they went to ask people in other countries for their advice. And people from other countries came to visit, and they gave their advice. Some gave good advice, very good advice. And some gave bad advice, very, very bad advice.

But there was one wise man from overseas who told them not to worry too much about what other people thought, and instead to trust their hearts. This wise man made two suggestions.

The first suggestion was that the writers should dish up the material in chunks, bite-sized chunks, that the teachers could handle, one at a time. The wise man called these chunks, 'gobbets'. We really liked his suggestion.

The second suggestion was that distance education alone could never be enough. There had to be some 'face-to-face' support for the teachers.

Now we needed a word to describe each part of the materials. And we needed a word to describe the people who would provide the face-to-face support. But we needed new words. Better words than 'module' or 'tutor'. Our own words. Words that could be used in a new way.

When we were writing the parts of the materials, and we used the word 'gobbet', some of the writers weren't comfortable with the word (it didn't sound very nice - it actually sounded like something to do with spitting!). But the old word, module, that we had been using for this idea was not right either. It had its own 'baggage' from the past. What word could we use?

Then one day, the induna was talking to his very beautiful wife. She was the daughter of a very wise and well-respected teacher. They talked about this problem of a word for each chunk of the materials. As they talked they thought of a word - a very, very old word. A word that everybody knew. An Nguni word. The word was, 'umthamo'. But nobody else had thought of that word.

Now, if we took that very old word, and used it in a new way, then perhaps

Page 2

everyone would be clear. Maybe everyone would understand what the wise man had meant by 'the bite-sized chunks'. Sure enough, suddenly the writers understood how they had to write. And everybody knew what an umthamo was. It was a mouthful, just big enough to manage. Now we had a name for each part of the materials, a much better name than 'module'.

But we still weren't happy with the word 'tutors' to describe the people who would provide the support. We tried another word. We tried to use the word, 'mentor'. But that didn't feel right either.

Not everybody was clear what a mentor was. What exactly did a mentor do? We thought and we thought and we thought. What would a person helping teachers have to do? What kind of person would give the best help? And we realised that such a person would have to be a 'sympathetic somebody'. They would have to be a good listener. They would have to care about the teacher-learners. They would have to encourage the teacher-learners to talk about what they were doing in their classrooms with their pupils.

We talked and talked about the word we needed to replace the words 'mentor' or 'tutor'. Words poured out: umkhokeli, intakobusi, inyathi, umncedisi, intlantsi, umkhuthazi. We struggled to find a metaphor, a word for an idea that would make a picture in peoples' heads. Someone suggested 'kindling a fire'. Then our librarian thought of the word, 'umphembi', one who starts a fire. And we thought this might be the word.

But then when we spoke to two of the writers, one of them said that the people supporting the teacher-learners were not actually starting a fire; their job was to keep the fire burning just right so that the food in the pot would cook well. She suggested the word, 'umkwezeli'. And that seemed to be just the word we were looking for .

When we asked some of the other people in the project what they thought about this word, some of them weren't very happy. They said that sometimes this word is used to describe somebody who keeps the fire of gossip burning. But we thought, if we use this word in a new way, a good way, it will come to mean somebody who is supportive, and not somebody who is destructive. So this is the word we are going to use until someone comes up with a better suggestion.

And that is the story of umthamo and umKwezeli.

In this narrative, the teacher-learners are constituted as inexperienced students who are able to digest only one bite-sized chunk of material (an umthamo) at a time and the designers as providers of nourishment which they 'dish up' to the teacher-learners. The food metaphors continue with the term for the tutor, umkwezeli, which means

‘s/he who keeps the fire burning just right so that the food in the pot cooks well’. Cameron (2003), who takes a constructionist approach to the analysis of metaphor in educational discourse, argues that metaphors are not only linguistic devices which teachers and learners use to explain concepts, but that the metaphors actually structure the concepts themselves. In these introductory pages to *Umthamo 1* the designers’ use of metaphors to explain two aspects of the organization of the programme – the division of the materials into ‘mouthfuls’ which are ‘fed’ to teacher-learners by the designers and the provision of support from tutors who keep these mouthfuls at just the right temperature – constructs the teacher-learners as beginner students who need to be nurtured and ‘mothered’, even though they may have years of experience as classroom teachers. A question raised by these metaphors is whether teacher-learners are likely to find them comforting or to feel infantilized by them. It is a question that a textual analysis cannot definitively answer. What is clear, is that the designers’ choice of isiXhosa nouns for two of the key metaphors situates the materials in the local.

The designers have sequenced the material within each umthamo to provide support for each stage of the Key Activity[39] which teacher-learners are required to complete and bring to contact sessions. At these sessions they are expected to share ideas (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication Umthamo 1*, 1998, p. 5), teaching experiences and artefacts produced by themselves and their learners (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, 1999, p. 35) and to reflect on these collaboratively. Successful completion of these activities is an assessment requirement of the programme.

In each umthamo the introduction outlines the content and the activities which teacher-learners are expected to complete and specifies the ‘intended outcomes’ of their engagement with both content and activities (though these are not specified for *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 5*). The conclusion summarizes

[39] The designs of the Key Activity and some of the supporting activities in *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2* are analysed in Chapter Five.

what the designers consider to be key content but also challenges teacher-learners to continue learning and to take responsibility for the provision of quality learning experiences for the learners whom they teach.

Finally, the designers make specific links between the content and activities of one umthamo and another – across the six *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo and also with imithamo designed for other strands of the degree programme.

Most of these organizational strategies are evident in the extracts from the introduction (Textbox 4.27) and conclusion (Textbox 4.28) to *Umthamo 3, How do we learn to language?*

Textbox 4.27 Introduction to Umthamo 3

> **Introduction**
>
> In the first *Language, Literacy and Communication* umthamo we discussed body language (non-verbal communication) and the important role it plays in communication, even in the classroom. In the second umthamo in this learning area, we looked at a literature-based whole language approach in the classroom.
>
> In this third umthamo we are going to think about how we first learn to speak. We are going to ask you to carry out some research and to write down your theory of how **you** think we acquire spoken language.
>
> This is really important because each method, or approach, which has been designed to teach learners to **read** and **write** language is based on a theory of how we learn to speak. This is also true of methods and approaches to teaching learners to communicate in other languages (that is, second language teaching and learning). So this umthamo will lay a foundation for later imithamo which will consider approaches to facilitating literacy, and the acquisition of other languages.
>
> In this umthamo, we are going to ask you to start working on the Key Activity from the very beginning of the umthamo. (The designers then give half a page of background to the Key Activity) (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 3,* 1999, p. 2; bold type and italics in the original).

Textbox 4.28 Conclusion to Umthamo 3

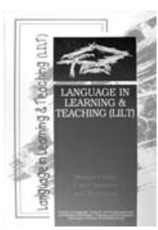
> **Conclusion**
>
> In this umthamo we have asked you to carry out research of your own about how we learn to language. …
>
> You will have realized that this is an enormous topic. In this umthamo we have only been able to just begin to think about it. We hope you will go on thinking about it. In this way we hope that your theory evolves and grows, and perhaps even changes. And we hope that it begins to inform your practice and influences what you encourage to take place in your classroom. (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 3*, 1999, p. 29; bold type in the original)

Overall, the organizational design of the six imithamo for the *Language, Literacy and Communication* strand of the University of Fort Hare's Bachelor of Primary Education programme constitutes teacher-learners as beginner students who are likely to benefit from short topic booklets, regular contact sessions, explication of 'learning pathways' through the materials, direction to what is 'important'/ 'really important' in the materials and opportunities to re-visit content introduced in earlier booklets. They are constituted as teachers whose current pedagogies need to be challenged but also as receptive to this challenge and as capable of becoming researchers, reflective practitioners and facilitators of quality learning experiences for the children in 'their' classrooms.

Both the content selected and the organizational strategies chosen by the designers suggest that their conceptualization of teacher learning includes elements of Cochran-Smith and Lytle's "knowledge-for-practice" and "knowledge-in-practice" and, to some extent, even "knowledge-of-practice". Teacher-learners are directed by the designers to apply theoretically-informed pedagogies in their classrooms (knowledge-for-practice) but at the same time they are encouraged to reflect on their experiences of using 'new' pedagogies, to conduct research and to generate their own theory (knowledge-in-practice). They are also encouraged to be "agents of change" in their schools (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 5*,

2000, p. 36) and to problematize theoretical and practical knowledge when they discuss the Key Activities with fellow teacher-learners at the contact sessions (knowledge-of-practice). Above all, they are constituted as teachers who will take seriously the responsibility for creating “rich literacy environments” in their classrooms (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 5,* 2000, p. 38).

Throughout the imithamo the content and the organizational strategies selected by the designers anticipate one aspect of Loughran’s advice to teacher educators: the designers challenge what they imagine to be the “deeply held views of teaching and learning” espoused by their readers. What is much more difficult for the designers of the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo to achieve is a process of modeling “the dilemmas, puzzles, issues and concerns that comprise the problematic nature of teaching” (Loughran, 2006, p.42), given that they have imagined the teacher-learners as needing detailed and explicit guidance (Connelly and Clandinin’s “knowledge for teachers”) for enacting a particular pedagogy in their classrooms.



4.3.3 The organization of content in *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)*

This module is one of eight designed for teacher-learners who already have a teaching qualification and who are studying for a B Ed Honours degree. Analysis of the *Learning Guide* and *Reader* suggests that the designers used the following organizational strategies:

(i) presentation of the *Learning Guide* and the *Reader* in a single volume with the readings printed on pale yellow paper as the second part of the volume;
(ii) inclusion of frequent cross references between the *Guide* and the *Reader*;
(iii) provision of pre-reading questions to introduce each reading;

(iv) for the *Learning Guide*, organization of content into three substantial units, each of which is outlined in the general introduction to the module;

(v) use of a set of outcomes statements and a set of core questions to frame the module;

(vi) in addition to a general contents page, inclusion of a page at the beginning of each unit in the *Learning Guide* which states the headings for the sections within the unit;

(vii) use of these headings and sub-headings to indicate the content focus within the unit;

(viii) use of textboxes at the end of each section of content to summarise 'Key points';

(ix) use of summarizing paragraphs at the end of each unit (What have you learnt so far?);

(x) provision of one contact tutorial session for each of the three units in the module.

The general introduction to the *Learning Guide*, reproduced in Textbox 4.29, begins with a statement of 'learning outcomes' presented in bullet form.

Textbox 4.29 Learning outcomes for the LILT module

> ## Learning outcomes
>
> By the end of the Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT) module as a whole, you should be able to:
>
> - explain key concepts from applied language research, orally and in writing
> - recognize opportunities to apply these concepts in your classroom
> - use a range of techniques to assess your learners' language development
> - understand different theories of reading
> - develop effective reading programmes in your classrooms based on the theoretical understandings acquired in the module
> - explain the link between writing and learning, orally and in writing
> - develop effective writing programmes based on the theoretical understandings and practical examples covered in this module
> - use a theme-based, whole language approach to address language development. (Inglis et al., 2000, p. 3; bold type in original heading)

As stated on page 130, analysis of the content selections for this module suggests that the designers aimed to integrate subject knowledge, pedagogic knowledge and academic literacy. The eight learning outcomes which 'frame' the organization of the module similarly bring together subject content (key concepts from applied language research and "theoretical understandings" about reading and writing), pedagogic content (use of a range of assessment techniques and development of effective reading and writing programmes) and academic literacy (oral and written explanations of learning from the module).

The general introduction to the module includes a section, reproduced in Textbox 4.30, in which the designers explain one of the limitations of printed learning materials. This part of the introduction is discussed further in 5.3.1.2.

Textbox 4.30 Explaining the limitations of 'knowledge on the page' and constructing teachers as active knowledge makers

> One of the problems which we face when writing a Learning Guide like this is that we have to turn information-gathering and knowledge construction into something that appears to be quite linear, when in real life it is not. We have presented this module in defined pieces that follow one after the other, but in reality you can't separate everything as we have done here. However, by referring you to chapters in the Reader, and by anticipating theories that we will cover in later units, and by reminding you of aspects already covered in earlier units, we attempt to show you a less linear process. It is therefore very important that you, as the learner, are active in integrating the parts into a meaningful whole. (Inglis et al., 2000, p. 4)

In this comment on the organization of knowledge in the module the designers draw attention to one of the challenges they faced, outline the 'solution' they devised and constitute teacher-learners as responsible for integrating knowledge across the three units of the *Learning Guide* and the seven chapters in the *Reader.*

The general introduction concludes with a set of "core questions", reproduced in Textbox 4.31 which contribute to the framing of the module's content and which constitute the teacher-learners as both 'consumers' and 'producers' of knowledge.

Textbox 4.31 Core questions which frame the LILT module

> A powerful way to start a module or course is to pose key questions and then to seek answers to them. We have asked four core questions to which we want you to develop responses by the end of this module on *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT).*
>
> ***Core questions***
>
> 1. How can we use language to facilitate learning?
> 2. How can we use content subjects to facilitate language development?
> 3. What are the theoretical principles that should underlie any classroom practice where language development is being fostered?
> 4. How can we assess learners in a way that will encourage language and cognitive development and discourage rote learning?
>
> The questions we ask above are designed to challenge you to formulate responses based on this module, the readings and the contact (or tutorial) sessions. At the moment you might have some ideas from your experience in your own classroom. By the time you have completed all three units of the module on *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)* you will be in a position to develop and write some well-thought-out responses to these questions. However, the responses that you give should not be seen as final because knowledge is not fixed, and you are always in the process of reflecting and developing new insights. (Inglis et al., 2000, pp. 7-8; bold type and italics in the original)

While the pronoun ‘we’ is used inclusively (materials designers and teacher-learners) in the core questions, in the sentence that precedes these questions and in those that follow them, the designers position themselves as the experts who pose questions (‘We have asked four core questions…’) and who supply content for the responses that teacher-learners (“you”) are expected to formulate. Teacher-learners are constituted as “possibly” having some ideas from their classroom experiences but as “definitely” able to offer “well-thought-out responses” once they have completed the module. They are also constituted as life-long learners who are “always” extending their

knowledge. Perhaps the designers' position that "knowledge is not fixed" is the reason why they do not offer answers to their core questions in the final pages of the module.

The core questions and the learning outcomes suggest an organizational design that foregrounds 'knowledge-for-practice': teacher-learners receive and apply knowledge. However, as indicated in several of the examples included in section 4.2.3, the designers also offer teacher-learners opportunities to generate knowledge through reflecting on their practice (knowledge-in-practice).

4.4 Selecting and organizing content: 'shaping' the subjectivities of students and teachers

As stated in section 2.5, theorisations of subjectivity and identity have resulted in an extensive literature which includes debate about what is signified by each of these terms. However, it is what these theorizations have in common that is most important for this study: rejection of the notion of identity / subjectivity as singular and as fixed, and the embedding of identity / subjectivity in social, cultural and historical context (Gee, 1999, 2001; Hall, 1996; Mansfield, 2000; McKinney, 2003; Norton, 1997, 2000; Weedon, 1987). In arguing that an individual has multiple identities that are connected to his or her performances in society, Gee defines identity as being recognised as a certain kind of person in a given context (2001, p. 99). Analysis of the selection and organization of content in the three sets of materials suggests that in performing their identities as teacher educators in the first decade of post-apartheid South Africa, each design team began the materials designing process with "a certain kind of" generalized ideal reader in mind: a teacher with a commitment to the project of transforming schooling in South Africa or what Samuel (2008) terms "teacher as reconstructionist". Two of the design teams could imagine a somewhat more specific category of ideal reader – in the case of the University of Fort Hare team, experienced primary school teachers, with limited post-schooling education qualifications, who work in broadly similar contexts in a particular region of South Africa, and in the case of the designers from the University of Natal (now University of KwaZulu-Natal),

experienced primary and secondary school teachers, with at least four years of post-schooling education qualifications, who work in diverse contexts. The designers of the SAIDE module faced the challenge of designing for both pre-service and in-service teachers with a range of post-schooling education qualifications who intend to teach or who are already teaching in diverse contexts, and who may 'encounter' the materials in a number of institutional settings in which they are recontextualised by teacher educators within these settings.

Gee (2001) suggests that among an individual's identities are "institutional identities" which are authored or authorised by the "specific discursive regimes" dominant in an institution in a particular historical period. In concluding this chapter I argue that the institutional identities of the designers are likely to have influenced the subjectivities which they constitute for their ideal readers.

According to the report on its first ten years of operation, the South African Institute of Distance Education (SAIDE) "did not regard itself as a provider of distance education, or even a developer of distance education materials" (SAIDE, 2002, p. 33). However, the organisation decided to develop the Study of Education series, in which *Learners and Learning* is one module, in order to model what teacher education materials could look like if they were not based on "apartheid-inspired fundamental pedagogics" but instead encouraged "active learning" (SAIDE, 2002, p. 33). The content selected for the module *Learners and Learning* and the organizational form in which it is presented, constitute readers as students and as teachers who are interested in an international literature that takes "a broadly constructivist approach to teaching and learning" (Gultig, 2001, p. 18) and who are receptive to the idea that learning and teaching are active processes of meaning making. The general introduction to the module includes the positioning statement reproduced in Textbox 4.32.

Textbox 4.32 A statement about the role of 'action' in learning

> We proceed from the insight that activities involving both *self-generated action and engagement with the knowledge of others* are necessary for learning to occur.
>
> Throughout, we emphasize that learning is only possible through action. (Gultig, 2001, p. 18, italics in the original)

This introductory statement, the type of content selected and its sequencing in the materials, together with the in-text activities to be analysed in Chapter Five, all suggest that the designers imagine their readers as the two kinds of subject theorized by Foucault and others (e.g. Janks, 1995): the passive and the active. Readers are 'subjected to' the particular knowledge selections chosen by the designers but they are also offered opportunities to reflect on, contest and recontextualise 'the knowledge of others'.

In terms of content, the designers of *Learners and Learning* offer teacher-learners theories about learning (in section four, theories about learning to read and reading to learn) and expect them to reflect on the implications of these theories for their practices as adult learners and as teachers. They offer very little guidance in regard to classroom practice. In terms of organization, the designers constitute readers as students of teaching who will benefit from materials in which headings, sub-headings and introductions guide them through the text in the *Learning Guide, Reader* and audiotape. The content selections are carefully scaffolded within the overall frame of a series of contentious statements and organized so that ideal readers re-visit and re-think what has been introduced in earlier sections. In terms of both content and organization the design suggests a 'knowledge-for-practice' orientation to teacher education: readers are provided with the knowledge of others as a stimulus for their own thinking and as a starting point for the construction of their own knowledge about learning and teaching.

While the 'institutional identities' of international distance education experts and of teacher educators from the University of Fort Hare informed the design of the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo, so did those of experienced teachers based in Eastern Cape primary schools who trialled many of the classroom activities described in the materials[40]. A few of these teachers joined the teams that designed some of the imithamo. The discourse instantiated in the introduction to the first umthamo positions teacher-learners to respond positively to a "new and exciting project" in which classroom-focused content is designed specifically for them and is introduced in 'chewable quantities'. 'Old' terms from international distance education discourse such as 'module', 'tutor' and 'mentor' are rejected in favour of 'new' terms recruited from the local – 'old' isiXhosa words recontextualised for the new Bachelor of Education programme.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, both the content selections and the organizational design of *Language, Literacy and Communication Umthamo 2* foreground pedagogic knowledge. The designers support teacher-learners' experiential learning in their classrooms and communities and conclude by offering a theoretical text as confirmation of what they have been constituted to experience as valuable. The design is suggestive of both a 'knowledge-for-practice' and a 'knowledge-in-practice' orientation to teacher education. As the content and the organizational design guide teachers to take initial steps as teacher-researchers and towards becoming participants in a community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991), it can be argued that the designers also acknowledge the importance of 'knowledge-of-practice' in a teacher education programme.

The front cover of *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT*) situates the module and its designers in a location appropriate to its content: School of Language, Culture and Communication and School of Education, Training and Development, University of

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[40] These teachers are acknowledged on the inside of the front cover of an umthamo and in some instances are referred to again, sometimes with photographs of them 'in action', in the pages of the umthamo in which their work is described.

Natal, Pietermaritzburg. As indicated earlier in the chapter, these materials are the most hybrid in terms of content selection and organizational design. The learning outcomes which frame the module are oriented towards teacher-learners' professional development as teachers and academic development as students. With reference to the former, the designers constitute them as interested in "enhancing" their practice as a result of their "thorough understanding" of the content of the module (Inglis et al., 2000, p. 4). With reference to the latter, they are constituted as learners with an interest in "deepening" their understanding of theoretical concepts and findings from empirical research and as able to "articulate" this understanding both orally and in writing (Inglis et al., 2000, pp. 3-4).

In the design of all three sets of materials there is evidence of an orientation to learning which is based on the premise that learning is iterative and recursive and that "learners *construct* (develop their own novel ways of knowing) and *reconstruct* (acquire existing human knowledge) knowledge in order to develop their own *systems of knowing*" (Gultig, 2001, p. 20; italics in the original). Through the selection and organization of content, the designers constitute teacher-learners and /or learner-teachers as active learners and as teachers who will create opportunities for active learning in their classrooms. Another feature common to the content selections in all three sets of materials is the designers' situating of classroom practice within an international and a local theoretical and empirical research literature, though this is less the case for *Language*, *Literacy and Communication* than for the other materials. Learner-teachers and teacher-learners are imagined as receptive to materials that theorise practice.

While it can be argued that all of the designers adopt a constructivist approach to learning and that all theorise practice, the analysis presented in this chapter suggests that the designs differ in what is foregrounded through the selection of content and its organization on the page and thus differ to some extent in the identity positions (Davies and Harre, 1990) that the designs offer to readers.

In section three of this chapter, one aspect of ‘the how’ of offering teacher education through distance learning materials has been analysed. Further aspects are the focus of analysis in Chapters Five and Six.

Chapter Five: Language, in-text activities, pedagogic episodes and scaffolded readings as mediating tools

5.1 Introduction
5.2 The role of language in materials designing
5.3 Designing in-text activities to mediate knowledge
5.3.1 General introductions to in-text activities
5.3.1.1 General introduction to activities in *Learners and Learning*
5.3.1.2 General introduction to activities in *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*
5.3.1.3 General introduction to activities in *Language, Literacy and Communication*
5.3.1.4 The learner-teachers and teacher-learners constituted in the introductions to activities in each set of materials
5.3.2 Activity 'types' in the three sets of materials
5.3.2.1 An activity from *Learners and Learning,* Section Four
5.3.2.2 An activity from *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT*), Unit Two
5.3.2.3 An activity from *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2 ,* Unit Four
5.3.2.4 The learner-teachers and teacher-learners constituted in the activity 'types'
5.4 Using 'cases' or 'pedagogic episodes' to mediate knowledge
5.4.1 Pedagogic episodes in Section 4 of *Learners and Learning*
5.4.2 Pedagogic episodes in Units 2 and 3 of *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*
5.4.3 A pedagogic episode from Unit 2 in *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)*
5.4.4 The dominant 'message' in the pedagogic episodes
5.5 Scaffolding the reading of experts' texts
5.5.1 An example of scaffolded reading from *Learners and Learning,* Section Four
5.5.2 An example of scaffolded reading from *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT),* Unit 2
5.5.3 An example of scaffolded reading from *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*
5.5.4 Contrasting approaches to scaffolding and to the constitution of the reading subject
5.6 Designers and readers as innovative users of mediational means

5.1 Introduction

In distance education, on-going mediation needs to be "deliberately structured, or formalised" into the way course materials are designed and delivered and also needs to be formulated so that it is "anticipatory rather than merely responsive" (I. Moll, 2003, p. 23). In the early stages of this study, a survey of local and international course

books for distance learning teacher education programmes[41] indicated that designers commonly adopt a constructivist approach to learning**.** In attempting to meet the anticipated needs of readers as constructors of knowledge, many of them use three 'strategies' to structure and support learning: they design in-text activities, they design or re-design exemplary 'cases' or "pedagogic episodes" (Loughran, 2006) and they mediate readings from the work of experts in the field. The "meaning potential" of language (Halliday, 1985) contributes to how each strategy is realised on the page (or screen) and to the constitution of particular student and teacher identities. As the designers' linguistic choices will be analysed in conjunction with other mediating strategies, section 5.2 outlines some of the ways in which these choices construct meaning and contribute to the constitution of readers' subjectivities.

Section 5.3 offers a brief rationale for a focus on in-text activities. This is followed by analysis of each design team's general introduction to activities, an overview of activity types in the three sets of materials, and analysis of one activity from the section or unit on 'reading' in each set. Section 5.4 begins with a brief discussion of the role of cases or pedagogic episodes in teacher education materials. This is followed by analysis of examples of cases or episodes in the section or unit on 'reading' in the three sets of materials. In section 5.5 a brief discussion of the concept of scaffolding is followed by analysis of the ways in which each design team scaffolds the readings selected for their materials. The chapter concludes with an observation on what Wertsch and Tulviste (1996) describe as "the inherent tension between the mediational means and the individual or individuals using them in unique, concrete instances" (1996, p. 69).

5.2 The role of language in materials designing

Designers of distance learning materials draw on the experiential, interpersonal and textual metafunctions of language (Halliday, 1978, 1985) to mediate content and to constitute a relationship between themselves and their imagined readers. They use

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[41] These course books are located in the library of the South African Institute for Distance Education.

language to represent experience (the experiential or ideational metafunction), to constitute a relationship between themselves and their readers (the interpersonal metafunction) and to organize these representations and enactments as meaningful text (the textual metafunction) (Halliday, 1985; Martin & Rose, 2003). Table 5.1 lists the linguistic features drawn on in the analysis offered in this chapter (and also used, to a lesser extent, in chapters 4 and 6).

Table 5.1 Explanation of the linguistic features discussed in this study

Linguistic feature	**Explanation**
Lexicalisation	This term refers to a speaker / writer's choice or selection of words. Designers can use different words to construct the same idea differently
Pronouns	Speakers' or writers' pronoun choices position listeners or readers differently through (i) the use of first, second or third person; (ii) generic use of 'he' or 'she'; (iii) inclusive or exclusive use of 'we'; (iv) distinctions between 'us' and 'them'
Transitivity	This term is used for referring to speakers' and writers' choices of processes (verbs) in a text. The main processes are: *material* – doing; *relational* – being or having; *mental* – thinking, feeling, perceiving; *verbal* – ' saying; *behavioural* – physiological ; *existential*
Voice	Active and passive voice construct participants in a clause as active 'doers' or passive 'done-tos'. The agent ('doer') of an action can be omitted when the passive is used: *The window was broken.*
Nominalisation	This process is sometimes referred to as 'nouning a verb'. A process (verb) is transformed into an event or object or state: *Environmentalists **opposed*** (verbal process) *the new dam. There was **opposition*** (nominalisation) *from environmentalists to the new dam.*
Mood	A clause can be a statement (declarative), question (interrogative), offer, or command (directive / imperative) which positions a listener or reader to interact in particular ways with a spoken or written text . "…questions assume that readers have answers, statements that readers need information, and commands presuppose the right to tell others what to do" (Janks, 2010, p. 78)

Modality	To express 'degrees' of certainty / uncertainty or of social obligation, speakers or writers choose a particular modal (e.g. may, should, must) or modal adjunct (e.g. possibly, always). Modality may be high (certain), median or low (uncertain)
Polarity	Polarity is linked to modality. At one 'pole' is definite 'yes' and at the other, definite 'no': *This is a cat. This isn't a cat*. The present tense is used to indicate that statements are absolutely certain and true for all time
Theme in the clause	This is the first unit of meaning in a clause: ***Our cat** died last Saturday. **Last Saturday** our cat died.* Units of meaning are foregrounded by being placed in theme position
Rheme in the clause	This is the information that follows the theme.
Logical connectors	Writers use these words and phrases (often conjunctions such as *although, however, therefore*) to make connections in a text and to structure arguments.
Intensifiers, adjectives, adverbs	These are used to express attitude, judgement, strength of feelings, etc (as do choice of polarity and modality): *The engineer made a **very*** (intensifier) ***serious*** (adjective used to express a judgment) *design error*.

Explanations derived from Droga and Humphrey (2002); Halliday (1978, 1985); Janks (2010); Martin & Rose (2003); Polias (2001); Unsworth (2001).

When mediating content, distance educators consciously or unconsciously use many of the linguistic features summarised in this table, each of which may influence what readers 'take' from materials in terms of knowledge and skills and how they respond to the student and teacher identities constituted on the page or screen. For example, materials designers' pronoun choices contribute to the constitution of particular relationships with readers. Pennycook argues that the pronoun *we* is "always simultaneously inclusive and exclusive, a pronoun of solidarity and of rejection, of inclusion and exclusion. On the one hand it defines a 'we' and on the other it defines a 'you' or a 'they'" (1994, p. 175). One implication of choosing a pronoun of "solidarity" is that "writer and reader are engaged on a common journey and have drawn similar conclusions from the evidence" (Mayor and Swann, 2002, p. 117). However, if

materials writers and readers do not have a common linguistic and cultural frame of reference they may be travelling different roads.

When teaching through texts, designers make decisions about the degree of certainty with which they present information. In discussing modality, Collerson (1994) suggests that modal choices not only mark a speaker's degree of certainty about a piece of information but also indicate his or her approach to an addressee. For example, certainty about a piece of information might be underplayed if a speaker (or writer) is anxious not to alarm or offend listeners (or readers). However, if the linguistic and cultural frames of reference of designers and readers differ, the designers' modal choices may be misunderstood. Ebbutt and Elliott, two British academics, describe the response to their first attempts at writing distance learning materials for teachers in Namibia:

> Native English speakers use many linguistic 'fillers' especially in conversation. These serve a variety of purposes including giving the speaker time to think. Some of this style crept into the writing, so in early drafts (possibly as a doomed attempt to try to forge dialogue with learners through 'polite' conversational gambits) we used phrases such as 'At this point you could decide...;' 'Possibly you might like to ...;' 'On the other hand you may find...' The response from Namibia was to see such usage as indicative of the authors' uncertainty. They advised us to replace 'At this point you could decide to...' with the more direct and explicit 'Now, make a decision about...'. (1998, p.34)

In an article on language choices in distance learning materials I quote feedback from a South African reviewer of the article which supports the response from Namibia:

> Although the use of 'may' is perhaps regarded by course writers as not wanting to impose, the students read it as hesitancy (often because they use it as a politeness device 'May you lend me a pencil?'). Such distance students find it 'unfair' to be confronted with this perceived lack of confidence on the part of the materials writer (Reed, 2001, p. 60).

Such observations suggest that designers' modal choices may influence students' attitudes towards and 'investment' in the materials they are expected to read.

The relationship between designers and readers is not only constituted through such discourse features as modality and pronoun choice, but also through the overall

structure of the discourse. Guides to the writing of distance education materials commonly encourage designers to adopt a conversational style (e.g. George, 1994; Holmberg, 1983; Rowntree, 1990). In discussing spoken and written modes of meaning, Halliday makes the following claim:

> Speech and writing will appear, then, as different ways of meaning: speech as spun out, flowing, choreographic, oriented towards events (doing, happening, sensing, saying, being), processlike, intricate, with meanings related serially; writing as dense, structured, crystalline, oriented towards things (entities, objectified processes), productlike, tight, with meanings related as components (1994, p. 70).

Writing that is 'dense, structured and productlike' and writing that is conversational and 'processlike' mediate knowledge differently and may influence how readers 'process' and use this knowledge for a range of purposes including identity construction.

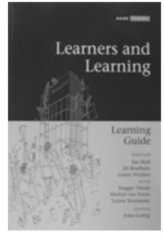
5.3 Using in-text activities to mediate knowledge

In the distance education literature, in-text activities are most often described and discussed in terms of their potential contribution to student learning. For example, in *Materials Production in Open and Distance Learning* Lockwood (1994) gives the title 'Encouraging active learning' to his chapter on in-text activities. In the same volume, Morgan argues that it is crucial for designers of course materials and assessment tasks to "develop activities which will encourage learners to take a 'deep approach' to their learning and also encourage them to become more intrinsically oriented towards their learning" (1994, p. 113). More recently, the NADEOSA guidelines for designing and producing high quality distance education materials, have advised the use of "[A]ctive learning and teaching approaches… to engage learners intellectually and practically" (NADEOSA, 2005, in Welch & Reed, 2005, p. 29). With specific reference to teacher education, Moon, Leach and Stevens (2005) include 'Activities as Stimuli to Student Learning' in their list of key elements of high quality materials. They advise that activities should be "[W]ell planned, structured, and varied" and that they should include "school- and classroom-based activities that develop from the course and students' personal knowledge of school and teaching contexts" (2005, pp. 182-183).

In analysing the designers' use of activities to mediate learning I consider what knowledges and skills are mediated, how this is done and what subject positions are constituted for readers as students and as teachers as a result of this mediation. I begin by considering what each design team's general introduction to activities suggests about how they have conceptualised activities as mediating tools and about how they have imagined their readers.

5.3.1 General introductions to in-text activities

In these introductions each design team presents a rationale for the inclusion of activities and encourages readers to be active learners. However, the discourses employed differ considerably across the three sets of materials and offer a range of subject positions to readers as students and as teachers. Parts of these introductions are analysed in sections 5.3.1.1 to 5.3.1.3.

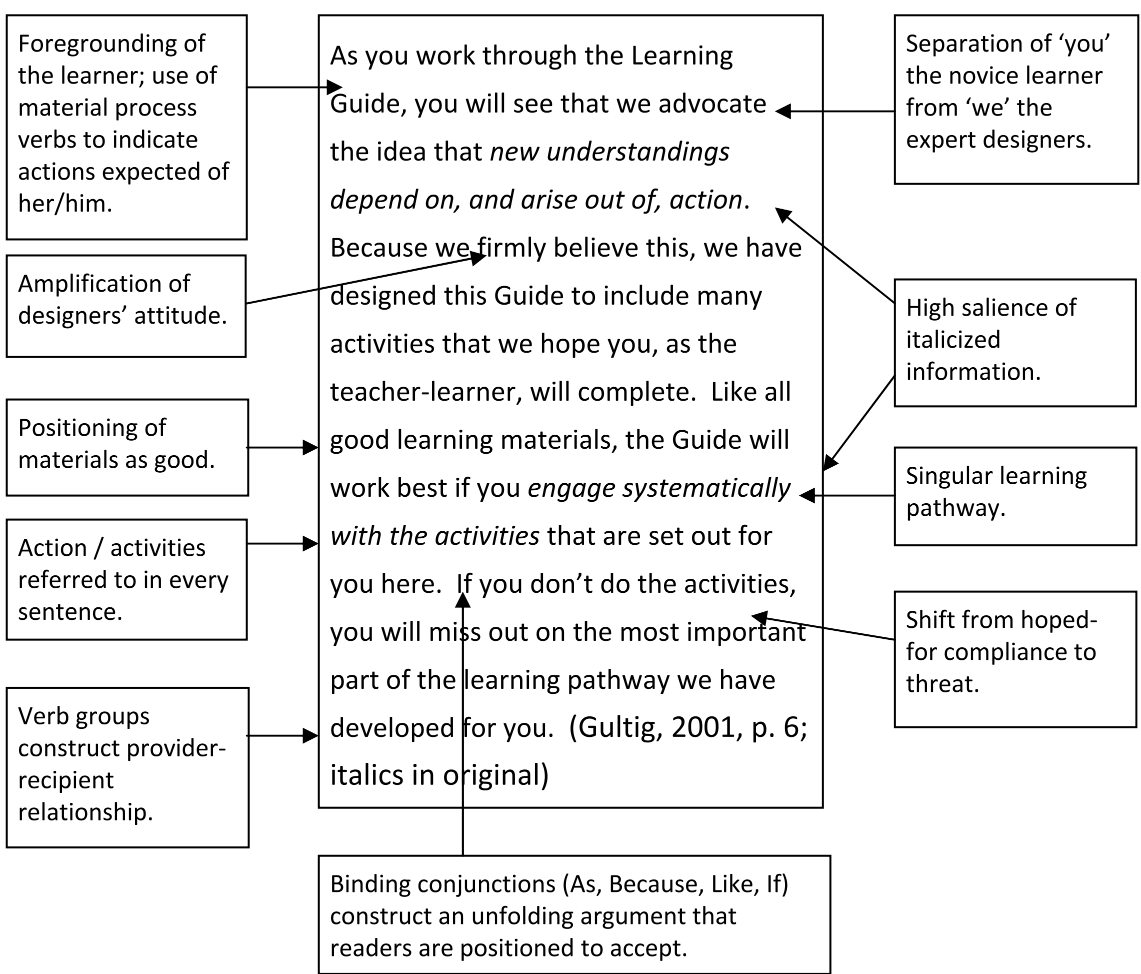


5.3.1.1 General introduction to activities in *Learners and Learning*

Perhaps unsurprisingly, in view of the content focus of the module, it is *Learners and Learning* that offers readers the most information about activities and their importance. Section 1.2 of the *Learning Guide* is titled 'How to work with this module' and includes a sub-section headed 'The importance of active learning' which is placed in a highly salient[42] position: bold type in white space at the top of the left hand page. The first part of this sub-section, which outlines one of the main mediational strategies adopted by the designers, is reproduced in the central textbox below.

