

COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN ENGLISH AMONG RURAL AFRICAN
HIGH SCHOOL LEARNERS IN THE ESHOWE CIRCUIT

BY

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It is hereby declared that this is my own work, both in conception and execution and that the opinions expressed or conclusions reached are not to be regarded as reflecting the views of the above-mentioned persons.

B.X.S. Ntombela

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DEDICATION

Dedicated to Abigail & Phezulu through whom I get to be known.

ABSTRACT

This study investigates communicative competence in English among rural African high school learners in the Eshowe circuit. Poor student performance especially in higher institutions has generally been linked to incompetence in English Second Language, which motivated an investigation into communicative competence among high school learners from a rural background. The study was conducted in five high schools in the Eshowe circuit. The design of the study necessitated the adoption of qualitative approach in order to probe the multifaceted phenomenon of communicative approach in its natural setting (the classroom situation).

The theoretical underpinnings on which this study relied on were extracted from the field of *discourse analysis and text linguistics*. Also, due to the nature of the study i.e. being concerned with communicative competence and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), much of the literature reviewed surveyed the concept of communicative competence from scholars and researchers such as Chomsky (1969); Hymes (1982); Widdowson (1985), and Saville-Troike (1997). Moreover, the linguistic context on which the study was based necessitated that we explore the definitions of bilingualism and multilingualism. Classroom discourse was used in analysing the lessons in a Second Language classroom setting. Lessons seemed to display a unique classroom interaction pattern, typical of teacher-pupil interaction in a Second Language classroom. In addition, the study looked at the extent to which the lessons complied with the expectations of the Communicative Language

Teaching (CLT) with particular attention to learner roles and teacher roles in CLT. Moreover, the analysis of lessons is subjected to seven standards of textuality discussed by Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), which helped determine the textuality of lesson texts, as these standards are activated during communicative events.

The study further considered possible remedy to the errors found in English lesson transcripts. Though the National Curriculum Statement offered viable solutions to learners' errors, a challenge lied with errors committed by teachers, who according to the study, fell below the assumed competence and fell short of being subject specialists. Nevertheless, teachers' utterances were characterised by occurrences of code-switching, which according to the study played a positive role in regulating classroom behaviour.

From the analysis of lessons it emerged that in most lessons, though a communicative approach was followed, there was little or no linguistic input from the teachers, which raised doubts about the implementation of the communicative approach to language teaching. Indeed, data indicated shortfalls in the implementation of CLT as expected in NCS. The problem of communicative incompetence loomed heavily not only over the learners, but also over the teachers as well, which is a cause for concern in the teaching of English as a Second Language.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.0. Introduction

At the advent of democracy in South Africa in 1994, the government stipulated in its language policy that eleven languages in South Africa are official. Though African South Africans in particular had experienced linguistic marginalisation during the apartheid era, when English and Afrikaans were the only official languages, African languages have again come under siege as reported by Moodie (2004:6) who complains that the children of former Model C schools do not read or cannot read African-language newspapers and increasingly use English amongst themselves. In fact, the future dominant status of the nine official African languages is weakened as English has become the language of technology, commerce and government and thus the most powerful language globally. The need for competence in English can, therefore, not be overemphasised. This study is concerned with communicative competence challenges that are faced by African South African rural high school learners in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN), who are not adequately exposed to English as compared to urban learners. Actually, the real situation is such that isiZulu is the dominant language, and in addition to English there is some exposure to Afrikaans. Moreover, the study sought to explore options that may better the teaching and learning of English as a second language.

1.1. Medium of Instruction Policy

English as a medium of instruction was an important issue to consider. Though the language-in-education policy does not specify the language that must be used as a medium of instruction, it is left to the School Governing Body (SGB) to decide. According to Potgieter et al (1997:54), however, the fact is that the majority of schools in South Africa have adopted English as a medium of instruction. In fact, the government policy states that a minimum of two languages must be taught (Potgieter et al 1997: 55), which consists of a primary language (the native language of the learners) and an additional language (any of the eleven official languages in South Africa). The reality is that English is taught in almost all the schools either as a primary language or an additional language and the generally chosen language for examination at Grade 12 level.

This is regardless of the learners' mother tongue. This means that all subjects in most schools are expected to be taught in English, with the exception of one or two languages, depending on the number of additional languages offered by the school. Mawasha (1996:20), in a study conducted at a Historically Black University (HBU) on the knotty question of English versus African languages in African schools in South Africa, reports that the majority (68%) of post-graduate students who specialised in Language Education prefer English as a medium of instruction, as opposed to 32% who accept the viability of African languages as media of instruction. Interestingly, Mawasha (1996: 22) points out that the reason, though not grounded on sound pedagogy, for students' preference for

English is based on the opinion that most Black parents and teachers as well as learners seem to consider English as a language of prestige that can carry content effectively because of being an international language and historically has no evil in it. On the one hand, Mawasha (ibid: 22) asserts that mother tongue is seen as inferior and is associated with Bantu Education, while on the other hand; Afrikaans is regarded as a language of the oppressor. This notion is echoed by Moyo (2007: 184) who argues that the inception of the Apartheid regime in South Africa, which saw schools segregated along linguistic lines, and the imposition of Afrikaans as the medium of instruction led many Blacks, on the new democratic political dispensation after 1994, to view mother tongue instruction with suspicion; instead most parents and teachers prefer their children to be instructed through the medium of English, the global language of power and one, which has the economic cache in life. Similarly, Parmegiani (2005: 54) in his critique of Neville Alexander (2003) refers to one of the most baneful legacies of Apartheid being the idea that English equals liberation, and that Afrikaans and Bantu Languages equal to Apartheid.

1.2. The National Curriculum Statement (NCS)

According to NCS (2003:1), there was a need for curriculum transformation as stated in the Constitution that 'everyone has the right...to further education which the State, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible.' This was in accordance with changes in the country and the adoption of the South African Constitution as promulgated in the Act of 108,

1996. The Department of Education in South Africa, in an attempt to address the educational imbalances of the past, developed the New Curriculum Statement (NCS) to be adopted by all schools in the Republic of South Africa. The National Curriculum Statement (NCS) lays a foundation by stipulating Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards, and by spelling out the key principles and values that underpin the curriculum (see NCS 2003:1-2). The following are the principles on which the National Curriculum Statement Grades 10 – 12 (General) is based (NCS: 2003: 2):

- (i) social transformation;
- (ii) outcome-based education;
- (iii) high knowledge and high skills;
- (iv) integration and applied competence;
- (v) progression;
- (vi) articulation and portability;
- (vii) human rights, inclusivity, environmental and social justice;
- (viii) valuing indigenous knowledge systems; and
- (ix) credibility, quality, and efficiency.

Out of the above principles we shall consider the principle of outcome-based education in more detail as it forms the foundation for the curriculum delivery in South Africa.

1.2.1. Outcome-based education

According to NCS (2003: 3-4) document, outcome-based education (OBE) does not only strive to enable all learners to reach their maximum learning potential by setting the Learning Outcomes to be achieved by the end of the education process; it also encourages a learner-centred and activity-based approach to education. In addition, National Curriculum Statement builds its Learning

Outcomes for Grades 10 – 12 on the Critical and Developmental Outcomes.

On the one hand the Critical Outcomes require learners to be able to (NCS 2003: 3):

- (i) identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking;
- (ii) work effectively with others as members of a team, group, organization, and community;
- (iii) organize and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively;
- (iv) collect, analyse, organize and critically evaluate information;
- (v) communicate effectively using visual, symbolic and or language skills in various modes;
- (vi) use science and technology effectively and critically showing responsibility towards the environment and the health of others; and
- (vii) demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems by recognising that problem solving contexts do not exist in isolation.

On the other hand, the Developmental Outcomes require learners to be able to (ibid: 3):

- (i) reflect and explore a variety of strategies to learn more effectively;
- (ii) participate as responsible citizens in the life of local, national and global communities;
- (iii) be culturally and aesthetically sensitive across a range of social contexts;
- (iv) explore education and career opportunities; and
- (v) develop entrepreneurial opportunities.

Furthermore, as part of curriculum transformation the subjects in the National Curriculum Statement are categorised into Learning Fields. Below are brief outlines of the fields as presented by NCS: a Learning Field, a Subject, and a Learning Outcome in the NCS.

1.2.2. What is a Learning Field?

According to the NCS (2003:6) document, a Learning Field is a category that serves as a home for cognate subjects, and that facilitates the formulation of rules of combination for the Further Education and Training Certificate (General).

The following subject groupings were demarcated into Learning Fields to help with learner subject combinations (NCS 2003: 6):

- (i) Languages (Fundamentals);
- (ii) Arts and Culture;
- (iii) Business, Commerce, Management and Service Studies;
- (iv) Manufacturing, Engineering and Technology;
- (v) Human and Social Sciences and Languages; and
- (vi) Physical, Mathematical, Computer, Life and Agricultural Sciences.

Moreover, the National Curriculum Statement introduced a different understanding of a 'subject' as can be seen below.

1.2.3. What is a subject?

The NCS (2003:6) document acknowledges that historically a subject was defined as a specific body of academic knowledge at the expense of skills, values and attitudes. However, it further acknowledges (*ibid*: 6) that in an outcome-based curriculum, subject boundaries are blurred, and knowledge integrates theory, skills and values. A subject in an outcome-based curriculum is, therefore, broadly defined by Learning Outcome, and not only by its body of content. That is, in the South African context, the Learning Outcome should, by

design, lead to the achievement of the Critical and Developmental Outcomes (ibid: 6).

1.2.4. What is a Learning Outcome?

According to NCS (2003:7) document, Learning Outcomes are defined in broad terms and are flexible, making allowances for the inclusion of local inputs. Nevertheless, a Learning Outcome is a statement of an intended result of learning and teaching, and it describes knowledge, skills, and values that learners should acquire by the end of the Further Education and Training band.

1.2.5. English Language as a Learning Field

Since this study is concerned with communicative competence in English among rural African high school learners in the Eshowe circuit we shall now proceed to look at the Language as a Learning Field. We shall start with the definition, then the purpose, and scope. We shall also discuss educational and career links, and learning outcomes as presented in the National Curriculum Statement Grades 10 – 12 (General).

1.2.5.1. Definition

NCS (2003:9) document defines language as a tool for thought and communication through which cultural diversity and social relations are expressed and constructed. Moreover, learning to use language effectively enables learners to think and acquire knowledge, to express their identity,

feelings and ideas, to interact with others, and to manage their work.

1.2.5.2. Purpose

In view of the linguistic diversity in South Africa, which is acknowledged and valued in the constitutional recognition of eleven official languages and the Language in Education Policy of additive multilingualism; learners are obliged to include at least two official languages as Fundamental subjects and further languages may be taken as core and or elective subjects, see (NCS 2003:9).

Furthermore, whilst in the General Education and Training band, a thorough knowledge of the learners home language is developed, which provides a sound base for learning additional languages; the curriculum for the Further and Education and Training band provides opportunities for learners to strengthen and develop their multilingual skills. Therefore, as learners move through the grades, they are required to use language with increasing fluency, proficiency and accuracy in a broadening range of situations.

Moreover, the Further Education and Training curriculum is set to enable learners to meet many of the requirements of critical and developmental outcomes, including the following objectives (NCS 2003:10):

- (i) Broaden and deepen language competencies developed in General Education and Training band, including the abstract language skills required for academic learning across the curriculum, and the aesthetic appreciation and enjoyment of texts, so that learners are able to listen, speak, read or view and write or present with confidence.

- (ii) Use language appropriately in real-life contexts, taking into account audience, purpose and context.
- (iii) Express and justify their own ideas, views and emotions confidently in order to become independent and analytical thinkers.
- (iv) Use language and their imagination to represent and explore human experience.
- (v) Use language to access and manage information for learning across the curriculum and in a wide range of other contexts.
- (vi) Use language as a tool for critical and creative thinking.
- (vii) Express reasoned opinions on ethical and values.
- (viii) Interact critically with a wide range of texts.
- (ix) Recognise the unequal status of different languages and language varieties.

The scope of NCS is presented below.

1.2.5.3. Scope

Two important issues are discussed in the scope of the National Curriculum Statement. The first issue deals with inclusivity, which mainly states that teaching and assessment of languages should make provision for inclusion of all learners; and strategies should be found to assist all learners to access or produce language texts. The second issue has to do with language levels and is worth a closer consideration that follows below.

1.2.5.4. Language levels

Notably, language learning in the Further Education and Training band include all the official languages in the Republic of South Africa: Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, sePedi (seSotho sa Leboa), seSotho, seTswana, siSwati, tshiVenda, xiTsonga, as well as Sign Language (sic) and can be extended to other languages endorsed by the Pan South African Language

Board.

According to NCS (2003:11) document, all languages can be offered at the following levels:

- (i) Home Language: In the Further Education and Training band, all official South African languages have Home Language Outcomes, which is in line with the constitution requirements of equal status for official languages. Most importantly, the cognitive level of the home language should be such that it may be used as a language of learning and teaching. Though listening and speaking skills would be further developed and refined, the emphasis at this level would be on developing the learners' reading and writing skills.
- (ii) First Additional Language: Learning a First Additional Language promotes multilingualism and intercultural communication. In the South African context learners may learn through the medium of their First Additional Language. Unlike home language, in first additional language there would be an equal emphasis on the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing.
- (iii) Second Additional Language: Learning a Second Additional Language furthers multilingualism and intercultural communication. Although reading and writing skills will be developed at this level, the emphasis would be on developing listening and speaking skills as this level is meant to target improved interpersonal communication.

In addition to the advancement of multilingualism, language learning is associated with educational and career links; a discussion of which follows below.

1.2.5.5. Educational and career links

Undoubtedly, the study of language can lead to language-oriented careers such as journalism, translation, language teaching, marketing, advertising, diplomacy, and so on. Moreover, it is self-evident that languages are the basis of all

learning, not only in everyday life but also in the workplace. Hence, the development of for example, entrepreneurship depends on the learners' language competency, and according to NCS (2003:12) document; in the highly competitive technological world, access for the learner is determined by communicative competency. In the NCS (ibid: 12) document it is conclusively stated that language is a gateway subject, which, if poorly taught, severely limits the learners' career options.