[42] Salience refers to what is likely to be noticed because it 'stands out' in some way. This concept is explained more fully in Chapter Six.

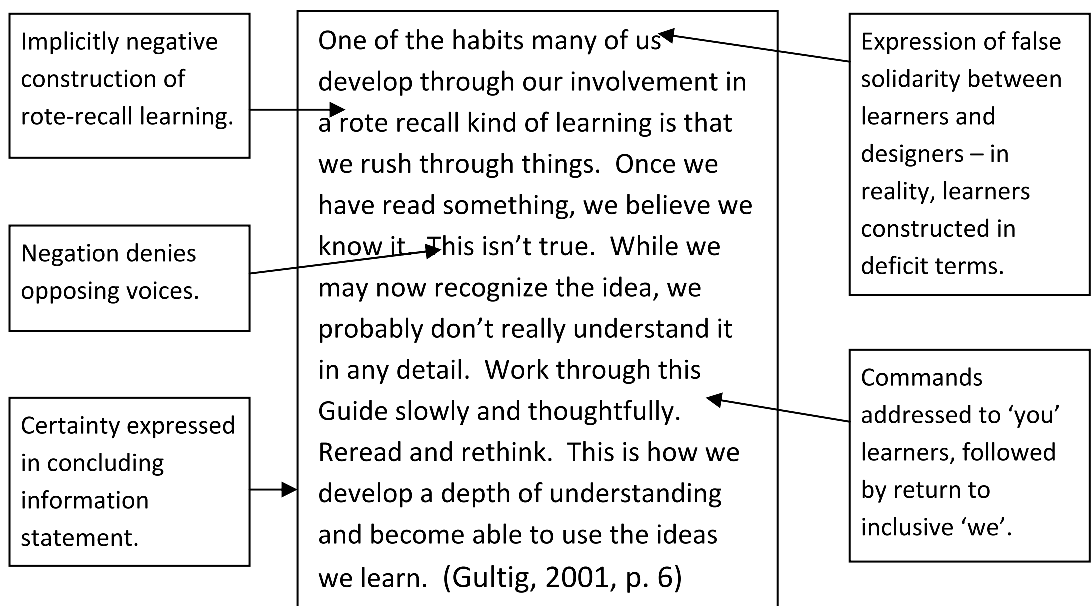
Textbox 5.1 The importance of active learning



After this introductory paragraph on the importance of activities for learning, the designers mediate the pedagogic intention of 'Reading and writing activities', 'Thinking activities' and 'Listening activities' and introduce the icon[43] that is used throughout the *Guide* to indicate each kind of activity. Under the sub-heading 'Thinking activities' they include a paragraph, reproduced in Textbox 5.2 on the importance of reflection and revision.

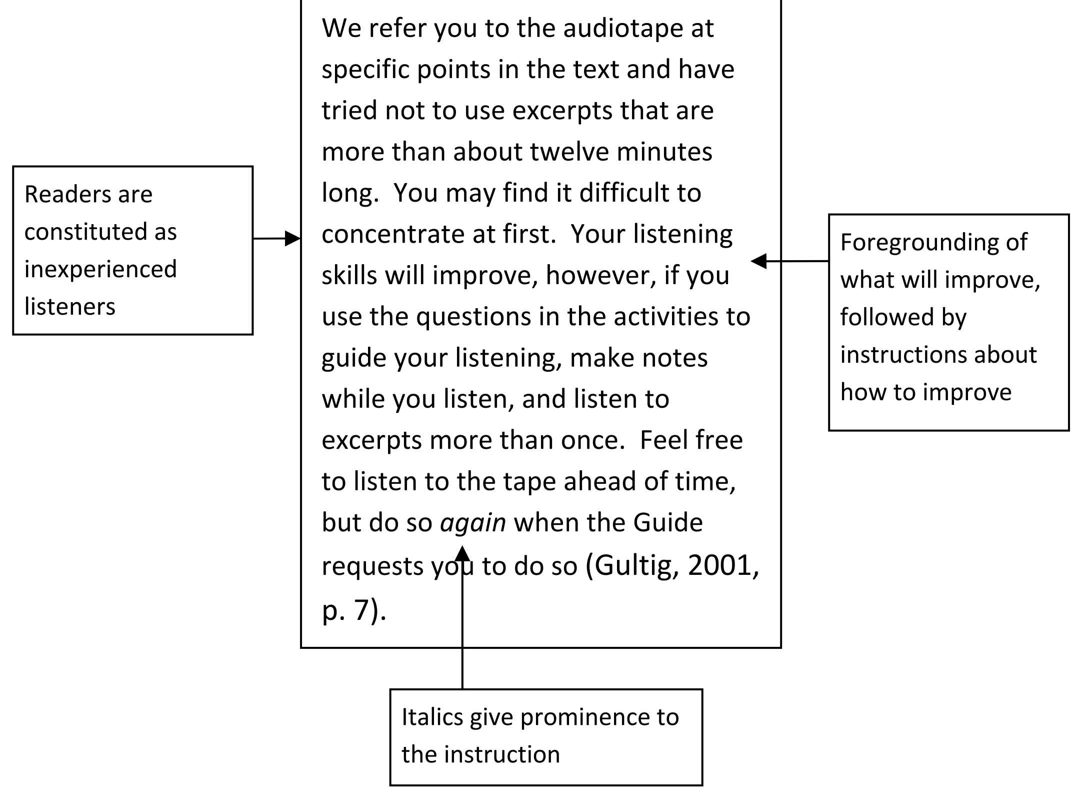
[43] The role of icons in the materials is discussed in section 6.3.1 of Chapter Six.

Textbox 5.2 How to develop a depth of understanding



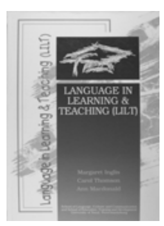
The section on active learning concludes with the paragraph reproduced in Textbox 5.3.

Textbox 5.3 How to listen to the audiotape



These three extracts indicate how the designers aim to use activities to mediate the content (knowledge(s) and skills) selected for the module. Readers are expected to do *all* the activities, in sequence (systematically, following the learning pathway constructed by the designers), to work slowly and to re-read, re-think and re-visit the content and the activities in order to develop new understandings. The designers are the experts and the readers are novices who need to be convinced of the value of working in ways that the designers imagine are new for them.

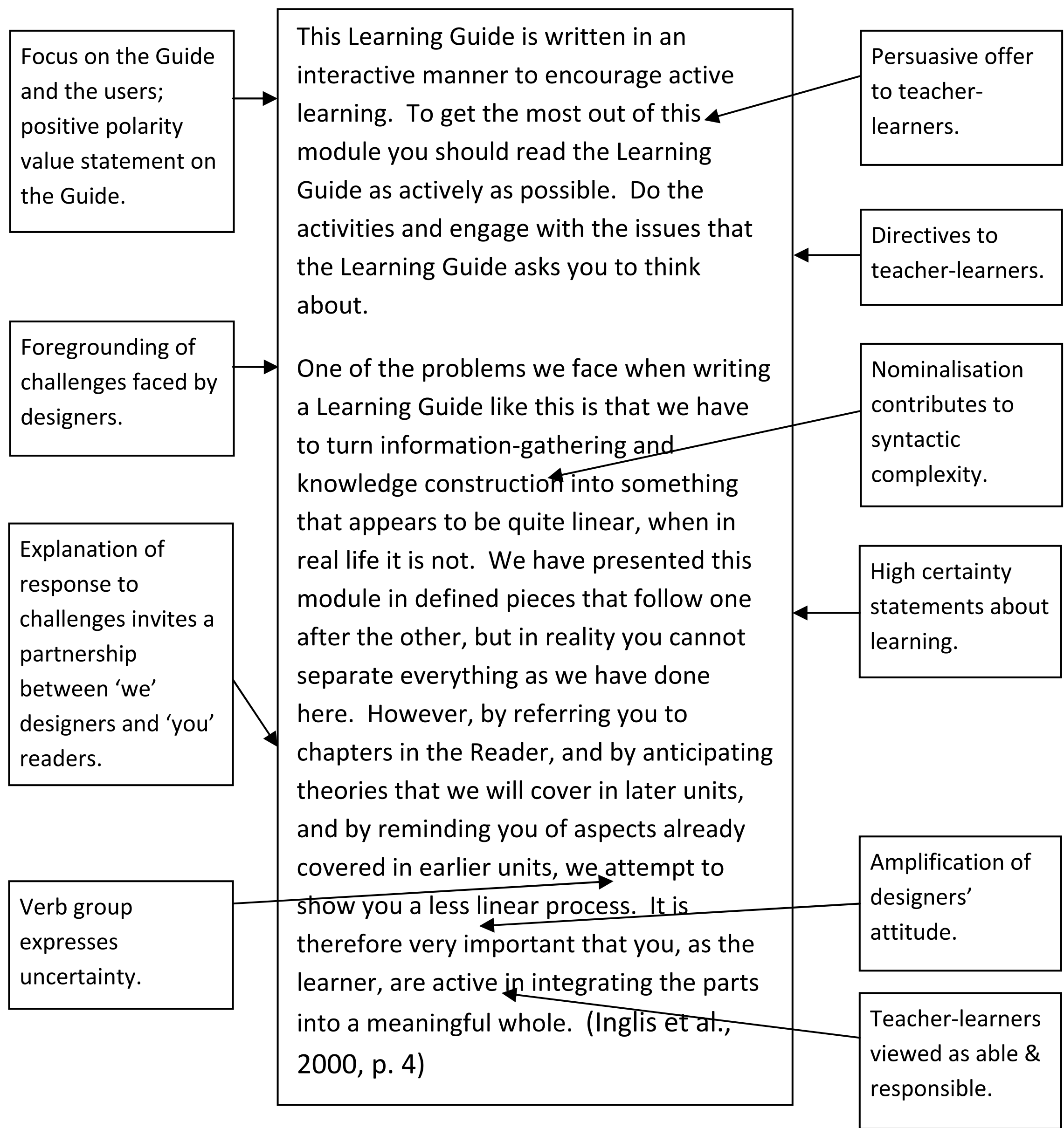
This *Learning Guide* was designed in the late 1990s and first published in 2001. In the general introduction which precedes the introduction to activities, the designers constitute readers as teachers who have to deal with the legacies of apartheid, implement a new curriculum and help to build a democratic order. Analysis of the paragraphs reproduced in textboxes 5.1 to 5.3 suggests that the design team has imagined learner-teachers and teacher-learners for whom active learning, reflection and revision of previous understandings may be new and possibly daunting experiences. While much of the language they employ could be considered prescriptive and controlling and to constitute learner-teachers and teacher-learners in deficit terms, it is also language in which they make their pedagogy explicit. They explain why they are directing readers to act in ways that should be beneficial for learning. As outlined in Chapter Two, in his theorization of pedagogic discourse Bernstein suggests that instructional discourse is embedded in regulative discourse, with the latter being dominant. While a linguistic analysis of the introduction to activities in *Learners and Learning* suggests that the regulative is the only discourse operating in these paragraphs, it could be argued that in explicating their pedagogy the designers are also employing instructional discourse to offer readers as teachers a model for their work in classrooms: when a new way of learning is introduced to learners, both its value and how to work in this new way should be explained in detail.



5.3.1.2 General introduction to activities in *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*

The importance of being an active learner is also emphasized in the introduction to *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* but the 'message' is much briefer. This introduction, the first paragraphs of which are reproduced in Textbox 5.4, focuses as much on one of the problems faced by the designers in preparing the *Learning Guide* as on what is expected from the teacher-learners.

Textbox 5.4 Learning as an active, non-linear process

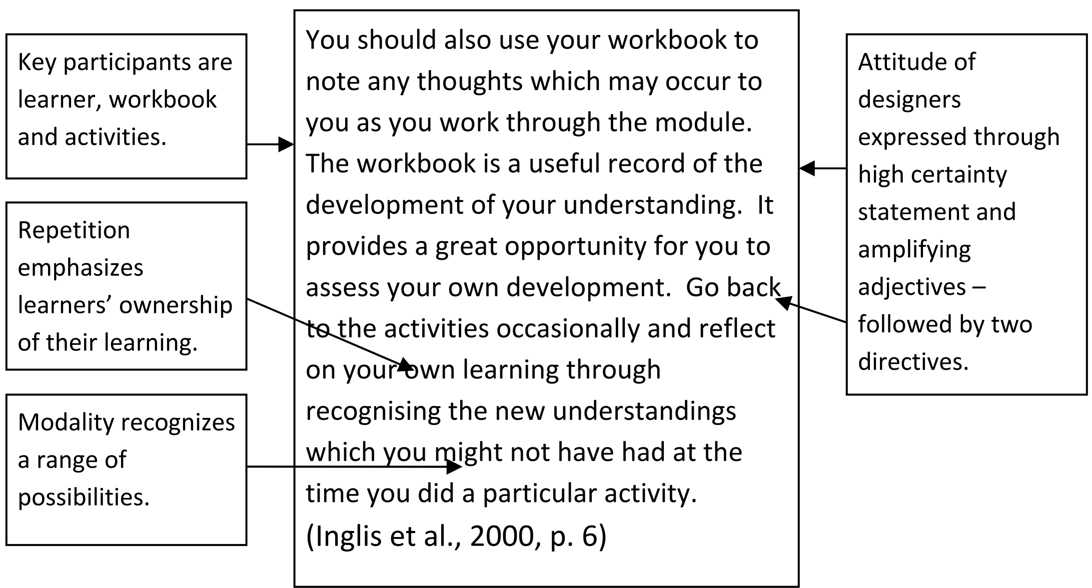


The first paragraph foregrounds two participants[44]: the *Learning Guide* and the teacher-learner. The choice of an agentless passive ("is written") in the first clause backgrounds the designers, though their attitude to their achievement in the Guide is expressed with certainty ("is written in an interactive manner"). In contrast to the negative phrasing in *Learners and Learning* ("If you don't do these activities you will

[44] In systemic functional grammar the term *participant* is used for people, animals or objects that participate in some kind of process.

miss out…”), the designers of *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* emphasise the positive (“To get the most out of…”) and use both the median modal “should” and the qualifying “as possible” to soften the instruction so that it reads more like advice. However, this softened instruction is followed by two explicit directives: “Do the activities and engage with the issues”. In a subsequent paragraph, reproduced in Textbox 5.5, the designers advise teacher-learners to do the activities in a “workbook” and also to use this workbook reflectively.

Textbox 5.5 Using a workbook to reflect on learning



The participant in theme position in the first clause in each sentence is either the teacher-learner (“You” – elided in the directive in the final sentence) or the workbook (“The workbook” / “It”). While the designers are not participants in any of the clauses, their attitude to the keeping of a workbook is expressed through their choice of both a positive polarity statement (“The workbook is”) and two value statements (“a useful record”; “a great opportunity”). The repetition of “your own” in successive sentences suggests that the designers wish to sharpen the categories “understanding” and “development” (Martin & Rose, 2003, p. 42) and to emphasize both the individual ‘ownership’ and the individual nature of learning (learning is different for each of us).

The lower degree of probability in the statement "new understandings which you might not have had at the time you did a particular activity" suggests that the designers are aware of possible differences in what and how individual teacher-learners learn.

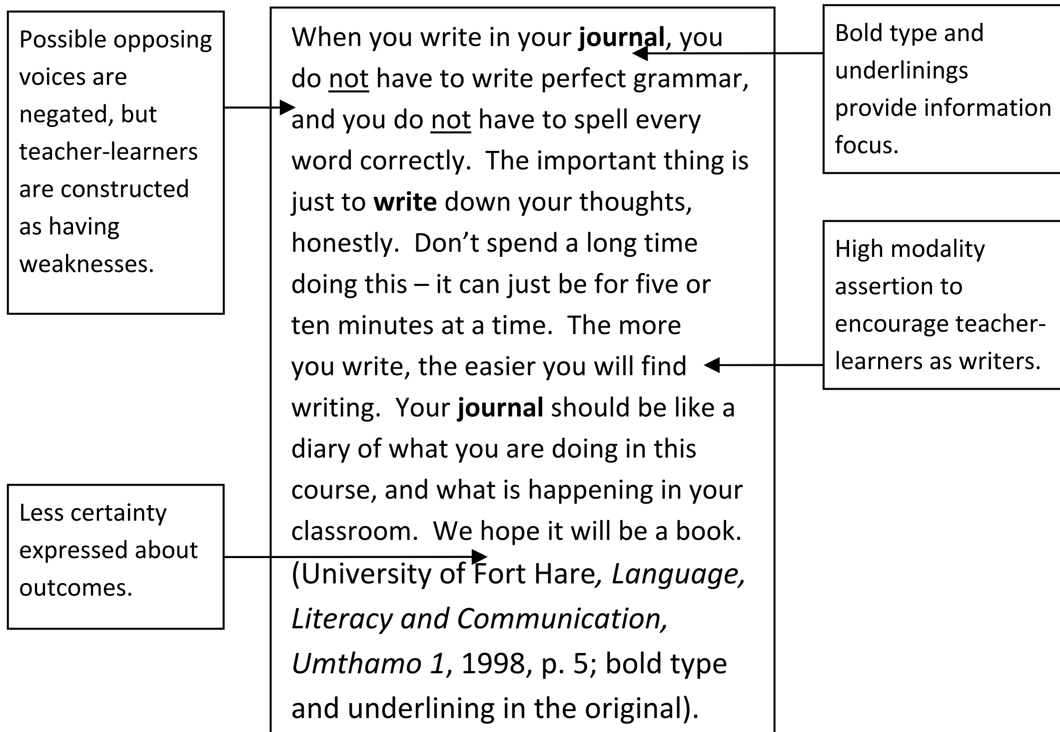
The introduction indicates how the designers aim to use activities to mediate content. Teacher-learners are instructed to read actively, do the activities, engage with issues raised in the materials, integrate separate parts of the materials into "a meaningful whole" and write reflectively and reflexively in their workbooks. They are constituted as independent learners who are able to follow the designers' recursive 'trails' and to at least partially construct their own learning pathways. Although two of the key ideas in this introduction – that learning is incremental and that it is recursive – are similar to ideas in the introduction to activities in *Learners and Learning*, the language through which these ideas are expressed is less directive and offers teacher-learners the position of responsible 'partners' (though not equal partners) in learning.

5.3.1.3 General introduction to activities in *Language, Literacy and Communication*

The introductions to the six *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo are not identical in format though each makes reference to activities. In each umthamo teacher-learners are expected to complete a series of activities which culminates in a Key Activity. In *Umthamo 1* they are told that this activity "will link your teaching with what you are reading and thinking about for this course" (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 1*, 1998, p. 7). They are also expected to keep a journal in which they record findings from the activities and are told that this journal "should show how your thoughts and ideas are changing and developing as you work through the course" (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 1,* 1998, p. 5). The paragraph reproduced in

Textbox 5.6 appears in *Umthamo 1* as a grey block with key words underlined or bolded.

Textbox 5.6 Instructions for journal writing

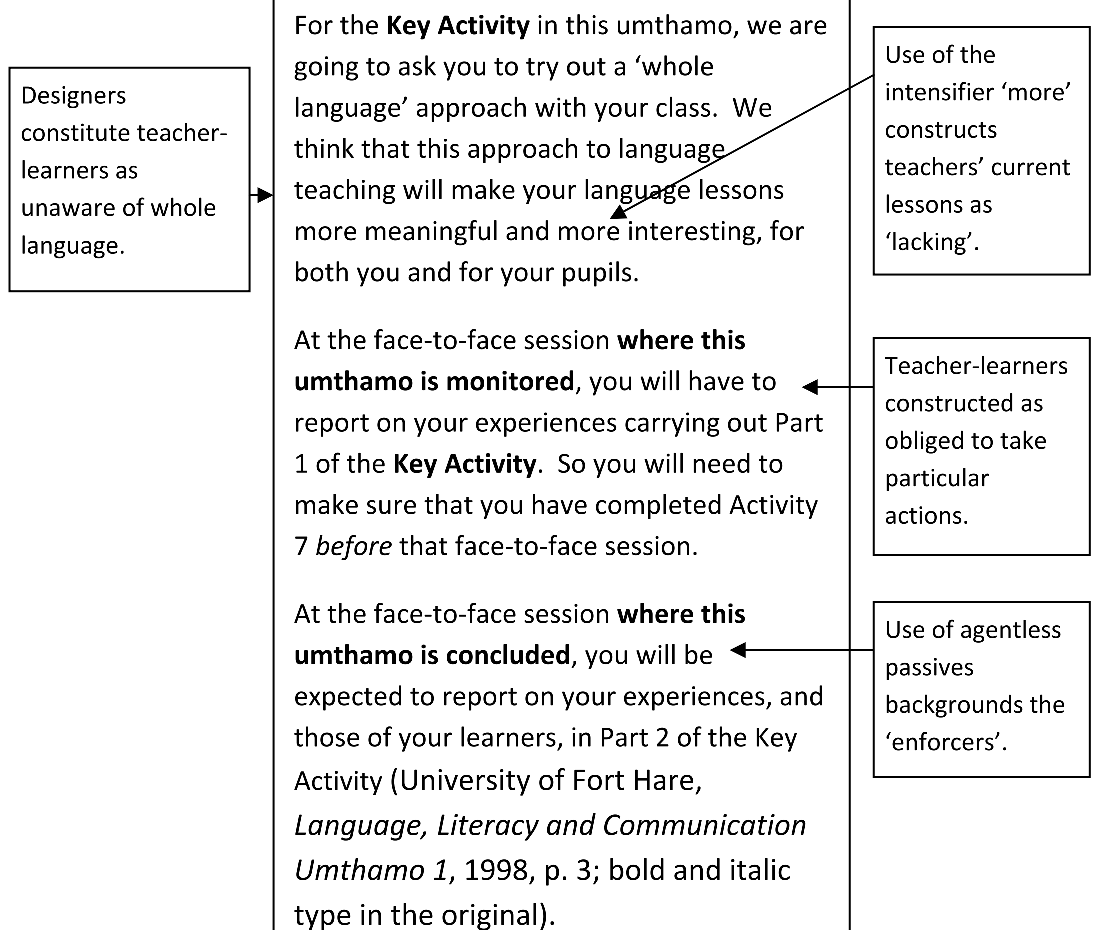


What is most striking about the clauses in this paragraph is the frequent repetition of two categories of participant: the teacher-learner ("you") and the texts the teacher-learner writes ("writing"; "diary"; "journal"; "book"). The material process verb "write" is used four times to emphasize the action the teacher-learner is expected to take in relation to texts. The designers are named only in the first clause of the final sentence but their attitude pervades the paragraph. They imagine that teacher-learners may find journal writing a challenging task at first and anticipate the possible concerns of these writers by emphasizing that 'perfection' is neither expected nor important.

Usually, the teacher-learners enrolled in this programme are expected to bring evidence of their work on a Key Activity to a contact session at which they and their fellow teacher-learners discuss what they have produced. Each of them selects some

of the ‘products’ of these Key Activities for inclusion in a portfolio of work that is the main form of summative assessment at the end of each year of the programme. The paragraphs reproduced in Textbox 5.7 are from *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2,* used in the first of the four years of part-time study.

Textbox 5.7 Instructions for a Key Activity


For the **Key Activity** in this umthamo, we are going to ask you to try out a ‘whole language’ approach with your class. We think that this approach to language teaching will make your language lessons more meaningful and more interesting, for both you and for your pupils.

At the face-to-face session **where this umthamo is monitored**, you will have to report on your experiences carrying out Part 1 of the **Key Activity**. So you will need to make sure that you have completed Activity 7 *before* that face-to-face session.

At the face-to-face session **where this umthamo is concluded**, you will be expected to report on your experiences, and those of your learners, in Part 2 of the Key Activity (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication Umthamo 1*, 1998, p. 3; bold and italic type in the original).

The University of Fort Hare Bachelor of Primary Education programme was designed for underqualified primary school teachers, many of whom work in rural contexts. Analysis of the extracts in textboxes 5.6 and 5.7 suggests that the designers have imagined teacher-learners as students who begin their degree studies with quite limited proficiency in ‘standard’ English and as teachers who are likely to be unfamiliar with a range of ‘new’ approaches to classroom teaching and learning. It could be argued that in the contexts for which the materials were designed, mediation

strategies and linguistic choices that in other contexts would be criticized as patronizing and as constructing teacher-learners as 'deficient', should be applauded for giving recognition to 'where the teachers are at' and for offering guidance and reassurance. Findings from 'a narrative case study' of the programme undertaken in 2005, tend to support the approach to materials design that was chosen. For example, one of the tutors interviewed for this study described the changes she observed over time in teacher-learners' engagement with the programme:

> Meeting the teacher-learners, they were quiet and withdrawn, but they gradually moved to talking about themselves, then to their classrooms, then their school and their communities … I saw the continual development of language skills through continual journal writing and talk in the (contact sessions). (Botha, Devereux, Adendorff & Sotuku, 2006, p. 122)

5.3.1.4 The learner-teachers and teacher-learners constituted in the introductions to activities in each set of materials

Each of these introductions reveals something of the overall pedagogic purpose of the designers:

- In *Learners and Learning* learner-teachers and teacher-learners are constituted as needing "new and deeper understandings" of "theory as a valuable element of practice" (Gultig, 2001, p. v) which they will "develop" if they follow the pathway to learning prescribed by the designers.
- In *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* teacher-learners are constituted as needing to construct knowledge about the critical role of language in learning and teaching and as able to do this with guidance from the designers.
- In the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo teacher-learners are constituted as interested in improving their classroom practice, as likely to benefit from closely guided and monitored experiences of new ways of working in their classrooms and as needing support for the development of academic literacy in English.

While analysis of the extracts reproduced in Textboxes 5.1 to 5.7 suggests that active learning is highly valued by each design team, more elements of Bernstein's

competence model of pedagogy (for example, encouragement of a degree of reader autonomy) are evident in the extracts from the introduction to activities in the *LILT* materials than in the other two, which in being more prescriptive, are closer to Bernstein's performance model.

5.3.2 Activity 'types' in the three sets of materials

Section 3.3.3.1 outlined five categories of 'activity purpose' identified in the three sets of materials. In tables 5.2 to 5.4 these are combined with Lockwood's (1994) three models for the design of in-text activities in order to establish 'patterns' of purposes and models in the activities in the section or unit on 'reading'. Some activities have more than one purpose and thus appear in more than one column. Next to each entry in the table, the number 1, 2 or 3 indicates whether the activity is an example of Lockwood's tutorial in print (1), reflective action guide (2), dialogue (3) or a combination of these.

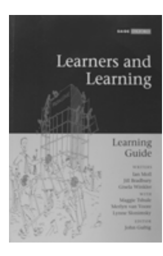


Table 5.2 A classification by purpose(s) and model(s) of activities in *Learners and Learning,* Section Four, 'Text as a context for learning'

Academic literacy	Reflection on experiences	Content knowledge	Pedagogic knowledge	Classroom resources
	Page 113[45] (3)			
Activity 31 (1)		Activity 31 (1)		
		Activity 32 (1)		
		Page118 (3/1)		
	Page 121 (2)			
		Activity 33 (1)		
		Activity 34 (1)		
Activity 35 (1)	Activity 35 (1)	Activity 35 (1)		
		Activity 36 (2)		
		Activity 37 (1)		
		Activity 38 (1)		
		Activity 39 (1)		
Activity 40 (1)		Activity 40 (1)		
Activity 41 (1)		Activity 41 (1)		
		Activity 42 (2)		
		Page 146 (1)		
	Page 147 (3)	Page 147 (2)		

[45] The section on 'reading' in *Learners and Learning* includes four unnumbered activities and these are referred to by page number.

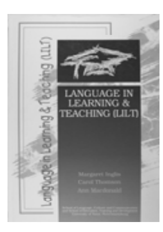


Table 5.3 A classification by purpose(s) and model(s) of activities in *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT),* Unit 2, 'Teaching Reading'

Academic literacy	Reflections on experiences	Content knowledge	Pedagogic knowledge	Classroom resources
Activity 20 (2)				Activity 20 (2)
Activity 21 (2)	Activity 21 (2)	Activity 21 (2)		
Activity 22 (1)		Activity 22 (2)		
	Activity 23 (2)			
		Activity 24 (1)	Activity 24 (1)	
Activity 25 (1)	Activity 25 (2)	Activity 25 (1)		
	Activity 26 (1/3)	Activity 26 (1/3)	Activity 26 (2)	Activity 26 (2)
	Activity 27 (1)	Activity 27 (1)		
		Activity 28 (1)		
	Activity 29 (2)	Activity 29 (2)	Activity 29 (2)	
	Activity 30 (2)			

Table 5.4 A classification by purpose(s) and model(s) of activities in *Language*, *Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2, A Whole Language Approach*, Unit 3 'Experiencing a Whole Language Approach' and Unit 4 'Introducing a Literature-based Whole Language Approach in a Primary Classroom'

Academic literacy	Reflections on experience	Content knowledge	Pedagogic knowledge	Classroom resources
	Activity 4 (2/1)		Activity 4 (2)	
	Activity 5 (2)			Activity 5 (2)
				Activity 6 (2)
	Activity 7 (2)		Activity 7 (2)	
	Activity 8 (2)		Activity 8 (2)	
		Activity 9 (1)		
				Appendix (2)

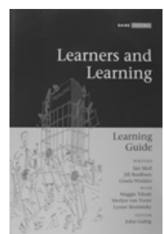
The following 'patterns' are discernible in the tables:

- in *Learners and Learning*, a focus on understanding content (many of the activities involve answering 'reading comprehension' questions), supported by opportunities to extend academic literacy and to receive feedback on most activities in the form of tutorials in print; two examples of Lockwood's 'dialogue' model; no classroom-based or resource-producing activities;
- in *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* a distribution of activities across the five purposes; a mix of tutorials in print with feedback, and action guides without feedback;
- in *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, a focus on classroom teaching, on resources to support this teaching and on guided reflection; little feedback in the materials; only one content-based activity, which is placed at the end of the umthamo; no activities with a clear academic literacy focus.

The materials were designed for different, though in some instances overlapping ‘categories’ of learner-teacher and /or teacher-learner and for somewhat different purposes. Thus some of the differences in what is mediated through the activities, in how this is done, and in the feedback patterns, are not surprising. For example, the teacher-learners using the *Language*, *Literacy and Communication* or the *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* materials would be expected to participate, at regular intervals, in face-to-face tutorial sessions at which they would receive feedback on some of the activities.

One of the main purposes of in-text activities is to mediate content. Comparison of the distribution of activities by purpose indicates that the activity types are congruent with the overall orientation of the materials to content knowledge and academic literacy (*Learners and Learning*); to pedagogic knowledge and teaching resource development (*Language, Literacy and Communication*); to all of these (*Language in Learning & Teaching*). Common to the three sets of materials are activities which require reflection on experience, though these are not all designed according to the same model.

Sections 5.3.2.1 to 5.3.2.4 present an analysis of one activity from the section or unit on ‘reading’ in each set of materials.



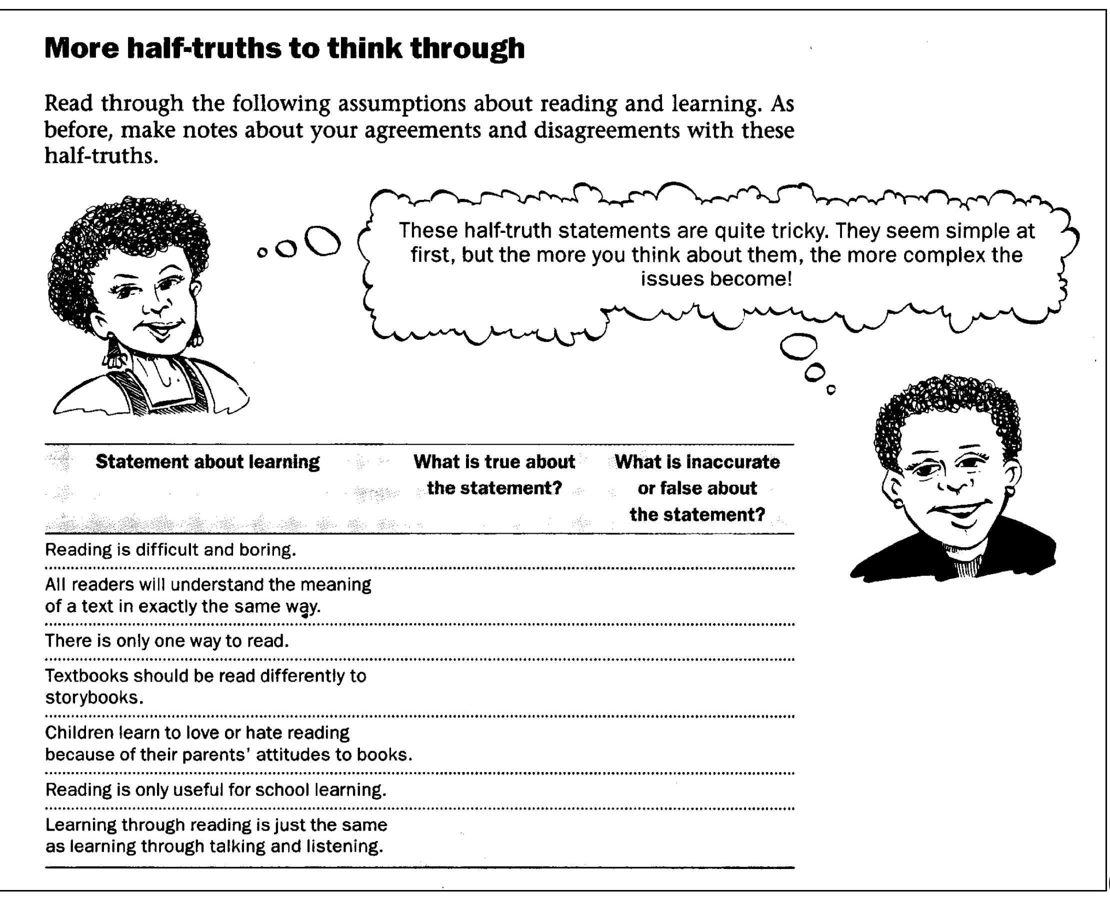
5.3.2.1 An activity from *Learners and Learning*, Section Four

A distinctive design feature in *Learners and Learning* is that the first activity in each section instructs learner-teachers or teacher-learners to read a list of “half-truth statements” related to the topic of the section and to decide what they believe to be true, false or inaccurate about each statement. The final activity requires them to revisit the half-truths and to consider whether their response to any of them has

changed as a result of their learning from the section. As indicated in 5.3.1.1, when the designers introduce this mediational strategy in Section One, they constitute readers as active learners who will be responsive to the materials, who will change their understandings and who will extend their knowledge.