Additionally, language is a tool that can facilitate meaningful relationships with the people in the learners' immediate community, and the sensitivity with which language is handled determines the success or failure of many interpersonal relationships.

Lastly, we shall pay attention to learning outcomes into which the scope and purpose outlined above are consolidated.

1.2.5.6. Learning Outcomes

There are four learning outcomes, which, although listed separately, should be integrated when taught and assessed (see NCS 2003:12):

- (i) Learning Outcome 1: Listening and Speaking – the learner is able to listen and speak for a variety of purposes, audiences and contexts.
- (ii) Learning Outcome 2: Reading and Viewing – the learner is able to read and view for understanding and to evaluate critically and respond to a wide range of texts.
- (iii) Learning Outcome 3: Writing and Presenting – the learner is able to write and present for a wide range of purposes and audiences

- using conventions and formats appropriate to diverse contexts.
- (iv) Learning Outcome 4: Language – the learner is able to use language structures and conventions appropriately and effectively.

Since the study is concerned with communicative language teaching, it is important to look at the concept of discourse analysis.

1.3. Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is sometimes used to refer to the analysis of both spoken discourse and written text. However, some writers insist on a distinction between the two. Coulthard (1988:3), for example, agrees with Edmondson (1981:4), who regards a text as a structured sequence of linguistic expression forming a unitary whole, and a discourse as a structured event manifest in linguistic behaviour. Although Edmondson (*ibid*: 4) is aware that 'text' is at times an alternative term to 'discourse' he, nevertheless, insists on the distinction of the two terms on the grounds that the terms 'utterance' and 'sentence' are often used interchangeably, notwithstanding that 'utterance' has to do with 'spoken' and 'sentence' with 'written' language. Interestingly, Fairclough (2000: 21) considers classroom interaction to be categorised into a social event, which is characterised by speaking and writing.

Within the scope of discourse analysis there is also conversation analysis. Edmondson (1981:6) regards conversation as that which occurs in a 'relaxed' setting without any specified rules. Levinson (1983:284), on the other hand, defines conversation as that familiar predominant kind of talk in which two or

more participants freely alternate in speaking, which generally occurs outside institutional settings like religious services, law courts, classrooms and the like. In contrast, Yule (1996:71-72) uses an analogy with the workings of the stock market economy to describe the structure of conversation. In this market he considers the floor as a scarce commodity, which can be defined as a right to speak. He regards having control of this scarce commodity at any time as a 'turn'. In any situation where control is not fixed in advance, anyone can attempt to get control. This is called turn-taking.

Beaugrande (1996:10), on the other hand, argues that a text can be viewed as a communicative event wherein linguistic, cognitive and social actions converge, not just the sequence of words written or uttered. Moreover, he regards discourse as a set of interconnected texts, the primary instance being conversation. Beaugrande's (1996) arguments seemingly explain 'text' as written form and 'discourse' as oral. For instance, he argues in the development of academic enterprise that rhetoric was a text discipline, in that it centred on oral discourse, whilst grammar centred on written discourse. Furthermore, James Paul Gee in Rogers (2003:19) points out that all discourse analysis that intends to make empirical claims is rooted in specific viewpoints about the relationship between form and function in language.

This study will focus on spoken discourse.

1.4. Spoken Discourse

Early studies in spoken discourse focused on the structure of discourse in school classrooms (McCarthy 1992:12). These studies were conducted by Sinclair and Coulthard, among many other researchers (See also Bloome et al 2005). Coulthard (1981:1-2), for example, asserts that in 1970 the only major published attempts to handle the structure of interaction were all concerned with analysing classroom interaction. Chimombo et al (1998:197) share the same sentiments with Coulthard in that educational discourse provides discourse analysts with a source of variety of texts very much tied to a context, the school.

The basic discourse structure in a classroom situation according to McCarthy (1992:14-15) and Coulthard and Montgomery (1981:6) is:

- (1) Teacher (T)
- (2) Pupil (P)
- (3) Teacher (T)

or TPT. This pattern is repeated. On the one hand, McCarthy (1992:14) labels the pattern based on the functions performed as:

- (1) Ask (T)
- (2) Answer (P)
- (3) Comment (T).

Coulthard and Montgomery (1981:6), on the other hand, prefer the exchange

process and propose the pattern:

- (1) Initiation (T)
- (2) Response (P)
- (3) Feedback (T).

Moreover, Coulthard (1977:125) has labelled the pattern based on the exchange process thus:

- (1) Elicit (T)
- (2) Reply (P)
- (3) Feedback (T).

As mentioned before, the above structure (TPT) represents the basic discourse structure in a classroom situation. There are other discourse structures that exist in a classroom situation; for example, the structure (TP) is common, especially in primary school during the opening or closing of the school day, e.g.

T: *Good morning class two*

P: Good morning Miss Khumalo.

Apart from the discourse structure in the classroom situation, the other common situation that is focused on in discourse structure is the doctor and patient interaction. This kind of interaction between a doctor and a patient usually takes an interview format.

Though Coulthard and Montgomery (1981:15-16) had at first regarded the doctor

and patient interviews as uniquely having their beginnings and endings marked by *greeting and leave-taking sequences*, they later argued that the greeting and leave-taking are not part of the structure of particular interactions but markers of the beginning and end of situations during which interactions can occur. They had actually observed that hospital consultations tend to have an opening greeting but no closing, precisely because the patient will return to the doctor after going elsewhere for an X-ray, blood sample, tests, etc.

1.5. Statement of the Problem

There are many problems that confront African South African learners of English. The problems are generally acute and noted mostly in rural learners. Some observers and commentators (Ntombela 2001:76-77; Moyo 2002: 159; Moyo 2007:186) have noted that learners exhibit *poor competence and performance in the language*. This situation is attributed to poor teaching and learning in schools. One of these problems is low proficiency that manifests itself numerous syntactic errors and inappropriate selection in their use of English (Buthelezi 1995). The forms or varieties are mistakes or errors, which can be eradicated by teaching the language (Mpepo 1990, 2007). *Learners need to learn and understand the structure of English*. Learners are faced with the challenge of being communicatively competent and teachers of English, therefore, carry the burden of producing competent learners.

Communicative competence is seen as being composed of four areas of

knowledge and skills: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competences (Coulthard 1988:147). This means that the communicative syllabus ought to include grammatical competence and all other competences mentioned.

The success of Second Language learners in English is increased by the amount of exposure to English, either spoken or written. Many schools, especially in rural areas, are reported (Moyo 2007: 186) to be under-resourced in terms of library materials with which learners could enhance their exposure to English, and audio-visual materials like television and radio where learners would be exposed to spoken English by native and educated speakers of English.

In order to find out incompetence and to understand the problem of English among the learners, it was necessary to investigate the number of hours communicating in English. It was expected that most of this communication should take place in the classroom especially during the English period. It was necessary to investigate the amount of English found in English lessons. We needed to establish characteristics of an English lesson in relation to what is happening in the selected schools. The investigation would help us find out first hand what actually took place in the selected schools.

1.6. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study were as follows:

- (1) To investigate learners' communicative competence in English as a Second Language in the five selected high schools;
- (2) To investigate the use of English in the classroom as a medium of instruction in the selected high schools and
- (3) To suggest ways of improving Second Language teaching and learning after visiting, attending lessons and analysing learners' and teachers' discourses.

1.7. Research Questions

The study attempted to answer the following questions:

- (1) To what extent are learners of English as a Second Language exposed to the target language?
- (2) How much time do learners spend communicating in English?
- (3) How is English used as a medium of instruction?
- (4) Is grammar taught in English lessons?
- (5) What demands in the teaching of English as a Second Language do learners' and teachers' discourses suggest?
- (6) What are the options that can be used to improve teaching and learning?

1.8. Population and Sample of Study

The research concentrated on the selected schools in the Eshowe circuit, which has forty high schools. Five high schools from Ndlangubo Ward were considered

for the study. The high schools that took part in the study were not selected by means of random sampling. Admittedly, random sampling has the advantage of cancelling the biases and ensuring that each school in Ndlangubo Ward has an equal probability of being chosen for the study (see for example Bailey 1987:87). Instead, convenience sampling and purposive sampling were adopted in this study (see Blaxter et al 2006:164). For instance, Ndlangubo Ward was chosen because it was more rural than other wards and the five high schools were more convenient in terms of accessibility to the researcher.

1.9. Value of the Research

The research findings would enable us to know what was happening in the selected high schools with regard to the teaching and learning of English. This would have implications for the need to develop *communicative competence* in English as a Second Language among learners.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. Introduction

This Chapter presents a literature review in six topics. The first topic considers text perspective paying particular attention to seven standards of textuality discussed by Beaugrande and Dressler (1981). The second topic discusses communicative competence with particular attention to Chomsky, Hymes, Widdowson, and Saville-Troike while the third one looks into bilingualism and multilingualism. The fourth topic discusses communicative language teaching whilst characteristics of a language lesson are discussed in the fifth topic followed by stages of a lesson. Finally, features of conversation are presented in the last topic.

2.1. Text Perspective

The first question that we need to consider is what makes a text a text. However, before defining *text* we need to mention that Edmondson (1981:14) suggests that the crucial issue is not that of distinguishing 'text' from 'non-text', but distinguishing between coherent and non-coherent suprasentential stretches of language, and further that the critical issue here is interpretability as discourse.

Nevertheless, Halliday and Hasan (1976:1) contend that the word *text* is used in linguistics to refer to any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole. Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:3) define a text as a

communicative occurrence, which meets the following seven standards of textuality:

- (i) Cohesion,
- (ii) Coherence,
- (iii) Intentionality,
- (iv) Acceptability,
- (v) Informativity,
- (vi) Situationality, and
- (vii) Intertextuality.

It will be interesting to find out the extent to which learners' discourse meets these standards of textuality. Let us briefly look at each standard of textuality, starting with cohesion.

2.1.1. Cohesion

A thorough discussion of cohesion is presented by Halliday and Hasan (1976). They assert that when we consider cohesion, 'we are investigating the linguistic means whereby a text is enabled to function as a single meaningful unit'. They further discuss different kinds of cohesive ties¹, which are *reference*, *substitution*, *ellipsis*, *conjunction* and *lexical cohesion*. The examples of the five cohesive ties are discussed below:

¹ 'tie' is a term used for one occurrence of a pair of cohesively related item.

- (i) Reference: *Three blind mice, three blind mice. See how they run! See how they run!* In *See how they run!*, *they* means not merely 'three blind mice' but 'the same three blind mice that we have just been talking about'.
- (ii) Substitution: *My axe is too blunt. I must get a sharp one.* *One* substitutes for *axe*.
- (iii) Ellipsis: *Joan brought some carnations, and Catherine some sweet peas.* In this example, one element in the second clause is presupposed to be supplied from the preceding clause; the second clause can be interpreted only as *Catherine brought some sweet peas.*
- (iv) Conjunction: *He was very uncomfortable. Despite this, he fell asleep.* *This* is the reference item that relates the second sentence to the preceding one. In other words, it serves a cohesive function.
- (v) Lexical Cohesion: *Didn't everyone make it clear they expected the minister to resign? – They did. But it seems to have made no impression on the man.* The combination of a general noun plus specific determiner, *the man*, in this instance, has the only possible interpretation, that is, by reference to something that has gone before.

However, Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:3) observe that cohesion concerns the ways in which the components of the surface text, i.e. the actual words we hear or see, are mutually connected within a sequence.

To illustrate this, an example of a telephone directory that is used by Beaugrande (1997:13) is cited. In the telephone directory the principle of cohesion is applied by connecting the forms and patterns of each entry, such as words and numbers.

Another example from Beaugrande (ibid: 13) is that of a road sign:

SLOW

CHILDREN

AT PLAY

Beaugrande (ibid: 13) argues that 'we cannot change the order into, for instance: children play slow at, as drivers would hardly tell what goes with what'.

The point made by Beaugrande (1997) here is the importance of word order in English, which should be observed by the writer and the reader. Moreover, shared knowledge of the English linguistic system is assumed.

The second important standard of textuality to be considered is coherence.

2.1.2. Coherence

Yule (1996:127-8) defines coherence as the familiar and expected relationships in experience, which we use to connect the meanings of utterances even when those connections are not explicitly made. In other words coherence is language users' expectation that what is said will make sense in terms of their normal experience of things. Let us consider the following examples:

(1) Cake sale.

(2) Boot sale.

Although the above examples share the same structure, they cannot be interpreted in the same way. Example (1) indicates that the item 'cake' is selling,

whereas example (2) indicates that certain items are being sold from the 'boot' of a car.

The important factor that is assumed from the reader is linguistic knowledge about subject substitution, 'cake' substituted by 'boot', for instance. Thus, both knowledge of cohesion and coherence are important.

Furthermore, Brumfit and Johnson (1985: 56) present two pieces of dialogue in order to show the distinction between *cohesion* and *coherence*:

A: Can you go to Edinburgh tomorrow?

B: Yes I can.

A. Can you go to Edinburgh tomorrow?

B. B.E.A. pilots are on strike.

They (*ibid*: 56) contend that in the first of these exchanges, we have a cohesive text in that B uses an elliptical form of the sentence 'Yes, I can go to Edinburgh tomorrow'; in the second exchange, there is no cohesion between the sentences which are used – and yet the two utterances in combination made sense: we understand that B is saying that he cannot go to Edinburgh because the strike rules out what he considers to be the only reasonable means to getting there.

Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:84) further explain that a text 'makes sense' because there is a continuity of senses among the knowledge activated by the

expressions of the text. This continuity of senses they define as the foundation of coherence, being the mutual access and relevance within a configuration of concepts and relations.

The third standard of textuality that is presented by Beaugrande (1997) is intentionality.

2.1.3. Intentionality

According to Beaugrande (1997:14), intentionality subsumes what text producers intend to mean, achieve, and so on. In other words, unlike cohesion and coherence, which are text-centred, intentionality goes and demands knowledge of a language beyond linguistic system to include among other things what the text producers intended to mean. In addition, Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:116) assert that intentionality designates all the ways in which text producers utilize texts to pursue and fulfil their intentions. At certain times, especially in conversation, cohesion is occasionally lacking, for example:

(1) But that was - then you went to Fred's.

(2) Well, where do - which part of town do you live?

In example (1) the speaker shifts the plan for the utterance in trying to reconstruct a still unclear event. Furthermore, we can see in example (2) that

cohesion does not fully succeed but it does not disturb communication because it still serves the superior goal of finding out someone's address.

The fourth standard of textuality to be considered is acceptability.

2.1.4. Acceptability

Acceptability subsumes what text receivers engage to do by accepting something as text, e.g., understanding, considering, reacting, and so on (Beaugrande 1997:14). In other words, acceptability concerns the text receivers' belief that the set of occurrences should constitute cohesive and coherent text. It should, however, be mentioned that the text producers' intention may not be realised, i.e., may be denied, or disbelieved but still be accepted as the text.

Beaugrande (ibid: 14) gives an example of a misspelled entry in a telephone directory 'massage service' for 'message service'. Though the misspelled entry may have annoying effects, it does not demolish the purpose of the text.

Moreover, the receiver's attitude is responsive to such factors as text type, social or cultural setting, and the desirability of goals (Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:7). In addition, Beaugrande and Dressler (ibid) argue that text producers often speculate on the receiver's attitude of acceptability and present texts that require important contributions in order to make sense. For example a certain telephone company gave the following warning to people:

(1) Call us before you dig. You may not be able to afterwards.

In this example, room is left for people to infer that digging without asking might lead to cutting of a ground cable and that they may not be able to make any call because of broken wires. Or it may mean sustaining bodily injury due to electric shock. It may further mean if you are caught digging without permission, you may be arrested, convicted and sent to prison, and consequently never be able to dig afterwards.

We shall now look at the fifth standard of textuality, which is informativity.

2.1.5. Informativity

The term *informativity* is used to designate the extent to which a presentation is new or un-expected for the receivers (Beaugrande and Dressler 1981:139). Moreover, informativity subsumes the degree to which the knowledge that the text makes accessible does not fit the reader's prior knowledge (Beaugrande 1997:14). In other words, informativity is concerned with the extent to which the occurrences of presented text are expected versus un-expected or known versus unknown.

For example, the statement:

(1) The sea is water

is so well known to everyone that there seems to be no point in saying it. Example (1) is so uninformative despite the fact that it is clearly cohesive and coherent, and undoubtedly intended to be accepted as such. However, the same statement in example (1) can be expanded so that it is more informative in example (2) below:

(2) The sea is water only in the sense that water is the dominant substance present. Actually, it is a solution of gases and salts in addition to vast numbers of living organisms.

Following is the sixth standard of textuality, which is situationality.

2.1.6. Situationality

The principle of situationality is applied by connecting the text-event to the situation wherein it occurs. Situationality further concerns the factors, which make a text relevant to a situation of occurrence (Beaugrande and Dressler 1981:9).

To illustrate situationality, we shall use the example we used in cohesion:

(1) Slow children at play.

This example, which is a road sign, might be treated by anyone in different ways, but the probable intended use is obvious. It is easy for people to decide on its intended use due to the influence of situation where the text is presented. For instance, pedestrians can easily tell that the text is not relevant for them because their speed would not endanger anyone. In this manner, Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:10) conclude that the sense and use of the text are decided via situation. Situationality is seemingly about the context wherein the text occurs.

The seventh and the last standard of textuality discussed by Beaugrande (1997) is intertextuality.

2.1.7. Intertextuality

Intertextuality concerns the factors, which make the utilization of one text depended upon knowledge of one or more previously encountered texts (Beaugrande and Dressler 1981:10). Moreover, according to Beaugrande (1996:15) the principle of intertextuality is applied by connecting the current occasion of producing or receiving the text up to your prior experience with other texts especially ones of the same text type and discourse domains.

For instance, if we look at the previous example:

(1) Slow children at play,

the motorist is likely to meet another sign down the road:

(2) *Resume speed,*

which must be interpreted in the light of the previous sign encountered. That is, one cannot increase the speed unless there had been a reduction somehow.

Intertextuality, therefore, puts emphasis on text types according to Brumfit and Johnson (1985: 53). For example, a road sign must be received and interpreted in the light of other road signs and not, for instance, against building signs. In fact, even different genres, e.g., poetry, drama, novel, and so on, are interpreted in the light of the genre of the same kind. That is, one cannot judge a science textbook against a novel because there is no intertextuality between them.

Since this study is concerned with *communicative competence*, it is essential to discuss different researchers' conception of the term. Our first consideration is Chomsky, then Hymes, and later Widdowson. We will also look at Saville-Troike, whom we consider to have summarised important factors in *communicative competence*.

2.2. Chomsky's Theory of Linguistic Competence

Chomsky (1965) cited by Saville-Troike in McKay and Hornberger (1996: 362) defines linguistic competence as speakers who could produce any and all of the grammatical sentences of a language. Chomsky (1969: 3-4) refers to linguistic theory as primarily concerned with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech-community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance. In fact, Chomsky (ibid: 3-4) cited by Coulthard (1988: 33) sets the goal of linguistic theory as description of the ideal speaker-hearer's competence, his knowledge of *grammaticality*, or whether or not putative sentences are part of his language. In short, Chomsky argues that the prime concern of linguistic theory is with the underlying knowledge, the *competence* of the ideal speaker-hearer, which underlying competence is the same for all native speakers and therefore can be studied in the productions of any one individual, usually the linguist himself, who proceeds by introspection, checking potential sentences for grammaticality against his intuitions (See Coulthard 1988: 2).

Chomsky (1969: 4) clearly points out that the grammar of a language purports to be a description of the ideal speaker-hearer's intrinsic competence. Furthermore, a fully adequate grammar must assign to each of an infinite range of sentences a structural description indicating how the ideal speaker-hearer

understands this sentence. Thus, by *generative grammar* Chomsky (1969:8) simply means a system of rules that in some explicit and well-defined way assigns structural descriptions to sentences. It should be clear that Chomsky's main concern is with the knowledge the speaker has about his language and not about how the speaker uses that knowledge. Therefore, Chomsky makes a distinction between what the speaker actually knows (competence) and what the speaker does (performance) about his knowledge.

It must be noted that Chomsky's distinction of *competence* and *performance* is related to the *langue-parole* distinction of Saussure in Holdcroft (1991: 30ff). According to Holdcroft (1991: 20), and Rivers (1981: 68) Saussure's natural language (*langage*) is divided into *langue* (particular language) and *parole* (speech). Hence, the distinction between *langue* and *parole*, in Holdcroft (ibid: 30ff), can be explained in terms of their relations with each other, by means of a set of contrasts that Saussure makes:

Langue – Social; Essential; No active individual role; Not designed.

Parole – Individual; Contingent; Active role; Designed.

In a nutshell, *parole* is what people say in a language, whilst *langue* is 'the social side of speech, outside the individual who can never create nor modify it by himself' (Rivers 1981: 68). Therefore, Rivers (1981: 69) argues that grammar is

not a description of *parole*, with its infinite and unpredictable possibilities of variation, but of the coherent system of patterning in *langue*.

Nevertheless, Chomsky's (1969: 4; Pride and Holmes 1982: 273; and in Brumfit and Johnson 1985: 8-9) distinction between *competence* and *performance* rejects Saussure's concept of *langue* as merely a systematic inventory of items and according to him (ibid: 4) returns rather to Humboldtian conception of underlying competence as a system of generative processes.

2.3. Chomsky's Theory of Performance

For Chomsky (1969: 3-4), *competence* is the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language, and is distinct from *performance*, which is the actual use of language in concrete situations. By way of clarifying this distinction, Chomsky (1969: 10-11) uses the term 'acceptable' to refer to utterances that are perfectly natural and immediately comprehensible without paper-and-pencil analysis, and in no way bizarre or outlandish. However, he points out that the notion 'acceptable' is not to be confused with 'grammatical', acknowledging that 'acceptability' is a concept that belongs to the study of performance, whereas 'grammaticalness' belongs to the study of competence. To illustrate, Chomsky (ibid: 10-11) uses sentences of (1) that are somewhat more acceptable, in the intended sense, than those of (2) below:

(1) (i) I called up the man who wrote the book that you told me about

(ii) quite a few of the students who you met who come from New York are friends of mine

(iii) John, Bill, Tom, and several of their friends visited us last night

(2) (i) I called the man who wrote the book that you told me about up

(ii) the man who the boy who the students recognised pointed out is a friend of mine

Chomsky (1969: 11) argues that the more acceptable sentences are those that are more likely to be produced, more easily understood, less clumsy, and in some sense more natural. Therefore, the sentences of (2) are low on the scale of acceptability but high on the scale of grammaticalness. In other words, the generative rules of the language assign an interpretation to them in exactly the way in which they assign an interpretation to the somewhat more acceptable sentences of (1). Notably, Chomsky (ibid: 11) emphasises that grammaticalness is only one of many factors that interact to determine acceptability. This echoes Chomsky's (1969: 3-4) conclusion that performance is a direct reflection of competence.

It is fitting to consider Hymes in Rivers (1981: 84), who elaborated a concept of *communicative communication*, which soon began to affect the language-teaching community. Hymes' concept of *communicative competence* was notably an influence of sociolinguistics: the branch of linguistics that concerns

itself particularly with language as it is used for communication within a social group (Rivers 1981: 83).

2.4. Hymes on Communicative Competence

According to Hymes (1990:11) 'communicative competence' is shaped by social life from infancy onwards. He further contends that communicative competence does not only involve grammatical competence, which is concerned with the knowledge of grammatical rules, the knowledge of appropriateness. Appropriateness is, moreover, determined by each speech community; it is defined by the shared social and cultural conventions of a particular group of speakers (Berns 1990:30). Similarly, Chimombo, Robert and Rosebery (1998: 6) argue that to function as members of a culture, speakers must have a high degree of communicative competence. They must know how to speak appropriately in given situations: what degree of respect is appropriate, what markers of politeness are required, what rules governing turn-taking are in force, and much more.

On the one hand, Halliday (1975) shares a view of the role of language in social life with Hymes except that for Halliday it is unnecessary to speak of communicative competence. That is, Halliday (following Chomsky's notion of competence) believes that if we are concerned with 'what the speaker-hearer knows', as distinct from what he can do, and we call this his 'competence', then

competence is communicative competence; there is no other kind (Halliday 1975:92).

On the other hand, Dale (1976: 258) asserts that knowing how to use language often requires more than knowing how to assemble a syntactically well-formed sequence with a given literal meaning – a particular sentence type may serve a variety of functions, depending on the topic, the relationship of the speaker and the hearer, and other aspects of the situation.

Furthermore, Corder (1982: 92) reacts to Chomsky's grammatical competence by arguing that a native speaker must not only be able to produce and understand grammatically well-formed utterances, he must also be able to produce and understand utterances which are appropriate to the context in which they are made. Corder (ibid: 92) concludes that it is thus that the concept of *communicative competence* has come into being. Most importantly, Corder (1982:93) states that when we are teaching a second language we are trying to develop in the learner not just *grammatical competence* in the Chomskyan sense, but *communicative competence* – we are teaching him not only what we call 'the information rules' of the language, but also in addition what Hymes has called 'the speaking rules'. In other words, a learner must not only learn to talk grammatically in the target language, he must also talk coherently and to the point.

Hymes (1966), cited by Saville-Troike in McKay and Hornberger (1996: 362), critically observes that such a definition would be institutionalised if the speakers went about trying to do so without consideration of the appropriate contexts of use. In reaction, Hymes (1971) cited by Coulthard (1988: 33) argues that Chomsky's definition of competence is too narrow – linguistics ought to concern itself with communicative competence, the speaker's ability to produce appropriate utterances not grammatical utterances. For Hymes (1966) cited by Saville-Troike in McKay and Hornberger (1996: 362), communicative competence may be broadly defined as what a speaker needs to know to communicate appropriately within a particular speech community. According to Hymes (1966a) in Saville-Troike (1997:21) communicative competence involves knowing not only the language code, but also what to say to whom, and how to say it appropriately in any given situation. Hymes (1987) cited by Saville-Troike in McKay and Hornberger (1996: 363) augmented Chomsky's notion of *linguistic competence* (knowledge of systematic potential, or whether or not an utterance is a possible grammatical structure in a language) with knowledge of appropriateness (whether and to what extent something is suitable), occurrence (whether and to what extent something is done), and feasibility (whether and to what extent something is possible under particular circumstances).

We shall therefore briefly present the four questions in respect of the theory of communication that Hymes, in Brumfit and Johnson (1985), and in Pride and Holmes (1982), proposes.

2.4.1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally *possible*

As Hymes, in *Pride and Holmes* (1982: 281), suggests 'several sectors of communicative competence of which the grammatical is one', the first of the four he lists is 'whether or not something is formally possible'. Brumfit and Johnson (1985: 14) realise that the first sector is roughly equivalent to Chomsky's 'restricted' notion of competence as grammaticality. They (*ibid*: 14) assert that it is concerned with whether a language permits a structure as grammatical (possible) or rejects it as ungrammatical (impossible). Hymes, in *Pride and Holmes* (1982: 285), moreover argues that we may say 'something possible' within a formal system is grammatical, cultural, or, on occasion, communicative; for the opposite, one can also say *uncultural* or *uncommunicative*, as well as ungrammatical.

2.4.2. Whether (and to what degree) something is *feasible*

The second sector deals with *feasibility*, in virtue of the means of implementation. To illustrate, Brumfit and Johnson (1985:14) argue that the following sentence:

'the mouse the cat the dog the man the woman married beat chased ate
had a white tail'

is grammatically possible, but is hardly feasible. In fact, Brumfit and Johnson (1985: 14) contend, 'because of our restricted powers of processing, such a sentence cannot in any real sense be said to form part of our competence'.

2.4.3. Whether (and to what degree) something is *appropriate*

The third sector covers appropriateness to context i.e. whether something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated. Hymes, in Pride and Holmes (1982: 285) asserts that 'appropriateness' seems to suggest readily the required sense of relation to contextual features. Similarly, Brumfit and Johnson (1985: 14) comment that the speaker-listener's underlying competence includes 'rules of appropriateness', and a sentence can be grammatically possible, feasible, but inappropriate.