In Section Four of the *Learning Guide*, the half-truth statements on page 113 are about 'reading'. They are reproduced, in slightly reduced format, in Textbox 5.8. The introductory activity follows a half-page introduction to reading as "one of the most important language acts in school learning" (Gultig, 2001, p. 113). The statements provide a frame for much of the section's content, with readers being directed to return to them in the final activity on page 147.

Textbox 5.8 ***Learners and Learning, '*** **More half-truths to think through'**



More half-truths to think through

Read through the following assumptions about reading and learning. As before, make notes about your agreements and disagreements with these half-truths.

Statement about learning	What is true about the statement?	What is inaccurate or false about the statement?
Reading is difficult and boring.		
All readers will understand the meaning of a text in exactly the same way.		
There is only one way to read.		
Textbooks should be read differently to storybooks.		
Children learn to love or hate reading because of their parents' attitudes to books.		
Reading is only useful for school learning.		
Learning through reading is just the same as learning through talking and listening.		

(Gultig, 2001, p. 113)

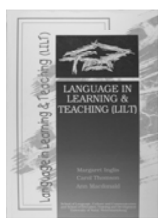
While the form of the instructions suggests a freedom to express one's own views on the statements, the designers' choice of heading (More half truths to think through) and the polarity of their questions, positions readers to accept that there is definitely both truth and untruth to be uncovered in each one. The designers assume that readers are likely to have particular understandings of reading which are probably located more in 'everyday' horizontal discourses than in 'scientific' vertical discourses (Vygotsky, 1986; Bernstein, 1999b). Their mediational strategy is aimed at challenging and complexifying these understandings.

Throughout *Learners and Learning* male and female 'teacher heads' 'speak' for the designers. In the example of 'teacher thinking' in Textbox 5.8 the two heads frame the statement, with the thought bubbles forming vectors[46] which draw the reader's eye to this statement. The designers' comments on the activity are presented as the thoughts of teacher-readers. The two heads look directly at the viewer, constructing an "imaginary relation" (Kress and Van Leeuwen, 2006, p. 117) between the teachers represented in the images and the readers of the study material. This direct gaze addresses the viewers with a visual 'you' and thus demands a response[47]. Readers are expected to identify with this point of view, to take the activity seriously and to spend time on it. It is an activity that combines features of Lockwood's dialogue and tutorial-in-print models (section 3.3.3.1) because while it is possible for readers to take up a range of positions, they also receive feedback at the end of the section in the form of a summary of key learning points which the designers wish them to accept in relation to the statements.

As will be further demonstrated in the analysis of the activities linked to the cases or pedagogic episodes and to the scaffolded readings, throughout 'Text as a context for learning', the designers' main pedagogic purpose is consistent with the purpose identified in the analysis of the introduction to activities. Readers are imagined as both teachers and learners, but particularly as learners, whose existing knowledge

[46] A vector indicates 'direction' and sometimes 'connection' between two elements in a composition.
[47] See section 6.2.1 for further reference to this aspect of the grammar of visual design.

needs to be challenged and extended. The designers mediate the new by first instructing readers to reflect on what they already know and then introducing them to some alternative perspectives (chosen by the designers) on reading and its role in learning. The first activity introduces a challenge to learner-teachers' or teacher-learners' understandings of reading and readers and the final one requires them to revisit these understandings.



5.3.2.2 An activity from *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*, Unit Two

The majority of the activities in *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* can be classified as 'multipurpose'. This is true of Activity 25. It has a content knowledge focus (intrinsic and extrinsic reading 'disabilities') and an academic literacy focus. The designers follow the activity with two and a half pages of feedback, the first part of which is reproduced under the activity in Textbox 5.9.

Textbox 5.9 ***Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*****, Activity 25: Sources of reading problems**

Activity 25

(Suggested time: 60 minutes)

Go back to Chapter 4 in the Reader, and read the section called 'Sources of reading problems' starting on page 163 again.

Make notes while you read. Start by dividing a page in your workbook into two columns. In the left-hand column, try to answer the questions listed below. In the right-hand column write your own comments and experiences about what you are reading.

1. Very quickly scan the first page to find the words 'intrinsic' and 'extrinsic'. To scan text just run your eye down the page in search of key words. You do not have to read the whole page. What do you think the words 'intrinsic' and 'extrinsic' mean?
2. What are the intrinsic disabilities learners may have with reading?
3. What are the key points about the following extrinsic disabilities:
   - **a** deficiency in teaching
   - **b** deficiency of motivation
   - **c** cultural difference.
4. From your own teaching and learning experience in the South African context, are there any explanations of reading disabilities that you feel have been left out by Jackson? If so, make a note of them in your workbook.

By now you should be aware that the causes of reading difficulty that many South African learners have are very complex. The problems are often extrinsic. In the South African context we need to understand that many people do not grow up in a reading environment. Chall (whose work you encountered in Section 2.3) has done additional research in North America on reading difficulties, and can add to our understanding. She used the 'stages of development' model of reading that you learnt about earlier as her research framework.

Chall found that children from low-income families have more reading disabilities than middle class children. Her main discovery was that low-income children very often achieve well until their fourth year of schooling which is when readers make the transition from learning to read to reading to learn (Stage 3 in reading devel-

opment). She found that low-income children experience what she calls a 'slump' at this stage of their reading development. This slump is a lag in progress and it gets worse as the learner goes up through school. By the time the child from a low-income family reaches the end of primary school she has fallen two years behind her reading age.

Chall found that the first slip was with vocabulary. Learners with reading difficulties struggle to define the more abstract, academic, literary and uncommon words used in their content textbooks.

She also found that below average readers experienced a slump in their ability to write, especially in the writing of expository text and their use of a wider vocabulary. But she also found that these same learners read for meaning and that cognitively, they were equal to all the other learners.

To find an explanation for her findings, Chall looked at the home conditions of the learners she was monitoring. She found that children from homes where the parents interacted with their children a lot, and played an active part in the educational achievement of their children, were better readers. She also found that good readers came from homes with literate, educated parents.

Chall argues that a school needs to take greater responsibility for the literacy development of low-income children, especially from the fourth year onwards.

- ❑ Learners should be given a structured and challenging reading programme to follow.
- ❑ Learners should be taught quite explicitly how to read at higher levels.
- ❑ In addition to their textbooks, a wide variety of reading materials should be made available to the readers.

Key points

Summary of Chall

- ❑ Middle class children get a double chance to learn advanced ideas and words – at home and at school.
- ❑ Learners who fall behind in reading also fall behind in writing. This suggests that reading is a crucial factor in learning to write.
- ❑ Vocabulary enrichment is a critical part of conceptual development and needs to be included in all subjects across the curriculum.
- ❑ The slump can be overcome and prevented if more positive conditions are provided by a school.
- ❑ Schools need to explore imaginative ways of encouraging interaction between and within families, so that less educated parents can be involved. This can be done through designing homework assignments that involve talking to parents about local conditions and reality. For example, a teacher might ask a group of learners to do research on how people use water in their community. This would encourage the learners to interview their family and friends in order to collect information. The learners should write up their work for other members of the class to read.

In Activity 25 the designers offer teacher-learners strategies for extending their academic literacy by mediating how to scan a text, how to make notes in a particular format and how to write reflectively in response to reading. In writing about *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* the co-ordinator of the module states that she and her colleagues 'have always paid attention to academic literacy skills':

> There are many in-text-activities in the Learning Guide which have academic development as their focus. These include tasks which promote reading strategies, note-taking, topic analysis, coherent and logical structuring of thoughts and so on.
>
> … a successful LILT student is one who can exhibit a range of conceptual *and* linguistic skills, and were I asked to describe such a student, I would make it quite explicit that competence in the written articulation of conceptual understanding is integral to my construction of 'success' in the LILT module. (Thomson, 2001, p. 119; italics in the original)

The polarity of the interrogatives in tasks 2 and 3 positions teacher-learners to find specific examples from the section they have read (re-read). However, the circumstance [48] ("From your own teaching and learning experience in the South African context") in theme position in the first clause in task 4, foregrounds teacher-learner knowledges. In this interrogative, the designers indicate to teachers that the authority whose work they have been reading (Jackson) may not have all the answers / explanations and that they may have explanations to add that are based in the contexts in which they work and live. In terms of Canagarajah's contrasting conceptualizations of pedagogy, by validating the personal and the local ('the situated') the designers' pedagogy is oriented more to the critical than the mainstream.

In the detailed feedback which follows the activity the designers start with brief commentary on the local (many South Africans do not grow up in a reading environment) and then connect the local with the global (research into "reading difficulties" in North America). They do not require teacher-learners to read Chall's

[48] In systemic functional grammar the circumstantial element in a clause provides information on time, place, matter, manner, cause, accompaniment and role.

account of a social class-based investigation into children's reading and writing but instead report key findings from it. The summary of this report is followed by the call to action on the part of teachers which is the focus of the mediation. The font and the bold type in the heading 'Key points' and the use of bullets and a shaded textbox all increase the salience of the summary. The example of the kind of action which teachers can take to assist learners is located explicitly in the local.

Analysis of this activity suggests that in *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* the designers have imagined teacher-learners as school-based, experienced teachers, with an interest in language and literacy across the curriculum and in findings from research. It could be argued that in mediating knowledge about reading, the designers bring together vertical discourse from the literature on 'sources of reading problems' and horizontal discourse located in teachers' experiences. The pedagogy, evident in the design of Activity 25 and in the feedback on it, constitutes readers as teachers who will take action to bring about improvements in their schools and communities as a result of what they have learned about obstacles to successful reading and about how to address these.

There are more multipurpose activities in this material than in the other two sets. This may suggest that the designers have imagined teacher-learners who will be interested in and able to benefit from such multipurpose activities with which they engage in different ways.

5.3.2.3 An activity from *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2,* Unit Four

The designers of the imithamo for *Language, Literacy and Communication* chose to integrate content on reading and the teaching of reading with other aspects of language and literacy learning and teaching. Many of the activities in each umthamo

prepare teacher-learners for the Key Activity in its final pages. In *Umthamo 2* this activity follows two research activities which require teacher-learners to collect iintsomi. The designers present two versions of it, the first of which is reproduced in Textbox 5.10.

Textbox 5.10 Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2, Activity 7: Introducing a literature-based whole language approach in the classroom

Option A: Reading the story beginning

Activity 7 - Introducing a literature-based whole language approach

Read carefully through the story you collected in your research.

Then you need to make decisions about how much of the story you will give your learners. The idea is to give them a *small* part of the story, so that they have to **think** about what might follow. You want to give them just enough so that they have questions burning in their minds. Each story will be different. You may be able to use the first two paragraphs, or you may need to use the first three. But ***you*** will have to decide.

You will also have to decide whether you write this story-beginning on the chalkboard, or whether you make copies so that your learners can share one copy between two learners. If you have a very big class, this could be quite expensive, especially if your school does not have copying facilities.

When you are with your learners, tell them that you are going to give them something to do that you yourself have done. You are going to give them the ***beginning*** of a story. You want them to read the story-beginning very carefully.

Then hand out copies of the story-beginning (or make sure that you have it written up clearly on the board, or on some newsprint), for your learners to **read**. When we tried this activity with a group of multi-grade learners, the teacher read aloud the story beginning. As she modelled good reading, the learners followed on their own copies of the text.

Don't give them too much time. Watch your learners. Watch their non-verbal communication! When you feel that they have had time to think of good questions, and enough time to write, stop them. Five to ten minutes should be enough.

When you think most of your learners have finished reading, stop them. Tell them to work in pairs, and **write** down ***very quickly*** all the questions that they can think of from what they have read. Make sure that they are quite clear that you don't want questions that *test* what they have read. You want them to really **think** of all the questions that they can about information which is **not** in the passage.

Now get each pair to join up with another pair and tell your learners to share their questions. When they have **read** through each other's questions, tell them to begin to **think** of and to **talk** about possible answers to some of these questions.

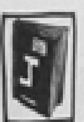
You will probably have to allow about ten minutes for this activity. You will have to read your learners' body language to judge when they are ready. If one or two groups don't seem to be talking very much, go to those groups and make sure that they are clear about what it is that you want them to do.

After about ten minutes, stop your learners. At this point you are going to 'conduct' a class discussion - rather like a choir master or a choir mistress! Ask each group to read out one of their questions. (Write each question on the board or make a note of it in your Journal.) Then ask whether they have thought of possible answers to this question. Encourage the other groups to think of other possible answers to this question. Get your learners to support their suggestions. They may have to refer to the passage that they have read to check for clues to the answers. This is an important part of this activity.

Continue in this way. Try to get a question from **each** group. Don't just ask the children who you can rely on to give you answers. Ask some of your more shy learners. Encourage everyone to participate. Make notes in your Journal of the possible answers that your learners give.

Now get your learners to work in the same pairs that they started this activity. Tell them that you want each pair to discuss, and write the rest of the story in their own way. Tell them that you don't just want a few sentences. You want proper stories. Let them do this in a scribbler, or on rough paper. But if they work on rough paper, they will need to write their names on the pages, and they will need to keep them safe. If they really work at this part of the task, it should take them at least half an hour.

If your school has a strict timetable, you will need to do this part of the activity in another period, or you could ask your learners to do this for homework.



At the end of the day, open your Journal, and write the date and time. Think back to this activity.

How did it go?

What surprised you?

What did you learn from this experience?

What did your learners learn?

How did you feel when you were with your learners? Why?

How do you feel now? Why?

As a follow-up to this activity, get your learners to swap the stories which they have written. Encourage them to make positive suggestions about one another's stories. Tell them to write under the story that they read, *What they enjoyed most, and what they would like to know more about.*

Make sure that you make time to tell them the rest of the story. Or you could give them the rest of the story for them to read themselves. Some other time, you could conduct a class discussion about the different versions.

At the face-to-face session where this umthamo is monitored, **you will be expected to share this experience with your fellow teacher-learners.** Take along some of the stories that your learners write, as well as the beginning of the story that you told.

It is a good idea to store some of your learners' stories in your Concertina File. You may want to include some in your Portfolio at the end of the year to show what you have been doing in your classroom with your learners.

(University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, 1999, pp. 27-29)

This activity is typical of a number of the activities in the imithamo in which the main purpose of the designers is to mediate pedagogic knowledge and skills. For the most part, the mood of the clauses is imperative and where the teacher-learners are given choices, these are either very minor or the designers' preferred choice of action is clearly expressed as in "[If] you have a very big class, making individual copies for learners is expensive" (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2,* 1999, p. 27).

The designers mediate their preferred approach to the activity by constituting themselves as members of a team of classroom practitioners who have tried out the activity and whose advice should therefore be taken into consideration: "[W]hen we tried this activity with a group of multi-grade learners, the teacher read aloud the story beginning. As she modeled good reading, the learners followed on (sic) their own copies of the text" (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, 1999, p. 27). The small photograph in the right-hand margin offers 'proof' of this trial. The foregrounded learners gaze intently at their copies; the central figure of the teacher directs the reading activity. The designers expect the teacher-learners to follow this example. The mood of the clauses in the very small textboxes in the left and right margins is also mainly imperative. The command, in the box on the left-hand

margin, to watch learners' nonverbal communication is a reference to a topic which was the focus of *Umthamo 1.* It can be assumed that the exclamation mark functions to remind teacher-learners that they have encountered non-verbal communication before.

When the designers advise teacher-learners about how to "conduct" class discussions, they compare them to choir leaders. This choice of simile and of its gendered forms is likely to be approved of by teachers for whom music competitions are an important part of school and community life and one in which these gendered terms are used. The designers use an example of a traditional and familiar practice to guide teachers towards what may be a new way of working. The instructions continue in minute detail (e.g. "But if they work on rough paper, they will need to write their names on the pages and they will need to keep them safe.") (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communuication, Umthamo 2,* 1999, p. 28) and position readers as teachers who will benefit from guidance on each aspect of their classroom work. In the boxed margin text which gives instructions for using classroom or homework time, there is further evidence of this 'teacher-proofing' approach to designing.

In terms of Bernstein's competence and performance models of pedagogy, I suggest that the designers have used both. They have prescribed detailed procedures (a feature of the performance model) for the production of texts, first by the teachers and then by the learners in their classrooms, but have also offered opportunities for active and creative meaning making (a feature of the competence model). It could be argued that their mediation is an example of Luke's (2008) model of 'pedagogy as gift' in which overt instruction serves the purpose of bringing culturally significant traditional texts into the classroom as the starting point for creative writing of stories for exchange within and beyond it.

The icon for journal writing in the left-hand margin in the middle of the second page signals a shift from teaching to reflecting. The designers' questions demand answers.

They position teacher-learners to think and to write in response to specific questions and then continue to prescribe specific actions to teachers for the final peer assessment and story reading activities (though they do offer alternative possibilities for the latter).

As this is a Key Activity, teacher-learners are reminded of what they are accountable for. The reminder is in a position of prominence at the top of the right hand page, with the most important part of the instruction in bold type. The command to bring evidence of their work to the contact session is followed by a final paragraph in which the mood is declarative rather than imperative. Though positioned to follow the guidance ("It is a good idea to ...."), teacher-learners have some options here.

Analysis of this activity suggests that the designers have imagined teacher-learners in the first year of their four year programme of part-time studies, as requiring detailed guidance for each aspect of an activity, whether this involves reflective writing in a journal or introducing a whole language approach in the classroom.

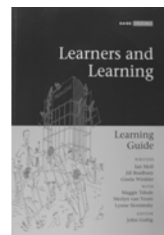
5.3.2.4 The learner-teachers and teacher-learners constituted in the activity 'types'

The contrasts in the design of activity types and in the language of mediation (both explanation and instruction) are quite marked and offer very different positions to readers as students and as teachers. The designers of *Learners and Learning* aim to destabilise the views on reading – both for study and for other purposes – which they imagine their readers to hold. They design content and activities to challenge these imagined views and to encourage acceptance of particular alternatives to them. The designers of *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2* imagine their readers as teachers who need to change their classroom practices and who will be receptive to guidance which is both detailed and prescriptive. By contrast, the designers of *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* use the classroom and academic literacy experiences which they imagine their readers to already have, as a starting

point for activities which aim to extend their knowledge and skills both as students and teachers. They imagine their readers as needing more explicit guidance for the development of academic literacy than for classroom teaching.

5.4 Using 'cases' or 'pedagogic episodes' to mediate knowledge

Shulman (2004) advocates the use of cases as one way of representing knowledge to teacher education students. He argues that a case is not simply the report of an incident or event: "to call something a case is to make a theoretical claim – to argue that it is a "case of something" or to argue that it is an instance of a larger class" (2004, p. 207). It is the knowledge that the case represents that makes it a case and thus, for Shulman, "a case must be explicated, interpreted, argued, dissected and reassembled" (2004, p. 209). In other words, a case, which in itself is a way of mediating knowledge, must in turn be mediated. Loughran (2006) suggests that cases create opportunities for questioning the taken-for-granted and "invite inquiry into the diversity of possibilities and responses inherent in the problematic situations that arise in teaching and learning" (2006, p. 33). In a subsequent publication he refers to such cases as "pedagogic episodes" which he encourages teacher educators to offer to "students of teaching" for the purpose of informing their "developing views of practice" (2008, p. 1180).



5.4.1 Pedagogic episodes in Section 4 of *Learners and Learning*

The designers of *Learners and Learning* include pedagogic episodes in each section of the *Learning Guide*. In Section Four, the first episode follows four pages of explanation of the kinds of knowledge they believe a reader needs to have in order to read successfully: knowledge of the written code, of the language, of the rules of writing, and of the world and how it works.

Learners and Learning Pedagogic episode 1

This episode, which takes the form of a cartoon strip, is introduced with the following statements:

> Not all of us who read, however, *enjoy* the experience. Reading is hard work and can be exhausting, especially if our experience of the world is very different to the world of the text we are reading (Gultig, 2001, p. 119; italics in the original).

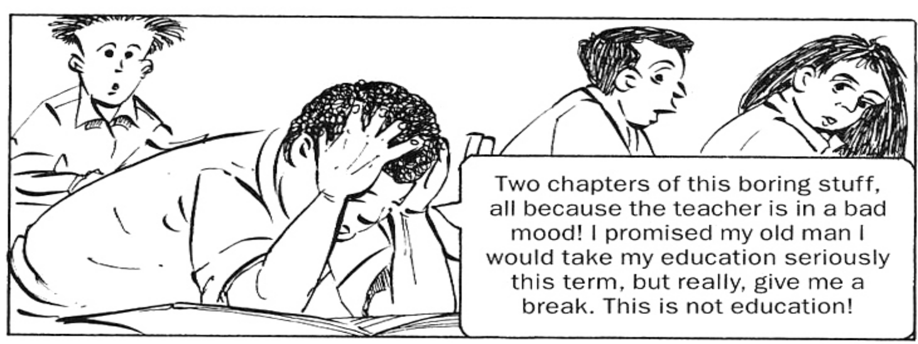
The second of these sentences is made more salient by its repetition in the white space of the page margin where it is printed between quotation marks in large font (p. 119). This feature of the page design, in conjunction with the high modality of the statements, the emphasis given to the affective word 'enjoy' through the use of italics, and the choice of inclusive pronouns throughout ('us'; 'our'; 'we'), offer readers the following positions:

(i) as readers of academic and other texts, 'membership' of a reading community that can expect to experience difficulties at least some of the time;

(ii) as teachers, responsibility for mediating unfamiliar worlds to learners.

This introductory paragraph is followed by a directive to "look at" the comments made in the cartoon strip by Mike who "describes what happened when he was supposed to read a book in class" (Gultig, 2001, p. 119). The designers model the classroom practice of 'reading for a purpose' (one of the ways that teachers can mediate text) by asking readers to "try to identify at least two reasons why Mike is not interacting with the book he is supposed to be reading" (p. 119). The cartoon strip is reproduced in Textbox 5.11.

Textbox 5.11 ***Learners and Learning:*** **The story of a struggling reader**



For many learners reading is a struggle.

(Gultig, 2001, p. 120-121)

The facial expressions, body language and words of teenage Mike and the facial expressions and body language of the teacher all offer readers what Adams (2008) terms an “authentic vicarious experience” as a result of which they are expected to identify with the learner and to be critical of his teacher’s pedagogy. The high modality statement immediately below the final frame supports this positioning: “For many learners reading is a struggle” (Gultig, 2001, p. 121). For the reasons outlined in Chapter One, it is likely that the previous reading experiences of many learner-teachers and teacher-learners were constrained by inadequate textual resources and limited teacher or lecturer mediation. The pedagogic practice, evident in the chalkboard instructions in the background to the first two frames of the cartoon, is likely to be familiar to many of them and may be a naturalized aspect of their own classroom practices as teachers and / or their experiences as learners. It is a practice in which teachers assume that learners know how to read the chapters and how to answer the questions without any support or guidance. While the teacher is recognizably male, he is a ‘type’ and not an individual and has been drawn so that he cannot be identified as a member of any particular ‘racial’ category. However, it is not the teacher on whom the designers focus in the first part of their explication of this case. Instead, as shown in Textbox 5.12, they direct readers to reflect on their own reading experiences as learners at school.

Textbox 5.12 ***Learners and Learning*****: Personal reflections on reading**

> **Stop. Think.**
>
> - Think about your own experience of reading at school. Was it similar to Mike's experience? What was different?
> - Did you ever experience reading as difficult, *but worthwhile* ? If you answer yes, what made it worthwhile? If no, why do you think reading isn't worthwhile? (Gultig, 2001, p. 121; bold type and italics in the original)

In mediating knowledge about reading and the teaching of reading, the designers work with two of the analytically distinguishable strands of activity which are constitutive of academic practice: distantiation and appropriation (Slonimsky and Shalem, 2004). Distantiation "calls upon students … to make the familiar or taken-for-granted strange" (Slonimsky & Shalem, 2004, p. 92). By requiring readers to engage with Mike's experiences as a reader, to reflect on their own reading experiences at school and to work with input on factors that promote successful reading experiences before they respond as teachers, the designers encourage them to distance themselves from their naturalized practices and then to appropriate new knowledge.

The presentation of what might be new knowledge for at least some readers begins under a bold type sub-heading **Why is Mike struggling to read?** The use of bullets, of italics for key words and phrases and of repetition of the key message in large font in the right hand margin, all reiterate one of the main ideas communicated in the cartoon by Mike's words, facial expressions and body language: "Our attitude to reading is very important to the reading process" (Gultig, 2001, p. 121).

In the next sub-section, with the bold type sub-heading **Important factors for a successful reading experience**, the designers again use bullets and italicised key words to construct a preferred reading. In some of the bulleted points they begin to constitute readers as teachers ('we') rather than as learners ('they'), but in the final bullet they position themselves as teachers and the readers as learners:

- Making meaningful links between the text and our existing knowledge will influence how successful the reading experience will be. (This is why we have tried to use familiar analogies in this text but, more importantly, why we have asked you to constantly relate ideas to your lives and practices as teachers.) (Gultig, 2001, p. 122)

This is one of a number of instances in *Learners and Learning* where the designers make their own pedagogy explicit and present it as a model to the reader. In the explication of the case of Mike's reading experiences there is an example of another recurring mediational strategy, that of revisiting content. The designers use questions in some of the small blocks in the page margins to recycle the content of earlier pages and to introduce new content:

> Do you notice how similar the prerequisites for successful reading are to the prerequisites for successful learning? What does this tell you about the relationship between reading and learning? (Gultig, 2001, p. 121)

The first question uses a grammatical metaphor in which a question disguises a directive: notice the similarities and, by implication, if you do not notice them, revise the previous section (on 'school learning'). The second serves to prepare readers to engage with the diagram of 'a reading-learning cycle' on the next page of the *Learning Guide*.

On page 122 of the *Guide* the designers mediate a diagram, from a source acknowledged in the page margin, to present their own diagram of the interrelated factors which constitute a reading-learning cycle. They return to the case of Mike's reading experiences in order to mediate its content.

Textbox 5.13 ***Learners and Learning*****: Revisiting a learners' difficulties with reading**

Activity 33 1. In the light of these factors, let us revisit Mike's reading experience and try to investigate why he found reading such a difficult experience. Copy the learning cycle down. Then go back to Mike's experience of reading and show at what points in the cycle the breakdown of Mike's learning occurred. 2. If Mike was in your class, how could you prevent this breakdown of learning? (Gultig, 2001, p. 122; bold type in original heading)

In this activity the designers direct readers to undertake a close reading of the diagram while participating in their own interpretation of the pedagogic episode. It is only in this concluding phase of their work on the episode that readers are asked to respond to a question addressed directly to them as teachers – a question which may be difficult to answer, given the very limited reference to reading pedagogies in this *Guide*.

Throughout *Learners and Learning* feedback on activities is signaled by the use of the sub-heading **What did we think?** At this point the designers 'reassemble' the episode (Shulman, 2004) in order to reiterate the reasons for the "breakdown in learning" which have contributed to making reading a meaningless experience for Mike. They position learner-teachers and teacher-learners to accept that this is a common experience for South African learners and, in the final sentence before the coda to the section, constitute them once more as teachers (and co-professionals with the designers) with responsibilities ("As teachers, we need to recognize that reading is inherently difficult") and as students ("think about your own struggles with various texts – perhaps even this module text"). The coda, reproduced in Textbox 5.14, is a commentary on Mike's dismal experience with a class reader.

Textbox 5.14 ***Learners and Learning*****: a concluding comment on the story of a struggling reader**

The speaker's gaze directs readers to the content of the speech bubble in which the insertion of 'only' both amplifies the force and sharpens the focus (Martin and Rose, 2003, pp. 38-43) of the designers' message to teachers. They are constituted as responsible for making texts 'come alive' for learners but they are not given detailed guidance about how to do this. In foregrounding 'positive attitude' as the key to successful reading the designers background many other factors (including those which they describe on pages 116 to 118) which teachers need to understand and address.

At no point in the *Learning Guide* do the designers include step by step lesson planning or detailed guidance for teaching learners how to read, but in sub-section 4.4 they do outline what they term "a teaching method called Directed Reading and Thinking Activity (DR-TA)" (Gultig, 2001, p. 133). They follow this with a second pedagogic episode, reproduced in Textbox 5.15.

Learners and Learning Pedagogic episode 2: Different levels of reading

While the drawing and speech bubbles on page 136 are an "illustration" (the term used by the designers) of a classroom moment, this illustration also represents a "case of something" (Shulman, 2004): the case of a teacher faced with a range of responses to her invitation to respond to a story. In contrast to pedagogic episode 1, in which the

designers place an activity after the presentation and explication of the episode, an activity for readers frames the teacher's 'story'.

Textbox 5.15 ***Learners and Learning*****: Learners' responses to a teacher's question**

Activity 39

1 Look at the following illustration carefully. All four learners are making statements about the story of the giraffe and the rabbit.

2 Can you identify the different levels of meaning in the children's responses to the story?

3 Which child do you think gives the 'correct' meaning of the story? Explain your answer.

4 Why do you think many teachers encourage learners to think that there is only one correct interpretation of a book?

5 If there is no meaning in the story as such, why should the children bother to read it?

(Gultig, 2001, p. 136)

Questions 2 to 5 and the designers' response under the sub-heading **What did we think?** all mediate the designers' position that 'meaning' is not singular. In the first

paragraph of their response they mediate the content of the four speech bubbles firstly by identifying the 'level' of response made by each learner and secondly by explaining its constitutive features (e.g. "The third learner has a *creative* response. He thinks up new ways in which the animals could have been saved"). This mediation suggests that the designers imagine some readers as unlikely to make appropriate identifications. In the next two paragraphs they again challenge what are likely to be naturalized practices for many teachers: teaching reading mainly through the use of comprehension exercises in textbooks and encouraging learners to memorize text. Having used the episode to establish that learners jointly construct multiple meanings from a text, they choose the pronouns "our" and "us" to include themselves among those who need to make the familiar strange by thinking about reading in new ways and then present the two key points reproduced in Textbox 5.16.

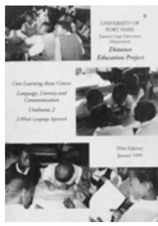
Textbox 5.16 *Learners and Learning*: Levels of meaning

> The levels of meaning that go beyond literal comprehension challenge many of our preconceived ideas about books:
>
> - They raise doubts about whether it is enough, or even necessary, to teach reading through comprehension exercises.
> - Because they show us that so much of a book's meaning lies in a learner's head, they suggest that teachers should not emphasize memorizing what's *in* a book.
>
> (Gultig, 2001, p. 137)

While the directives in the bulleted points ("Do not just teach reading through comprehension exercises and do not ask learners to memorise content") are softened by the designers' choice of modality ("They raise doubts about …" "… they suggest that …") readers are nevertheless being challenged to reconceptualise their practices.

When the designers reassemble this episode they refer to the authority of the new curriculum in which the expected learning outcomes for Language "promote a critical approach to text and assert that reading is an *interaction* between a text and a reader" (Gultig, 2001, p. 137). As in pedagogic episode 1, this final statement about reading is

offered by a teacher 'talking head' and speech bubble and is made more salient by the generous amount of white space which surrounds it. It could be argued that this reassembling is an example of what Bernstein refers to, in his discussion of the discourse of curriculum reform, as "official discourse". This is discourse which constructs in teachers "a particular moral disposition, motivation and aspiration" (Bernstein, 1999a, p. 246).



5.4.2 Pedagogic episodes in Units 2 and 3 of *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*

In the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo most of the cases or pedagogic episodes are based in the local (Eastern Cape primary schools and communities) and most serve as exemplars of practice for teacher-learners to emulate. In *Umthamo 2*, the two episodes feature Tillie Tshangela, one of the designers and writers of this umthamo.

Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2 Pedagogic episode 1: Learning from the example of primary schools in another country

The extract reproduced in Textbox 5.17 consists of two interrelated cases or episodes: an account of what impressed Ms Tshangela when she visited several primary schools in Adelaide, Australia, and an account of what she and three of the other designers found commendable about a conference presentation made by primary school learners in the same city.

Textbox 5.17 Tillie Tshangela's experience of the benefits of project-based learning

(presented on the next two pages) (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, 1999: 10-11)

Unit 2 - Moving towards an integrated Curriculum

When Tillie was in South Australia in September 1998, she was very impressed by the way the teachers of learners in Grades 1 to 7 integrated the different learning areas. She visited a number of primary schools and spoke to the teachers who worked in those schools.

Tillie was impressed by the way the teachers and learners worked in those primary schools. In some schools Tillie found that much of the work that learners did was ***project-based***. In other words, the children worked on a particular topic to find out all that they could, and then they reported on their findings. Tillie was very impressed by how well the learners did this.

In some cases, the *learners* chose the topic they would research. In other cases, the learners went out into their community to ask what the *community* would like them to investigate.

But, no matter what topic a group of learners chose, it inevitably involved a number of learning areas, if not all. For example, they counted and calculated, read history, used computers, learned about environmental needs, drew and designed, and so on. And of course, they used language, literacy and communication skills! They ***thought***, they ***spoke***, they ***listened*** to one another, they ***read***, and they ***wrote*** down, or recorded, what they had had learned.

Another thing that really impressed Tillie was that the learners were required to work in 'multi-grade' groups. Children from all grades, from the Reception Class to Grade 7, could be found working in the same group. They even formed these mixed groups themselves. Everybody in the group was given a chance to participate. The young ones worked under the eye of the older children.

At the conference that Tillie and Alan and John Bartlett attended in Adelaide, some children from Colonel Light Gardens Primary School presented what they had done in a Technology Education focused project.

It was clear from their presentation, that these learners had encountered some disagreements when they started out on their project. They explained how they had overcome these disagreements, and wove a lot of humour into their explanation. They seemed to have picked up the idea that people may disagree for some good reasons. And they were proud of the ways they had managed to solve their differences with everybody happy with the solution.