2.4.4. Whether (and to what degree) something is *done*

Hymes' final sector concerns '*whether or not something is in fact done*', actually *performed*, and what its doing entails. This sector relates to the area that in Brumfit and Johnson (ibid: 14) is commonly referred to as 'accepted usage'. Hymes, in Pride and Holmes (1982:286), states that something may be possible, feasible, and appropriate and not occur; Brumfit and Johnson (ibid: 14) also agree with Hymes.

Before moving on to Widdowson's conception of *communicative competence*, it should be noted that Chomsky's critics, including those discussed above, seem

to have overlooked the fact that Chomsky actually never argues for *communicative competence, per se*, but *competence*; his main concern and his point of departure is with sentences and not much with utterances – hence, he distinguishes *competence* from *performance* (See a discussion on Chomsky's theory of linguistic competence and performance in 2.2 and 2.3 above). He argues for the underlying grammar that assigns rules to the production of 'acceptable' sentences. Most of his critics (Hymes, Corder, etc) seemingly have misunderstood and misrepresented his arguments.

Widdowson's perspective on *communicative competence*, in contrast to Hymes sociolinguistic influence, as we shall see below, is mostly from the field of applied linguistics. However, Widdowson's ideas below are presented in conjunction with Allen (Grammar and Language Teaching), and with Crippen (Sociolinguistics and Language Teaching) in Allen and Corder (1975) (editors).

2.5. Widdowson's Conception of Communicative Competence

Widdowson in Brumfit and Johnson (1985: 118) argues that knowing what is involved in putting sentences together correctly is only one part of what we mean by knowing a language, and it has very little value on its own: it has to be supplemented by a knowledge of what sentences count as in their normal use as a means of communicating.

Like researchers discussed above, Allen and Widdowson in Allen and Corder (1975: 87) react to Chomsky's grammatical competence, pointing out that 'knowing' a language involves not only the ability to compose correct sentences but also the ability to use them appropriately in acts of communication. These linguists (ibid: 87) provide two sentences by way of illustrating appropriateness:

- (1) No one else had known where the entrance to the cave was situated.
- (2) What John discovered was the cave.

According to Allen and Widdowson (op cit) someone producing sentences (1) and (2), for example, could be said to have grammatical competence in that each of the sentences is correct, but since they do not make sense in combination the second of them is not appropriate in relation to the first. They (ibid: 87) assert that a person knowing English would know this, and would be considered to have a communicative competence in the language. However, following Halliday's approach², Allen and Widdowson in Allen and Corder (1975: 88) contend that if we assume that the appropriateness of a sentence is dependent only on the sentence that precedes, then it is true that (1) is not appropriate and the two sentences do not together constitute a text; but if we think of these sentences as part of a larger text it is possible for them to be linked cohesively together. For example, Allen and Widdowson (op cit) suggest that we assume a context in

² What Halliday provides is a systematic account of the options, which are available to the users of a language for creation of texts. However, Allen & Widdowson in Allen & Corder (1975: 89) agree that although Halliday's grammar is based on functional notions it cannot be said to be a complete account of communicative competence

which two people are discussing what John discovered and let us suppose that one of them insists that what he discovered was not the entrance to the cave but a druidical rocking stone situated nearby. In this context, the second person might utter the following:

(3) Everybody had known where the rocking stone was situated. No one else had known where the entrance to the cave was situated. What John discovered was the cave.

Here, sentences (1) and (2) do combine to form part of a text.

Furthermore, Crippen and Widdowson in Allen and Corder (1975:209) emphasise that knowledge of a language is not only a matter of grammatical competence but also of *communicative competence*; and the language teacher ought to be as much concerned with the one as with the other.

In agreement with Widdowson is Wardhaugh (1996: 248) in that when you learn to use a language, you learn how to use it in order to do certain things that people do with that language – and the term sometimes used to describe this ability is *communicative competence*. Wardhaugh (ibid: 248) confesses that his argument is influenced by Gumperz, who, in Pride and Holmes (1982: 205) explains communicative competence as follows: 'whereas linguistic competence covers the speaker's ability to produce grammatically correct sentence,

communicative competence describes his ability to select, from the totality of grammatically correct expressions available to him, forms which appropriately reflect the social norms governing behaviour in specific encounters'.

The next researcher in *communicative competence* that will be discussed is Saville-Troike, who seems to have summarised important aspects of *communicative competence* relevant for this study.

2.6. Saville-Troike on Communicative Competence

Saville-Troike in McKay and Hornberger (eds.) (1996: 357) asserts that speakers' communicative competence includes knowing the alternatives and the rules for appropriate choice from among the alternatives or for switching between them. In other words, the speaker's *communicative competence* involves the ability to choose the appropriate *code* that is a different variety of a single language; *style*, to mean varieties associated with such social and cultural dimensions as age, sex, social class, and relationship between speakers; and *registers*, to mean varieties of language which are more closely associated with the setting or scene in which they are used than they are with the people who are using them.

Saville-Troike (op. cit.) further asserts that communicative competence extends to both knowledge and expectation of who may or may not speak in certain settings, when to speak and when to remain silent, whom one may speak to, how one may talk to persons of different statuses and roles, what nonverbal

behaviours are appropriate in various contexts, what the routines for turn taking are in conversation, how to ask for and give information, how to request, how to offer or decline assistance or cooperation, how to give commands, how to enforce discipline, and the like – in short, everything involving the use of language and other communicative dimensions in particular social settings. Further, Saville-Troike (1997: 24) acknowledges that since communicative competence refers to knowledge and skills for contextually appropriate use and interpretation of language in a community, it refers to the communicative knowledge and skills shared by the group, although these (like all aspects of culture) reside in its individual members.

It is necessary to consider the communicative dimensions, which are *linguistic and non-linguistic, interactional, and cultural* components of communicative competence.

2.6.1. Linguistic and Non-Linguistic Component of Communicative Competence

According to Saville-Troike in McKay and Hornberger (1996: 363-64), the traditional linguistic description that generally targets the phonology, grammar, and lexicon of a language should be augmented with paralinguistic and nonverbal phenomena which have conventional meaning in each speech community, as should knowledge of the full range of variants in all elements of the linguistic code which function to transmit social, as well as referential,

information. She (ibid: 64) argues that the ability to discriminate between variants which carry social meaning by serving as markers of social categories and those which are socially insignificant and the knowledge of what the social meaning of a variant is in a particular situation are components of communicative competence.

Saville-Troike (op. cit.), however, concludes that this dimension of communicative competence is very difficult to teach and that it is not feasible to teach it in many situations, because variation and its social meanings cannot be taught apart from social context and understanding of the social structure of the community, and even when there is significant interaction with the target language speech community, it is very difficult for beginner students (at least) to manage multiple varieties of the language.

In the light of this conclusion, Saville-Troike in McKay and Hornberger (1996: 365) maintains that learners are probably well served to aim for a relatively formal variety of the second or foreign language first, whether primary contact with native speakers is likely to be face to face or through written texts.

2.6.2. Interactional Component of Communicative Competence

This second dimension of communicative competence involves interaction skills that consist of social conventions, which regulate the use of language and other communicative devices in particular settings.

Saville-Troike (op. cit.) asserts that interacting in a second or foreign language often involves the transfer of elements from first language competence even after considerably proficiency in the target linguistic code has been acquired. She (ibid: 365) further argues that in the case of a second or foreign language, learning interaction skills is essentially quite different from learning new linguistic features of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

In her conclusion, Saville-Troike (op. cit.) advises that when we leave the surface linguistic structures in language teaching and approach the deeper levels of communicative competence, which interaction skills appear to tap, we need to be sensitive to the sociopsychological, as well as the sociolinguistic, factors that might be involved.

2.6.3. Cultural Components of Communicative Competence

Saville-Troike (op. cit.) defines *cultural competence* as the total set of knowledge and skills, which speakers bring into a situation. She (ibid: 365) contends that this definition entails that interpreting the meaning of linguistic behaviour requires knowing the cultural meaning in which it is embedded.

Although all aspects of culture are relevant to communication, Saville-Troike in McKay and Hornberger (1996: 367) highlights the ones that have the most immediate importance for those learning communicative forms and processes in

a second or foreign language, which are the social structure of its speech community and the values and attitudes held about language and ways of speaking. She asserts that an understanding of social structure is needed in order to use the patterns of address in a language properly, for instance, as well as to know whom to avoid and when to remain silent.

In addition, communicative competence is defined by Savignon (1972:8) as the ability to function in a truly communicative setting, that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors. In short, communicative competence is concerned with getting meaning across in a variety of simulated as well as real situations.

Furthermore, Savignon cited by Berns (1990:89) discusses four components of communicative competence, as:

1. *Sociolinguistic competence.* This is the ability to use language appropriate to a given context, taking into account the roles of the participants, the setting and the purpose of the interaction;
2. *Grammatical competence.* This refers to the knowledge of the sentence structure of a language;
3. *Discourse competence.* It is the ability to recognise different patterns of discourse, to connect sentences or utterances to an overall theme or topic; the ability to infer the meaning of large units of spoken or written texts and
4. *Strategic competence.* The ability to compensate for imperfect knowledge of linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse rules or limiting factors in their application such as fatigue, distraction or inattention.

Piepho's (1974) interpretation of communicative competence is similar to Savignon's. For Piepho (1974:9-10) communicative competence is the ability to make oneself understood, without hesitation and inhibitions, by linguistic means, which the individual comprehends and has learned to assess in terms of their effects, and the ability to comprehend communicative intentions even when they are expressed in a code which the speaker him or herself does not yet know well enough to use and which is only partially available in his or her own idiolect.

Having presented some of the relevant comments about communicative competence, it is important to deal with the language situation of KwaZulu/Natal (KZN), which consist of two languages i.e. English and isiZulu, and, in some cases, three languages, namely: English, isiZulu and Afrikaans. It is therefore essential to understand the theoretical underpinnings of relevant concepts of bilingualism and multilingualism.

2.7. Bilingualism and Multilingualism

There are different definitions of the terms bilingualism and multilingualism as there are different writers and researchers. The general sense of the term *bilingualism*, as defined by Crystal (1986:63), is a person who can speak two languages. This definition provides a pre-theoretical frame of reference for linguistic study, especially by sociolinguists, and by applied linguists involved in foreign or second language teaching (Crystal ibid: 63). There are many other definitions, as we shall present, where the focus of attention has been on the

many kinds and degrees of *bilingualism* and *bilingual situations* that exist. Furthermore, Crystal (ibid: 63) indicates that definitions of bilingualism reflect assumptions about the degree of proficiency people must achieve before they qualify as bilingual.

For example, Oestreicher (1974) cited by Swain and Cummins (1986:7) defines bilinguals as those who demonstrate complete mastery of two different languages without interference between the two linguistic processes. This definition suggests someone with native-like control of two languages. Sridhar (1996:50) reacts to this notion of bilingualism in that 'multilingualism involving native-like command of all the languages in the repertoire is rather uncommon'. He (ibid: 7) asserts that typically, multilinguals have varying degrees of command of the different repertoires; the differences in competence in the various languages might range from a command of a few lexical items, formulaic expressions such as greetings, and rudimentary conversational skills all the way to excellent command of *grammar and vocabulary and specialised registers and styles*. Sridhar (1996:10) adds that multilinguals develop competence in each of the codes to the extent that they need it for the context in which each of the languages is used.

Unlike Oestreicher, Macnamara (1976) cited by Swain and Cummins (ibid: 7) defines bilinguals as those who possess at least one of the language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) even to a minimal degree in the second

language. Similarly, William and Snipper (1990:34) make a distinction between being *bilingual* and being *biliterate*, where the former refers to people who can process two languages with regards to understanding the message in each of the languages spoken, and being able to respond in each of the languages spoken; the latter refers to people who can read and write in two languages. They (ibid: 34) assert that the more adept people are at processing the four skills in each of the languages, the greater their level of bilingualism.

In addition, Sridhar (1996:47) defines the terms multilingualism and bilingualism as the knowledge or use of more than one language by an individual or a community. This definition suggests that the terms multilingualism and bilingualism are both individual and societal phenomena. In fact, Sridhar (ibid: 47) contends that when it is viewed as an individual phenomenon issues such as how one acquires two or more languages in childhood or later become central, whereas when it is viewed as a societal phenomenon, one is concerned with issues such as the number of languages in existence. This notion is further echoed by Barnes (2002: 238), who asserts that sociolinguistics tend to focus on *individual* and *societal* bilingualism, where the former focuses on cognitive aspects and the latter is, on the other hand, concerned with the interrelationship between language, social, political, educational and economic factors and language in a speech community. South Africa is regarded as a multilingual country because there are eleven languages that are officially recognised. In addition, multilingualism as a societal phenomenon is concerned with the status

and roles of the languages in a given society, as well as attitudes toward languages, for example: English and Afrikaans have enjoyed a prestigious role in the history of South African languages and in education, whilst indigenous languages have been associated with ignorance and inferiority.

Furthermore, Sridhar (1996:48) divides societal multilingualism into two most common types, which occur when a country consist of several language groups. The first type is *territorial principle of multilingualism*, which is a case when the nation as a whole is multilingual but not all individuals are necessarily multilingual. *Territorial principle of multilingualism* can be observed in KZN, where there are predominantly three languages (English, isiZulu and Afrikaans) in existence, but most individuals are bilingual either with English and isiZulu or with English and Afrikaans. The second type discussed by Sridhar (ibid: 48) is *personality principle*, which is where bilingualism is the official policy of a country and most individuals are multilingual. This situation is rare and only operated in the apartheid government where Afrikaans and English were the only official languages. The Whites would learn English and Afrikaans and vice versa while the majority of the South African population would have two or more African languages and would be expected to learn English and Afrikaans.

One of the goals of the language in education policy for the Republic of South Africa is to facilitate national and international communication through the promotion of bilingualism or multilingualism through cost-effective mechanisms

(Government Gazette, 1997:6). The reality, however, in rural schools in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) is that of bilingualism where English is the medium of instruction and isiZulu is the dominant mother tongue of most learners and teachers. In fact, Martin (1997:4) has suggested a move towards bilingual education involving English and isiZulu in KZN. In this situation there are cases of multilingualism involving Afrikaans, in addition to English and isiZulu, as the language generally understood by some learners and teachers.

Spolsky (1998:48) uses the term: *co-ordinate bilinguals* that was introduced by Trudgill (1984) in Crystal (1986:33), which in our context would describe learners that grow up speaking isiZulu from early childhood, and later get exposed to English when they start attending school. Nonetheless, due to television and radio, some of these learners get exposed to English much earlier, before they start attending school.

Moreover, Denison (1971) in Pride and Holmes (1982:69) argues that in a bilingual situation, parents address their children in the particular language that will help them learn better at school. However, this argument would seem not to be supported by the general situation. Most parents of learners of other languages do not know the language being learnt. Therefore, the burden of learning the language has to be carried by the learner.

Furthermore, Fishman (1971) cited by Pride and Holmes (1982:21) contends that different language varieties are associated with different domains or social situations. Fishman's argument implies that the social situation determines the dominant language the learners and teachers use in the school environment. In agreement with Fishman is Sankoff (1971) in Pride and Holmes (1982:38), where in a study he conducted in the Buang speech community, comes up with factors that influence speech behaviour. These factors include participants, topic, setting or context, channel, message form, mood or tone, intentions, and effects.

Let us consider each of these in turn:

- (i) *Participants*: With regards to participants in a communicative event, Sankoff (ibid: 38) notes that the knowledge of the individual and the relationship between the participants play a major role in choosing the code of communication. For example in the case of the Buang community Sankoff (1971) in Pride & Holmes (1982:39) argues that the choice of the code depended on whether the participants were both Buang speakers or the other was not a Buang speaker. Accordingly, a native speaker of isiZulu would generally resort to English when addressing a non-isiZulu speaker.
- (ii) *Channel*: Sankoff (ibid: 39) reports that when Buangs call each other from the distant ridges they use Buang language, but when the channel is written they use the other language. In South Africa a similar case is common when people are invited for job

interviews: some interviews are conducted in the language of the interviewee, whilst most job applications are written in English.

- (iii) *Tone*: Further, Sankoff (ibid: 39) records that in special circumstances, for example when joking, a particular code is chosen. Generally people are more comfortable to make jokes in their native languages.
- (iv) *Topic*: In addition, Sankoff (ibid: 39) says that an orator in Buang community would switch codes depending on the audience he is addressing. However for purely traditional topics, one code would be used. This occurrence can also be observed in South Africa, where politicians address the audience in the language spoken by the majority, though they usually use English when addressing the elite.
- (v) *Setting*: Sankoff (ibid: 39) contends that a situation can either be formal or informal, and when defined in terms of setting, can be a village square, church etc. In other words, it could be home, town, school etc, which of course determines the code to be used.
- (vi) *Message form*: This refers to the use of prayer, rhetoric, ordinary conversations etc. A particular code is used for each of these; for example the Catholic Church considered Latin to be the most important language for religious ceremonies.

- (vii) *Intentions*: In this case a particular code is used to fulfil certain intentions. For example, a speaker may use a particular code to indicate his association with a particular group.

Most importantly, Skutnabb-Kangas (1984) cited by Hoffmann (1996:46) suggests a classification of the world's bilinguals into four groups. Moreover, Spolsky (1998) distinguishes some kinds of bilinguals. These types of bilinguals are discussed below.

2.7.1. Types of Bilingualism

Trudgill (1984) in Crystal (1986:33) makes a distinction between *compound bilinguals* and *co-ordinate bilinguals*, where the latter refers to individuals who have learned each language in separate contexts, and so keep them apart (See also Spolsky 1998:48). According to Trudgill (*ibid*: 33) *co-ordinate bilinguals* are those who attribute partly or wholly different meanings to corresponding lexical units in the two languages. For example, the English concept 'tree' would be kept apart from the isiZulu concept 'tree', even though the two words: 'tree' (English) and '*isihlahla*' (isiZulu) would have the same meanings. The linguistic environment of most learners in rural KZN is such that isiZulu is acquired at home and English learned at school, but since isiZulu is the predominant language it is also widely used at school. Therefore, it can be argued that the majority of learners and teachers in rural KZN (and to some extent Black South African learners) are co-ordinate bilinguals.

Trudgill (1984) in Crystal (1986:63) defines the second kind of bilingualism *compound bilinguals* as those who attribute identical meanings to corresponding lexical units in the two languages. Like Trudgill (ibid: 63) Spolsky (1998:48) defines *compound bilinguals* as those whose two languages are assumed to be closely connected, because one language had been learned after (and so through) the other. However, the problem that a compound bilingual would face, as observed by Spolsky (ibid: 48), is that though, for instance, the English word 'monkey' and isiZulu 'inkawu', refer to a different set of concepts compound bilinguals assume it to be the same concept. Since isiZulu is the mother tongue of most learners and teachers in rural KZN, it means English is learned later, usually at school. Consequently, the two languages can neither be assumed to be closely connected nor learned through each other. In such a context one cannot therefore conclude that compound bilinguals abound.

The third kind of bilingualism that is defined by William and Snipper (1990:40) and Spolsky (1998:45) is *balanced bilingualism*, which is a situation where a bilingual has a very strong command of both languages. Hoffmann (1996:35) uses another term: *ambilingualism*, which is 100 percent mastery of the two languages; but she clarifies that it is unrealistic to suggest that a bilingual speaker can achieve it. Therefore, owing to insufficient exposure to English, it is not easy for most learners especially from rural KZN to develop into balanced bilinguals.

The four categories of bilinguals identified by Skutnabb-Kangas (ibid: 46) are *elite bilinguals*, *children from linguistic majorities*, *children from bilingual families*, and *children from linguistic minorities*. In drawing distinctions between these four categories she (ibid: 46) takes the following factors into account:

- (a) pressure to become bilingual;
- (b) the prerequisites for bilingualism;
- (c) route by which the individual has become bilingual;
- (d) the consequences entailed in failing to become bilingual.

Skutnabb-Kangas in Hoffmann (1996:46-47) identifies the types of bilinguals as follows:

2.7.1.1. Elite Bilinguals

These are people who have freely chosen to become so (e.g. because they want to work or study abroad), and children who belong to families who change their country of residence relatively often and or who are sent to be educated abroad. In these cases, she (ibid: 46-47) argues that the normal situation is that the acquisition of both languages proceeds unhindered, with the two languages receiving wide social support and the mother tongue, in particular, enjoying a firm and stable position. The second language, on the other hand, may have been either learnt or acquired but, as the attempt to establish it firmly will have been voluntary, failure to gain sufficient command of it (if failure there is) will carry no serious consequences for the subject.

Elite bilinguals are not common in the linguistic context of this study. Most learners (and teachers) learn English because it is a medium of instruction and is associated with globalisation.

2.7.1.2. Children from Linguistic Majorities

These are children who learn another language (e.g. that of a minority group) at school, such as in immersion programmes or in foreign language classes. Skutnabb-Kangas (ibid: 46-47) asserts that the learning of the second language may, for example, be considered advantageous either because it is seen as a way of enhancing the prestige of the minority language (as with French in Canada) or because it is believed to be of wider educational or vocational benefit (for instance, English as a foreign language in the Netherlands or in many other countries). She (ibid: 46-47) further contends that usually majority children experience little or no pressure (from family or society) to become bilingual; and the risk involved in failing to achieve the learning objectives tends to be relatively small. As with elite bilinguals, Skutnabb-Kangas (ibid: 46-47) argues that children from linguistic majorities tend to come from monolingual backgrounds.

This situation as well does not exist in the sociolinguistic context of this study. One reason is that the country, and specifically KZN is not a bilingual and the learners do not come from a monolingual background. In fact, even those speakers of isiZulu who have not attended school have a certain degree of exposure to English and or Afrikaans.

2.7.1.3. Children from Bilingual Families

These are children whose parents have different mother tongues. She (ibid: 46-47) believes that the child will experience considerable societal pressure to become fluent in the official language, but there will be no external compulsion to become bilingual. Bilingualism will be desirable because (and to the extent that) there are internal family pressures requiring the child to communicate in the language of the parent(s). So the consequences of failure to become bilingual may possibly be problematic within the family, but not too serious at the societal level.

Cases of bilingual (with English and isiZulu) parents are common, even in rural arrears, where illiteracy is high. However, being bilingual is not much of a family issue, as it is demanded by the education system.

2.7.1.4. Children from Linguistic Minorities

These children have parents who belong to a linguistic minority; they are under intense external pressure to learn the language of the majority, particularly if the language of the minority is not officially recognised. Skutnabb-Kangas (ibid: 46-47) thinks there may be little support offered to them in terms of bilingual education programmes or primary or secondary school teaching. They often find themselves also under the influence of strong internal forces that encourage them to learn the language of their parents and to form social relationships with

the members of the wider (minority) group. Skutnabb-Kangas (ibid: 46-47) says the risk of failing in the attempt to become bilingual is greater than any of the above groups, ranging from loss of educational and future opportunities to problems of rootlessness and alienation.

Bilingual learners and teachers in rural KZN, where the study is based, do not come from linguistic minorities. Actually, most people in the country understand isiZulu, which is the predominant language.

Having considered the types of bilinguals, Hoffmann (1996:16-17) raises important individual cases, which she (ibid: 16-17) argues that many specialists would say the individuals could be classed as bilinguals; but public opinion, and at least some of these individuals themselves would probably disagree. The cases she raises are as follows:

- (1) the two-year old is beginning to talk, speaking English to one parent and Welsh to the other;
- (2) the four-year old whose home language is Bengali and who has been attending an English playgroup for some time;
- (3) the schoolchild from an Italian immigrant family living in the United States of America who increasingly uses English both at home and outside but whose older relatives address him in Italian only;
- (4) the Canadian child from Montreal who comes from an English-speaking background and attends an immersion programme which consists of virtually all school subjects being taught through the medium of French;
- (5) the young graduate who has studied French for eleven years;
- (6) the sixty-year old scholar who has spent a considerable part of her life working with manuscripts and documents written in Latin;
- (7) the technical translator;
- (8) the personal interpreter of an important public figure;
- (9) the Portuguese chemist who can read specialist literature in his subject written in English;

- (10) the Japanese airline pilot who uses English for most of his professional communication;
- (11) the Turkish immigrant worker in the Federal Republic of Germany who speaks Turkish at home and with his friends and work colleagues, but who can communicate in German, in both the written and the oral forms, with superiors and the authorities;
- (12) the wife of the latter, who is able to get by in spoken German but cannot read or write it;
- (13) the Danish immigrant in New Zealand which has had no contact with Danish for the last forty years;
- (14) the Belgian government employee who lives in bilingual Brussels, whose friends and relatives are mainly Flemish speakers but who works in an entirely French-speaking environment and whose colleagues in the office (whether they are Flemish or not) use French as well;
- (15) the fervent Catalanist who at home uses Catalan only, but who is exposed to Castilian Spanish from the media and in the street and has no linguistic difficulty in the latter language.

As one can see that most of these questions are not taken from the linguistic context in which the study is conducted, it is essential to consider the following cases as well:

- (1) the young Grade 1 Zulu learner who can respond to English commands such as 'sit down', 'stand up', and 'come here';
- (2) the fifty five year old Zulu woman who can understand instructions given in seSotho but cannot speak seSotho;
- (3) the Xhosa student who attends classes with Afrikaans speaking students;
- (4) the Zulu husband who is married to the Tsonga wife;
- (5) the two-year old Zulu boy who attends an English medium nursery, but has Arabian playmates; and

- (6) the Zulu taxi driver who occasionally drives European and American tourists.

However, in deciding whether any or all of the above should be considered as bilinguals, it is imperative to consider the following criteria that Skutnabb-Kangas cited by Hoffman (1996:27) uses in defining bilingualism.

2.7.2. Defining Bilingualism

Skutnabb-Kangas (ibid: 27) discusses four criteria in defining bilingualism, namely *origin*, *competence*, *function*, and *attitudes*. These criteria summarises what most writers and researchers above have discussed on bilingualism.

2.7.2.1. Origin

There are two factors that Skutnabb-Kangas (ibid: 27) considers for an individual to be considered bilingual:

- (a) A speaker is bilingual who has learnt two languages in the family from native speakers from the beginning;
- (b) (S)he is considered bilingual who has used two languages in parallel as means of communication from the beginning.

2.7.2.2. Competence

Here Skutnabb-Kangas (ibid: 27) refers to level of proficiency. She (ibid: 27) lists six factors:

- (a) A speaker is bilingual who has complete mastery of two languages;
- (b) (S)he is considered bilingual who has native-like control of two languages;
- (c) An individual is bilingual who has equal mastery of two languages;

- (d) A speaker is bilingual who can produce complete meaningful utterances in the other language;
- (e) An individual is bilingual who has at least some knowledge and control of the grammatical structure of the other language;
- (f) He or she is bilingual who has come into contact with another language.

2.7.2.3. Function

By function she (ibid: 27) simply refers to use. In this criterion Skutnabb-Kangas (ibid: 27) considers a speaker to be bilingual who uses (or can use) two languages (in most situations in accordance with her or his own wishes and the demands of the community).

2.7.2.4. Attitudes

Skutnabb-Kangas (ibid) specifically means identity and identification by attitudes.

There are two factors that she postulates:

- (a) A speaker is bilingual who identifies himself or herself as bilingual with two languages and or two cultures (or parts of them);
- (b) He or she is bilingual whom others identify as bilingual, as a native speaker of two languages.

With this concise definition of bilingualism, it should be remembered that whilst in the past, bilingualism and multilingualism were often blamed for a bilingual child's underachievement at school and in intelligence tests, Hoffman (1996: 5-6) warns that a preoccupation with problems associated with bilingualism should not obscure awareness of its likely benefits. The first of these benefits is that individual bilingualism is often experienced as an enriching attribute that facilitates a better understanding of the nature of language and provides a better

opportunity for gaining a deeper insight into two cultures. A second possible advantage for members of multilingual groups is that they have at their disposal a wider range of linguistic resources than those who belong to monolingual communities that may enable them to communicate with others in a more flexible and diverse way – a benefit which, in a world of increasing international communication, should be obvious (Hoffman ibid: 5-6). That said, it is essential to consider code-switching, which Hoffmann (1996:109) argues that it is the most creative aspect of bilingual speech.