In everything that these learners did, they needed to use communication skills. And as they used their communication skills, the learners learned a great deal. For example,

- Their communication skills were tremendously improved. They noticed people who were in a hurry and those who did not wish to be disturbed, or who were worried, or who looked hurt. For example, they came to a lady in the park whom they noticed was deeply hurt by something, and they decided not to approach her (*non-verbal communication*). In the early morning, people are in more of a rush than by mid-morning. Elderly people seem to have more time than the young and the middle-aged.
- They learned to ***speak*** in a group.
- They learned how to handle and guide a discussion with confidence.
- The shy ones came out of their shells.
- They learned how to approach other people when carrying out their research. (For example, "Good day. May I ask something for my school research? Which sweet do you like?")
- The learners had to ***listen*** constantly as they collected their information (data).
- They ***read*** a lot, for extra information (from newspapers and magazines to library books).
- Their language was extended and developed in a "*real*" context. They learned the correct use of new words and all the parts of speech that go with them.
- The answers and added information were recorded (***writing***). If a learner could not spell a word, the respondent did the writing or spelt the word. The learner could even write the information as s/he pronounced it, ignoring the conventional spelling. When back in her/his group, any necessary corrections could be made with the help of the other group members.
- They learned about how to arrange and record their work.
- Through carrying out project work, the learners' sense of responsibility was tremendously improved.
- They learned to understand themselves (their likes, dislikes, strengths, weaknesses).
- Their self-esteem was boosted.
- They felt they belonged to their community and that they could be of help in the future.

In the opening paragraph the designers state that Tillie was ‘very impressed’, in the next paragraph that she was ‘impressed’ and ‘very impressed’ and in the fifth paragraph that she was ‘really impressed’. This repetition and amplification of attitude (Martin and Rose, 2003) positions teacher-learners to respond favourably to project-based learning as one of their role models has done.

The designers’ use of bold and italic type to name the approach and their subsequent explanation (“In other words …”) constitute teacher-learners as unfamiliar with project-based learning. The episode is an account of primary school children in Adelaide working in ways that exemplify Bernstein’s competence model of pedagogy: their teachers have encouraged them to be creative problem posers and problem solvers. The designers highlight the benefits of group projects by presenting Tillie’s ‘findings’ in fourteen bullet points, each of which could be related to the requirements of the new (in 1999) curriculum for *Language, Literacy and Communication* (though this link is not explicitly made). The episode is designed to encourage teacher-learners to respond favourably to what the designers imagine to be a new way of working in their classrooms which is introduced in Unit 3 through a second episode.

Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2 Pedagogic episode 2: Piecing together an intsomi

In Unit 3 of *Umthamo 2* the designers mediate a process of collecting traditional moral tales (iintsomi) for use in integrated speaking, listening, reading, writing and thinking activities in Eastern Cape primary school classrooms. They do this by telling the story of how Tillie collected an intsomi. Their introduction to the story collecting episode, reproduced in Textbox 5.18, includes several of the generic features of the introduction to a narrative: the setting or context (the designing of the umthamo); the main character (Tillie); the challenge she faces.

Textbox 5.18 ***Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*****:**
The introduction to a narrative about story collecting

> We wanted to include a story in this umthamo, but we wanted to include a story that is not one of the best known stories. We thought of the rich idioms in isiXhosa. And Tillie spent some time thinking of some of these. She tried to remember some of the iintsomi she had heard in her life.
>
> Eventually she remembered parts of a story behind one particular idiom, "Ayikho impungutye enkulu kunenye. Zonke iimpungutye ziya lingana". She tried to remember what had happened in this story. But because the story is not told very often, it was difficult to remember all the details. This is the story of how she traced and recovered the details of that story. (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, 1999, pp. 16-17)

The designers have imagined the teacher-learners as receptive to stories. In this orientation to the narrative that will unfold, they have positioned them to accept that isiXhosa is a language with rich idioms and that there is a danger that some of the stories in which these idioms are embedded will be lost. There is important story collecting work to be done!

In tracing and recovering the story behind the idiom Tillie talks to five informants. In the pages reproduced in Textbox 5.19, the insertion of the names, descriptions and photographs positions readers to accept the authenticity of the story-gathering process.

Textbox 5.19 Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2 The intsomi collecting process

What I still remember in the story I want to tell, is that a certain master was travelling on horse-back with his servant.

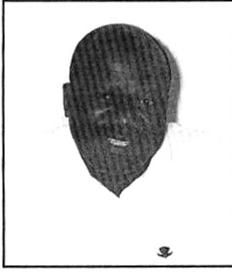
I'm not sure what happened or led the two to talk about a jackal, which the servant said was as big as a calf or an ox or a cow. The master knew that the servant was lying and he decided to teach him a lesson that the servant would never forget.

I don't remember how many rivers that they had to cross. But the master said the last river they would have to cross was very, very big, and did not allow any liar to cross it. Any liar trying to cross that river would be swept off down the river there and then. And it would not matter how well that liar could swim. The river was actually called, "*umlambo otshayela amaxoki*", *the river which drowns all the liars*.

I don't remember whether they had more talks, but as they were nearing this river, the master could tell that the servant was guilty of lying and was terribly afraid.

Since I was not sure of what actually happened, I asked my sister-in-law, Lulu Maholwana, about the story. This is what she told me. The servant was fond of lying. It was his habit. Once, he even spoke of a bug and likened it to something terribly big, so big it couldn't possibly be true.

We still didn't know the title of the story, and the details. Then we thought of Mr Caga, who had been a teacher of isiXhosa, and who is now an inspector of schools. When we asked him about the story, he couldn't remember the story, although his age fits the era when we read the story in our Xhosa readers in the lower primary classes. The only thing he remembered was that there was a version of this story in a book which was one of the Stewart Readers.



Then, one day I was speaking to Miss Kolisa Ngodwane, who has been a Maths and Science teacher. I mentioned

Page 17

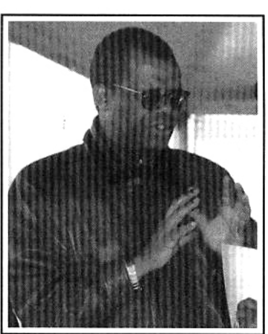
this story. She knew the message and philosophy behind the story.

She said that the master had to use a certain technique to stop the servant from lying. The master didn't want to say point blank that the servant was lying, as it is bad to do so. He knew that there were a lot of stories that people respected and in which they believed, that were similar. Kolisa said that the message went through the servant since he repented and told the truth before they reached the river. She didn't remember what really happened and what were the actual words.

So then I asked Mr Hintsa Siwisa, an attorney. He also knew this idiom and the message behind the story. But he couldn't remember the actual story. I quote his words, "It means levelling of the playing fields. Things are going to be tested, and put on the same par."

When I asked him about the origins of the story, he said that he thought the community was sick and tired about the continuous lying of this man. On a certain day, they decided to take him to a place where he was to be put under a vigorous test, and he was to be given a lesson so that he would never lie again. Mr Siwisa was not sure how this was going to be done, nor where it was to be done.

But Mr Siwisa said that the Minister of Sport, Steve Tshwete, was fond of this story, and many other stories. He said that that the Minister was arriving that very same day from Johannesburg, and he promised to make an arrangement so that I could meet him in King William's Town. This is Steve Tshwete's version of the story. (We have included both a version in isiXhosa and a version in English.)



(University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2, 1999*, pp. 17-18)

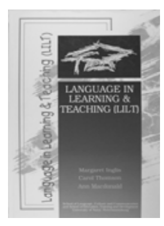
According to the designers, some of the people Tillie approached could tell her part of the story and some could not (in terms of narrative structure, the complication to the story) so her quest continued for some time, culminating in a successful resolution: a minister in the national government, with roots in the Eastern Cape, was able to tell Tillie a version of the whole story. As a continuation of the episode, the minister's version is reproduced in its entirety, first in isiXhosa and then in English. At its conclusion the designers invite teacher-learners to be further informants in relation to this story. However, I argue that their main purposes are to mediate story-gathering as a time-consuming but satisfying process in which the teacher-learners are expected to participate in order to contribute to the preservation of oral literature, and to demonstrate how this process can result in the collection of stories for use in classroom reading and writing lessons in two languages. These purposes are evident in two of the subsequent activity instructions, reproduced in Textbox 5.20, which refer to the episode and which emphasize, through the use of bold and italic type, the importance of collecting a complete story and of writing it in two languages.

Textbox 5.20 Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2: The importance of collecting a whole story and of writing it in two languages

- You have read about Tillie's search for a **complete** version of the story she was trying to remember. You may need to ask quite a number of people, before you put together a version that you feel is **whole** or **complete.** …
- When you have found a version you are satisfied with, we would like you to write out that version of your story in *both* isiXhosa and English. This will take a long time. The learning area Language, Literacy and Communication is not about just one language. This learning area includes all the language work that we do in all languages. We believe it is important to give status (importance and position) to **all** languages in our province. (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, 1999, p. 23; bold type and italics in the original)

While the purpose of the mediation in the first pedagogic episode in *Umthamo 2* appears to be somewhat similar to the main mediational purpose of the episodes in *Learners and Learning* (to encourage teacher-learners to distance themselves from

established and naturalized classroom practices and to think about their practices in new ways), the purpose of the second is to unpack an activity that the designers expect teacher-learners to find demanding but valuable. In developing a model of ‘pedagogy as gift’, which includes elements of traditional and critical pedagogies, Luke includes “a focus on culturally significant texts” (2008, p. 86) as one element of his model. He describes these as “not trivialized and purpose-built texts, but rather those forms of cultural memory and narrative that have visible significance in explaining the “dreaming” of how things came to be and how things could be” (2008, p. 86). In *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2* the designers mediate ways of collecting such significant texts and of using them to generate “thinking, speaking, listening, reading and writing” in the classroom.



5.4.3 A pedagogic episode from Unit 2 in *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)*

The designers of the *LILT* module do not often use pedagogic episodes or cases as a mediating strategy. There is one example in Unit 1, *Language-based classrooms,* in which they describe their experience of designing and trialling a series of lessons around a theme. Unit 3, *Writing matters,* includes two examples of cases or episodes: firstly, literate life histories and secondly the story of a learner’s writing experiences at school. The single example in Unit 2, *Teaching reading* is more a ‘case’ than an episode and forms part of the final section of the unit: ‘How do teachers encourage learners to be avid readers?’   The designers describe a home-school reading project and follow this description with an activity.

Textbox 5.21 ***Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*****: A home-school reading Project**

An interesting project that operates in ten schools in Soweto and in two other schools in Daveyton and Mamelodi could give ideas to schools and teachers who are trying to promote reading among their learners. Letta Mashishi writes about the Parents/Schools Learning Clubs project (PASLC) that was started in 1990 (Mashishi 1996). Its purpose is to encourage parents to play an active role in creating a favourable and pleasurable learning environment for their children. Mashishi, who works at the Centre for Continuing Education at the University of the Witwatersrand, reports that the project has been reaching 1 500 parents per year. The project employs 2 people full-time and 53 parents work in a voluntary capacity. The project has a mobile library, and parents are able to borrow three books each every fortnight.

The project runs workshops for parents to learn the kinds of interaction with their children that will promote literacy for the whole family. Some of the workshops that parents attend, focus on developing routines such as 'Know your child', 'Time Management' and 'Reading' in which parents develop the communication skills necessary to discuss learning with their children, to find out what things they like doing at school, to discuss the day's school activities, to establish time allocations for play, watching television, doing homework, and to develop a regular time and commitment to reading and/or telling stories.

They also develop parents' awareness of their children's attitudes to reading so that they build on the kinds of reading that are enjoyed and so develop their children as confident and able readers. There are workshops about vocabulary development, rhymes to help children understand the different languages that they are doing at school, and ways of telling stories so that older members of the family are valued for their ability to tell stories and to develop storytelling in children.

The clubs are run in a non-competitive ethos, and parents are

not allowed to compare their children's progress, but they are encouraged to praise their children's efforts and support and inspire them. The clubs are also very careful to be supportive of parents who might themselves feel threatened by their own lack of reading ability, or education. The clubs have become a place where parents themselves are encouraged to become better readers.

Activity 30

(Suggested time: 30 minutes)

1. Does your school encourage parents to support their children and develop a culture of learning?
2. How could you as a teacher draw on some of the ideas from the PASLC project?
3. Are you a parent? If you are, how could you be more involved in your children's reading development?

The designers begin with an expression of attitude: the project (case) to be described and explicated is an "interesting" one. They provide details to locate it in time and space and to establish its credentials: it has run for several years in three large centres of African population; it has reached a significant number of families; it is led by a co-ordinator based within a university, who has published an account of its achievements. They use adjectives of appreciation (Martin and Rose, 2003) to position teacher-learners to respond positively: "favourable and pleasurable learning environment"; "children as confident and able readers". This positioning is more direct in the activity based on the case. There is no opportunity for teacher-learners to raise questions about a project which requires considerable financial and human resources to sustain it. The three questions in the activity position them to use ideas from the project described in the case, both as teachers and as parents, in order to benefit children. In contrast to the teacher-learners imagined by the designers of the episodes presented in *Umthamo 2* the readers of the *LILT* materials have been imagined as capable of drawing on the ideas outlined in the case of the Parents/Schools Learning Clubs without detailed guidance from the materials' designers.

5.4.4 The dominant 'message' in the pedagogic episodes

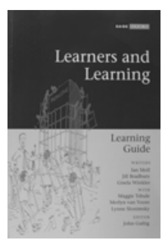
Lantolf and Thorne (2006) argue that processes which contribute to the transformation of social and mental activity are at the heart of mediation. Analysis of the cases or pedagogic episodes constructed by each design team suggests that the main purpose of each one is the transformation of teachers' knowledges and practices. In general terms, it could be argued that the dominant 'message' in these episodes is that teachers should act in 'new' ways in their classrooms and communities – ways that make learners excited about reading and that encourage multiple responses to texts (*Learners and Learning*); ways that result in the preservation of traditional tales and their use in the classroom for whole language activities and for affirming the isiXhosa language (*Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*); ways that result in the establishment of parent-child reading clubs or other community literacy projects (*Language in Learning & Teaching*). Only in *Umthamo 2* do the designers provide detailed scaffolding of the practices involved in acting in the ways that they have constructed as new.

5.5 Scaffolding the reading of experts' texts

All three sets of materials include extracts or whole texts written by international and local experts in particular fields. The analysis in the final part of this chapter focuses on the design teams' scaffolding of readers' comprehension, interpretation and response to these texts.

Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976), whose research focused on the support that parents give to children when they are learning to talk, are credited with the first use of the term scaffolding in a teaching–learning context (Gibbons, 2002). In a classroom context, Maybin, Mercer and Stierer have described scaffolding as involving "the temporary, but essential nature of the mentor's assistance in supporting learners to carry out tasks successfully" (1992, p. 186). For Gibbons, scaffolding is "the temporary assistance by which a teacher helps a learner know how to do something so that the learner will later be able to complete a similar task alone" (2002, p. 10). Bertram's

investigation of the reading competence of 153 teachers enrolled in a distance education B Ed Honours programme at a South African university revealed that “more than a third of the teachers are reading an ordinary academic text at frustration level” (2006, p. 1). She argues that “course writers need to support and scaffold students’ learning so that they can access the original reading with understanding” (2006, p. 1). In sections 5.5.1 to 5.5.4 I analyse the different ways in which each design team mediates the reading of ‘academic text’ and argue that the particular ways in which such reading is scaffolded contributes to the construction of particular reading subjects.



5.5.1 An example of scaffolded reading from *Learners and Learning,* Section Four

The majority of the seventeen activities in ‘Text as a context for learning’ are forms of tutorial-in-print which focus either on developing new or deeper understandings of theories and research findings about reading or on extending the learner-teachers’ or teacher-learners’ own academic literacy. Readers are constituted primarily as students who are learning about reading and learning how to improve their ability to engage with either short extracts from academic texts in the *Learning Guide* or longer ones in the accompanying *Reader*. The activity reproduced in Textbox 5.22 is designed to support learner-teachers or teacher-learners in their reading of one of the texts in the *Reader* – ‘The magic of reading’.

Textbox 5.22 *Learners and Learning*, Activity 35: Reading and responding to Bettelheim and Zelan's 'The magic of reading'

Activity 35

1 Turn to page 137 of the Reader, and read the extract by Bettelheim and Zelan called 'The magic of reading'. *Before* you read the extract, carefully think about your own experience of learning to read.
   a What motivated you to learn to read?
   b Did you experience reading as a magical thing?
   c Who supported you? Where did you struggle?
   d What was the attitude of your parents to reading?
2 Read the extract by Bettelheim and Zelan and make notes about the factors that motivate children to read.
3 Now use Bettelheim and Zelan's language or discourse to redescribe your experience in these more formal terms.

Spend about an hour on this activity. Read the extract on your own first, then meet with fellow learners and discuss Bettelheim and Zelan's ideas.

(Gultig, 2001, p. 125)

Though the icon next to the activity foregrounds writing, throughout *Learners and Learning* it is used to indicate reading and writing activities. In Activity 35 the mood of the clauses is imperative / directive: readers are commanded to take a series of actions: 'turn', 'read', 'carefully think about', 'read', 'make notes', 'use', 'redescribe'. The designers' questions model the kinds of questions that teachers could use in their classrooms to encourage learners to reflect on an aspect of their experience. The three tasks also model the 'pre-reading, while-reading, post-reading' approach to classroom reading activities which has been advocated by many reading theorists and teacher educators (e.g. Carrell &Eisterhold, 1983; Carrell, Devine & Eskey, 1988; Harmer, 2001) and which is evident in many of the language textbooks used in South African classrooms. The italicized *Before* directs readers to respond to Task 1 a,b,c,d in order to activate their schemata about reading before they tackle edited extracts from a chapter in Bettelheim and Zelan's *On Learning to Read*. In Task 2 the designers offer a focus for this reading by directing learner-teachers or teacher-learners to make notes on a specific topic while they read. The importance of talking about texts is also

signaled in the instruction beneath the icon to "meet with fellow learners and discuss Bettelheim and Zelan's ideas".

Through the design of the first two tasks and the instructions beneath the icon, the designers model an approach to working with texts in classrooms that could be productive for teachers to adopt (if they are not already doing something similar). However, there is no explicit link between the learning experiences designed for the teachers as learners and what they could transfer to their classroom practice. Task 3 is the most challenging and thus it is surprising that the designers do not mediate it at all.

A comparison between the original chapter from Bettelheim and Zelan (1982) and its presentation in the *Learners and Learning Reader* reveals that the designers have scaffolded the reading in several ways. Firstly, they have written a three paragraph introduction which sums up the authors' main arguments (p. 137) and a further summary (p. 141) at the conclusion of a section of the argument. Secondly, they have inserted five sub-headings in bold-type into the original text: 'Why it isn't useful to justify reading in terms of its usefulness' (p. 137); 'Reading is about opening up a world of imagination and joy' (p. 138); 'How will the child experience reading?' (p. 139); 'Why we must develop our emotions' (p. 141); 'Two ways of teaching reading' (p. 142). All of these serve to direct the reader to interpret the text in relation to these headings. Thirdly, they have italicized what they consider to be some key words / ideas as in this example:

> Our thesis is that learning, particularly learning to read, must give the child the feeling that through it *new worlds will be opened up to his mind and imagination*.
> (Moll, Gultig, Bradbury & Winkler, 2001, p. 139)

Fourthly, they have edited out a few short sections and written new link words. Finally, they have added two margin notes, the first of which scaffolds a section of the text and positions readers both to accept the authority of experts and to reject the use of primers or basal readers for teaching learners to read:

> This example demonstrates how a child can read a difficult text in Hebrew and

> translate this into English very well. But when the child is asked to read the simplified English summary, he can't do so. Bettelheim and Zelan argue that this shows that difficult originals which still contain 'magic' to interest the learner, are better teaching texts than simplified summaries that have lost this magic. This is why primers (simple school reading books) aren't good books to use in teaching reading. (Moll et al., 2001, p. 143)

After readers have worked through Activity 35 in the *Learning Guide* and the extracts in the *Reader*, they are expected to turn to the designers' feedback on the activity which is given under the sub-heading **What did we think?** In Textbox 5.23 this page is reproduced in slightly reduced size, with paragraph numbers added.

Textbox 5.23 *Learners and Learning*, Feedback on aspects of Activity 35

TEXT AS A CONTEXT FOR LEARNING

What did we think?

1

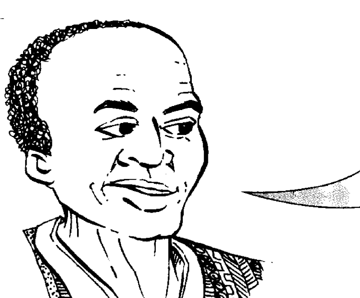
We have all had unique experiences in learning to read. You may remember a favourite book, or have a fond memory of a special relationship with a parent or teacher that centred on books, or recall a less pleasant experience of anxiety or boredom in your first classroom.

While we have all had *unique* experiences, we have also all had some *common* experiences of reading. As we suggested earlier, we only learn to read if reading seems purposeful and meaningful. Reading must give children the feeling that *new worlds are opening* before them. Only then can it be seen as the key to unlimited knowledge.

Bettelheim and Zelan argue that a positive attitude to reading grows out of a child's experience of *how adults enjoy books*. Children who have never shared the enjoyment of books with anyone will not believe that reading is important. In the end, it is the 'wish to penetrate [...] the important secrets adults possess' that helps children to persist in the struggle of learning to read. Without this desire, as Mike's experience so clearly shows, the act of reading seems meaningless from the start.

4

This has important implications for teaching reading in South Africa. Many learners come from homes which have no books, and where parents have been denied (by our history) the joy of literacy. So they enter schools with no model of reading as a joyful and meaningful activity. At school, they often encounter teachers who also don't read and don't see any point in reading. Many studies have pointed to the fact that teachers don't read enough and don't encourage reading in schools. So, both at home and at school, reading isn't 'modelled'.



Bettelheim and Zelan argue that the kind of encouragement teachers and parents often use with learners, namely that reading will help you get ahead in life, is a very weak persuasive tool. They say that 'usefulness' isn't something that motivates young learners. Instead, they suggest, we read (and children, in particular, read) because we are promised trips to magical lands. It is the fantasy that reading brings – the imaginative stories that books carry – that motivates us to read. This is what teachers need to communicate to learners, both in words and in actions.

Bettelheim has often been criticized for being too 'psychological' and 'magical' in his description of reading. For example, although he talks about the importance of reading parents, he does not elaborate the extent to which reading and writing are social activities beyond the rather private space of the family. The political and economic dynamics of the society we live in can have a powerful influence on our attitude to reading, on our opportunities for reading, and on the uses that we can make of reading in our everyday life.

What do you think?

(Gultig, 2001, p. 126)

A ‘tutorial in print’ activity is often followed by feedback and this feedback is usually based on the imagined responses of readers to the activity (Lockwood, 1994). The designers’ feedback on Activity 35 provides further scaffolding for comprehending the extract by re-presenting key arguments made by the two authors. It also positions readers to accept the designers’ views on texts and the teaching of reading. In contrast to their use of ‘we’ to refer to themselves in the heading (‘What did we think?’), they use ‘we’ as a pronoun of solidarity in the opening sentence of paragraph 1. This usage makes a statement about a single community of readers (‘We all’) that includes both designers and learner-teachers / teacher-learners and that positions the latter to identify with at least one of the ‘scenarios’ constructed in the next sentence.

In paragraph 2, the information focus realized through the italicized words and phrases, the repeated use of ‘only’ to indicate a position that cannot be argued with and the choice of ‘must’ – a modal form that expresses both a high degree of certainty and of obligation – all construct a position that the designers expect their readers to accept.

In paragraphs 3 and 4 and in the speech bubble, the designers constitute learner-teachers and teacher-learners as role models who will act responsibly and assist learners to overcome the negative effects of the apartheid legacies of poverty and illiteracy. The first sentence in paragraph 3 includes the italicized information focus “how adults enjoy books” and from this sentence to the final one in the paragraph there is a lexical chain that links “a child’s experience of how adults enjoy books” to “children who have never shared the enjoyment of books” to “the important secrets adults possess” to “children to persist in the struggle of learning to read” to “desire” (or lack of) to read. The chaining continues in paragraph 4: “parents have been denied the joy of literacy”; children enter school “with no model of reading as a joyful and meaningful activity”; many teachers do not provide such a model at school.

On this feedback page the paragraphs of dense print, unrelieved by headings, are bisected by the talking head and the speech bubble, a placement that is likely to direct readers' attention to the words in the bubble which summarize much of the information on the entire page. In contrast to the two teacher images in the 'half-truths' activity, this talking head does not look directly at the viewer. His gaze is towards the bubble. He offers information to the readers/viewers and seeks their agreement. Here teachers are referred to in the third person (not you, the teacher-learners in this programme, but 'they' out there) perhaps to suggest to readers that the designers imagine them as teachers who are not like the majority constructed in negative terms in the previous paragraph ("teachers who also don't read and don't see any point in reading").

In their account of interpersonal meanings in texts, Droga and Humphrey explain that when a writer or speaker refers to an outside source, he or she has evaluated the ideas of this source as relevant. The writer or speaker may then express a neutral (non-endorsing), positive (endorsing) or negative (dis-endorsing) attitude to these ideas through his or her choices of verbal processes and other lexical items (2002, pp. 91-93). Paragraph 5 begins with the designers' attribution of a particular argument to Bettelheim and Zelan. In the first sentence, their choice of the verbal process "argue" suggests that the ideas of these authors can be contested. In the second and third sentences it is clear that the designers are reporting further ideas from the writing of the two authors ("they say"; "they suggest"). In the last two sentences in the paragraph there is no direct attribution so that it is unclear whether the statements expressed with certainty are from Bettelheim and Zelan, from the designers or from both. Whatever their origin, both statements reinforce the content of the speech bubble: teachers are expected to be role models for learners in their classrooms. In this instance they are expected to demonstrate pleasure in reading imaginative texts. They are positioned to accept as uncontestable a statement that may well be contested by readers who find greater pleasure in factual texts than in fiction.

The final paragraph in this commentary on Activity 35 is an unscaffolded and very brief reference to a socio-cultural perspective on reading. It challenges readers to make their own response without really supporting their engagement with the perspective presented in one highly nominalised sentence ("The political and economic dynamics …"). The paragraph constitutes them as adults who are more familiar with political and economic factors affecting whether children and adults become readers, than with arguments about the "magic" of reading and the value of reading for pleasure.

The presentation of the final paragraphs in the Bettelheim and Zelan extract in the *Reader*, the accompanying margin note and the final question to readers, presented in Textbox 5.24, seem at odds with the carefully scaffolded and recycled content that has preceded them. Readers are addressed like children but given a very adult task. They are to "Pay attention" but what they are to attend to may be difficult to grasp if they do not have any background in psychology. If they find the argument and 'evidence' difficult to follow, they are unlikely to engage with the question asked.

Textbox 5.24 *Learners and Learning, Reader*, The final paragraphs, with annotation, of the extract from Bettelheim and Zelan

Pay attention to why the writers argue against the common school practice of developing simple readers (or primers) to teach young children reading. What do you think of their argument and the evidence they provide?

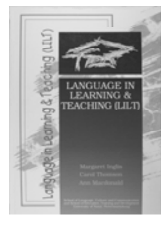
Because of its central importance, reading should be the paramount example of what education in the deepest sense is all about: a progress from irrationality to rationality, starting with the id's irrational purposes, which become gradually controlled by the ego and thus changed to meet in a rational manner the challenges of both external reality and the inner life.

If education equips students in this way, it enriches their personality and makes life more manageable and more worthwhile. But modern education – believing it can do away with the slow and tortuous development from irrationality to rationality – tends to deplete the ego of its natural resources and leave it weakened, subject to domination by an irrationality that has not been sufficiently transformed by the process of education.

(Moll, Gultig, Bradbury & Winkler, 2001, p. 144)

With the exception of these final paragraphs, the designers of *Learners and Learning* offer readers considerable support for the task of reading a chapter from Bettelheim and Zelan. However, they do not offer examples of how to respond in writing to tasks

2 and 3 in Activity 35. The nature of the feedback suggests that they have imagined learner-teachers or teacher-learners as able to compare the notes they made for task 2 with the information offered in the feedback – even though this is not presented in note form or under a heading that refers to factors affecting motivation to read. As noted by Lockwood (1994), the 'situatedness' of action–reflection activity, makes it impossible to offer feedback that addresses each student's situation. Nevertheless, in order to demonstrate how to use Bettelheim and Zelan's discourse to describe an individual's experience of learning to read, the designers could have scaffolded this task by providing a hypothetical example, with annotations.



5.5.2 An example of scaffolded reading from *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT), Unit 2*

The designers of *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* have also included short extracts from academic texts in the *Learning Guide* and longer readings in the *Reader*. However, while there are some similarities between their scaffolding strategies and those of the designers of *Learners and Learning* (for example, the insertion of sub-headings into the extracts in the *Reader*) there are also significant differences. The *Learners and Learning Reader* consists of texts written by a range of international and local (only one) theorists and empirical researchers. By contrast, in the *LILT Reader*, six of the seven texts, referred to as 'chapters', were written by lecturers at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. In these chapters the lecturers mediate ideas from some of the key theorists in the field of language learning and teaching and also findings from empirical research studies. At the end of each one they provide a reference list of the books and articles which they have used in writing it. To assist the teacher-learners they insert sub-headings in bold type and large font-size and provide word glosses in the page margins. All seven chapters are preceded by pre-reading questions. The questions that precede 'Ways of understanding the reading process: Implications for teaching' by Fiona Jackson are reproduced in Textbox 5.25.

Textbox 5.25 Pre-reading questions in preparation for the Jackson text

Pre-reading questions

A. Read the following text and then answer the questions below it:

'Twas brilly and the slithy toves did gyre and gimble in the wabe.
All mimsy were the borogroves and the mome raths outgrabe.'

(From *The Jaberwocky*, by Lewis Carroll)

1. What can toves do?
2. Where can toves do what they can do?
3. What were the borogroves like?
4. Who outgrabed?

Reflection questions

1. Did you find it hard to answer the above questions?
2. Did you know the meaning of all the words?
3. What enabled you to answer the questions?
4. How meaningful a reading task did you find this?
5. Is the above kind of reading task familiar to you?
6. Can you think of ways to work with the above text that might have made it a deeper learning experience for you?

B. 1. a When you read a newspaper, do you read it from cover to cover?
b Why/why not?
c What kind of strategies do you use to read it?
d Are they very different from the way you read a telephone directory? An academic article?

2. What comments can you make about the reading process in the light of your answers to B (1)?

C. What makes reading very difficult for you?

D. What makes reading very easy for you?

E. How do you think our brains work to make sense of print when we read?

(Inglis et al, 2000, p. 155)

These pre-reading questions require teacher-learners to reflect on a range of experiences with print. Firstly, they are asked to reflect on four decoding questions based on a 'nonsense passage' from The Jaberwocky. The inclusion of the question "Is the above kind of reading task familiar to you?" suggests that the designers have imagined teacher-learners for whom the answer will be affirmative. The questions encourage them to distance themselves from a familiar practice. The subsequent questions (B to E) are designed to activate their schemata about reading – reading schemata being one of the concepts that they will encounter in Jackson's text. In

contrast to the questions in A, which are addressed to them as teachers, the questions in B to E address them as readers of a range of texts.

In Activities 21 and 22, which are reproduced in Textbox 5.26, the designers move between addressing the teacher-learners as teachers and addressing them as learners who are extending their own academic literacy, their knowledge of theories about the reading process and their knowledge of practices that support learners' development as readers.

Textbox 5.26 Scaffolding readings of the Jackson text

(on next page)

(Inglis et al., 2000, p. 60)

Activity 21

(Suggested time: 45 minutes)

Thinking and writing

Write a heading 'Levels of Reading Interaction – Adams and Collins' in your workbook, followed by the subheadings: letter, word, syntax, semantics and interpretation.

Think about each of the levels of reading described by Adams and Collins that are referred to in Chapter 4 of the Reader, and write down any difficulties that your learners have at each level. Try to identify at which level most of your learners have a problem.

Study skills

Reading from key points

If a reader has a well developed schema about a certain topic, that reader will find it much easier to read and remember text concerning that schema. Readers attach new information to an already existing schema. See Chapter 4 on page 155 in the Reader for a detailed explanation of schemata (the plural form of 'schema').

Read the key points given below and then turn to Chapter 4 of the Reader and read about the interactional model of reading.

Key points

- ❑ Second language readers have to make more inferences and they experience greater overload problems than first language readers.
- ❑ Teachers need to become aware of what constitutes good, well written, well organised textbooks because the way books are written affects learner processing capacity.
- ❑ Teachers need to give learners support in building up their linguistic, content and formal schemata so that they are able to accept new propositions more easily when they read.
- ❑ Learners need to establish a purpose when they read so they can find meaning from text more efficiently.

Activity 22

(Suggested time: 30 minutes)

1 Does having a schema (in this case gained through the summary of key points) assist you in your reading, understanding and remembering?

2 Read the key points given below. Then turn to Chapter 4 of the Reader (page 155) to search for and understand those key concepts in this chapter.

Key points

- ❑ Reading can be seen as a negotiation of meaning between the writer and the reader.
- ❑ Reading is not passive. It demands the use of many active strategies on the part of the reader in order to negotiate the meaning intended by the writer.
- ❑ Reading strategies need to be taught so that learners can negotiate meaning effectively.

On page 59 of the *Learning Guide* the designers outline the structure of the Jackson text and encourage teacher-learners to increase their awareness of how they read and how they learn through reading. In contrast to this fairly straightforward introduction, the design and content of page 60 present navigational challenges to even the most experienced of readers. The page begins with an activity which requires teachers to focus on a section within the Jackson text ('Levels of Reading Interaction – Adams and Collins') and to relate what they read to their knowledge of the reading problems encountered by the learners whom they teach. The designers constitute the teacher-learners as experienced professionals who understand learners' difficulties and who have sufficient academic literacy to use information from this section of the Jackson text to complete Activity 21.

Activity 21 is followed by a paragraph which explains how having a "well developed schema" supports the reading of new information but this paragraph makes no reference to the pre-reading questions for Chapter 4 in the *Reader* which have been designed for that purpose, though it does direct teacher-learners to the explanation of schema / schemata within the chapter. Instead, the designers take a different approach to the activation of schemata by directing teacher-learners to read some key points about teaching reading before reading about "the interactional model of reading" in the chapter. These key points constitute teacher-learners as responsible for textbook evaluation (the focus of the previous activity) and for providing various forms of support for learners.

After reading part of the chapter, teacher-learners are expected to complete Activity 22. The first question in this activity refers to the key points about teaching reading as a "summary" but it is not a summary of points made in the section of the chapter that they have just read and thus teacher-learners may find this question confusing. It is followed by an instruction to read a further set of key points and then to locate and "understand" these concepts in the chapter. As page 155 is the page on which the

chapter begins, it seems that teacher-learners are now required to read the whole chapter to which no further direct reference is made in the *Learning Guide.*

Analysis of the ways in which the designers have attempted to scaffold the reading of the Jackson text suggests that addressing teacher-learners simultaneously as experienced teachers and as teachers who also need to consider new ways of working, and as experienced readers but also as readers who will in addition benefit from some support for their reading, has resulted in a page of text in the *Learning Guide* that may be at least as confusing as it is helpful. However, the Jackson text in the *Reader* is clearly written, with bold sub-headings to indicate where each new section begins. Its conclusion is addressed to teachers who "can benefit" from understanding theories about reading, from knowing about "the diversity of possible causes of reading difficulties" and from knowing about a "rich variety of reading activities" (Jackson, 2000, in Inglis, Thomson et al., 2000, pp. 167-168).

5.5.3 An example of scaffolded reading from *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*

In contrast to the other sets of materials, only the final activity in *Umthamo 2* has a content knowledge focus. Its placement after the Key Activity which teacher-learners must complete for assessment purposes, together with the designers' choice of declarative rather than imperative mood in introducing it, may position the text as relatively unimportant. In the introduction to the reading, teacher-learners are constituted as readers who may not at first understand some of what they read but who will persevere and who will "make more and more sense" of the text each time they re-read it. The text, from pages 7 to 10 of Goodman's well-known book, has been reformatted into several pages of textbox (from the middle of page 38 to the middle of page 42) in the umthamo. The first paragraphs, immediately below the introduction, are reproduced, together with this introduction, in Textbox 5.27.

Textbox 5.27 *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, Activity 9: The introduction to a reading and the first paragraphs of the extract

Now we would like you to read a section from a book by Kenneth Goodman called, *What's Whole in Whole Language?* Don't worry if you don't understand *everything* that he says in this text. Skip over the parts you are unsure of. After some time, come back and read the passage again. As you re-visit it, you will find that it will make more and more sense with each re-reading. (We have put one or two explanations in the margins where Kenneth Goodman has used American terms.)

Activity 9 - A Reading

Whole language: the easy way to language development

This riddle has long troubled parents, teachers, and scholars: learning language sometimes seems ridiculously easy and sometimes impossibly hard. And the easy times are outside school, the hard times in school.

Virtually all human babies learn to speak their home language remarkably well in a very short time, without any formal teaching. But when they go to school, many appear to have difficulty, particularly with written language, even though they are instructed by diligent teachers using expensive and carefully developed materials.

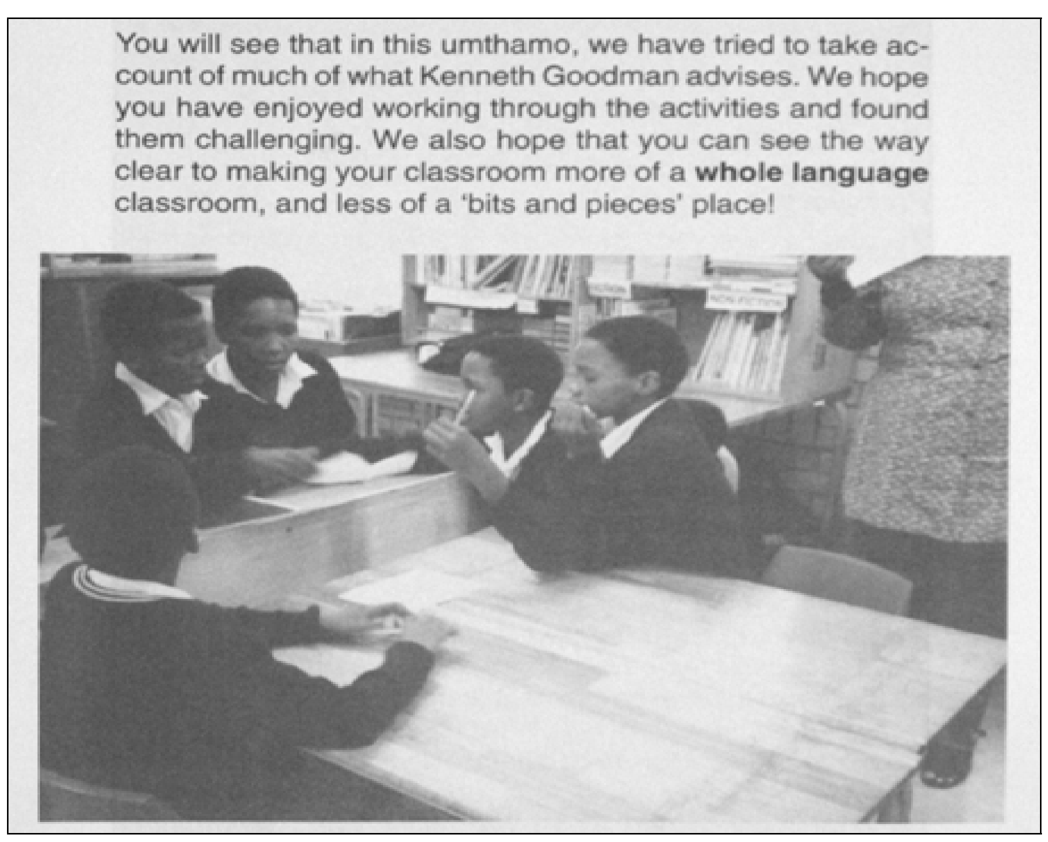
We are beginning to work out this seeming paradox. Careful observation is helping us to understand better what makes language easy or hard to learn. Many school traditions seem to have actually hindered language de-

(University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, 1999, p. 38)

The text is printed on a grey background – a design feature of the imithamo which is used to differentiate between the texts of writers / speakers included in the materials and the words of the designers. While the pages from Goodman's book have been reformatted, the content has not been edited and the only words that are glossed are three examples of 'American English': basal readers; ditto masters; paper drives. These word glosses are the only guidance offered to teacher-learners for reading the extract. This umthamo is used by teacher-learners in their first year of study and in

view of the many indications in it and in the other imithamo that designers have imagined teacher-learners who may find reading in English quite challenging, this lack of scaffolding at first seems surprising. However, the brief commentary which follows the extract from Goodman suggests that the designers believe they have provided scaffolding throughout the entire umthamo by constructing opportunities for teacher-learners to experience a whole language approach, first as learners and then as teachers. This commentary and the captioned photograph below it are reproduced in Textbox 5.28.

Textbox 5.28 Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2: The conclusion to the umthamo



You will see that in this umthamo, we have tried to take account of much of what Kenneth Goodman advises. We hope you have enjoyed working through the activities and found them challenging. We also hope that you can see the way clear to making your classroom more of a **whole language** classroom, and less of a 'bits and pieces' place!

Thinking, speaking, listening, reading and writing

(University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, 1999, p. 42)

In this concluding paragraph the designers construct a particular position for reading the entire umthamo: it is to be read through a whole language lens. The teacher-learners are positioned to respond positively to the idea of making their classroom a whole language classroom. Such a classroom is contrasted with "a 'bits and pieces' place" – a negative relexicalisation which renames a traditional classroom in which aspects of language work (writing, reading, etc.) are timetabled separately. The caption underneath the photograph, "Thinking, speaking, listening, reading and writing", repeats the five integrated aspects of a whole language classroom which were introduced at the beginning of Unit 3. The photograph is another version of one of the front cover photographs used in *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 1* and *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2* and is an example of visual mediation. The learners are photographed from a "teacher distance" (Van der Mescht, 2004). The teacher is present, but in the background. The learners' attention is focused on one another and on the learning task. Their eyes draw the attention of the viewer to the paper that seems to be the focus of their activity. In the background is a neatly organized box library. The captioned photograph models the classroom practices advocated by the designers throughout the umthamo and serves as a final summary of how the designers expect teacher-learners to work in their classrooms.

5.5.4 Contrasting approaches to scaffolding and to the constitution of the reading Subject

The designers of *Learners and Learning* constitute readers primarily as students who need to engage with the work of internationally recognised theorists and researchers and who need to learn how to do this. While they include questions to the reader such as 'What do you think?', their insertion of sub-headings into texts, their commentary on these texts and most of the questions they ask, position readers to accept the designers' interpretations. Some of the activities link reading to writing about reading, with the former more fully scaffolded than the latter.

Although the *LILT* materials were designed for readers who are post-graduate students, the *Reader* includes only one text taken directly from an international authority. As indicated in 5.5.2, the other six are 'compilation' texts in which academics from the University of KwaZulu-Natal have drawn on the work of a range of theorists and empirical researchers to write chapters which offer readers an overview of theories and their implications for classroom practice. In the Jackson chapter and in the designers' mediation of it, readers are encouraged to reflect on their practices when reading for both study and recreational purposes, but the focus is on readers' practices as experienced teachers – practices which they are interested in and committed to improving.

The approach to scaffolding adopted by the designers of *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2* differs significantly from that of the other two design teams. They take what Scollon and Scollon (2003) refer to as an "inductive approach" which, according to these authors, is a rhetorical strategy which many students from "non-English-speaking backgrounds" are likely to find more familiar than a deductive approach. The designers of *Language, Literacy and Communication Umthamo 2* guide teacher-learners through a series of activities so that they experience a "whole language" approach to literacy learning and teaching – first as learners themselves and then as teachers. This experience is considered to be appropriate preparation for reading an extract from Kenneth Goodman's writing on "whole language", though the designers indicate that they expect teacher-learners to find this reading challenging. The scaffolding offered in *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2* constitutes teacher-learners as more responsive to (and perhaps, more in need of) guidance for changing their teaching practices than to opportunities to extend their understanding of the theoretical underpinnings of these practices.

5.6 Designers and readers as innovative users of mediational means

> … each concrete use of meditational means by individuals involves some differences from other uses (Wertsch & Tulviste, 1996, p. 69).

Although I accept Lantolf and Thorne's view that analysis of an object, such as a book, cannot lead to an understanding of how the object serves a mediating function for an individual (2006, p. 69), I find persuasive the argument of Bezemer and Kress (2008b) that texts are "*potentials* of a quite specific kind, which in their specificity allow an unlimited (in number) yet constrained (in semantic scope) number of readings" (2008b, p. 4, italics in the original). My intention in this long chapter has been to include sufficient examples from each set of materials to establish that in designing activities, pedagogic episodes or cases, and scaffolds to support readings of academic texts, each design team has attempted to anticipate the learning needs of a particular constituency of ideal readers. While the mediational means are broadly similar, I argue that the particular ways in which the designers use them contribute to the constitution of a range of subject positions for readers as students and as teachers, some of which I have summarised in sections 5.3.1.4, 5.3.2.4, 5.4.4 and 5.5.4. I also acknowledge that there is an element of "innovation" (Wertsch & Tulviste, 1996) each time an individual, including readers of course materials, uses particular mediational means. Each student, on each occasion that she or he reads course materials does so in different ways – for example, as an engaged or a resistant reader – influenced by previous experiences with these materials, with other texts, with the social world of their family, school, community, nation (their 'locals') and also with the global, through academic texts and the media. However, I suggest that these different ways of reading and responding are also constrained by what Bezemer and Kress term "the potentials" of the materials.

In this chapter the analysis has focused on three design teams' use of language, in-text activities, pedagogic episodes and various kinds of scaffolding to mediate knowledge. Images, fonts, layout on the page and other elements of visual design also contribute to the potentials of a text. These are analysed in Chapter Six.

Chapter Six: Using a range of semiotic resources to mediate knowledge and support learning

6.1 Introduction
6.2 Uncovering the covers
6.2.1 The covers of *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*
6.2.2 The covers of *Language, Literacy and Communication*, *Umthamo 1*
6.2.3 The covers of *Learners and Learning*
6.2.4 Teacher and learner identities 'offered' in the cover designs
6.3 Access devices
6.3.1 Icons
6.3.1.1 Icons in the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo
6.3.1.2 Icons in *Learners and Learning*
6. 3.1.3 The absence of icons in *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*
6.3.2 Other margin texts
6. 3.2.1 Margin texts in *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*
6.3.2.2 Margin texts in *Learners and Learning*
6.3.2.3 Margin texts in *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*
6.4 Images on the page: drawings, photographs and diagrams
6.4.1 Photographs and drawings in Units 3 and 4 of *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*
6.4.2 Drawings and diagrams in *Learners and Learning*, Section Four
6.4.3 Possible contributions of images on the page to the mediation of knowledge(s) and to the constitution of reader subjectivity
6.5 Inscriptions on the page
6.6 Subject positions offered by the designers' selection and use of a range of semiotic resources

6.1 Introduction

> If we look at the pages (or screens) of instructional text we can see that, unlike a novel, instructional text is complex. Instructional text usually contains a wide variety of components in addition to the text – such as listed information, numbered items, headings and sub-headings, diagrammatic presentations, tables, explanatory notes and pictorial features of many kinds. Typographically speaking, instructional materials are far more complex than novels. (Hartley, 1994, p. 17)

Van Leeuwen (2005) defines semiotic resources as "the actions and artifacts we use to communicate, whether they are produced physiologically – with our vocal apparatus;

with the muscles we use to create facial expressions and gestures, etc. – or by means of technologies – with pen, ink and paper; with computer hardware and software; with fabrics, scissors and sewing machines, etc" (2005, p. 3). In distance education materials, words and images are the key artefacts with which designers take action on the page or screen in order to communicate with students and to mediate the knowledges and skills selected for a particular course or module[49]. The words, images, fonts, icons and other signposting devices that are selected by designers, and their composition on the page or screen, mediate knowledge in particular ways. They "shape the meanings conveyed" (Janks, 2010, p. 4) and contribute to the constitution of readers as particular 'types' of students. In the case of the materials being analysed, the designers' selection and use of semiotic resources also contribute to the constitution of the readers as particular 'types' of teachers.

This chapter begins with a detailed analysis of the covers of the combined Learning Guide and Reader for *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT),* the covers of *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 1* and the covers of the Learning Guide for *Learners and Learning*. In section 6.3, examples of the designers' selection and use of two types of access devices – icons and margin texts – are analysed. The analysis continues with a focus on images (photographs, line drawings and diagrams) in 6.4 and inscriptions on the page in 6.5.

6. 2 Uncovering the covers

The analysis of the front and back covers begins with an annotated presentation of a reduced-size, black and white version of each one[50] (Figures 6.1 to 6.6). The designers have chosen "a range of representational modes" (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p. 41) to introduce these course books to readers. In the analysis I draw on:

(i) systemic functional grammar (Halliday, 1978, 1985);
(ii) social theories of discourse (Bernstein, 1996; Gee, 1996, 1999, 2001);

[49] Some online materials include videoclips in which, for example, voice, music and gesture contribute to communication.
[50] I acknowledge the work of Alder (2004) as the model for this form of presentation.

(iii) features of a grammar of visual design (Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996, 2006).

Elements of systemic functional grammar were outlined briefly in 5.2 and social theories of discourse in 2.2. Before turning to the covers, I draw on the pioneering work of Kress and van Leeuwen (1996, 2006) to outline elements of their "grammar of visual design" that are used in this study to analyse images and the composition of words and images on the page. These authors argue that "[I]f we are to understand the way in which vital text-producing institutions like the media, education and children's literature make sense of the world and participate in the development of new forms of social stratification, a theory of language is no longer sufficient and must be complemented by theories which can make principles of the new visual literacy explicit" (2006, p. 179).

In their grammar of visual design (1996, 2006), spatial composition is an overarching code "whose rules and meanings provide the multimodal text with the logic of its integration" (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p. 177). They discuss composition in terms of three interrelated systems: information value, salience and framing.

The placement of elements in a composition endows them with specific *information value.* Kress and van Leeuwen hypothesize that 'meanings' attach to the vertical and horizontal structuring of a page (as summarized in Table 6.1) or to a central / peripheral structuring and note that such structures are ideological in that they might not correspond to what is the case for either the producer or the consumer of the image:

> The important point is that the information is presented as though it had that status or value for the reader, and that readers have to read it within that structure, even if that valuation may then be rejected by a particular reader. (2006, p. 181)

Table 6.1 The information structure of a vertical / horizontal page

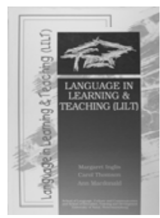
Top left the ideal highly valued given information medium salience	**Top right** the ideal highly valued new information high salience
Bottom left the real less valued given information low salience	**Bottom right** the real less valued new information medium salience

(based on Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2006, pp. 179-193)

Kress and van Leeuwen argue that "viewers of spatial compositions are intuitively able to judge the 'weight' of the various elements of a composition, and the greater the weight of an element, the greater its salience" (2006, p. 202). *Salience*, or prominence, is the result of a complex interaction of such elements as size, sharpness of focus, colour contrast, placement in the foreground or background and "culture specific factors such as the appearance of a human figure or a potent cultural symbol" (2006, p. 202). The elements in the composition "are made to attract the viewer's attention in different degrees" (2006, p. 177). A spatial composition sets up a reading path for a hypothetical reader / viewer which begins with the most salient elements of the composition. However, this does not mean that all readers will follow this path. As Kress and van Leeuwen observe, in many contemporary texts the image may be most salient but a reader oriented to "older literacy" may first pay attention to the verbal text. *Framing* refers to the ways in which elements in a spatial composition are marked off from or connected to each other by features such as frame lines, white space between elements or changes of colour (2006, p. 204).

Both the spatial composition of a book cover and the designers' image choices are likely to influence how this cover is read. Kress and van Leeuwen suggest that visual communication has several resources for constituting and maintaining the interaction between the producer and the viewer of an image. They describe three systems of interactive meaning: contact, social distance and attitude. The system of *contact* is used to understand the ways in which an image acts on a viewer either by demanding a response or by offering information. The system of *distance* is used to understand the imaginary relation between represented participants and the viewer and can be considered along a continuum from close up (intimate or personal social distance), to arms' length (social distance) to the public distance of strangers (impersonal distance). Macken-Horarik (2004) describes two systems within the system of *attitude* outlined by Kress and van Leeuwen. In an image there is "a horizontal dimension, which creates viewer involvement (through frontality) or detachment (through obliqueness), and a vertical dimension, which creates a relation of power between viewer and represented participants (hierarchical or solidary)" (Macken-Horarik, 2004 p. 12). The three (contact, distance and attitude) are simultaneous systems: "any image must either be a 'demand' or an 'offer' *and* select a certain size of frame *and* select a certain attitude" (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2006, pp. 148-149).

The covers of the materials analysed in this chapter fulfil both similar and different ideational functions (functions of representing the world around and inside us) and similar and different interpersonal functions, through the projection of particular social relations between the designers, the reader/viewer and the object represented (the course book) (Halliday, 1985; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006).



6.2.1 The covers of *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*

As explained in Chapter One**,** *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* is an example of 'in-house' teaching material which was subsequently published commercially and

marketed throughout the country. As a result of its transformation into a commodity, its back cover includes a blurb which markets the text to a national readership. The annotated covers are presented on the next two pages (Figures 6.1 and 6.2).

Figure 6.1 Front Cover: *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*

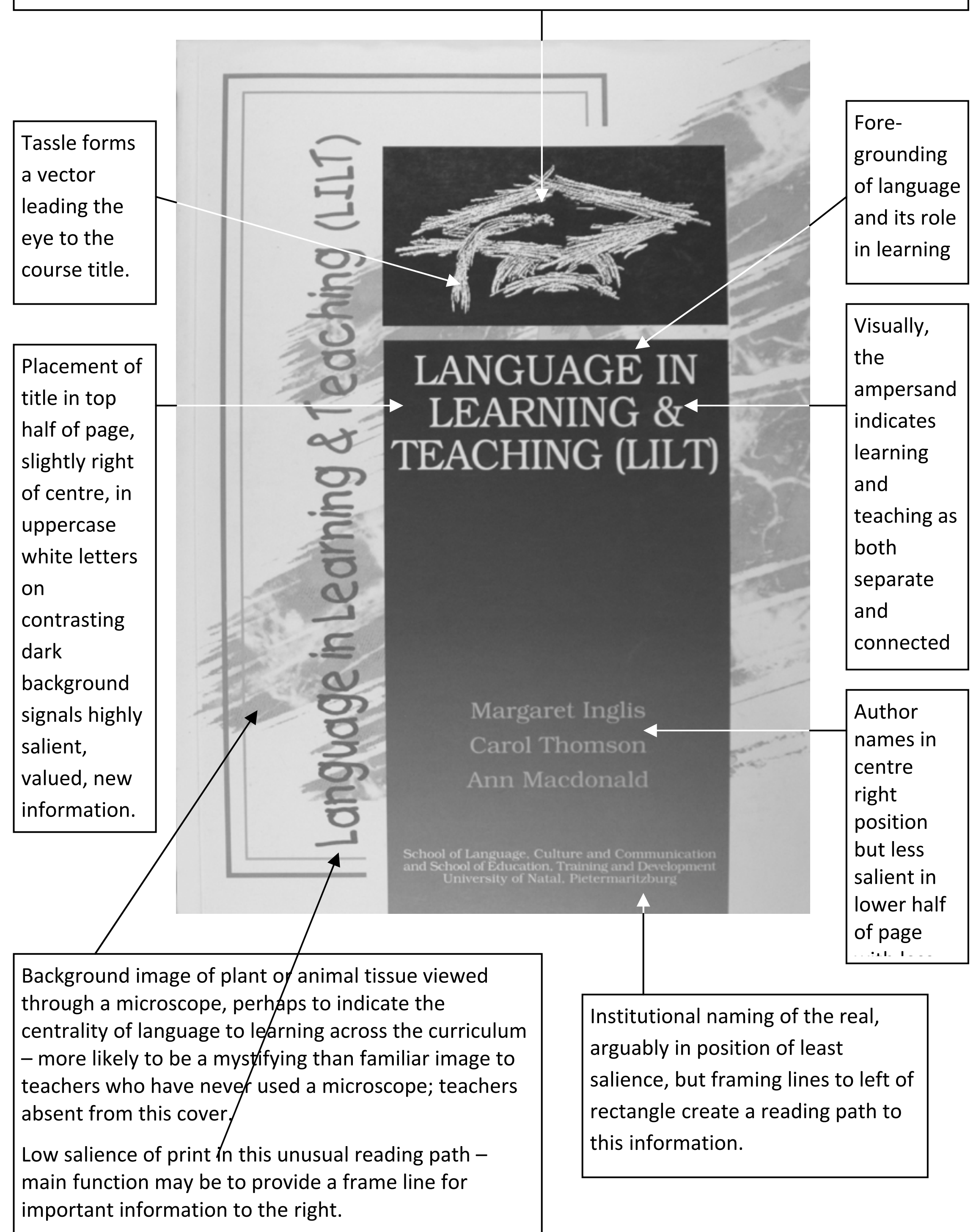
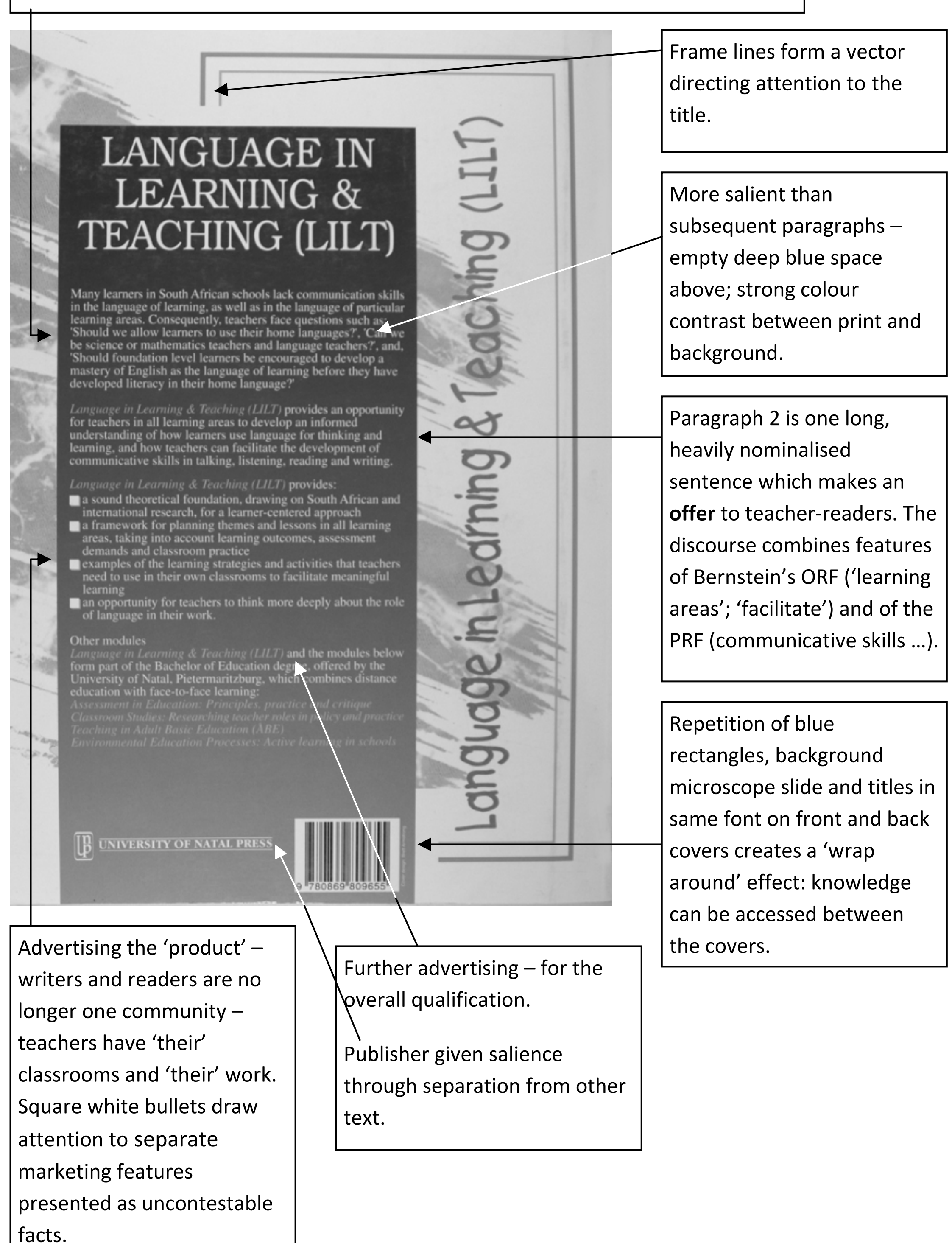


Figure 6.2 Back Cover: *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*

Regulative pedagogic discourse is dominant in paragraph 1: three high modality statements with which readers are expected to agree. Questions use inclusive pronoun ‘we’ to suggest common concerns of writers and readers about ‘they’ – the learners, who are constructed as ‘deficient in English’. Questions demand answers.



Several of the design features on the thick, glossy card covers of *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* are characteristic of a generic textbook for teacher education. On the front cover, the most salient feature is the drawing of a mortar board. The choice and positioning of this symbol of academic success suggests that the designers have imagined teacher-learners as women and men for whom investment in post-graduate studies is motivated by the award of a degree[51]. The stylized mortar board is identifiable but disembodied – not linked to a male or female, young or old, 'black' or 'white' figure. It leads the eye from the symbol of success to the key word 'Language' in the module title: to earn this reward teacher-learners must focus on language. While the word 'Teaching' appears as the final word in the title, there is no visual representation of teachers on this front cover: it is the teacher's institutional identity (Gee, 2001) as a member of an academic community that is foregrounded.

The discourse of the back cover blurb contrasts starkly with the front cover image. For the most part it is addressed to another of the reader's institutional identities, that of teacher. In the most salient paragraph, a series of questions demands a response, from readers as teachers, to some of the current debates in the field of language and learning: "Should we allow learners to use their home languages? Can we be science or mathematics teachers and language teachers? Should foundation level learners be encouraged to develop a mastery of English as the language of learning before they have developed literacy in their home language?"

The regulative pedagogic discourse (Bernstein, 1996) in the first sentence of this paragraph constitutes "learners in South African schools" as deficient: they "lack" both communication skills and the specialist discourses of "particular learning areas". Though the designers constitute teacher-learners as responsible for addressing these deficiencies, it could be argued that the next paragraph also constitutes them in deficit terms. In order to assist learners in their classes they need to "develop an informed understanding of how learners use language for thinking and learning" and of how

[51] Findings from a case study of teacher-learners' responses to this module indicate that they value both the social status and the economic benefit of the B Ed Honours degree (Thomson, 2001).

they “can facilitate the development of communicative skills”. Even though the teachers registered for this module already have academic and professional qualifications (that is, they are teacher-learners rather than learner-teachers), the designers have not used words such as ‘extend’ or ‘further develop’.

It could be argued that the deficit discourse continues in the third paragraph in which teachers are imagined as needing a “foundation” for their work, as teachers who “need to use” the examples of learning strategies and activities “provided” and who should “think more deeply” than they have been doing about the role of language in their work. However, this classification of teachers may be accepted by many of them because it is embedded in the pedagogic discourse (Bernstein, 1996) of outcomes-based education which is part of the post-apartheid project of “reinventing” the nation (Janks, 2000, p. 175) to which the majority of South Africans subscribe. Examples of this pedagogic discourse on the back cover of *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* are “learning areas” (which have replaced school subjects for Grades R to 9), “learner-centered approach”, “learning outcomes” and “facilitate”. Teachers who are eager to reject the apartheid past in education and to embrace what education policy and curriculum documents construct as new, may respond positively to this constitution of themselves both as ‘beginners’ who will be assisted to become competent and as people with important responsibilities.

6.2.2 The covers of *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 1*

While *Umthamo 2, A Whole Language Approach* was selected for analysis in this study because it makes extensive references to reading, I chose to analyse the cover design of *Umthamo 1, Communication* because this is the first booklet that teachers encounter in their studies. These 36 or 48 page booklets, the covers of which are printed on thin card with a matt surface, have the appearance of workbooks for a

particular teacher education project[52] rather than generic textbooks. The multiple colour photographs of Eastern Cape teachers, learners, classrooms, school and community buildings on the front cover of each umthamo, and also on the back cover of most of them, are of people and locations likely to be familiar to at least some of the readers. On the back covers these photographs are frequently combined with quotations from a range of academic texts. All of the booklets have been commercially printed by a local printing firm (L Harry and Sons).

The annotated covers are presented on the next two pages (Figures 6.3 and 6.4).

[52] It is named on the front cover as the University of Fort Hare Distance Education Project.

Figure 6.3 Front Cover: *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 1*

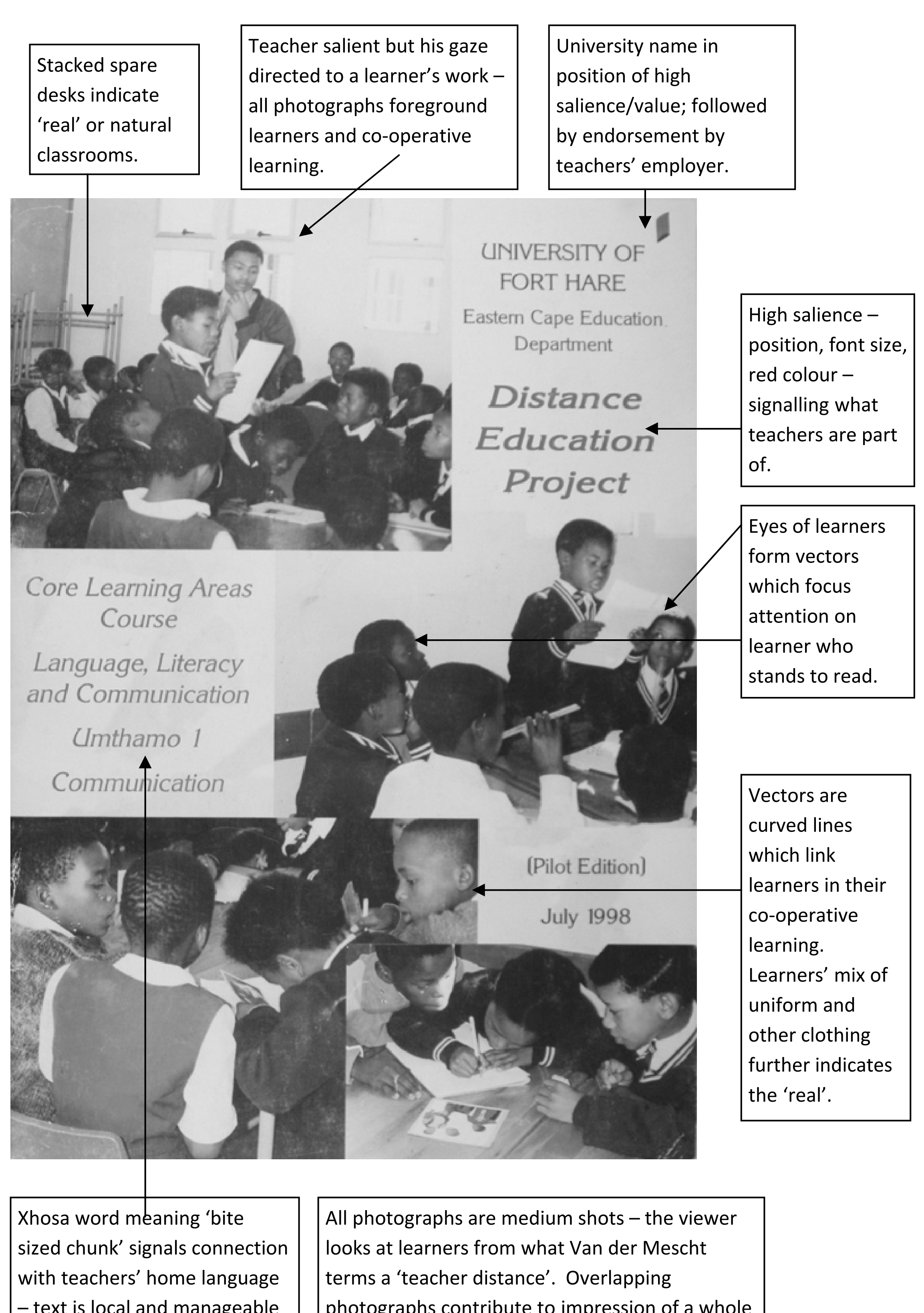
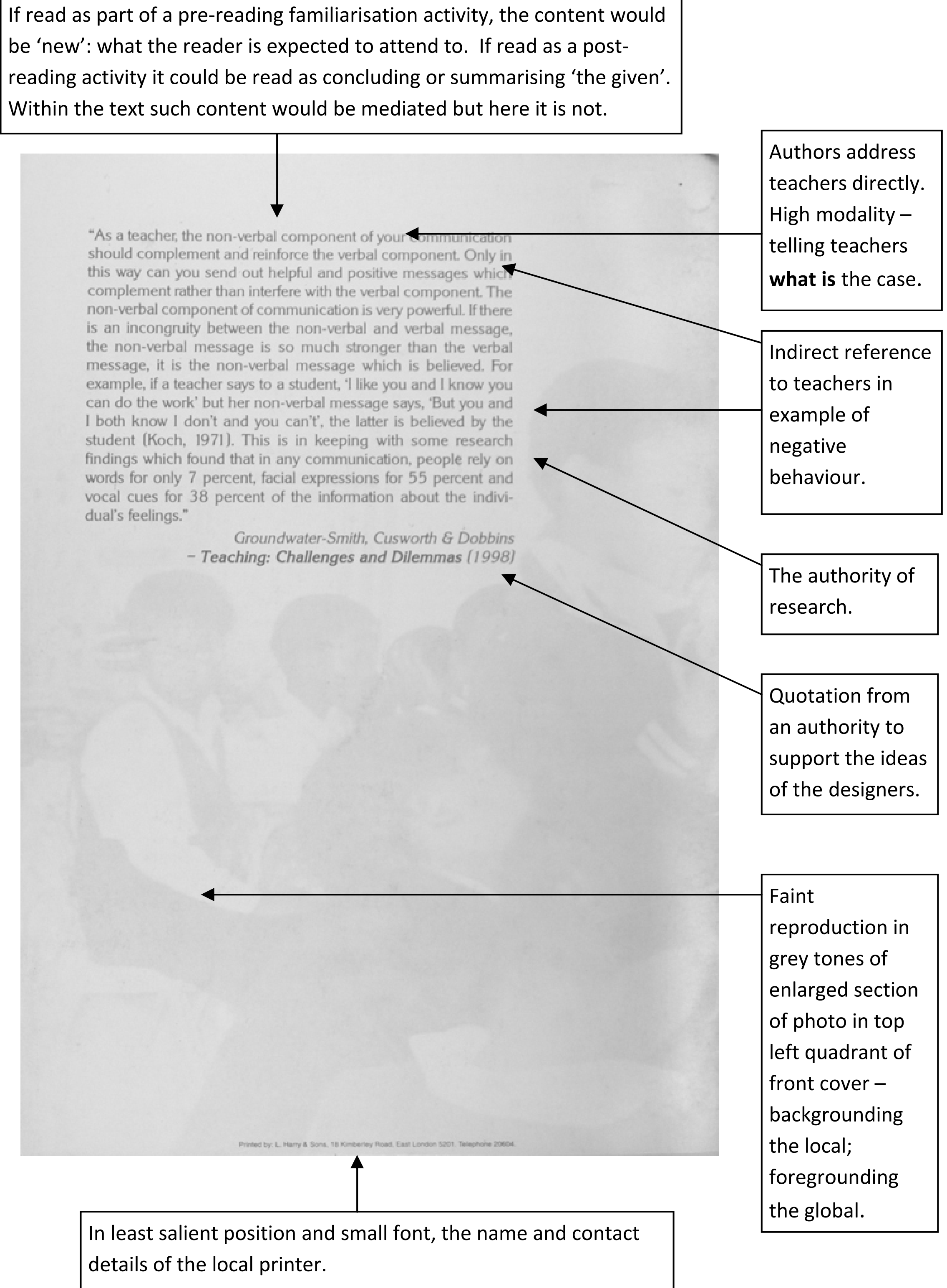


Figure 6.4 Back Cover: *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 1*



In contrast to the generic covers of *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*, the front cover of *Umthamo 1, Communication* situates the first module in the local and familiar. Its isiXhosa title offers reassurance that the text is manageable ('chewable') and classroom teaching and learning are foregrounded in photographs of classrooms which teachers are likely to recognise. The 'likeness' to the classrooms in which they work lends 'authenticity' to the text (Adams, 2008). One finding from research on the impact of the University of Fort Hare B Primary Education programme on teachers' perceptions of their practice, is that its focus on "context and culture … is seen as significant by all teacher-learners in challenging and motivating different ways of thinking about their teaching, learning and their practice" (Devereux & Amos, 2005, p. 277). The names of the local institution responsible for the programme and of the provincial department which supports and endorses it are placed in a highly salient position, giving institutional authority to the materials. In contrast to the other cover designs, members of the design team are not named[53].