2.7.3. Code-switching

According to Hoffmann (1996:110) the most general description of *code-switching* is that it involves the alternate use of two languages or linguistic varieties within the same utterance or during the same conversation. She (ibid: 110) postulates that in the case of bilinguals speaking to each other, switching can consist of changing languages - in that of monolinguals, shifts of style. Hoffman (ibid: 110) cites McLaughlin (1984) who emphasises the distinction between mixing and switching by referring to code-switches as language changes occurring across phrase or sentence boundaries, whereas code-mixes take place within sentences and usually involve single cases of single lexical items. Spolsky (1998:49) also argues that bilinguals often switch between their two languages in the middle of a conversation; these code-switches can take place between or even within sentences, involving phrases or words or even parts of words. Like Spolsky (ibid: 49) and Hoffman (ibid: 110), Sridhar (1996) in

McKay and Hornberger (1996:56) asserts that the phenomenon known as *code-switching* occurs when two or more languages exist in a community, and speakers frequently switch from one language to another.

Interestingly, Mawasha (1996:21) outlines three realities, which he argues that most practising educators in African education are aware of:

- (a) In practice many African educators code switch routinely from English to an African language in routine content-subject presentation to *facilitate comprehension and to speed up progress through the syllabus*;
- (b) Many African teachers often find it necessary to resort to an African language where their *personal facility in English as classroom language falters*;
- (c) A teacher code-switches to deal with what he considers practical educational problems bearing on the understanding of a particular subject content or concept, as matter of need.

There are various kinds of code-switching as discussed by Spolsky (1998), Sridhar (1996), and Hoffmann (1996).

2.7.3.1. Kinds of Code-switching

Firstly, Spolsky (1998:49) asserts that immigrants often use many words from their new language in their old language, because many of the people they speak to know both languages; in situations like this, bilinguals often develop a *mixed code*, in which case he distinguishes between code switching of the two languages and the mixed variety. Sridhar (1996:57) refers to *code mixing* a common mode of code-switching in which the switching of languages within sentences occur.

Secondly, Spolsky (1998: 50) argues that for a bilingual, shifting for convenience (choosing the available word or phrase on the basis of easy availability) is commonly related to topic. He (ibid: 50) gives an example of a scientist trained in an English-speaking country giving university lectures in their own language and often mixes in English words or even switch to English phrases and sentences. Similarly, Hoffmann (1996:112) recognises switches within a sentence ('intra-sentential switches'), and the switch that occurs between sentences ('inter-sentential').

Furthermore, Spolsky (1998:50) refers to shifts that associate bilinguals not only with topics and places, but also with identities and roles. For example, the use of tags and expressions from Language 'B' while speaking Language 'A' enables a speaker to make this kind of identity claim easily. Spolsky (ibid: 50) calls this kind of shift *metaphorical switching*, and he (ibid: 50) considers it a powerful mechanism for signalling social attitudes or claiming group membership or solidarity. In contrast, Hoffmann (1996:113) refers to metaphorical switching as '*emblematic switching*'. However, in addition to metaphorical code-switching Sridhar (ibid: 57) discusses *situational code-switching*, which he describes as the switch in response to a change in situation, for example, when a new participant enters the scene, or to a change in the topic of conversation or the setting. Therefore, a case in point would occur at the end of an official transaction, when

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a speaker might switch from the standard language to the local dialect to enquire about family matters.

Due to the existence of three languages viz. English, isiZulu and Afrikaans cases of code-switching among learners and teachers in KZN rural schools is common. Moreover, Mawasha (1996:21) asserts that code-switching and code-mixing occur routinely in African education to facilitate comprehension and internalisation of subject content matter.

We shall look at motivation as one of the factors contributing to the learning of a second language.

2.7.4. Motivation

Gardener (1985) in McKay and Hornberger (1996:5) defines motivation as the combination of desire and effort made to achieve a goal; it links individual's rationale for any activity such as language learning with the range of behaviours and degree of effort employed in achieving goals.

McGroarty in McKay and Hornberger (1996:7) emphasises that contributions of the studies of Gardener, Lambert and their colleagues to the definition of motivation was the development of the *orientation index* to second language study; which index sought to the types of motivation associated with success in language. She (ibid: 7) contends that the index adapted the initial distinction

between *intrinsic motivation*, based within individual, and *extrinsic motivation*, based on an individual's perception of external rewards that will accrue from some action.

From the results of their studies Gardner and Lambert as cited by McGroarty (*ibid: 7*) proposed the overarching constructs governing motivation to learn a language, which they later labelled *orientations: integrative motivation*, the desire to be like and interact with speakers of the target language, and *instrumental motivation*, the desire to learn a language in order to achieve some other goal such as academic or occupational success. McGroarty (*ibid: 7*) asserts that integrative motivation was found to be more strongly linked with success in second language study for a school-age population, but later studies indicated that the relative contribution of one or the other type of motivation varied according to setting and level of students investigated. On the other hand, for adults interested in jobs success, instrumental motivation could be just as or even more powerful than integrative motivation.

However, the important argument that McGroarty in McKay and Hornberger (1996:8) puts forward is that it is not much the type but the intensity of motivation that makes a difference in successful outcomes of second language study.

Having presented some of the relevant comments about bilingualism and multilingualism, it is essential to deal with the units of communicative analysis.

2.8. Units of Communication Analysis

In order to gain more insights into the process of communication it is necessary to consider some tools of analysis that have been suggested by scholars and researchers, especially Hymes (1972) and Saville-Troike (1997).

Hymes (1972) cited by Saville-Troike (1997:26) suggests three units of communication analysis, which are *situation*, *event*, and *act*. According to Saville-Troike (ibid: 26) these units are considered to be discrete communicative activities that have recognisable boundaries and are essential in order to describe and analyse communication.

2.8.1. The Communicative Situation

Saville-Troike (1997: 26-27) contends that the *communicative situation* is the context within which communication occurs. Examples given by Saville-Troike (ibid: 26-27) include a religious service, a court trial, a train ride, or a class in school. She maintains that a single situation has a consistent general configuration of activities, the same overall ecology within which communication takes place, although there may be great diversity in the kinds of interaction, which occur there. In the United States of America, an elementary school class that is another communicative situation, discrete, events might include (Saville-Troike 1997: 29-30):

1. *Pledge to the flag*: this is a ritual oath of allegiance to the United States of America, which is often repeated on ceremonial occasions, and

sometimes included in the opening activities of each school day for students in kindergarten and elementary school.

2. *Roll call*: this refers to cyclic recitation of names by the teacher (functioning as requests for information about the presence or absence of each child) and responses by the students named.

3. *Collection of milk or lunch money*: this activity, like transition periods, is generally much more informal.

4. *Show and tell (or 'sharing time')*: this is a common performance event in classes for young children where hands must be raised to request permission to speak and strict turn-taking is observed, as it is for question and answer period.

5. *Motivational activity*: this is often background discussion of the topic to be studied.

6. *Presentation of new information*: this generally refers to the lesson prepared for the day.

7. *Question and Answer period*: this refers to a time reserved for reinforcement of new information that has been presented.

8. *Transition period*: this refers to changing groups, subjects or teachers.

'Communication situation' then deals with the place in which communication occurs.

2.8.2. The Communicative Event

Saville-Troike (1997: 27) asserts that the *communicative event* is the basic unit for descriptive purposes. She clarifies that a single event is defined by a unified set of components throughout, beginning with the same general purpose of communication, the same general topic, and involving the same participants, generally using the same language variety, maintaining the same setting.

Saville-Troike (ibid: 27) says that an event terminates whenever there is a change in the major participants, their role-relationships, or the focus of attention.

However, if there is no change in major participants and setting, the boundary between events is often marked by a period of silence and perhaps change of

body position. For example, a conversation between a student and a professor in an office constitute an event and may be interrupted by a telephone call, for instance. The professor then participates in a different event with the caller, leaving the student on 'hold'. They may say 'Now where were we?' before resuming the first event, but participants can usually continue from the point of interruption (Saville-Troike 1997: 27).

'Communicative event' deals with what is being dealt with, who is involved, the language used, and where the communication is taking place.

2.8.3. The Communicative Act

According to Saville-Troike (1997: 28) the *communicative act* is generally coterminous with a single interactional function, such as a referential statement, a request, or a command, and may be either verbal or non-verbal. She asserts that in the context of a communicative event, even silence may be an intentional and conventional communicative act, and used to question, promise, deny, warn, insult, request, or command.

The way or manner in which communication takes place is important to understand. It may be either verbal or non-verbal.

Knowledge of *communicative competence* can be a result of acquisition, teaching, and learning. Thus, the following discussion is about attainment of *communicative competence*.

2.9. Attainment of Communicative Competence

There are several important considerations discussed by Saville-Troike (1997) pertaining to the knowledge of communicative competence, but only three, considered to be of special interest to the study, i.e. *formal education*, *social interaction*, and *multilingual contexts*, will be discussed.

2.9.1. Formal Education

The first factor discussed by Saville-Troike (1997: 256) is formal education in children's possession of communicative competence, where she (ibid: 256) is concerned with patterns of speaking that are developed and used primarily as a consequence of schooling. Here, Saville-Troike (ibid: 256) states that some speech events are unique to the context of school. The first example she gives is 'Show and Tell', which she (ibid: 256) considered to be a major step toward more complex public speaking. She (ibid: 256) argues that part of developing competence is learning what not to tell, and how to leave out details of a lengthy narrative (Saville-Troike 1997: 257).

The other classroom-specific communicative phenomena she discusses are rigid turn-taking, with a raised hand to request a turn; the spatial arrangement, with

children seated in rows of desks or around tables; and peer interaction which is initiated and controlled by an adult (Saville-Troike [ibid: 257]).

She (ibid: 257) further contends that in educational programmes where the language of instruction is the same as the language, which the children have learned at home, most emphasis is placed on acquiring a new channel of communication (writing), and on the skills and conventions involved in its interpretation and use. However, the oral language development, which takes place through formal education, is primarily new vocabulary, new rules for speaking, practice in interpretation and use of a more formal style, and skills for public performance (Saville-Troike 1997:257). She (ibid: 257) emphasises that formal education is carried out largely through the medium of language, and the children who succeed are those who 'learn how to learn' through abstract linguistically mediated instruction (Saville-Troike 1997: 258).

2.9.2. Social Interaction

Saville-Troike (1997:225) asserts that although language acquisition is generally considered to be primarily a cognitive process, it is clearly a social process as well, and one, which must take place within the context of social interaction. Saville-Troike (ibid: 225) further re-iterates Halliday's (1975) functional-interactive approach: claiming that children learn the meaning of language because of the systematic relation between what they hear and what is going on around them. Her (ibid: 225) conclusion is that the essential assumption of the

interactions model is that the attainment of communicative competence is the result of interaction process within a sociocultural context, and not just the unfolding of innate, pre-programmed behaviour.

The important question that arises in this study is whether the social context of the learners of English as a Second Language promotes the acquisition of English communicative competence.

2.9.3. Multilingual Contexts

The last factor Saville-Troike (1997: 260) discusses is multilingual contexts, where she (ibid: 260) argues that the choice of language for education is a major consideration in multilingual contexts, and reflects the power structure in the country, attitudes toward group identities, and educational philosophy and priorities. She (ibid: 260) asserts that children in multilingual speech communities must, in addition to multiple language codes, acquire skills in switching and more complex rules for appropriate usage. Saville-Troike (1997: 261) argues that while it is usual for children to learn the official language as a second language in school, in some speech communities it is usually acquired first in the home, and children learn to speak the indigenous language when they are older.

Interestingly, in South Africa, both the second language and indigenous language are official languages even though English maintains a higher status for being the medium of instruction in the majority of institutions of learning.

Since the study is concerned with the communicative competence of second language learners, we need to consider the concept of 'communicative language teaching'.

2.10. Communicative Language Teaching

According to Brumfit (1984:112) it is now agreed that language teaching should be 'communicative', based on 'functions of language'. Brumfit (1984:113) argues that *communicative competence* extends the idea of linguistic competence which Chomsky popularised to include not only knowledge of the rules which enable a speaker to distinguish grammatical from ungrammatical sentences in the language but also the rules that determine appropriate use of the language in living situations.

The term 'communicative language teaching' identifies new pedagogical orientations that have grown out of the realization that knowledge of grammatical forms and structures alone does not adequately prepare learners for effective and appropriate use of the language they are learning (Berns 1990:79; Rivers 1981:94). Communicative language teaching comes as a reaction to structuralist and audio-lingual approaches. In audio-lingual approach learners were unable to

methodology due to its concern with communication as a meaning-based activity and with the role of functions or uses, of language in the expression, interpretation, and recognition of meaning.

Furthermore, Berns (ibid: 103) contends that communicative language teaching has the potential to meet the needs of diverse situations. She (ibid: 103) argues that this potential can be realised most effectively when communicative language teaching is understood in terms of the following characteristics:

1. Language teaching is based on a view of language as communication, that is, language is seen as a social tool which speakers use to make meaning. Speakers communicate about something to someone for some purpose, either orally or in writing;
2. Diversity is recognised and accepted as part of language development and use in second language learners and users as it is with first language users;
3. A learner's competence is considered in relative, not in absolute, terms of correctness;
4. More than one variety of language is recognised as a viable model for learning and teaching;
5. Culture is recognised as playing an instrumental role in shaping speakers' communicative competence, both in their first and subsequent languages;
6. No single methodology or fixed set of techniques is prescribed;
7. Language use is recognised as serving the ideational, the interpersonal and the textual functions and is related to the development of learners' competence in each and
8. It is essential that learners be engaged in doing things with language, that is, that they use language for a variety of purposes in all phases of learning.

Moreover, Richards and Rodgers (1993:76) assert that the emphasis in Communicative Language Teaching on the processes of communication, rather than mastery of language forms, leads to different roles for learners from those in more traditional second language classroom. A brief presentation of these roles follows.