Kress and van Leeuwen hypothesize that an image positioned in the top left quadrant of a page offers ideal, highly valued, given information. In the photograph in this position on the front cover of *Umthamo 1,* the viewer's gaze is drawn first to the teacher, standing in the centre of the frame and then to the learner presenting her work to the class, at whom the teacher and most other learners are gazing. It could be argued that the designers have chosen to represent as ideal and valued, but not entirely new to teachers, a classroom scene in which the teacher plays the role of facilitator in a learner and learning-centred class[54]. In each of the other three overlapping photographs the learners' gaze is on one another, or on the work in which they are engaged collectively. As pointed out by van der Mescht (2004), the reader views the learners from a teacher's distance.

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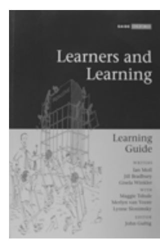
[53] Their names appear on the inside cover together with acknowledgements to all who have assisted in the design of the booklet.

[54] The choice of a male teacher to 'represent' the profession (a choice also made for the front cover of *Learners and Learning*) is curious given that the majority of primary school teachers are female.

On this cover the strong colours in the photographs and the space they occupy on the page give much greater prominence to the visual than the verbal elements in the design. Read together, the four images constitute teachers as classroom-based and receptive to two of the dominant themes in the new (in 1999) education policy and curriculum documents: (i) learner-centred classrooms; (ii) the teacher as facilitator of learning. This design choice is interesting in view of the argument developed by Jansen (2003) that the image of teachers as facilitators presented in policy documents has led

> … ironically, to the systematic disempowerment of teachers working under conditions where familiar 'props' were dismantled at the very time that new professional demands were being made of teachers in the classroom. (Jansen, 2003, p. 22)

In *Umthamo 1* there is one element of continuity between the front and back covers: a detail from the photograph positioned in the top left quadrant on the front cover has been enlarged and printed faintly as background to the print. However, on the back cover the local and familiar are backgrounded and the global is foregrounded in the form of a quotation from the work of international teacher education experts who appeal to the authority of research findings in support of their directives to teachers. The regulative discourse which, according to Bernstein (1996) is dominant in pedagogic discourse, constitutes particular subject positions for teachers to take up: teachers are expected to recognise the importance of their non-verbal communication and act responsibly in this regard. The quotation sums up much of the content of the module and constitutes teacher-learners as part of an international professional community which holds a particular view on non-verbal communication.



6.2.3 The covers of *Learners and Learning*

As explained in Chapter One, *Learners and Learning* is one module in a series prepared for the South African Institute of Distance Education's *Study of Education* project.

SAIDE offers support to all providers of distance education in South Africa and increasingly to providers in other African countries and other parts of the world. In contrast to the texts which have originated in particular universities, the modules in this series have been designed as source materials for formal and informal, pre-service and in-service teacher education at a range of levels.

The annotated covers are presented on the next two pages (Figures 6.5 and 6.6).

Figure 6.5 Front Cover: *Learners and Learning*

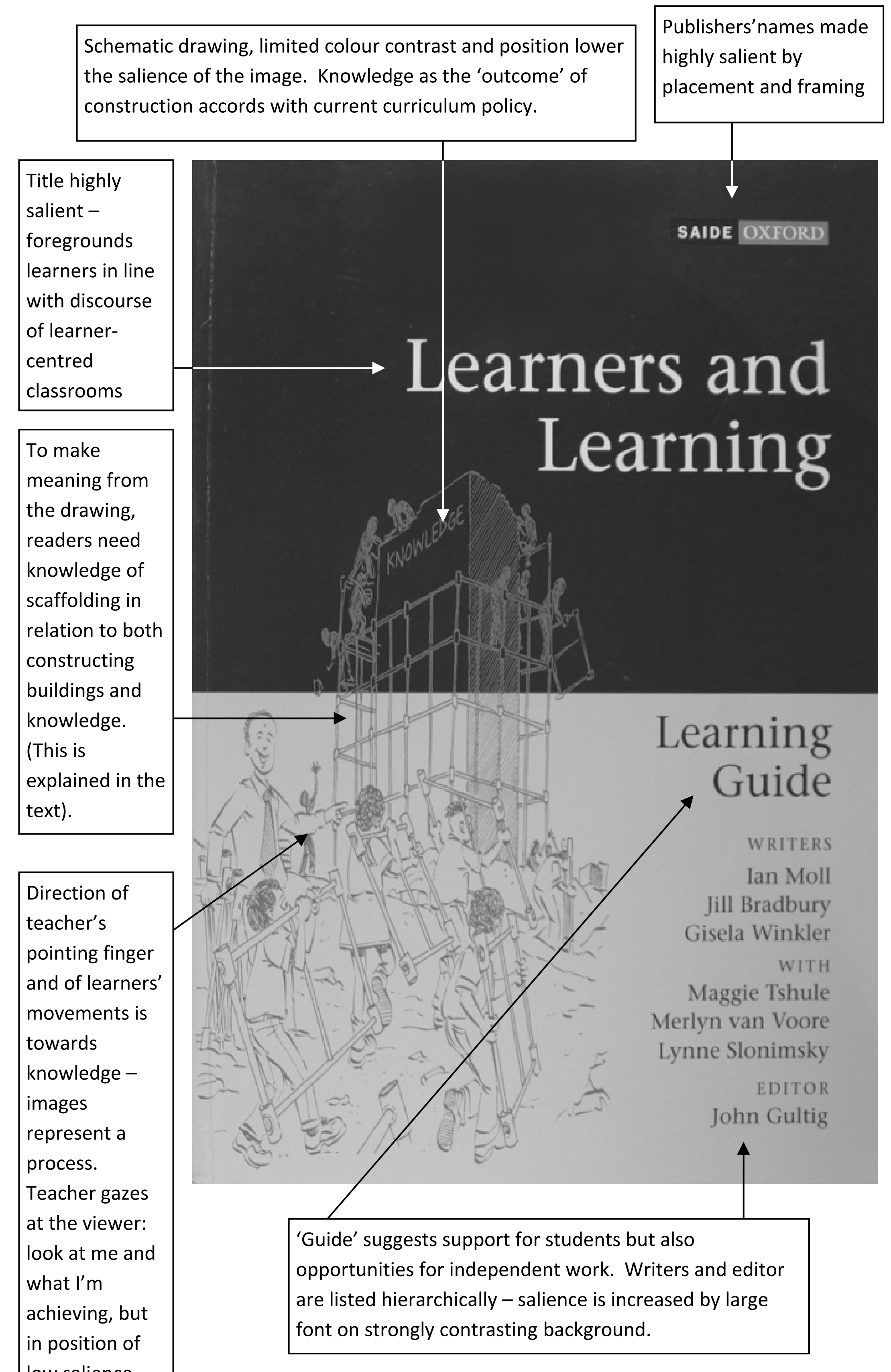


Figure 6.6 Back Cover: *Learners and Learning*

High modality in questions: answers demanded from teachers/the text. Teachers constructed as active learners with an interest in learning theories and in classroom practice that is grounded in case studies.

'Selling' the text – adjectives 'definitive', 'essential' 'creative' express attitude; teachers positioned as required to read a previous module in the series.

SAIDE OXFORD

Learning Guide

How do learners move from the known to the unknown? What is the significance of school learning? What is the role of the teacher in producing and improving learning? *Learners and Learning* is the fourth module in the Study of Education series, and it aims to enable teachers to analyse learning and reflect on what they can do to improve it. It draws on the learning theories of various writers, including Piaget and Vygotsky, and grounds these in examples, practical exercises, and case studies drawn from schools. This module includes an interactive Learning Guide, a Reader, and an audiotape.

What users said about Module 1: *Understanding Outcomes-based Education*

'The definitive work on OBE in South Africa ... has attracted considerable interest from other countries implementing OBE ... this is essential reading for any educator who wants to understand OBE' *The Educator's Voice*

'An example of creative education ... the layout excited me ... the reader's opinion is invited ... easy conversational style ... this package is comprehensive, relevant and accessible' *The Teacher*

Endorsements from the teaching profession's newspapers.

Teachers positioned as needing easy style.

The Study of Education series is a project of the South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE). Aimed at formal and informal teacher education, this series presents valuable open-learning materials for use in distance education or in face-to-face teaching. Intended for use in colleges of education at diploma level, these modules may also be used with additional readings in higher or post-graduate diploma courses.

'This text is a unique contribution to the field ... it is an exemplar of the activity-based, learner-centred approach of outcomes-based education' Duncan Hindle, Chief Director: Human Resources – Department of Education

'Marvellous ... this is just what we need' André le Roux, Director of Teacher Education

High modality in authoritative endorsements from senior Education Department bureaucrats.

Also available in this series

Using Media in Teaching

Getting Practical: Learner-Centred and Outcomes-Based Teaching

Advertisement for other texts in the series.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS

www.oup.com

ISBN 0 19 578066 3

9 780195 780666

Southern Africa

Advertising to teacher education institutions foregrounds the versatility of the texts.

A commercial publisher strongly linked to a prestigious academic institution made salient by font size, colour contrasts & empty space around the name.

On the thick, glossy card front cover, words are the most salient feature: course title, publishers, writers and editor. On the back cover, the endorsements of a previous module in the same series, made by two newspapers published for teachers, are made highly salient by their position on the page and by the use of white lettering on dark purple background. The back cover markets the *Study of Education* series as a whole, a previous generic module and the current module, to two broad-based constituencies: (i) individual teachers and (ii) institutions that offer teacher education programmes at several levels.

On the front cover, the choice of title, its placement on the page and the representation of active learners with their teacher in the physical space of a facilitator, constitute readers as learner-teachers or teacher-learners who acknowledge that the learner rather than the teacher is 'centre stage' in the new outcomes-based curriculum for South African schools. In this respect it is very similar to the front cover of *Umthamo 1, Communication*. However, the choice of a generic line drawing rather than photographic images of identifiable learners and their teacher in a particular context, suggests that the designers have imagined a readership of teachers who are or will be working in a range of contexts – a text for national, or even international, rather than local use. Several vectors in the image (the pointing arm of the teacher and of one of the learners, and the movement of the learners who carry scaffolding) direct the gaze of the reader to 'the outcome': knowledge under construction. It seems that the designers have imagined readers who are familiar with the concept of scaffolding[55] – in relation to both the construction of buildings and the construction of knowledge.

Throughout the *Study of Education* series the term *Learning Guide* is used to distinguish the core study material from an accompanying *Reader*. The choice of the noun "guide" and the adjective "interactive" to describe it on the back cover blurb also offers readers the possibility of responding to the text in a variety of individual ways.

[55] The designers explain the concept in Section Three of the module.

On the back cover of *Learners and Learning* the designers use mental and material process verbs (Halliday, 1985) to describe what they hope the module will achieve. They focus on 'action': the module aims to enable teachers to "*analyse* learning and to *reflect* on what they can *do* to *improve* it" (italics added for emphasis).

While the back cover is similar to *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* in making demands on readers in the form of questions to be answered, the nature of the questions differs. The designers of *Learners and Learning* have selected questions oriented to what might be termed 'academic enquiry': "How do learners move from the known to the unknown? What is the significance of school learning? What is the role of the teacher in producing and improving learning?" The statement that the module "draws on the learning theories of various writers, including Piaget and Vygotsky, and grounds these in examples, practical exercises, and case studies drawn from schools" suggests that the designers imagine readers (both teacher educators and students) who are interested in praxis. By constructing the latter part of the advertisement for the module to appeal to teacher-educators as well as students (learner-teachers and teacher-learners) the designers draw attention to the academic community of practice into which students are to be initiated.

6.2.4 Teacher and learner identities 'offered' in the cover designs

What is foregrounded, backgrounded or absent in the cover designs offers readers particular identities as teachers in the classroom and as students in the academy. Table 6.2 summarises the analysis developed in section 6.2.3.

Table 6.2 Identities foregrounded, backgrounded or absent in three sets of cover designs

Front cover	Back cover
Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT): Foregrounds academic success (mortar board in highly salient position) and foregrounds the role of language in learning; teachers are absent, though teaching is the final word in the title; writers and university are named.	Advertises the module and others in the programme; focuses on in-service teachers with professional responsibilities but constructs them predominantly in deficit terms as needing to learn – as these constructions are located in current policy discourses they may be acceptable to teachers; the academy is backgrounded, though there are some references to research and to theory
Umthamo 1, Communication: Foregrounds learner-centred learning in familiar local contexts; teacher present in one image; the university and the provincial education department are placed in the position of the highly salient and highly valued; the writers are not named.	Quotation from an academic authority positions teachers to respond to main ideas in the course book in a particular way; no direct reference to the academy.
Learners and Learning: Foregrounds the module title and the co-publishers; learner-centred knowledge construction is present in an image of medium to low salience; a 'generic' male teacher is a marginal presence; writers and editor named.	Advertises the module and others in the programme – praise from teacher newspapers in position of high salience; situates modules within current education policy; constructs teachers as playing active, important roles in classroom learning; refers to key academic theorists and to theorized practice.

In writing about policy images and teacher identity in South African classrooms, Jansen refers to a point made by curriculum theorist Buenfil-Burgos: "while policies might not change what happens inside classrooms, they nevertheless 'leave a trace in practice'" (Jansen, 2003, p. 128). The same could be said of course books designed for pre-service and in-service teacher education. I suggest that readers' 'judgements' of the covers may influence their subsequent 'investment' (Norton, 2000; Kanno and Norton, 2003) in the content between these covers – for both academic study and classroom teaching purposes.

The focus of analysis in the following sections is the designers' use of a number of semiotic resources to mediate knowledge between the covers.

6.3 Access devices

Guides to designing distance education materials advise that materials need to be accessible to learners in order to encourage interest in and commitment to learning. Rowntree (1994) groups access devices into three categories for insertion in what he terms "the beginning, during and end of materials". He lists the following:

Beginning: explanatory title, contents list, route map of package or unit, introduction / overview, links with other materials, objectives, guidance on how to use the material, pre-test

During: headings, numbering systems, instructions about what to do next, verbal signposts, graphic signals, summaries

End: glossary, post-test, index (Rowntree, 1994, p. 124).

In a separate list, Rowntree gives these examples of graphic signals:

- **"White space"**. Open learning materials are often less densely printed than normal texts. Fewer words per page. Perhaps large boxes left for learners to write in.
- **"Reader stoppers"** – e.g. rules of type across the page, meant to remind learners to pause and do an activity.
- **Bulleted lists**. Often better than solid text for showing that a number of points are related. "Bullets" or other devices (-) make them stand out more clearly.
- **Tints and boxes**. Certain kinds of material – e.g. quotations or case studies – may regularly be boxed or tinted so that learners recognize that these need a special kind of attention.
- **Icons**. Graphic signals used in the margins to tell learners what sort of material they are about to deal with (adapted from Rowntree, 1994, p. 125).

The designers of the materials analysed in this study use most of these devices, but in different ways. To illustrate some of these differences in design and their possible influence on readers' subjectivities, I have chosen to focus on icons and other margin texts as these are two of the access devices most widely used in distance education materials (as well as in many school and some university textbooks).

6.3.1 Icons

Dictionaries list the Greek word *eikenai,* which means 'to resemble' or 'to be like', as the origin of the English word *icon*. Thus an icon could be described as a sign whose signifier bears a close resemblance or similarity to the object to which it refers. However, semioticians and others argue that similarity is "a complicated, problematic and controversial concept… primarily because anything can be considered similar to something else when seen from a certain perspective" (Johansen and Larsen, 2002, p. 36). Van Leeuwen suggests that in an icon there is a relation of "partial resemblance" between signifier and signified: "the signifier *looks* in some respect or to some degree like the signified, in the way that a picture of a tree looks like a tree and the steepness of the slope of a graph resembles the rate of growth of some phenomenon, although not, of course, the phenomenon itself" (2005, p. 49, italics in original). In South African school textbooks or distance education materials in which designers have used icons, these usually signify that a particular form of action is required of learners or, as suggested by Rowntree (1994), that they are about to engage with a particular type of material.

6.3.1.1 Icons in the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo

The designers of the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo chose to use the 11 icons reproduced in Figure 6.7. Nine of the eleven are displayed at the end of

the general introduction to the B Ed programme in *Umthamo 1,* with the icons for 'Key activity' and 'Making materials' being added in *Umthamo 2*.

Figure 6.7 Icons used in the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo

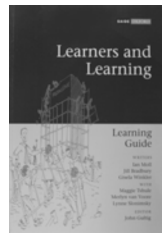
In *Umthamo 1* the designers explain the purpose of the icons in the paragraphs reproduced in Textbox 6.1.

Textbox 6.1 Explanation of the purpose of the icons in the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo

> **Icons**
>
> As you work through each umthamo, we have signalled more or less how long each activity should take you to complete. We have done this by putting a small picture, or icon, of a digital clock in the left-hand margin, showing a certain amount of time. For example, when you are asked to write in your **journal**, you may see a digital clock showing 00.10. That means that we want you to write in your **journal** for not more than ten minutes.
>
> We have also included icons to indicate whether you will carry out a particular activity with a partner in your face-to-face group, or in your classroom. And there are icons to show when you are to work in your **journal**, and when you should store work in your concertina file. (University of Fort Hare*, Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 1,* 1998, p. 8, bold type in the original)

Analysis of these two paragraphs suggests that the icons perform a regulatory function: the designers use them to prescribe to teacher-learners both the actions they 'will' or 'should' take and the time they are expected to spend on these actions (e.g. 'not more than ten minutes'). The use in most icons of the first letter of the key word associated with the icon is reminiscent of children's alphabet books. It contributes to the constitution of teacher-learners as novices who are not yet self-regulated (Foucault, 1994a) and who need to be initiated by the designers into appropriate ways of behaving as students. While all teacher-learners enrolled for the University of Fort Hare's B Primary Education degree have participated in some form of pre-service teacher education programme, for the majority of teachers these programmes were of limited duration, were based on a narrowly prescriptive curriculum and were offered by minimally resourced colleges of education. (See Chapter One). It could be argued

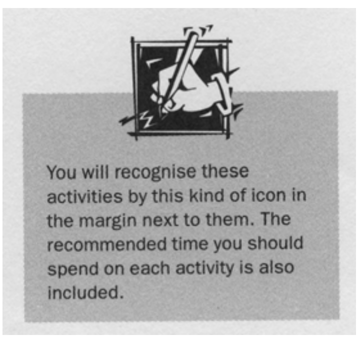
that while some of them have extensive classroom experience they are indeed novice university students.

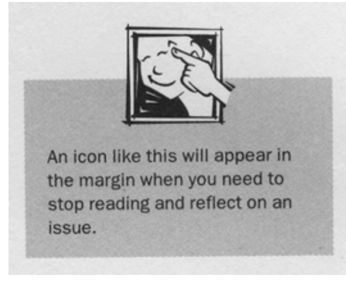


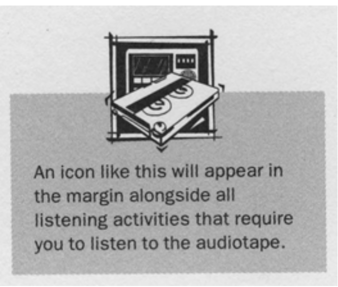
6.3.1.2 Icons in *Learners and Learning*

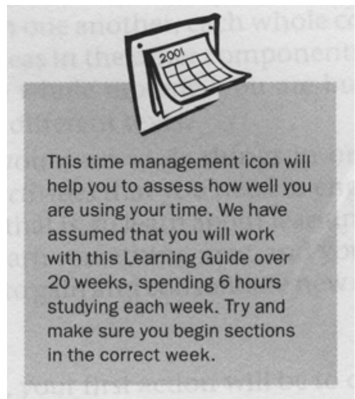
In the introduction to *Learners and Learning* the explanation of the four icons used in the Learning Guide also constitutes the teacher-learners as novice students.

Figure 6.8 Icons used in *Learners and Learning*









The designers mix regulatory language (e.g. “Follow the instructions carefully …”; “Don’t skip this step…”; “Work through this Guide slowly and thoughtfully.”) with information about what they term “the learning process” and explanation of their mediating strategies. Each of these (regulation, information and explanation) is evident in the paragraphs reproduced in Textbox 6.2, which introduce the icon for ‘Thinking activities’:

Textbox 6.2 Introducing the icon for 'Thinking activities' in *Learners and Learning*

> **Thinking activities**
>
> At various points in the Learning Guide, we ask you to *pause* and take some time to reflect on a particular issue. These thought pauses are designed to help you consolidate your understanding of a specific point before tackling the next section of the Guide. They deliberately try and slow you down!
>
> One of the habits many of us develop through our involvement in a rote recall kind of learning is that we rush through things. Once we have read something, we believe we know it. This isn't true. While we may now recognize the idea, we probably don't really understand it in any detail. Work through this Guide slowly and carefully. Reread and rethink. This is how we develop a depth of understanding and become able to use the ideas we learn. (Gultig, 2001, p. 6, italics in the original)

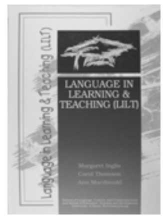
The decision to include both a 'thinking icon' and this explanation suggests that the designers have imagined their readers as rote learners and unreflective readers[56]. They want them to 'unlearn' or reject this approach to studying. The choice of the inclusive pronoun 'we' may have been designed to 'soften' the directive to learn in new ways.

The four icons reproduced in Figure 6.8 and the way in which they are introduced suggest that the designers of *Learners and Learning* have imagined their readers somewhat differently from the readers imagined by the designers of the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo. They assume that their readers will know the meaning of the word icon or be able to work out the meaning in its context of use. They draw attention to the mediating function of each icon by introducing them separately in the space in which they will subsequently be situated on a page (in white space in a page margin) and by writing a multiple paragraph explanation of the purpose of each one. All four relate to readers' identities as students: there is no

[56] These paragraphs were discussed in 5.3.1.1.

reference to classroom activities, as is the case for two of the icons in the University of Fort Hare materials.

In the brief description attached to each icon, what is similar to the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo, is the regulatory nature of the language. Readers need to stop reading and start reflecting. They are required to listen to audiotapes. They are expected to begin new sections of the material "in the correct week". The designers' attempt to respond to the challenge of addressing both novice and experienced students and novice and experienced teachers may explain the mix of regulation, information and explanation in the introduction to the activities for which the icons are signifiers.

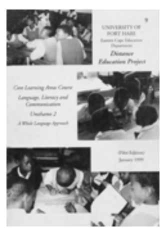


6.3.1.3 The absence of icons in *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*

In *Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)* there are no icons. It is possible that this design choice recognizes that the teacher-learners who use the *Learning Guide* and *Reader* are not novice students. The key role of activities in mediating knowledge in a distance education programme is acknowledged by the designers, but in the *LILT* material each activity is signalled in the same way: it is marked off from surrounding text with a "reader stopper" (Rowntree, 1994, p. 124), in the form of a solid grey line, and it is numbered. The time that teacher-learners should spend on the activity is 'suggested'. It is possible that the designers of the *LILT* module have imagined experienced students as already 'self-regulated' in the ways described by Foucault (1994a) in writing about technologies of the self.

6.3.2 Other margin texts

In addition to displaying icons in the page margins, the designers of *Language and Learning* use these margins for a range of mediational purposes which are analysed in this section.



6.3.2.1 Margin texts in *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*

With the exception of three phrase glosses on page 39, all of the margin texts in *Umthamo 2* are addressed to readers as teachers and are very similar in form. Analysis of the 13 examples of margin notes in this umthamo suggests that the designers' main purpose is to guide or to prescribe the actions that teachers should take in their classrooms. Two examples are reproduced below in Textboxes 6.3 and 6.4.

Textbox 6.3 A margin note next to instructions for an information-sharing activity (*Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2)*

> You will probably have to allow about ten minutes for this activity. You will have to read your learners' body language to judge when they are ready. If one or two groups don't seem to be talking very much, go to those groups and make sure that they are clear about what it is that you want them to do (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2,* 1999, p. 27).

Textbox 6.4 A margin note next to instructions for a story development activity (*Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2)*

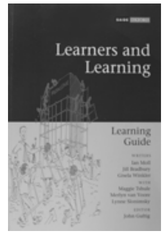
> You should just be the secretary. Don't try to impose or push your ideas onto your learners' story. Remember, you are developing a learner-centred way of working (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, 1999, p. 35).

Both examples position teachers to respond to a series of directives ("You will have to…"; "go"; "make sure"; "don't try to impose…"; "Remember…") and to be facilitators of learning who are in the wings, rather than centre stage. The longest of the margin notes in *Umthamo 2*, reproduced in Textbox 6.5*,* offers readers some options for working with stories.

Textbox 6.5 A margin note next to instructions for sharing with learners the beginning of a story (*Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2)*

> When some teachers tried this activity with their learners they did different things.
>
> Those who taught Grade 1 or 2, told the story beginning to their learners.
>
> Some teachers were able to make enough copies of the story-beginning (sic), so that their learners could work in pairs, and could share a copy.
>
> Another teacher wrote the story beginning on the chalkboard for her learners to read (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, 1999, p. 26).

The designers' claim that teachers have already used this activity in different ways is supported by a small photograph in the right hand margin of page 27 which shows a teacher reading aloud from a text (modelling "good reading") while learners follow the story in their own copy of the text. Teachers are positioned to accept the authenticity of these classroom strategies and are offered options from which to choose when they work with 'story beginnings' in their particular classroom context.



6.3.2.2 Margin texts in *Learners and Learning*

Analysis of the margin texts in Unit 4 'Text as a context for learning', suggests that the designers have used these for a range of purposes all of which mediate both the activity of reading and comprehension of the content of the unit. The designers focus on readers as students and on the extension of their academic literacy. The margin texts in Unit 4 consist of:

- eight quotations which repeat key ideas from the main text;
- three 'invitations' to take note and to reflect on connections between the content of this unit and the content of previous units;

- three ‘scaffolds’ to support the completion of reading-based activities;
- nine bibliographic references to published texts on which the designers have drawn;
- a biographical sketch of the author of one of these texts.

Each quotation is made highly salient by its placement in white space in the wide margin – usually in the centre of the page, by the choice of large font size and by the use of quotation marks. Collectively, these quotations sum up and reiterate the designers’ argument that reading is a complex activity and an integral part of “school learning” (the focus of the previous section in the Learning Guide), which requires hard work on the part of learners and teachers. Readers are positioned to accept the ‘truth’ of these quotations which apply to their own reading as students and to their role as teachers in assisting learners to become “active and independent readers” (Gultig, 2001, p. 113), although how they should play this role, at the level of the classroom lesson, is not spelled out.

In Unit 4 there are three margin text boxes in which the designers use grammatical metaphors[57]: questions which give disguised directives to readers, as in the example reproduced in Textbox 6.6

Textbox 6.6 Using a grammatical metaphor in a margin text to direct learning (*Learners and Learning)*

> Do you notice how similar the prerequisites for successful reading are to the prerequisites for successful learning? What does this tell you about the relationship between reading and learning? (Gultig, 2001, p. 121)

The designers position readers to accept the close connection between successful reading and successful learning and reiterate this connection in their second directive, reproduced in Textbox 6.7, which is placed in the margin next to Activity 38.

[57] Halliday explains grammatical metaphor as a variation in the use of words in which “the variation is essentially in the grammatical forms although often entailing some lexical variation as well” (1985, p. 320).

Textbox 6.7 Combining grammatical metaphor and polite request to direct learning (*Learners and Learning*)

> Do you remember the reading by Dillon? You may well have struggled with it. We'd like you to now reread it using the new knowledge you have learnt about reading actively. You will need about an hour for this activity. (Gultig, 2001, p. 134)

They constitute the readers of this module as students who are becoming more expert as readers through their engagement with the theories and practices discussed within it. To support this developing expertise and, by implication, their development as teachers of reading, the designers use margin boxes to offer scaffolding for some of the reading-based activities in the unit. For example, where an activity requires readers to identify a 'compare and contrast' text structure and to summarize the text, the margin box next to this activity offers the guidance reproduced in Textbox 6.8.

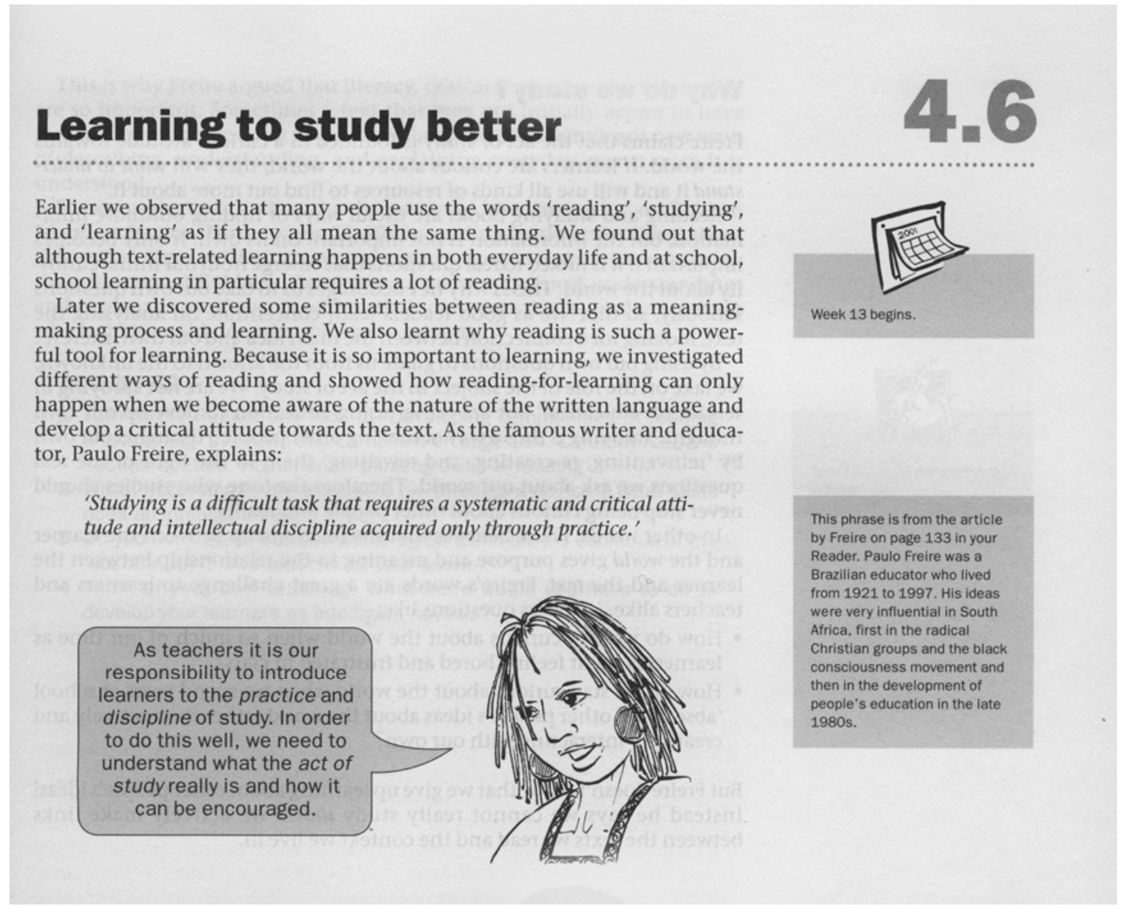
Textbox 6.8 Scaffolding a 'compare and contrast' activity *(Learners and Learning)*

> Here are words that signal a comparison or contrast. Use them to guide you:
>
> 1. on the other hand;
> 2. like, unlike;
> 3. however;
> 4. less than, least;
> 5. more than, most;
> 6. other;
> 7. differently, difference.
>
> (Gultig, 2001, p. 139)

The designers also use margin boxes to acknowledge authors on whose work they have drawn. It could be argued that these boxes demonstrate to readers (both teacher educators who might choose to use *Learners and Learning* in their programmes, and learner-teachers or teacher-learners who are students in such programmes), that the work of a number of key theorists and researchers in the field of literacy and learning has been consulted. As discussed in section 4.2.1, the description of Paolo Freire in the introduction to the section titled 'Learning to study better' (See Figure 6.9), the brief biographical sketch in the margin box which locates

his work in the struggle for political change in South Africa, and the statement made by a teacher 'talking head', work together to position readers to accept Freire's ideas as a guide to their actions as students and as teachers.

Figure 6.9 Learning to study better (*Learners and Learning*)



Learning to study better **4.6**

Earlier we observed that many people use the words 'reading', 'studying', and 'learning' as if they all mean the same thing. We found out that although text-related learning happens in both everyday life and at school, school learning in particular requires a lot of reading.

Later we discovered some similarities between reading as a meaning-making process and learning. We also learnt why reading is such a powerful tool for learning. Because it is so important to learning, we investigated different ways of reading and showed how reading-for-learning can only happen when we become aware of the nature of the written language and develop a critical attitude towards the text. As the famous writer and educator, Paulo Freire, explains:

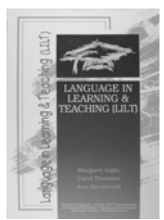
> *'Studying is a difficult task that requires a systematic and critical attitude and intellectual discipline acquired only through practice.'*

As teachers it is our responsibility to introduce learners to the *practice* and *discipline* of study. In order to do this well, we need to understand what the *act of study* really is and how it can be encouraged.

Week 13 begins.

This phrase is from the article by Freire on page 133 in your Reader. Paulo Freire was a Brazilian educator who lived from 1921 to 1997. His ideas were very influential in South Africa, first in the radical Christian groups and the black consciousness movement and then in the development of people's education in the late 1980s.

(Gultig, 2001, p. 141)



6.3.2.3 Margin texts in *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)*

The only texts placed in the margins of the *LILT* materials are very occasional word glosses in the *Learning Guide* (7 instances in 122 pages) and more frequent word

glosses in the *Reader* (38 instances in 88 pages). In the introduction to the *LILT* materials, reproduced in Textbox 6.9, the designers indicate that they have imagined English to be an additional language for many of their readers.

Textbox 6.9 The placement and purpose of word glosses (*Language in Learning and Teaching (LILT)*)

> You will see that some words in the Learning Guide and Reader are marked in bold and a definition is provided in the margin. These are words that might be new or unfamiliar to you in English. If there are other words whose meanings you are unsure of, please use a dictionary or ask your tutor. (Inglis et al., 2000, p. 6-7)

As with the absence of icons, the absence of margin texts suggests that readers are being constituted as quite experienced students and teachers. The explanation for the inclusion of word glosses may suggest that the designers have imagined their readers as having theoretical and practical knowledge which they can express in their home languages but perhaps not in English.

6. 4 Images on the page: drawings, photographs and diagrams

Bezemer and Kress (2009) argue that images are more difficult to count than words since they are not always discrete entities[58]. However, Table 6.3 attempts to record the number of images, other than access devices, that are used by the designers to mediate content in the units on 'Reading' in each set of materials. In this section, after commenting briefly on the table, I analyse examples of the photographs and drawings in *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2* and examples of the drawings and diagrams in *Learners and Learning*.

[58] For example, in Table 6.3 I have counted the cartoon strip in Unit Four of *Learners and Learning* as one image because the separate frames contribute to the meaning(s) of the whole.

Table 6.3 Photographs, drawings and diagrams in sections of the materials in which 'Reading' is a focus

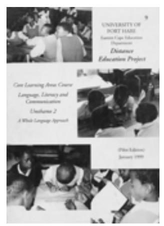
Course materials	Photographs	Drawings	Diagrams
Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2 Units 3 & 4 28 pages	6 of adults 2 of adults with children 7 of small groups of children	2 – one of which is used 5 times. In the Appendix, 11 drawings to illustrate how to make a Big Book	
Learners and Learning, Section 4 35 pages		7 talking head(s) 3 drawings 1 cartoon strip	4
Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT) Section 2 25 pages			

The designers' choice and use of images within the materials mirrors their choice and use of images in the cover designs. The most salient feature of the covers of the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo is the multiple photographic representations of 'real' learners, teachers, schools and community contexts in the Eastern Cape. As on these covers, the photographs used on the pages of *Umthamo 2* foreground the authentic and the local. They will be further discussed in 6.4.1. While words are the most salient feature on the front cover of *Learners and Learning*, the line drawing of knowledge under construction by a teacher and active learners, mirrors the use of drawings and diagrams to mediate content in the section on 'Text as a context for learning' in this module. Some of these drawings and diagrams will be analysed in 6.4.2.

As discussed in 6.2.1, the front cover of *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* foregrounds academic achievement. It can be hypothesized that the designers have imagined readers as post-graduate students for whom mediation in words is a familiar

practice that is sufficient for meeting their needs[59]. While it should be noted that it is only in Unit 2 on ‘Reading’ that the pages of the *LILT* module consist entirely of words[60], in the other units the designers make substantially less use of images than do the designers of the other two sets of materials.

The photographs and drawings in the units on story collection and story reading in *Language, Literacy and Communication Umthamo 2* and selected drawings and diagrams from the section on ‘Text as a context for learning’ in *Learners and Learning* are analysed in the next two sub-sections.



6.4.1 Photographs and drawings in Units 3 and 4 of *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*

The pedagogic episode in which Tillie Tshangela collects a traditional story was discussed in 5.4.2. By including head and shoulders photographs of story collector Tillie and her informants (See Textbox 5.19) and information about the story informants’ careers, ages and knowledge of the story, the designers position teacher-learners to accept both the truth of the statements about the story and the complexity of the story collecting process.

The photograph of the person who completes the story is in the bottom right quadrant of page 18: the position of the new and the real (Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996; 2006). The viewer observes the Minister of Sport (at the time of publication) addressing an audience and reads in the accompanying paragraph that the minister has been able to complete the story which they will read in isiXhosa and in English on subsequent pages. The narrative of the story collecting process has the traditional happy ending

[59] Given that the visual has become a central source of information in many contemporary school textbooks (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006; Bezemer & Kress, 2008b, 2009) it could be argued that teachers would benefit from opportunities to engage with the visual in their own learning experiences and to reflect on how to assist learners in their classrooms to use multimodal textbooks effectively.

[60] In Unit 1 there are two simple diagrammatic representations of information, one complex patterned image, two handwritten texts and one example of an assessment grid. In Unit 3 there are two more complex diagrams and one example of an annotated text.

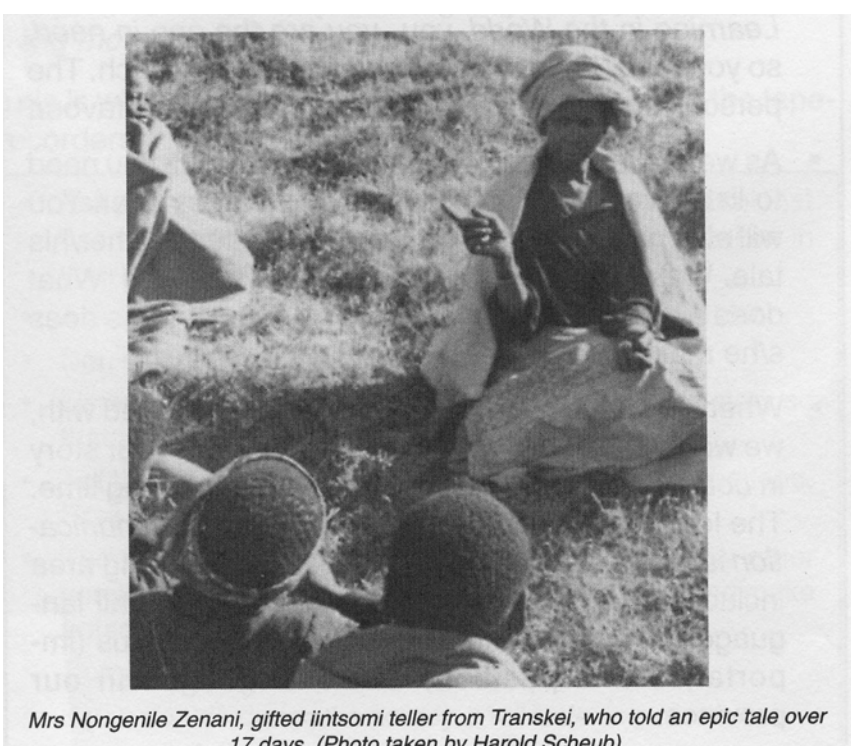
and seems designed to encourage teacher-learners to persevere when they undertake a similar activity.

Unit 3 of *Umthamo 2* concludes with an intricate line drawing which is placed immediately above a photograph. These captioned images of story telling events are reproduced on the next page as Figures 6.10 and 6.11.

Figure 6.10 Zozo Figlan drawing

Zozo Figlan telling a story in 1992 at the Weekly Mail Storytellers' Market in Cape Town.

Figure 6.11 Mrs Zenani photograph



Mrs Nongenile Zenani, gifted iintsomi teller from Transkei, who told an epic tale over 17 days. (Photo taken by Harold Scheub).

The caption underneath each one is the only 'comment' offered by the designers. In contrast to the drawings in *Learners and Learning* to be discussed below, no activities are based on these images. However, it could be argued that each contributes to the affirmation of the local, though in different ways. For example, in the drawing, the background to the central figure of the storyteller suggests that the source of her stories is the open spaces of rural, traditional communities. Zozo Figlan is a powerful 'traditional' presence, physically dominant in the image. She is dressed in 'Afro-chic' for her performance in an urban setting (at the Weekly Mail Storytellers Market in Cape Town), with the gaze of each child, in the multicultural group at her feet, focused on her. In the slightly blurred photograph, below the drawing, children also gaze at the storyteller but this story telling is presented to the reader as a very different event. Firstly, it is located in the past: Mrs Zenani 'told' her tale – in contrast to Zozo who is 'telling' hers. Secondly, the setting is evidently a rural one in which children wrapped in blankets sit at a respectful distance while they listen. Thirdly, it is the words selected for the caption as much as the image which position the viewer's response: Mrs Zenani is a 'gifted iintsomi teller' and she told an 'epic' tale. The adjectives amplify the positive attitude of the designers to this event (Martin and Rose, 2003). Finally, there is a quality of stillness and of energy conserved in the photograph of Mrs Zenani, in contrast to the energy expended in the larger than life drawing of Zozo Figlan.

The placement of the drawing above the photograph and its greater sharpness make it the more salient of the two images. It could be argued that its greater salience contributes to the offer of an aspirational image. This is how teacher-learners who collect and present stories could imagine themselves – people who bring the strengths of the local and traditional past into the local and global present.

In Unit 4 of *Umthamo 2* the designers focus on using stories in primary school classrooms. In addition to the icons in the margins, the same small drawing is used in the left margin on five of the pages. (See pages 29, 30, 34, 47 and 48 in Appendix 4.) It shows a teacher seated next to a 'display stand' which she has improvised by placing

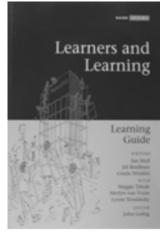
one table – designed for learners to work at – on its side on top of another such table, with paper attached to the side of the top table which faces the learners. Lawrence describes Eastern Cape schools as “largely severely deprived and operating with inadequate infrastructure, resources and teaching staff” (2007, p. 22). The drawing demonstrates to teacher-learners a way of overcoming a resource constraint which the designers imagine they may experience in their classrooms.

Towards the end of the unit the designers include a series of captioned photographs of learners at work. These photographs (and also those of the story collector and her informants) were made by members of the design team rather than sourced from archives or photographic libraries. As noted by van der Mescht (2004) and already mentioned in the analysis of the cover designs, the photographs are taken from a “teacher distance” as if the teacher were monitoring learners at work in his or her classroom. Unsworth and Cleirigh (2009) argue that “although the meaning-making affordances of image and text are very different, they interact synergistically in the construction of meaning” (2009, p. 154). In the seven photographs on pages 36, 37 and 42 (See Appendix 4) the gaze of the learners is directed inwards at their work or at one another or both. The captions tell teacher-learners how to read the photographs (e.g. “Reading, thinking and discussing”). These captioned photographs in the final pages of Umthamo 2 affirm the orientation to teaching and learning introduced in its opening paragraphs, which are reproduced in Textbox 6.10.

Textbox 6.10 The first two paragraphs of the introduction to Umthamo 2

> In this umthamo we are going to look at a way of teaching language which fits in with Outcomes Based Education (OBE). It is not such a ‘new’ way, but it may be new to some teachers, and to some primary schools in South Africa.
>
> This approach to language learning and teaching does not divide language into different parts. It is about the links between ***all*** aspects of language. The ideas and activities in this umthamo combine a **whole language** approach with a **literature-based** approach to language teaching and learning. (University of Fort Hare, *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2*, 1999, p. 2; italics and bold type in the original)

By modeling, in words and images, a story collecting and story using process which ‘produces’ learner-centred learning, the designers encourage teacher-learners to adopt this approach to acquiring and using local resources in their classrooms.



6.4.2 Drawings and diagrams in *Learners and Learning,* Section Four

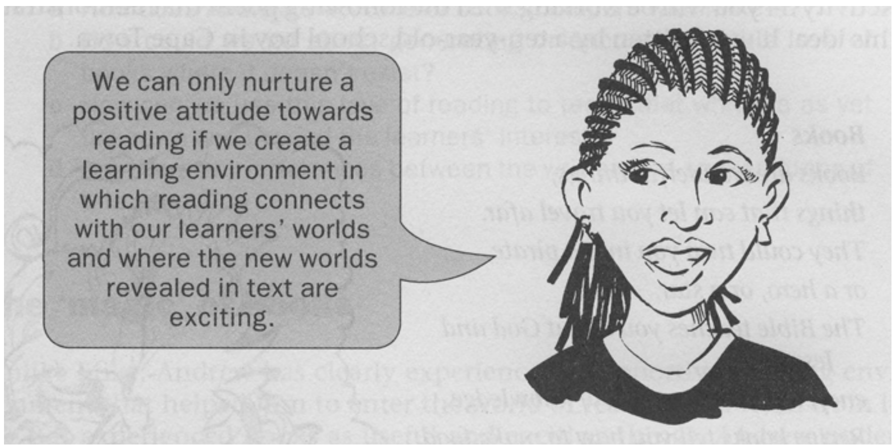
While there are no photographs in *Learners and Learning*, drawings and diagrams are used extensively throughout the module. In Section 4, the drawings are of two kinds: (i) talking heads who comment on the content or on activities; (ii) people engaged in activities which introduce an aspect of the content and on which an in-text activity is based.

Talking heads

As discussed in Chapter Five, on page 113 of Section 4 the designers use a pair of talking heads to draw readers’ attention to the complexity of the “half-truth statements” which introduce the content of the section. They are recognizably an adult male and female but their hair and facial features have been drawn so that they could be members of any of South Africa’s ‘population groups’. Teacher representivity seems to be one of the aims of the designers. On pages 123, 126, 134, 137, 141 and 142 (See Appendix 3), the designers alternate female and male figures who are younger or older and whose hairstyle and dress is trendy or conservative. It could be argued that they have attempted to challenge the stereotypical images of teachers in popular culture texts which Weber and Mitchell describe as reinforcing “either the ‘serious-business’ look that so many real-life teachers adopt or a sloppy, dowdy look that invites indifference, derision or pity” (1995, p. 71), or those in children’s story books in which teachers have been predominantly depicted as “white, mainstream females” (Trousdale, 1994, p. 213). In all instances the head and speech bubble are surrounded by white space which increases the salience of both image and words. The talking heads have an important mediating function: they summarize key ideas from

the immediately preceding paragraphs and in some instances direct readers to the responsibilities which they are positioned to share with the speaker, as in the example in Figure 6.12.

Figure 6.12 Talking head



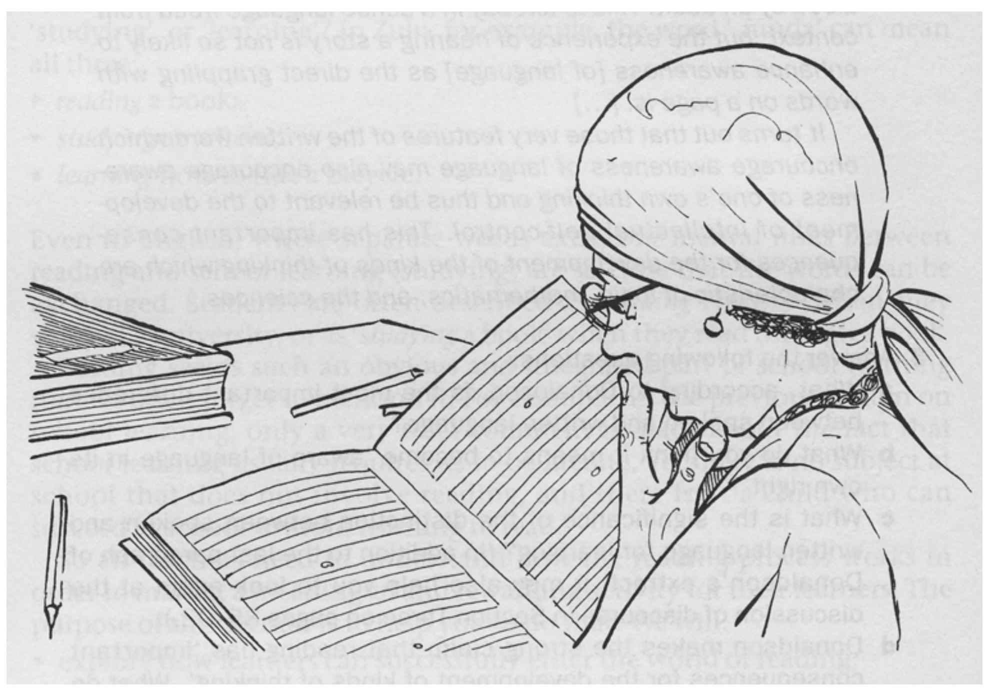
(Gultig, 2001, p. 123)

Drawings which introduce content or activities

The cartoon on pages 120-121 and the drawing of the teacher inviting learners to respond to a story on page 136 have already been discussed in Chapter Five as examples of pedagogic episodes which contribute to the mediation of content. As with the talking heads, the teachers and learners have been drawn so that their features could be read as representative of South Africa's diverse population.

The woman in the drawing reproduced in Figure 6.13 below, is not necessarily a teacher. She is described in the first activity instruction as 'a woman reading a book'. However, there are several features of this drawing, of the margin quotation and of the activity based on it, which collectively mediate a particular orientation to reading which the designers wish teacher-learners to adopt as students (learners) and as teachers of learners.

Figure 6.13 The 'ideal' literate subject



(Gultig, 2001, p. 116)

The woman has been drawn seated at a table, with writing implements available should she wish to make notes, and another book within reach as an alternative source of information. It is arguably a representation of an ideal student. By drawing her with her left hand in front of her mouth and her eyes gazing down to the printed page, the designers suggest thoughtful engagement with the text[61]. The drawing supports the high modality statement presented in the margin, with which readers are expected to agree: "[R]eading is a complex, abstract process that happens in the mind" (Gultig, 2001, p. 116).

The poem and the drawing on page 124 (See Appendix 3) are also used to mediate content: a school boy reader imagines himself to be the heroic slayer of a powerful dragon. The detail in the drawing of the dragon and of the child soldier, both of which

[61] An alternative reading, suggested by my thesis supervisor, is that the reader is yawning. Perhaps the "complex, abstract process" of reading is tiring, boring or both!

the boy has imagined as a result of his reading, support the statement reproduced in Textbox 6.11 which the designers place immediately above the poem and drawing.

Textbox 6.11 The mind-expanding possibilities of books

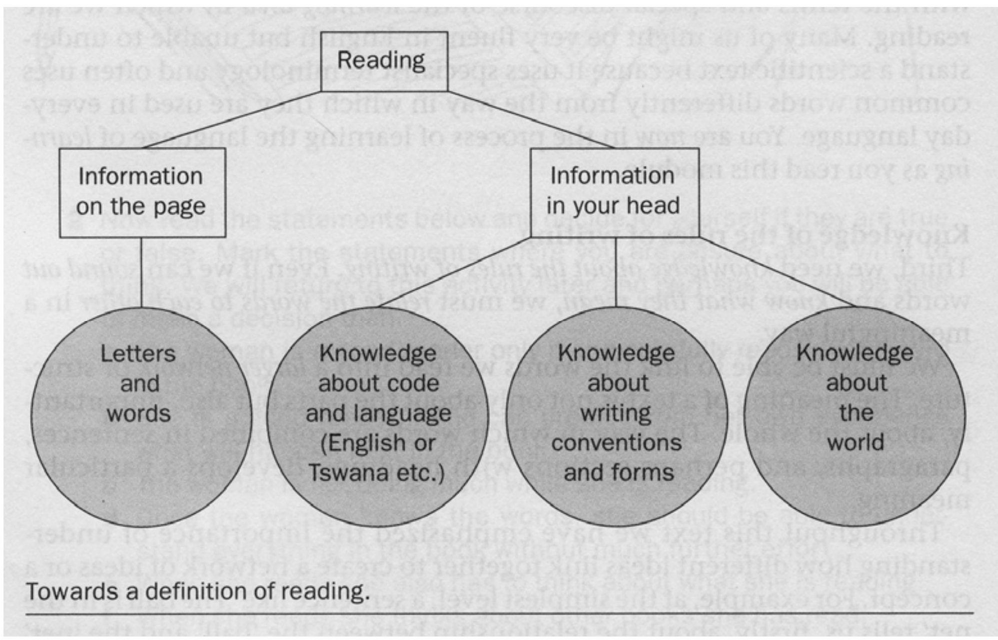
> With support and guidance, most learners can experience how the books they read at school will open a new and exciting world of ideas and transport them far beyond the limited world of their everyday experience. (Gultig, 2001, p. 4)

The poem, the drawing and the activity which follows them on page 125, constitute teachers as responsible for offering the "support and guidance" which learners need in order to engage in mind travel.

Diagrams

On page 118 the designers use a diagram to present an alternative version of the content which they have summarized in the three bullet points which immediately precede it.

Figure 6.14 Towards a definition of reading

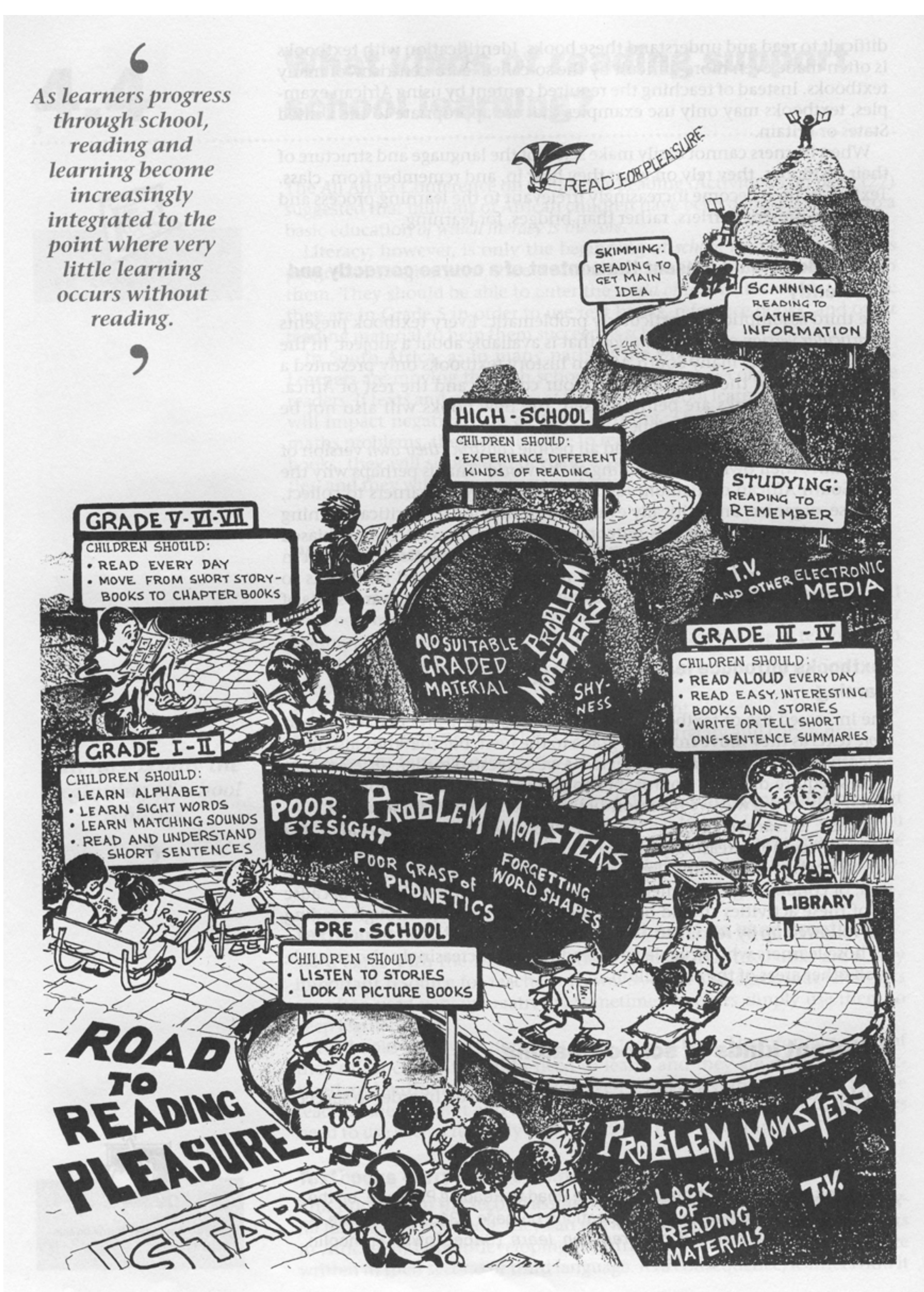


(Gultig, 2001, p. 118)

By using a symmetrical composition in this tree diagram, the designers suggest that the two subordinates – information on the page and information in the head – are equally important to a definition of reading. Similarly, the four circles at the second level of subordination are equal in size and are equally spaced, a design that positions readers to regard each 'knowledge element' as equally important in reading. Kress and van Leeuwen argue that classification processes, such as tree diagrams, do not simply reflect 'real' or 'natural' classifications, but instead reflect judgements by the designer(s) about who or what constitute members of the same class (2006, p. 79). The diagram 'Towards a definition of reading' mediates the designers' view of what is involved in reading a text. Their decision to summarise the content of pages 116 to 118 firstly in bullet points and then as a diagram, suggests that they consider this content to be particularly important and also that they imagine it as possibly new to their readers.

On pages 122, 130 and 140 the designers use diagrams to engage teacher-learners in activities. The diagram on page 130, 'The road to reading pleasure', is reproduced on the next page and analysed as an example of how the designers' choice of words and images constitutes readers as teachers who are expected to take a particular approach to teaching reading.

Figure 6.15 The road to reading pleasure



(Gultig, 2001, p. 130)

In the introduction at the bottom of page 129 the designers acknowledge that this diagram has been imported from another text. However, as they do not distance themselves from it, it can be assumed that they subscribe to its schematic representation of what learners ('children') should do as they move through the school system from pre-school to high school. The design assumes that readers are familiar with board games of the 'snakes and ladders' variety in which players follow a series of instructions and encounter both 'rewards' and 'punishments' as they move from start to finish along a defined pathway. In this instance the pathway is a brick road (a yellow brick road?) which ascends from bottom left to top right, with reading for pleasure represented as a mountain top experience, though it is unclear why the skills of skimming and scanning should be placed just below this summit experience.

Becoming a reader is presented in authoritative language, under labeled headings, as mainly involving the accumulation of skills in decoding and encoding. For example, the directive for Grade I-II states that children should 'learn alphabet, learn sight words, learn matching sounds, read and understand short sentences'. This positions learner-teachers or teacher-learners to take a phonics-based basal reader approach to teaching children to read. It is a position which ignores the importance of rich and interesting stories and information texts as motivators for learning to read. Television and 'other electronic media' are presented as 'Problem Monsters', a position at odds with the current emphasis in multiliteracies pedagogy and in the New Literacy Studies on the importance of offering learners opportunities to use a wide range of media (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000; Pahl & Rowsell, 2005). The two questions in Activity 37, reproduced in Textbox 6.12, reduce reading to a set of skills.

Textbox 6.12 An activity based on 'The Road to Reading Pleasure'

a. Which reading skills (other than basic literacy) are demanded by school learning across the curriculum?
b. According to the diagram, how can teachers help learners acquire these skills and become confident readers? (Gultig, 2001, p. 131)

The importance of reading is foregrounded by the placement, in white space at the top left of the diagram, of a statement that very little learning occurs without reading. However, the particular visual and verbal representation of what is involved in becoming a reader, the foregrounding of "suitable graded material" and the demonizing of television and other electronic media all position teachers to accept an orientation to reading which ignores a generation of research in literacy studies (e.g Heath, 1983; Street, 1984, 1993; Cope & Kalantzis, 2000; Stein, 2003; Pahl & Rowsell, 2005; Janks, 2010).

6.4.3 Possible contribution of images on the page to the mediation of knowledge(s) and to the constitution of reader subjectivity/ies

In Units 3 and 4 of *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2* and in Section 4 of *Learners and Learning,* the images selected and used by the designers contribute to the mediation of content and to the offering of particular subject positions to readers as teachers and as students.

In *Umthamo 2* the content focuses on pedagogic knowledge: teacher-learners are to take action as researchers who will collect traditional stories (and contribute to the preservation of Xhosa culture) and as teachers who will use these stories in their classrooms for learner-centred, 'whole language' activities. Thus photographs and a drawing of named individuals who know and can tell traditional stories are given a prominent place in Unit 3, multiple captioned photographs of small groups of learners productively at work are offered as the culmination of teachers' efforts in Unit 4 and labelled drawings, to guide the making of Big Books, are included in the Appendix.

In Section 4 of *Learners and Learning* the drawings and diagrams function to mediate or comment on the designers' ideas about reading and the role of teachers in learners' development as readers. In some instances, activities are based on the drawings. The highly salient 'talking heads', drawn to collectively 'represent' South Africa's teachers,

‘speak’ with authority in a series of high modality statements which teacher-learners are expected to accept.

The designers of *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* also construct ‘ideal’ teachers but they rely on words to do so, as in the example reproduced in Textbox 6.13.

Textbox 6.13 Constituting ideal identities for readers of the *LILT* materials

> You also need to reflect on the fact that you are a trained schoolteacher now, as well as the fact that you are doing a Bachelor of Education (B Ed) degree at the moment. You have got this far, we would argue, because reading has had some measure of satisfaction for you, and teaching has a great deal of satisfaction for you. Although you are surrounded by teachers at school and in your B Ed classes, you are unusual in the world – it is not unusual that adults want to contribute and serve their community through the work they do, but it is unusual that an adult wants to contribute by returning to school, so recently left, as a teacher. (Inglis et al., 2000, p. 64)

It may be the case that the designers of the *LILT* module have imagined their readers as more responsive to what Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) refer to as the ‘older literacy’ of the printed word.

6.5 Inscriptions on the page

Inscription is a term used for “the meaning systems that are based on the physical materiality of language (but also other code systems) in the world” (Scollon & Scollon, 2003, pp. 129-130). In their examples of semiotic systems of inscription, Scollon and Scollon include “everything that printers know about the meanings of choosing and setting a typeface for a book or what designers know about using a particular typeface and color scheme for an advertisement” (2003, p. 129). In the analysis of cover designs, access devices and images in the three sets of materials, a number of design choices have already been discussed. In this section additional features of inscriptions on the page are summarised in Table 6.4 and then briefly compared and contrasted.

Table 6.4 Inscriptions on the page

Design feature	***Language, Literacy and Communication Umthamo 2***	***Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)***	***Learners and Learning***
Margins	Text is centred: 5cm margins on right and left	7cm margin on left on left side page; 7cm margin on right on right side page; one table 'spreads' into a margin (p.76)	7cm margin on left on left side page; 7cm margin on right on right side page – margin texts on most pages; one newspaper article (p.127) and one drawing 'spread' into the margin (p.130)
Words per line; **lines per page**	8 to 11; average 10 Maximum 44	9 to 15; average 11 Maximum 54	9 to 15; average 12.5 Maximum 54
Font(s)	Arial	Tahoma; Bookman Old Style; Times New Roman	Bookman Old Style; Arial; Times New Roman; Verdana
Type sizes	2 – headings (larger); subheadings (bold) and body text in same size	4 – Unit heading (bold); section headings (bold); section sub-headings (bold and italics); body text	6 – Unit heading (bold); section headings (bold); section sub-headings (bold); activity and designers' comment headings (bold); sub-subsection headings (bold); body text
Bold type	Key concepts and key instruction words in bold type; outcomes linked to study of the umthamo also in bold	Headings and sub-headings, Activity headings and glossed words (very few) in bold type	Headings, subheadings and Activity headings in bold type
Italic type	Stories within the body text; emphasis in instructions (sometimes also in bold type); designers' comments; quotation from authors – sometimes extensive	Sub-headings within sections; key concepts; sub-section and end of unit summary headings	Key concepts; key quotations in margins; quotations from authors – sometimes extensive

Numbering	Used only for Units within an umthamo and for Activities	Used for Units, Sections and Activities	Used for Units (termed sections in this material), for sections (highly salient large size numbers) and for Activities
Demarcating devices	All Activities placed in boxes; stories in boxes on grey background; all photographs surrounded by white space and captioned underneath; each new section begins on a new page; white space used as a demarcating device	Thick grey lines demarcate Activities from content; boxes with grey background summarise key content; Reader in same volume printed on pale yellow paper	Dotted line demarcates section headings from body; each new section begins on a new page: white space used as a demarcating device

The summary suggests that in terms of the design features tabulated, the materials are more similar than different. The fact that they were all designed and produced at approximately the same time (between 1999 and 2001)[62] and all designed to facilitate self-study is likely to account for many of the similarities. For example, readers of all three sets of materials are imagined as students who may wish to make notes in the wide margins and who may need to have their attention drawn to key concepts or to instruction for activities.

It could be argued that in *Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 2* the 'centering' of words and images on the page (with equal margins on either side), fewer lines per page than in the other two sets of materials, the use of a new page for each new section, the use of one font throughout and of only two type sizes for headings, constructs the umthamo as an unfolding narrative told in short, accessible chapters – though the margin boxes, activity icons, activity boxes and bolded words and phrases leave the reader in no doubt that this is primarily a pedagogic text. While the designers of *Learners and Learning* use five different type sizes to 'rank' headings and

[62] Bezemer and Kress's (2008a, 2008b, 2009) analyses of the multimodal design of English textbooks from the 1930s, 1980s and early 2000s indicate that in textbooks designed within a particular 'era' many of the design features are similar.

sub-headings on the page, their use of these headings creates more 'space' between lines of print than is evident on the pages of *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT).* Overall, there is considerably more 'white space' on the pages of the former than the latter. While headings and subheadings, grey lines to demarcate activities, and summary boxes, all break up the lines of print in *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT),* this course book is the least visual and the most 'writing dense' of the three. It is the only one of the three in which the designers do not begin a new section on a new page. It is possible that in mediating knowledge on the page the designers imagined their post-graduate readership as requiring fewer 'breathing spaces' than less experienced readers of academic text would need.

As stated in Chapter Four, if a text is to facilitate learning, then it must be comprehensible to readers. When designers select and use particular access devices, visual images, inscriptions on the page, vocabulary and syntax, this is arguably one of their main aims. In teacher education materials a further aim is to promote 'buy-in' or investment in the content of the materials. The analysis presented in sections 6.2 to 6.5 of this chapter indicates that the designers of each set of materials have used particular "semiotic aggregates" (Scollon & Scollon, 2003) to make the materials comprehensible for an imagined community of readers and to encourage the investment of these readers in particular content selections.