2.10.1. Learner roles in Communicative Language Teaching

Breen and Candlin (1980:110) describe the learner's role within Communicative Language Teaching in the following terms:

The role of learner as negotiator – between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning – emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities, which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way.

The central idea implied by Breen and Candlin (ibid: 110) is that it is important for a learner to realise that learning is a joint effort. This notion is echoed by Richards and Rodgers (1993:77) who argue that Communicative Language Teaching methodologists recommend that learners learn to see that failed communication is a joint responsibility and not the fault of speaker or listener – successful communication is an effort accomplishment jointly achieved and acknowledged.

Furthermore, Richards and Rodgers (ibid: 77) assert that several roles are assumed for teachers in Communicative Language Teaching. A brief presentation of these roles follows.

2.10.2. Teacher roles in Communicative Language Teaching

In addition, Breen and Candlin (1980:99) describe teacher roles in the following terms:

The teacher has two main roles: the first role is to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom, and *between these participants and the various activities and texts*. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group. The latter role is closely related to the objectives of the first role and arises from it. These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher; first, as an organizer of resources and as a resource himself, second as a guide within the classroom procedures and activities. A third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner, with much to contribute in terms of appropriate knowledge and abilities, actual and observed experience of the nature of learning and organizational capacities.

Additionally, Richards and Rodgers (ibid: 77) propose other roles assumed for teachers, which are needs analyst, counsellor, and group process manager. We shall briefly look at these roles.

2.10.2.1. Needs Analyst

The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) teacher assumes a responsibility for determining and responding to learner language needs. Richards and Rodgers (1993:78) assert that this may be done informally and personally through one-to-one sessions with students, in which the teacher talks through

such issues as the student's perception of his or her learning style, learning assets, and learning goals. It may also be done formally through administering a needs assessment instrument, for example on a five-point scale (*strongly agree to strongly disagree*) to statements like the following:

I want to study English because...

1. I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.
2. it will help me better understand English-speaking people and their way of life.
3. one needs a good knowledge of English to gain other people's respect.
4. it will allow me to meet and converse with interesting people.
5. I need it for my job.
6. it will enable me to think and behave like English-speaking people.

Richards and Rodgers (ibid: 78) argue that on the basis of such needs assessment; teachers are expected to plan group and individual instruction that responds to the learners' needs.

2.10.2.2. Counsellor

Another role assumed by several CLT approaches, according to Richards and Rodgers (ibid: 78), is that of counsellor. In this role, the teacher-counsellor is expected to exemplify an effective communicator seeking to maximize the meshing of speaker intention and hearer interpretation, through the use of paraphrase, confirmation, and feedback (Richards and Rodgers, ibid: 78).

2.10.2.3. Group Process Manager

According to Richards and Rodgers (ibid: 78) CLT procedures often require teachers to acquire less teacher-centred classroom management skills. They (ibid: 78) assert that it is the teacher's responsibility to organize the classroom as a setting for communication and communicative activities. Thus, Littlewood (1981) and Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) in Richards and Rodgers (ibid: 78) propose guidelines for classroom practice, which suggest that during an activity the teacher monitors, encourages, and suppresses the inclination to supply gaps in lexis, grammar, and strategy but notes such gaps for later commentary and communicative practice. They (ibid: 78) suggest that at the conclusion of group activities, the teacher leads in debriefing of the activity, pointing out alternatives and extensions and assisting groups in self-correction discussion. However, they point out that non-native teachers may feel less than comfortable about such procedures without special training (Richards and Rodgers 1993:70).

It is important to bear in mind that CLT recognises some activities as being more communicative and others as being less communicative. The next section therefore discusses activities in Communicative Language Teaching.

2.10.3. Activities in Communicative Language Teaching

According to Harmer (2006:84-85) CLT has two aspects: the 'what to teach' aspect, which stresses the significance of language functions rather than focussing solely on grammar and vocabulary; and the 'how to teach' aspect,

which is closely related to the idea that 'language learning will take care of itself', and that plentiful exposure to language in use and plenty of opportunities to use it are vitally important for a student's development of knowledge and skill. Therefore, activities in CLT typically involve students in real or realistic communication where the accuracy of the language they use is less important than successful achievement of the communicative task they are performing. Thus, role-play and simulation have become very popular in CLT, where students simulate a television programme or a scene at an airport – or they might put together the simulated front page of a newspaper. Sometimes they have to write a poem or construct a story together. Sometimes they have to solve a puzzle and can only do so by sharing information.

Most importantly, Harmer (ibid: 84-85) asserts that what matters in these activities is that students have a desire to communicate something. They should have a purpose for communicating (e.g. to make a point, to buy an airline ticket, or write a letter to a newspaper). They should be focused on the content of what they are saying or writing rather than on a particular language form. They should use a variety of language rather than just one language structure. The teacher will not intervene to stop the activity; and the materials he or she relies on will not dictate what specific language forms the students use either. In other words, such activities should attempt to replicate real communication.

In summary, Harmer (ibid: 84-85) contrasts non-communicative activities with communicative ones. He (ibid: 84-85) maintains that non-communicative activities are those in which there is:

- (i) no communicative desire;
- (ii) no communicative purpose;
- (iii) form not content;
- (iv) one language item only;
- (v) teacher intervention; and
- (vi) materials control.

On the contrary, communicative activities are those in which there is:

- (i) a desire to communicate;
- (ii) a communicative purpose;
- (iii) content not form;
- (iv) variety of language;
- (v) no teacher intervention; and
- (vi) no materials control.

Furthermore, Harmer (ibid: 84-85) suggests that a key to the enhancement of communicative purpose and the desire to communicate is the information gap.

He (ibid: 84-85) argues that a traditional classroom exchange in which one student, for example, asks *where's the library?* and another student answers *It's on Green Street, opposite the bank* where they can both see it and both know the answer, is not much like real communication. If, however, the first student has a map which does not have the bank listed on it, while the other student has a different map with *post office* written on the correct building – but which the first student cannot see – then there is a gap between the knowledge which the two participants have. Thus, in order for the first student to locate the bank on that map, that information gap needs to be closed.

Nonetheless, Harmer (2006:86) points out that while it has been widely accepted for sometime that communicative activities are a vital part of a teacher's repertoire, it is less clear whether it is possible to pin down exactly what a communicative approach is. After all, Harmer (ibid: 86) argues that most language teaching aims to improve the students' communicative ability, whatever techniques the teacher uses to promote this – as CLT has also included snatches of drilling and focussed language work despite the non-communicative nature of such activities. However, Harmer (ibid: 86) emphasises that CLT mainly describes learning sequences which aim to improve the students' ability to communicate, in stark contrast to teaching which is aimed at learning bits of language just because they exist and without focussing on their use in communication.

The next section presents the characteristics of a language lesson. This is important because it helps to judge whether the lesson meets or deviates from what is or what is not a language lesson.

2.11. Characteristics of a Language Lesson

There are three categories, which characterise a language lesson as discussed by Cicurel (1985) cited by Mpepo (1990:72-73). The first category refers to the metalinguistic activity. This involves an explicit teaching about language as it takes language for its object within the classroom. Hence the terminology used

during the teaching process can range from specialised – that is, use of grammatical terms – to non-specialised, for instance, ‘listening comprehension’, and ‘oral lesson’.

The second category concerns the use of simulated discourse. This involves activities such as the repetition of other people’s discourses, simulation games, and role-play. The goal of these activities is to demonstrate that the learner can perform or express linguistic functions. The prevalence of such simulated discourse leads to discourse patterns, which are peculiar to foreign language and second language lessons. For example, the ‘feedback’ stage of the I-R-F sequence will normally relate to acceptability of form rather than to the content of the pupil’s response.

The third and final category is where learners have ‘real life’ tasks to carry out. At this stage the learners are assumed to have the necessary language to carry out the set tasks. The role of the educator is to set up situations and respond to metalinguistic requests.

However, Scrivener (2005:27) maintains that the subject matter of language teaching mainly consists of two major elements: ‘language systems’ and ‘language skills’. On the one hand, on language systems, Scrivener (ibid: 27) propounds that we would consider the sounds (phonology), the meaning of the individual words or groups of words (lexis or vocabulary), how the words interact

with each other within the sentence (grammar), the use to which the words are put in particular situations (function), and the way that communication makes sense beyond the individual phrase or sentence, analysing how the sentences relate (or don't relate) to each other (known as *discourse*).

On the other hand, language skills refer to what we *do* with language. These skills are divided into receptive skills, which are listening, and reading, where the reader or listener receives information but does not produce it; and productive skills, that is, *speaking and writing* (Scrivener 2005:29, Riddell 2003:97, Harmer 2006:199, 246).

Furthermore, Scrivener (2005:33) suggests other areas that are part of language learning:

- (i) Students may be learning new ways of learning, for example, specific study skills and techniques.
- (ii) They will also be learning about the other people in their class, and exploring ways of interacting and working with them.
- (iii) They may be learning about themselves and how they work, learn, get on with other people, cope with stress, etc.
- (iv) They may be learning a lot about the culture of the countries whose language they are studying.
- (v) They may be learning how to achieve some specific goal, for example passing an exam, making a business presentation at an upcoming conference, etc.
- (vi) They may also be learning about almost anything else. The subject matter of English Language Teaching can encompass all topics and purposes that we use language to deal with.

Most importantly, Scrivener (2005:32) reminds us of the communicative purpose of language learning in that no one area of skills or language systems exists in

isolation: there can be no speaking if one doesn't have the vocabulary to speak with; there's no point learning words unless one can do something useful with them. In other words, the purpose of learning a language is usually to enable *one to take part in exchanges of information: talking with friends, reading instructions on a packet of food, understanding directions, writing a note to a colleague, etc.*

Therefore, in analysing English lessons that were used in this study it was necessary to see the extent to which each lesson complied with these categories.

Moreover, it was equally essential to consider various stages of a lesson as the five lessons were analysed according to lesson stages as well. The following discussion therefore is about lesson stages.

2.12. Lesson stages

Mpepo (1990:159) recognises four stages of a lesson: presentation stage, pre-communication stage, practice stage, communication stage, and feedback on form stage. Unlike the four stages of a lesson adopted by Mpepo (ibid: 159), Harmer (2006:80-81) presents three stages referred to as PPP, which stands for Presentation, Practice, and Production. Below is a short description of this procedure, starting with Presentation.

2.12.1. Presentation

During presentation stage the teacher introduces a situation, which contextualises the language to be taught. For instance the teacher may show a picture to the learners and ask them to identify what the picture is about. The teacher may point at certain activities in the picture and elicit the phrase that may be used to describe the activity. The teacher may then model the sentence that describes the activity before isolating the grammar she wants to focus on.

2.12.2. Practice

The students now practice the language using accurate reproduction techniques such as choral repetition (where the students repeat a word, phrase, or sentence all together with the teacher 'conducting'), individual repetition (where individual students repeat a word, phrase, or sentence at the teacher's urging), and cue-response drills (where the teacher gives a cue, nominates a student by name or by looking or pointing, and the student makes the desired response). Usually the teacher puts the students in pairs to practice the sentences a bit more before listening to a few examples just to check that the learning has been effective.

2.12.3. Production

This refers to a time when students make sentences of their own using the new language.

However, due to sustained attacks of PPP, as critics argued that it was teacher-centred, Harmer (2006:82) puts forward alternatives to PPP. These alternatives as shall be discussed below are: ARC, OHE / III, and ESA.

2.12.4. ARC

This stands for **A**uthentic use, **R**estricted use, and **C**larification. Harmer (2006:83) argues that the basic premise here is that most language in the classroom can be described as either A, R, or C. Thus a communicative activity will demonstrate 'authentic' use, whereas a drill, elicited dialogue, or guided writing, for example, will provoke restricted use of language by students. Finally, Clarification language is that which the teacher and students use to explain grammar, give examples, analyse errors, elicit or repeat things.

Similarly, Scrivener (2005:115-116) proposes the lesson procedure: Restricted exposure, Clarification, and Restricted output, which he argues is a popular lesson shape for many teachers. In the first stage, the learners get to see or hear examples of language being used (may be in a reading text or by listening to a recording). Clarification refers to a lesson stage in which the learners focus in on a piece of language, to see it, think about it, and understand it, to become much clearer on its form, meaning and use. In short, the teacher explains the language point. After this, the learners try using the language for themselves in relatively unthreatening ways.

Interestingly, Harmer (ibid: 83) suggests that an old PPP-type lesson can now be described as CRA (where the teacher presents a situation, clarifies the language point, institutes restricted (controlled) practice before getting 'authentic' use).

2.12.5. OHE /III

By OHE, Harmer (ibid: 83) means that students should be allowed to **Observe** (read or listen to language), which will then provoke them to **Hypothesize** about how the language works before going on to **Experiment** on the basis of that hypothesis. *On the other hand, III refers to a situation where students are shown examples of language like the transcripts of conversations (Illustration); they are then given discovery activities and questions about the language (Interaction) as a result of which, through such a noticing routine, students will grasp new facts about language (Induction).*

2.12.6. ESA

In the ESA model, Harmer (2006:84) maintains that three components will usually be present in any teaching sequence. 'E' stands for Engage. The point here is that unless students are engaged emotionally, with what is going on, their learning will be less effective.

'S' stands for Study and describes any teaching and learning element where the focus is on how something is constructed, whether it is relative clauses, specific

intonation patterns, the construction of a paragraph or text, the way a lexical phrase is made and used, or the collocation possibilities of a particular word.

'A' stands Activate and this means any stage at which students are encouraged to use all and or any of the language they know. Harmer (2006:84) argues that communicative activities, for example, are designed to activate the students' language knowledge; so too are reading and listening activities when students are doing it for interest and general understanding such as the extensive reading.

Similarly, Harmer (ibid: 84) admits that the sequence ESA is much like PPP or CRA. Nevertheless, he (ibid: 84) contends that another order: EAS is possible, where the teacher gets the students engaged before asking them to do something like a written task, a communication game, or a role-play.

It is important to bear in mind some of the features of spoken communication.