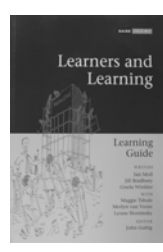
6.6 Subject positions offered by the designers' selection and use of a range of semiotic resources

Bezemer and Kress (2009) argue that writing, images, typography and layout should not be looked at in isolation, because a textbook analyst needs to understand the relationships within the multimodal design of a book (or books). While I agree with this argument, I suggest that comparing and contrasting the designers' selection and use of particular semiotic resources within the overall design of a teacher education course book, contributes to understanding how knowledge is mediated, and, as a consequence, to understanding how subject positions are constituted for readers as

students and as teachers. In this study, analysis of the cover designs, selected access devices (icons and margin texts), images (photographs, drawings and diagrams) and inscriptions on the page suggests the following:

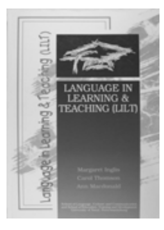
Language, Literacy and Communication, Umthamo 1 **and** ***Umthamo 2***

- Readers' identities as experienced teachers, with an interest in practices that are constituted as 'new' to them, are foregrounded and situated in the local (classroom and community).
- Readers are constituted as novice students to be guided by numerous icons, clearly demarcated activity boxes, bold type for key concepts and instructions, and text presented as an unfolding narrative.



Learners and Learning

- Readers' identities as knowledge-constructing students of teaching are foregrounded and icons, drawings, margin texts, typography and information flow provide support for this knowledge construction.
- Line drawings of teachers and learners representative of South Africa's diverse population situate readers, and the materials, in a post-apartheid society which aims to offer equality of access to education.



Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)

- Readers are constituted as experienced students and teachers whose twin goals are to obtain a further academic qualification and to improve their classroom practice – the latter in relation to a new (in 2000) outcomes-based curriculum.
- As students, readers are considered to be capable of engaging with fairly 'dense' written text, with the support of headings and sub-headings, occasional word glosses and summary boxes.

To conclude this study, in Chapter Seven I reflect on the affordances of critical pedagogic analysis for designers and evaluators of distance education materials.

Chapter Seven: The affordances of critical pedagogic analysis for understanding how designers of teacher education materials mediate knowledge(s) and constitute readers' subjectivities

7.1 Introduction
7.2 Summary of findings from a critical pedagogic analysis of three sets of teacher education materials
7.2.1 The affordances of CPA for understanding the constitution of particular identities for readers – as students and as teachers
7.2.2 The affordances of CPA for understanding the 'versioning potential' of local materials for regional or global teacher education programmes
7.3 The affordances of CPA for evaluating and redesigning the researcher's materials
7.3.1 Content selections in *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching,* Unit Three: Literacy practices inside and outside the classroom
7.3.2 Organisational design of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching*
7.3.3 Mediation through activities, pedagogic episodes and scaffolded readings in Unit Three of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching*
7.3.4 Mediation through the use of a range of semiotic resources in *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching*
7.3.5 Insights that could inform a redesign of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching*
7.4 What a critical pedagogic analysis cannot achieve
7.5 Further research
7.6 Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

The term *affordances* is defined in the literature on multimodal analysis, as "the potentials and limitations of material drawn into semiosis as mode" (Kress, 2009, p. 58). While recognising that the meanings and value of this term are contested and debated (Jewitt, 2009), in this concluding chapter I reflect on the affordances of critical pedagogic analysis for designers and evaluators of distance education materials for teacher education.

In Chapter One I used the words ‘instructive failure’ to describe my attempt to obtain critical feedback from teacher-learners who had used *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching* in their studies. This failure to elicit the anticipated constructive critique of this course book showed that one of the most frequently used sources of information for materials evaluation and redesign is not necessarily productive in all circumstances. It was also the point of departure for developing a framework for a critical pedagogic analysis of distance education materials for language teachers. Because this analytic framework is now the focus of discussion, for the purposes of this chapter it is referred to as the CPA framework or as CPA. Its development was informed by scholarship in the fields of pedagogy (in general, and for teacher education in particular), mediation and identity / subjectivity. In the analysis of three sets of distance education materials for language teachers, presented in Chapters Four, Five and Six, the CPA framework was used in conjunction with tools borrowed from the ‘toolkits’ of systemic functional linguists (e.g. Halliday, 1985, Martin & Rose, 2003) and social semioticians interested in understanding the grammar of visual design (e.g. Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996; 2006).

In 7.2, I summarise findings from the analysis of three sets of South African teacher education materials and argue that the affordances of CPA have enabled the identification of the knowledge(s) privileged by each design team and the subject positions constituted for readers as students and as teachers by the designers’ mediation of knowledge on the page[63]. I also consider, very briefly, the affordances of CPA for understanding the ‘versioning potential’[64] of local materials for regional or global teacher education programmes. In 7.3, I return to the original problematic that was the impetus for the study: the difficulty of evaluating my own materials to inform their redesign. I argue that a CPA of these materials has afforded insights into their strengths and limitations that use of general guidelines for materials evaluation, and use of students as informants, failed to reveal. In 7.4, I note what a CPA cannot

[63] As indicated in Chapter One, I am aware that positions offered are not necessarily positions ‘taken up’ as readers may read materials from a number of oppositional positions.

[64] Versioning refers to adapting or customising materials to suit particular constituencies – for example, readers of course materials for a particular teacher education programme.

achieve before turning, in 7.5, to some suggestions for further research in which CPA could be used.

7.2 Summary of findings from a critical pedagogic analysis of three sets of teacher education materials

In Chapters Four, Five and Six the CPA focused separately on the designers' selection of content, their organisation of this content on the page, their use of activities and pedagogic episodes to mediate content, their scaffolding of readings and their choices and uses of language, icons, margin texts, drawings and photographs. To state the obvious, all of these aspects of designing contribute to the multimodal design (Bezemer & Kress, 2009) of the materials. They function interdependently to mediate knowledge and to constitute identities for readers as students and teachers. Throughout this study I have argued that the particular subject positions constituted for readers as students and as teachers may affect their "investment" (Norton, 2000) in their studies and in classroom practices of particular kinds. One of the key findings of the analysis is that the knowledges selected and the ways in which these knowledges are mediated in teacher education materials *do* work to constitute readers as particular 'types' of student and teacher with access to particular knowledge(s) and practices. Another is that features of the design of each set of materials are likely to make them more or less appealing to teacher educators elsewhere in Africa (and beyond) for the purposes of versioning them for use in their contexts.

7.2.1 The affordances of CPA for understanding the constitution of particular identities for readers – as students and as teachers

Central to a CPA of distance education materials for teacher education programmes is the intention to "uncover the social interests at work" (Janks, 2010, p. 12) in each design. Its focus is on the power of the designers to constitute particular kinds of "ideal" or "preferred" reader (Hall, 1980). One of the affordances of the CPA framework is that it has enabled identification of subject positions offered to readers

of each set of materials and comparison of the ways in which each of the multimodal designs works to construct ideal readers.

As could be expected of materials that have received accolades from local and international distance education practitioners, one finding is that, for the most part, each design is coherent in its constitution of a particular kind of ideal student reader and ideal teacher reader.

The overall design of *Learners and Learning* is informed by the designers' wish to unsettle readers' 'common sense' ideas about learning, including their ideas about what is involved in being a reader and what reading is for. The most salient statement[65] on the first page of Section One is that "[T]he process of learning seems so natural that we often forget to ask important questions about it" (Gultig, 2001, p. 3). The designers constitute readers as novice students who will benefit from the carefully scaffolded pathways to learning (including return journeys) which are central to the design of these materials. These pathways are clearly signposted with headings and sub-headings and the in-text activities and scaffolded extracts from the work of international experts are designed to assist readers to "construct knowledge", albeit within the particular frame provided by the designers. In each of the six sections of the *Learning Guide* 'talking heads', drawn to 'represent' a broad spectrum of South Africa's teachers, address readers as teachers who have important responsibilities as both students and teachers, including the responsibility to think critically about current classroom practices with a view to improving them.

The designers claim that an understanding of theories about learning and teaching enables teachers to think about their practices "much more rigorously and critically" (Gultig, 2001, p. 205) and suggest that in doing so, teachers need to take their particular contexts into account. However, the design team does not include what they term "recipes" (p. 205) for teaching because "teaching practice is *specific* to a

[65] This statement written in large font is placed in the middle of the right hand margin, with white space above and below it.

particular context" (p. 205; italics in the original). It could be argued that they constitute teachers as capable of designing high quality learning experiences for the learners in their classrooms without the scaffolding that they are assumed to need for engaging with theories of learning. It could also be argued that readers who imagine themselves in the same way are more likely to invest in these materials than those who are looking for detailed guidance in regard to teaching strategies.

The main aims informing the design of the six imithamo for *Language, Literacy and Communication* in the University of Fort Hare's Distance Education Project*,* are in some respects very different from those evident in the design of *Learners and Learning*. While acknowledging that teachers should extend their understanding of how learners learn (Chartres & Paige, 2005, p. 9), the designers of the imithamo foreground pedagogic knowledge and skills. Readers are imagined as teacher-learners who will "learn from their own classrooms and students as well as from the university work that they are undertaking" (Chartres & Paige, 2005, p. 9). They are also imagined as teachers who need to 'unlearn' what the designers term "traditional" pedagogic practices.

The learning pathway through each umthamo guides teacher-learners, often in minute detail, towards completion of a classroom-focused key activity constituted as a 'new' way of teaching, which they subsequently present to a group of colleagues at fortnightly contact sessions. However, although the designers make some explicit links between the content of one umthamo and another, it is not easy for readers to discern, when they begin their studies, the destination(s) of the learning journey being designed for them.

The ideal readers are constituted as teachers with an interest in researching their practice and in contributing to an evolving community of practice in the region in which they teach. The photographs and drawings of Eastern Cape classroom and community locations, the inclusion of isiXhosa names and expressions and the design

of activities which aim to preserve isiXhosa traditional culture, situate these materials in local contexts that are likely to be familiar to readers registered for degree studies through the University of Fort Hare[66].

It could be argued that readers with an interest in receiving detailed guidance for teaching language and literacy in learning-centred classrooms and who live and work in the Eastern Cape province, are most likely to invest wholeheartedly in these materials. Readers with an interest in extending their ability to engage with more theoretical literature may be somewhat disappointed in them and also somewhat under-prepared for subsequent postgraduate study in which such ability is often taken for granted by lecturers. Some readers whose cultural roots are not in an isiXhosa-speaking Eastern Cape community may feel alienated by the explicitly local design of the materials and by the use of isiXhosa as well as English in the materials.

The hybrid nature of the *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* module has been noted in previous chapters. One of the goals of its design team is to offer readers new understandings of both theory and practice. They constitute readers as experienced teachers whose "understanding of the role of language in learning will be deepened" (Inglis et al., 2000, p. 4) as a result of their studies. As stated in Chapter 5, in contrast to *Learners and Learning*, in which the designers use extracts from the writing of international authorities in particular fields and scaffold these for readers, the *LILT* design team commissioned university colleagues to write all but one of the chapters for the module's *Reader.* In recontextualising (Bernstein, 1996) the work of the authors listed in the references at the end of each chapter, these local academics include discussion of teaching and learning issues specific to South African education and discussion of the work of local as well as international authorities. In contrast to the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo in which the designers prescribe each small step that teacher-learners should take in implementing a particular practice in their classrooms, the *LILT* designers suggest broad strategies, informed by the

[66] The main campus of this university, at which many of southern Africa's leaders studied during the twentieth century, is located in the small Eastern Cape town of Alice.

content of the module, for teacher-learners to consider using, perhaps with further adaptation, in their classrooms.

A CPA of the *LILT* materials suggests that the design is similar to that of *Learners and Learning* in regard to the organisation of knowledge on the page: the designers provide both a map of the terrain and signposts for readers' journeys along the learning pathways, although in a few instances these may be a little confusing to readers. The materials are much less visual than either *Learners and Learning* or the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo and there are more pages of solid print unrelieved by headings, white space or images of any kind than in the other two sets of materials.

It could be argued that the readers who are most likely to invest in these materials are experienced teachers and experienced readers who are interested in theorising their practice and in recontextualising the designers' teaching suggestions for use in diverse South African classrooms.

In all three sets of materials there is evidence in the content selected, the language used and the activities designed, that the design teams constitute ideal readers as participants in the social justice project of transforming South African education and society. Overall, it is therefore not surprising that the pedagogies of the materials are a complex 'mix' of what Canagarajah (1999) describes as "pedagogy of the mainstream" and "critical pedagogy", and that they are oriented more strongly to the latter than the former. A CPA of each set of materials enables an evaluator to identify the different knowledges and skills that are foregrounded and backgrounded and the different ways in which these are mediated, as each design team offers readers particular content to use in performing their roles in this post-apartheid project.

The framework is able to identify how the constitution of teachers as agents of transformation is 'achieved' in similar and different ways. To give the briefest of

examples, the designers of *Learners and Learning* constitute readers as students and as teachers who will be able to contribute productively to educational change and to "help build a democractic order" (Gultig, 2001, p. v) if they are able to theorise their classroom practices. (See the discussion of the introduction to the Learning Guide in 4.2.1). In the introduction to *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* the designers comment briefly on findings from research on language and identities and also introduce some of the debates about the roles of languages in school learning. They hope that the ideal reader, as student, will be one who "as a learner, will be able to articulate the concepts raised in this module, and that your own understanding of the role of language in learning will be deepened" (Inglis et al., 2000, p. 4). This ideal reader is also addressed directly as a teacher: "thorough understanding of language learning issues will enhance your own practice as an effective and creative educator" (Inglis et al., 2000, p. 4). While the aspirations of the designers are somewhat similar to those of the designers of *Learners and Learning*, there is greater acknowledgement here of what readers bring to their studies: they are to *deepen* their understanding and to *enhance* their practice in the interests of the learners whom they teach. The designers of the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo do not write about overall goals of the degree programme but their constitution of teachers as 'change agents' is evident in each of the six imithamo. For example, in *Umthamo 2* they ask readers to consider whether the fragmented curriculum of apartheid-era schooling is likely to "**nourish** a child's growing mind" and offer them the alternative of assisting "our children to grow up into truly **whole** human beings" (University of Fort Hare, Umthamo 2, 1999, p. 12; bold type in the original) by teaching in 'new' ways that integrate thinking, speaking, listening, reading and writing activities.

7.2.2 The affordances of CPA for understanding the 'versioning potential' of local materials for regional or global teacher education programmes

> "Access to high quality pedagogically sound learning materials is frequently inhibited by inability of African educational institutions to afford them" (Wolfenden, 2008, p. 6).

In the decade since the materials analysed in this study were designed, developments in information and communication technologies are enabling more and more providers of teacher education to access Open Education Resources (OERs) and to 'version' these for use in a wide range of pre-service and in-service programmes. It should be noted that in many African contexts, OERs that are shareable in a digital format (both online and via offline formats such as CD-ROM) will need to be printable to be useful to teacher educators and to students (SAIDE, 2009). SAIDE anticipates that "a very high percentage of resources of relevance to African higher education will be shared as RTF or similar files (for purposes of adaptation) and packaged as PDF files (for purposes of printing)" (SAIDE, 2009, p. 1).

As indicated in Chapter One, in the years following their design the three sets of materials analysed in this study all received recognition as examples of "high quality pedagogically sound learning materials". A question for the second decade of the twenty-first century is whether, if these materials were made available as OERs, it is likely that they would be taken up and reversioned by teacher educators both within and beyond South Africa. To what extent do these local materials already 'speak' to the regional or global and what is their potential to do so?

A CPA of the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo has enabled the identification of several ways in which these materials are explicitly local and has also revealed that one of the strengths of the materials, from the perspective of the teacher-learners, is also likely to be a limitation in regard to versioning these materials for use in other contexts. The design of a series of short, theme-focused booklets, mediated at regular contact sessions is likely to have increased their accessibility for local users but at the same time, it is not easy for 'outsiders' to identify either the overall learning design of the University of Fort Hare's B Ed programme or the learning pathways through the materials. However, in many respects it is these materials that best acknowledge the challenges that are the norm in many parts of Africa: a teaching corps whose own education has been limited in quantity and quality (Wolfenden,

2008) and who work in under-resourced rural and urban schools and communities. For this reason, were they to be made available on-line they could offer a model to teacher-educators whose concerns are similar to those of the University of Fort Hare team at the time when the imithamo were designed[67]. What designers in other African countries (and perhaps in other countries of the global south, outside of Africa) would need to consider is whether they could substitute examples from their own locals, whether they could improve the organisational design to indicate clearer learning pathways through the materials and whether doing this would be worth the resource investment involved.

While the designers of *Learners and Learning* and of *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* include South African examples, many of these are either also applicable to other African countries (e.g. classrooms in which learners are learning in an additional language) or could be easily modified. The careful attention paid by the designers to the organisation of learning pathways through the materials, particularly evident in *Learners and Learning*, could facilitate their versioning for use in other countries and contexts.

The drawings, mainly of teacher 'talking heads' and of teachers and learners engaged in classroom activities, which are used at intervals throughout *Learners and Learning,* are 'representative' of such a wide range of physical characteristics that many readers elsewhere in Africa could see themselves and their learners in these images, although in countries in which women teachers are expected to be conservatively dressed, some drawings would need to be changed. Many of the drawings not only add interest to the materials, but have been designed for a range of pedagogic purposes such as the mediation of complex concepts. If *Language in Learning & Teaching (LILT)* were to be redesigned, greater use of drawings and photographs could make the content both more accessible and more interesting to readers.

[67] It should be noted that the University of Fort Hare is currently a participant in the TESSA (Teacher Education for SubSaharan Africa) project which is "working to develop new models of teacher education, particularly school-based training, including the creation of a programme webspace and an extensive bank of Open Educational Resources" (Wolfenden, 2008, p. 1).

While all three design teams refer to the 'new' outcomes based curriculum for South African schools, they do so only in terms of its underlying principles (e.g. learner-centredness). Thus in this respect the materials would not be difficult to 'version' for use in teacher education programmes outside South Africa.

7.3 The affordances of CPA for evaluating and redesigning the researcher's materials

In returning to the concern that motivated this research – how to improve materials that I had designed in collaboration with colleagues – I respond to two questions: Does a critical pedagogic analysis offer insights that may be lacking in feedback from users of materials, or in general guidelines for materials evaluation? Does it provide a distancing mechanism that allows a designer to evaluate her own materials? The short answer to these questions is yes. Because the conclusion is not the place to offer a detailed analysis of another set of materials, in sections 7.3.1 to 7.3.4 I summarise and reflect briefly on what a CPA of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching* has enabled me to understand about the strengths and limitations of this course book. Its front cover, table of contents, first two pages of general introduction and the pages on literacy /reading are reproduced in Appendix 6. Appendix 7 consists of one example of redesigned material which responds to some of the suggestions for redesigning listed in 7.3.4

7.3.1 Content selections in *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching,* Unit Three: Literacy practices inside and outside the classroom

Table 7.1 demonstrates how the framework, designed and used in Chapter Four, has enabled me to identify the elements of a knowledge base for teacher education that were selected for Unit Three of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching* . The table is followed by a brief reflection on what this aspect of a CPA has assisted me to understand about the original content selections.

Table 7.1 Elements of a knowledge base for teaching in *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching,* Unit Three: Literacy practices inside and outside the classroom

Subject / disciplinary knowledge	Meaning(s) of literacy: pp. 132-33; Literacy as a set of social practices: pp. 132-152; Literacy in education: pp. 153-161; Literacy events and literacy practices in our classrooms: p. 162; Reading / learning to read: pp. 163-166; Beginning to read: pp. 167-173; From learning to read to reading to learn: p. 180
Pedagogic knowledge	Stimulating and supporting beginning readers: pp. 173-176; Pre-reading, while reading and post-reading activities to help learners read to learn: pp. 180-182; Reading a dictionary: pp. 182-184; Reading a range of texts for a range of purposes: pp. 184-185; Thinking about 'doing comprehension' and about other purposes for reading: pp. 186-190; Encouraging extensive reading: p. 190; Becoming a critical reader: pp. 191-194
Knowledge of how learners learn	Learning to read in an additional language: pp. 177-179
Knowledge of the curriculum	References to curriculum documents: pp. 134, 135, 173, 177, 183, 191
Contextual knowledge	The important role of orality in SA community histories: p. 133; The role of a community letter writer and letter reader: pp. 147-150; A case study of two children's contrasting first experiences of books: p. 151; A case study to illustrate a negative orientation to reading and its consequences: p. 152; Learning to read in an additional language: pp. 177-179 (included also in the category 'Knowledge of how learners learn')
Knowledge of self as learner and teacher	Located in the activities: Own / family literacy events and practices: pp. 142,143, 144, 145, 146; Reflecting on learning to read and on teaching beginner readers: pp. 167- 168; Reflecting on learning to read in an additional language: p. 177; Responding to unfamiliar words in a text: p. 183; Reflecting on experiences (if any) as a critical reader: pp. 192-193
Academic literacy	guided reading: p. 151; p. 167

Given that *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching* was designed for in-service teachers with at least a three year teaching diploma, it is not surprising that a CPA of the content selected for a section on reading suggests that, like the *LILT* materials, this course book is a hybrid text in terms of its content. The content selected constitutes readers as interested in extending both subject and pedagogic knowledge and in theorising their practice. If the course book were to be redesigned for an in-service programme which continues to have provision of support for theorised practice as one of its goals, the hybridity of the content would remain a feature of the design, though some of the ways in which this content is mediated would be likely to change.

A CPA of Unit Three suggests that the content and activities foreground contextual knowledge and knowledge of self as learner and teacher. The designers situate literacy (and literacies) in sociocultural contexts that are likely to be familiar to readers located in rural and township schools and communities and who teach English as an additional language. In this respect the course book is more like the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo than *Learners and Learning,* in which the designers deliberately attempt to include all of South Africa's pre-service and in-service teachers, and the *LILT* materials, which are addressed to a national readership of in-service teachers of language across the curriculum. Unlike the imithamo with their local focus on the Eastern Cape, the contexts foregrounded in *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching* are not limited to a particular province. However, if this course book were to be read by teachers who are monolingual speakers of English, who teach English as home language and who work in well-resourced schools and communities, it is likely that they would feel that the content and the activities are not addressed to them and to the contexts in which they teach. The designers of *Learners and Learning* and of the *LILT* materials demonstrate that it is possible to constitute readers, as students and as teachers, more inclusively while still retaining a focus on their needs and those of learners located in a range of classroom and community contexts.

While how learners learn an additional language is the focus of much of the content selected for Unit One of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching*, in Unit Three the short section on the challenges of learning to read in an additional language is the sole reference to how learners learn. A redesign could usefully include reference to recent research on 'the reading brain' (Wolf, 2007) and implications of this research for supporting the teaching of reading.

The difficulty that some teacher-learners experienced in preparing and presenting some of the assignments based on *Theory and Practice of English Teaching* was the main motivation for evaluating this course book. There was evidence in some of these assignments that teacher-learners had misunderstood some of the content of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching* or had not read it at all. In view of South African research which suggests that reading of academic texts presents challenges for some readers enrolled in both undergraduate and post-graduate courses (sections 1.2 and 5.5), the limited support for the reading of text should be addressed in a redesign of the material (See also 7.3.3 below).

7.3.2 Organisational design of Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching

Use of CPA, and also comparison with the materials analysed in this study, indicates that the organisational design of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching* could be improved significantly. For example, what is termed a general introduction does not adequately serve that purpose. While each unit begins with a statement of learning goals and ends with a summary, learning pathways through the materials are not always clearly indicated. The units are too long – particularly Unit 3 – and would be improved by being 'repackaged' into shorter and more accessible units.

As discussed in Chapter Four, one element of a CPA of teacher education materials is concerned with the "knowledge-practice" relationships (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999) evident in the selection and organisation of content for page or screen. Use of Table 4.2 to identify the knowledge-practice relationships evident in *Theory and Practice of*

English Language Teaching suggests that the design combines subject-based knowledge *for* practice with practice-based knowledge *in* practice as illustrated in these two examples from Unit 3:

> As a result of your previous studies and your teaching experience you may already be familiar with a number of the approaches described below. While you are reading, think about whether what you read in this course material confirms, contradicts or extends what you already know about reading development. In the margins write CF for confirms, CTD contradicts and EXT for extends. (Reed, 1999, p. 167)
>
> Read the extract from *Weep Not, Child* and the poem, *Good Reader.* What do you think the writers are suggesting about the 'bottom up' approach to teaching reading? Have you had similar experiences as a learner or as a teacher? If possible, discuss your ideas with your study partner. (Reed, 1999, p. 168)

For a teacher education programme in which in-service teachers study for an academic qualification which includes the extension of subject and pedagogic knowledges among its goals, this orientation to knowledge-practice is appropriate and should be retained in a redesigned version. While teachers as researchers is the focus of another module in the same programme[68] as *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching,* it could be argued that in a programme with a professional development orientation, the redesign of this module should include opportunities for teachers to develop "metaknowledge of subject and practice in relation to each other and to context" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999). Guidelines for teacher-researcher and teacher-activist activities beyond the classroom, perhaps similar to some of those included in the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo, although for a range of school and community contexts, could be included in a redesigned module.

[68] This module is titled *Researching Our Language Classrooms.*

7.3.3 Mediation through activities, pedagogic episodes and scaffolded readings in Unit Three of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching*

Activities

Use of five categories of activity purpose in combination with Lockwood's three models for the design of in-text activities (See 3.3.3.1 and 5.3.2) enabled the identification of the dominant activity types in Unit 3 of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching* which are summarised in table 7.2*.*

Table 7.2 A classification by purpose(s) and model(s) of activities in Unit 3 of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching*

Some activities have more than one purpose and thus appear in two columns. Next to each entry in the table the number 1, 2 or 3 indicates whether the activity is an example of Lockwood's tutorial in print (1), reflective action guide (2), dialogue (3) or a combination of these.

Academic literacy	Reflection on experiences	Content knowledge	Pedagogic content knowledge	Classroom resources
p. 151 (1)	p. 142 (1, 2)	p. 132 (1)	p. 158 (1)	p. 176 (1)
p. 153 (1)	p. 143 (1, 2)	p. 136 (1)	p. 179 (1)	
p. 167A (1)	p. 144 (1, 2)	p. 147 (2)	p. 183 (1)	
	p. 145 (2)	p. 151 (1)	p. 184 (2)	
	p. 146 (1, 2)	p. 159 (1)	p. 185 (2)	
	p. 158 (1)	p. 163 (1, 2)	p. 186 (1)	
	p. 165 (1)	p. 167A (1)	p. 189 (1)	
	p. 167B (1)	p. 167B (1)		
	p. 168 (1)	p. 179 (1)		
	p. 177 (1)			
	p. 183 (1)			
	p. 187 (1)			
	p. 192 (2)			
	p. 193 (3)			

While the placement of some of the activities in particular categories could be contested, particularly in regard to what is identified as content or pedagogic content knowledge, the overall pattern of activities suggests that the designers have constituted readers as students and teachers whose experiences inside and outside the classroom are valued as the starting point for extending their knowledge and skills. As in the *LILT* materials, guidelines and suggestions, rather than prescriptions, are offered for teaching activities.

Pedagogic episodes

Units One and Two of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching* include transcripts of pedagogic episodes which focus on teacher and learner talk. However, in Unit Three there are no examples of classroom episodes as a stimulus for reflection and for learning (as in *Learners and Learning*) or as a model for research or classroom practice (as in the *Language, Literacy and Communication* imithamo). Whether the inclusion of such episodes would enhance the learning experiences of future readers is a question worth exploring.

Unit Three includes one extract from a teacher's literacy history and two case studies. Each of these is the starting point for activities which constitute readers as students who are able to make connections between "the case of something" (Shulman, 2004) that is described and content on the topic of literacy practices and their effects. As each of the three is situated in South Africa's apartheid past, a question for redesigners is whether these cases continue to be generative for learning about literacies and whether they are sufficiently inclusive (See 7.1 above).

Scaffolded readings

While the course book includes short extracts from a number of international and local authorities in their fields, for the most part I chose to summarise and synthesize their writing and, in some instances, to comment on it (e.g. pages 167 to 175 on learning to read and pages 153 to 158 on school literacy). Given that readers who successfully

completed the teacher education programme in which this course book was used were eligible to proceed to post-graduate study, I suggest that the provision of scaffolding for the reading of extended texts, following some of the examples in *Learners and Learning* and in the *LILT* materials, should be considered as part of the redesign of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching.* Appendix 7 is one example of such scaffolded reading.

7.3.4 Mediation through the use of a range of semiotic resources in *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching*

For all the materials originally designed for the Further Diploma in Education programme offered to Mathematics, Science and English teachers there was one generic front cover design which was printed on coloured card. The same card was used for the back cover and was left blank. A black and white version of the front cover of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching* is included in Appendix 6. In most salient position is the name of the qualification, followed by the title of the module. At the bottom of the page, the salience of the names Faculty of Education and University of the Witwatersrand is increased by their superimposition in block format on top of the photograph and by the inclusion of the university's crest. The poorly reproduced photograph in the lower part of the page constitutes readers as interested in learning-centred group work. However, as with the *LILT* material, teachers are absent from this cover. The design foregrounds reader as student and backgrounds reader as teacher – perhaps a strange choice for an in-service programme with a focus on teachers' professional development.

In this concluding chapter I comment only on one use of semiotic resources that differs from those identified in the designs of the materials analysed in detail in the preceding chapters. Approximately twenty per cent of the content of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching*, mainly placed in Units Two and Four, consists of texts imported, with permission of authors and publishers, from a range of local and international textbooks, workbooks and anthologies. It could be argued that these

texts, which in many instances include images and a range of fonts, add interest to the overall design. It could also be argued that the designers have constituted readers as teachers with limited resources whose teaching will be enriched by access to new kinds of texts and classroom activities. In addition to the texts imported into the materials, teacher-learners enrolled for *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching* received a copy of *Level Best*, a Grade 8 English textbook and of *Activities for Multilingual Classrooms.* However, a CPA of the pages on which the imported texts appear, or on which there is reference to the textbook and activities book, suggests that the limited mediation of these resources may have resulted in some readers ignoring them. For example, the comments on page 193 about the text imported from a critical language awareness workbook that is reproduced on page 194[69] do not offer readers guidance either for using the workbook page or for designing and using their own materials.

7.3.5 Insights that could inform a redesign of *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching*

In the 1990s, the Further Diploma in Education programmes offered by South African universities were designed to give teachers with a three year diploma opportunities to extend their academic and professional knowledges, while obtaining a qualification that would enable them to proceed to postgraduate studies. Viewing *Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching* through a critical pedagogic lens has enabled me to see that the design team constituted our readers as experienced teachers who would be responsive to suggestions for ways of working in their classrooms that were constructed as 'new' – especially if we provided examples of texts and activities for doing so, but who did not need detailed guidance for implementing these 'new' practices. We imagined them as inexperienced readers of academic texts but instead of providing guidance for the reading of such texts, in most instances we offered readers either summaries or brief extracts followed by commentary.

[69] See Appendix 6 for both pages.

A CPA of a course book for which I was the main designer has enabled me to understand that if I were to redesign this material I would:

- continue to adopt a critical orientation to pedagogy (Canagarajah, 1999) which validates the knowledges and experiences that readers bring to their engagement with the materials – for example, by retaining many of the activities which encourage readers to reflect on their experiences as learners and teachers but making more explicit links between these reflections and readers' engagement with 'new' theories and practices;
- continue to weave together theory and practice in relation to both subject and pedagogic knowledge, but give more attention to how learners learn;
- change the organisational design by making the learning pathways more explicit – for example, by using introductory questions or statements to 'frame' each unit and returning to these in the concluding section of the unit (following the design of *Learners and Learning* in this respect);
- change the organisational design by reorganising the content into a larger number of shorter units each with a clearer focus and with more explicit links between each one;
- include substantial extracts from the work of local and international authors together with scaffolding in the form of pre-reading questions, word glosses, links between sections of reading, insertion of sub-headings to assist readers and writing activities based on the reading – all with the aim of supporting readers to extend their academic literacy;
- offer more detailed and explicit guidance for teaching in ways that readers may not have had an opportunity to experience, and in doing so, to consider how the clear cut distinction between the performance and competence models of pedagogy (Bernstein, 1996) could be blurred productively – perhaps along the lines suggested by Barrett (2007) in her study of teachers in Tanzania;
- improve the visual design of the front cover so that it is more likely to arouse the interest of readers – for example, by using a collage of colour photographs of familiar and perhaps unfamiliar teaching and learning moments;

- continue to include examples from a range of local and international textbooks (subject to permissions being obtained) but offer more explicit guidance for their use in the classroom.

7.4 What a critical pedagogic analysis cannot achieve

What CPA cannot do is take the place of observation of the situated use(s) of materials which would enable a researcher to collect data about particular readings of the materials and responses to them. However, as such investigation is challenging methodologically (for example, how many different situations of use would constitute representivity) and expensive in terms of time and other resources, a focus on "describing and understanding 'what is being used'" in courses of study (Bezemer & Kress, 2008b, p. 4) may be, in many contexts, the more feasible approach to the design and redesign of materials of high quality. If it is feasible for research on materials in use to be undertaken, a critical pedagogic analysis could be valuable as a starting point for identifying a focus (or more than one) for such studies.

7.5 Further research

The following are among the possibilities for further research:

- refinements to and extension of the framework and tools for a CPA of teacher education materials;
- a CPA of more recently designed teacher education materials which focus on language teaching but which make use of new texts and new technologies;
- a CPA of teacher education materials for teachers of a range of subjects;
- a CPA of school textbooks and particularly of the teachers' guides[70] that accompany these books;

[70] In South Africa, the national and provincial Departments of Education require that these be designed and produced by the publishers of school textbooks.

- a CPA of distance education materials designed for programmes, particularly professional development programmes, in areas other than education (e.g. for health professionals or legal professionals).

7.6 Conclusion

I am aware that the process of designing, analysing and redesigning is cyclical because:

> "… every new design serves a different set of interests. Because all texts are positioned and positioning, each redesign becomes a new text that requires deconstruction. No design is neutral ..." (Janks, 2010, p. 183)

In this study I have used selections from the extensive literatures on pedagogy, teacher education, mediation, subjectivity, systemic functional linguistics and social semiotics to inform an analysis of teacher education materials which could be used for the purposes of both deconstruction and reconstruction. I argue that what I have constituted as critical pedagogic analysis affords materials designers and evaluators understandings of how knowledge is mediated in particular instantiations of teacher education materials and of how this mediation may affect readers' investment in both their studies and their professional development as teachers. As Norton (2000) argues in the context of additional language learning, learners expect a good return on their investment. Two questions to be addressed by teacher education materials designers and evaluators are whether the subject positions offered to ideal readers are likely to encourage their investment in the materials as students and as teachers, and whether the ways in which knowledge is mediated on the page or screen are likely to yield good returns for these readers. This research has demonstrated that CPA will enable them to do this.

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