The next section presents briefly the features of conversation against which the data collected will be analysed.

2.13. Features of Conversation

The first feature to consider is turn-taking: each speaker and listener exchange roles. That is, one speaker speaks at a time and the other listens. In this case short pauses signal turn for the listener to resume speaker role.

Secondly, the speaker change recurs – this happens when the current speaker either selects the next speaker or leaves it to other participants to continue the conversation (Coulthard 1988:61).

In a classroom situation the authority of selecting the next speaker for several successive utterances mainly rests with the educator. The bottom line, however, is that not more than one speaker speaks at a time although this generally differs with different speech communities (See, for example, Saville-Troike (1997:11ff).

Sacks (1974) in Coulthard (1988:63-64) observes that different turn-taking systems produce differently structured turns. He elaborates that in a pre-allocated system there are no interruption pressures; turns tend to be longer, whilst in a turn-by-turn allocation system there are strong pressures from other participants wanting to speak. In a pre-allocated system, turns may consist of a series of linked sentences whereas in a turn-by-turn allocation system the turn is typically only a sentence long.

CHAPTER 3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

In order to answer the research questions, data were collected through visits, observations, note taking, and recording. This chapter, therefore, presents the methodology that was used in carrying out the research. All the four aspects mentioned above are discussed in this chapter. It is, however, imperative that we first discuss in detail the research design and the qualitative approach adopted in this study. The section on research design is divided into five subsections: the first one is description of research questions, the second one is design of the research, the third one is sampling, the fourth one is data collection, and the last one is type of data collected. We shall start with an outline of the research questions.

3.1. Research Questions

The research sought to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent are learners of English as a Second Language exposed to the target language?
2. How much time do learners spend communicating in English?
3. How is English used a medium of instruction?
4. Is grammar taught in English lessons?
5. What demands in the teaching of English as a Second Language do learners' and teachers' discourse suggest?

6. What are the options that can be used to improve teaching and learning?

In order to address the above research questions it was necessary to first consider the design of the study and adoption of qualitative approach.

3.2. Design of the Study (Qualitative approach)

A qualitative approach was adopted in this study. This approach originally developed from the methodologies of field anthropologists and sociologists concerned with studying human behaviour within the context in which that behaviour would occur naturally and in which the role of the researcher would not affect the normal behaviour of the subjects (see Seliger and Shohamy 1990:118).

Moreover, qualitative methods attempted to present the data from the perspective of the subjects or observed groups, so that the cultural and intellectual biases of the researcher did not distort the collection, interpretation, or presentation of data (see Jacob 1987 cited in Seliger and Shohamy 1990:118).

Furthermore, Seliger and Shohamy (ibid: 118) argue that the procedures and methods associated with qualitative research have increasingly been incorporated into second language research in recent years for a number of reasons among which are:

- (i) Much second language acquisition research is concerned with classroom learning, to which it is not easy to apply the controls necessary for experimental research. This led researchers to seek more effective ways to investigate acquisition in the classroom;
- (ii) There has been an increased use of qualitative or ethnographic research approaches in psychology, education, communication,

and discourse analysis. Although qualitative research methods do not control for variables, the development of vigorous methods for data collection and analysis have produced results that would not be possible through experimental designs.

Accordingly, as the research questions described above suggest, this study is concerned with classroom interaction with an aim of establishing communicative competence among learners of English as a Second Language, which phenomena need to be studied in its natural setting.

In addition, Seliger and Shohamy (1990) discuss four parameters for second language research. These parameters are determining factors as to which approach (mainly between qualitative and quantitative) would be adopted. However, Seliger and Shohamy (1990:25) admit that research does not always conform to the distinction implied by the parameters. Following is a description of each parameter and how each relates to the study in question.

3.2.1. Parameter 1: Synthetic and analytic approaches

Seliger and Shohamy (1990:27) raise an important point that research in second language can be approached from a synthetic or holistic perspective, which emphasises the interdependence of the parts of the field, or from an analytic or constituent perspective, which focuses on the role of the constituent parts that make up the total phenomenon. By 'synthetic' or 'holistic', Seliger and Shohamy (ibid: 27) mean an approach to second language phenomena that allows us to view the separate parts as a *coherent whole*. By 'analytic', they (ibid: 27) mean

an approach that will identify and investigate a single factor or a cluster of factors, which at level are constituents of one of the major systems. Similarly, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1992:12) in their discussion about attributes of the qualitative and quantitative paradigms, make a distinction between the two, where the former is said to be *holistic* and the latter *particularistic* (see also Oakley 1999:156 cited in Blaxter et al 2006: 65).

Interestingly, Seliger and Shohamy (1990:28) argue that the synthetic or heuristic view of a language phenomenon may be the valid one in some instances because analysing a second language variable into its component parts may result in a distortion of the phenomenon. For example, a study of the turn-taking behaviour of children acquiring a second language in a classroom might benefit more from an approach that examines turn-taking for all the learners and the teacher at the same time. Focusing on only one group of learners or a particular kind of turn-taking may not give a valid picture.

Seemingly, this research study falls more on the synthetic or holistic research because it is concerned with learner-teacher interaction in the classroom situation. As noted, Seliger and Shohamy (op cit) suggest that this phenomenon would be better viewed through synthetic or holistic approach.

3.2.2. Parameter 2: Heuristic and deductive objectives

Seliger and Shohamy (1990:29) contend that if the aim of the research is

heuristic, the investigator observes and records some aspect or context of second language. Data may then be categorised or analysed or written up descriptively and often the result of such research may be the formulations of hypotheses. For example, a study interested in finding out how some second language learners are more successful than others necessitates observation of language learners in classroom environment to record as much information as possible about the learning process in that context. The aim is to observe as many factors as possible, which might be related to successful second language acquisition (learners raising their hands to participate, writing in notebooks, talking to themselves and to their peers, etc).

However, in a research with a deductive objective, the researcher may begin with hypotheses which are based on observations suggested by heuristic research, or hypotheses found in second language acquisition theory or in other areas which appear to have relevance to second language (Seliger and Shohamy 1990:30). Hence, the deductive approach, as distinct from the heuristic approach, begins with a preconceived notion or expectation about the second language phenomena to be investigated. Similarly, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1992:12) distinguish the qualitative paradigm, which they claim is ungrounded, verification-oriented, confirmatory, reductionist, inferential, and hypothetico-deductive; from the quantitative paradigm, which is grounded, discovery-oriented, exploratory, expansionist, descriptive, and inductive (see also Oakley 1999: 156 cited in Blaxter et al 2006: 65).

Since this study is concerned with finding evidence of communicative competence as suggested by learners' and teachers' interactions in the classroom, and not with any preconceived hypothesis, it is, therefore, more of a hypothesis-generating research or heuristic, as opposed to hypothesis-testing research or deductive.

3.2.3. Parameter 3: Control and manipulation of the research context

Seliger and Shohamy (1990:32) discuss four factors related to the degree of control and manipulation of the research context, which are: restriction of scope or focus, control of variables, attention to form, and researcher subjectivity. They (ibid: 32) argue that these four factors are implicationally related in a sense that, for example, a high degree of restriction in the focus of the study implies that there must be a concomitantly high degree of control of variables but low degree of researcher subjectivity in the interpretation of the data. We shall look at each factor and how each relates to this study.

3.2.3.1. Restriction of scope or focus

Seliger and Shohamy (1990:33) contend that low levels of restriction on scope or focus will mean that it will be more difficult to control for the effects of different factors or variables in the research context. On the one hand, they (ibid: 33) argue that this may be a conscious decision on the part of the researcher who wishes to pursue a heuristic approach to the research question and who may

fear that restriction or control may distort the study of the second language phenomenon under consideration. On the other hand, a decision to restrict the research to a narrower scope or focus will facilitate the control of variables and the use of *deductive hypothesis-testing methods*.

For example, in the study of children's acquisition of a second language in the classroom, when adopting a synthetic approach, it may be decided to conduct a study in which the scope is as unrestricted as possible. This would mean that the investigation would try to record anything and everything of note without deciding which observed phenomena were of significance and which were not (Seliger and Shohamy 1990:34).

Notably, this study had low levels of restriction on scope or focus as it concerned itself with the multifaceted phenomenon of communicative competence and because a synthetic and heuristic approach had been adopted. In other words, this study sought to investigate communicative competence in its holistic form; that is, not narrowing it to one particular aspect in which case analytic and deductive approach would have been opted.

3.2.3.2. Control of variables

According to Seliger and Shohamy (ibid: 34) variables are different factors, which play a role in a study such as language, the characteristics *of the subjects* or *learners*, or the specific factors being studied. They (ibid: 34) argue that

restrictions on the scope of the phenomena to be investigated and the control of variable are interrelated; that is, the more the investigation is limited in scope, the more it is necessary to control for the effects of factors which may confuse the interpretation of the results.

In the example of children's second language acquisition in the classroom already discussed, few variables are controlled because, according to Seliger and Shohamy (1990:35), it may not be clear what the variables are and the researcher may feel that it is preferable to describe what occurs naturally without changing the context. In fact, they (ibid: 35) suggest that the purpose of the study might be to describe what the possible factors are. Notably, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1992:12) assert that the qualitative paradigm has attributes of *naturalistic and uncontrolled* observation, whilst attributes of the quantitative paradigm are *obtrusive and controlled measurement* (see also Oakley 1999: 156 cited in Blaxter et al 2006: 65).

Similarly, few variables were controlled in this study, as there was no attempt to change the context. That is, the study concentrated on what happens in an English lesson in a classroom context. Hence, it was necessary to study the whole lesson without paying attention to one particular aspect, say, the study of reading and metalinguistic ability, which may have necessitated more control on variables in order to collect data specifically focused on those aspects.

3.2.3.3. Attention to form or subject awareness

Seliger and Shohamy (1990:35) contend that language can be studied as a medium for communication as well as an object in itself. They (ibid: 35) explain that *when we use language as a tool for communication, we usually pay more attention to the content we wish to communicate and less to the form of language itself*. If, however, the object of research is to examine the form of language such as syntax rather than its content, many possibilities are open to the researcher, such as developing a specific task to constrain the learners to produce the form, which is the focus of the study. On the other hand, they (ibid: 35) further explain that in the case of investigating language acquisition in a natural setting, we might collect samples of language in an interview or a role-play situation in which the speakers are focused on the content of language and not on its form. However, they (ibid: 35) caution that ideally, in order to obtain data which are truly representative of this naturalistic use of language, the subject should be unaware that data are being recorded at all. This is because if subjects know that they are participating in research, there is a possibility that their performance will not be the same as it would be if they were performing the same task in a natural environment. However, in research in which the focus is not clear to the subjects, it is more likely that the data collected will be representative of what learners normally do (Seliger and Shohamy 1990:36).

Interestingly, this study is not investigating any particular language form *per se*, but as research questions suggest, is more concerned with the content of

language as a medium of communication. Although the ideal situation of subjects not realising that they were being observed was not attained, subjects did not have a clear focus of what was under observation. Therefore, one may argue that the data collected is more representative of what learners would normally do. In other words, learners were able to use structures that they had in their repertoire, which means that their interaction in the classroom was governed, controlled, or restricted by the level of their competence in English.

3.2.3.4. Researcher subjectivity

This factor suggests that the less controlled and focused a research study is, the more the interpretative abilities of the researcher are called into play (Seliger and Shohamy 1990:36). For example, Seliger and Shohamy (*ibid*: 36) argue that research, which is both synthetic and heuristic and places fewer restrictions on the scope of the phenomena to be studied, must depend more on judgments made by the investigators as to what will be recorded and what will be ignored. In fact, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1992:12) assert that the attribute of the qualitative paradigm is that it is subjective as opposed to the attribute of the quantitative paradigm, which is objective. Seliger and Shohamy (*ibid*: 36) further argue that when data collected in this kind of research are reviewed, they are placed into categories established by the researcher, who impose a structure on the data that was not there before. However, the nature of that structure depends to a great extent on their perception of the data.

In this study the researcher applied classroom discourse analysis, CLT, text analysis among other factors in analysing data. The researcher viewed these factors as necessary to investigate research questions. Therefore, since the object of investigation was less focused the researcher did not have to use tools outside own interpretative powers.

3.2.4. Parameter 4: Data and data collection

Seliger and Shohamy (1990:37) argue that the approach (synthetic or analytic), the purpose (heuristic or deductive), and the design of the research will be expressed both in *what* data will be regarded as important and the *manner* in which those data will be collected and analysed. Moreover, they (ibid: 37) contend that the procedures used to collect data will be affected by factors such as kind of discipline (linguistics, sociology, psychology) within which the researcher is working and whether the research is *synthetic* and *heuristic* or *analytic* and *deductive*. Therefore, they (ibid: 37) conclude that second language data will be different within a linguistic, educational, or sociological context. Furthermore, they (ibid: 37) propose two important questions in connection with data collection, which are:

- (i) What constitute the data for second language investigation?
- (ii) How are data collected and analysed?

We shall consider each question and see how each relates to the study.

3.2.4.1. What are data?

Seliger and Shohamy (1990:38) start by pointing out that there is a reciprocal relationship between the kinds of questions asked, the design of the investigation, and kind of data to be collected. They (ibid: 38) assert that data might include *all behaviours observable* by the researcher in a second language event such as a language lesson, *sentences* of a specific type that learners utter in response to stimuli controlled by the investigator, *subjects' opinions* about speakers of the second language.

In the case of this study data consist of behaviours observable in a language lesson with an aim of addressing research questions tabulated in 3.1 above.

3.2.4.2. How are data collected?

Similarly, Seliger and Shohamy (1990:38) assert that the manner in which data are collected involve other considerations, such as the approach and the objectives of the research. Moreover, they (ibid: 38) argue that data collection procedures in second language research will vary in terms of the degree of *explicitness* with which the procedure focuses on the data that are sought.

In addition, Seliger and Shohamy (1990:39) propound that observation or taping of natural conversations is less likely to draw the subjects' attention to the particular kind of data being sought, although the act of observing or taping may affect the subjects' behaviour, while an instrument such as an attitude

questionnaire or a metalinguistic test may make the subject aware of what the investigator is seeking. As already noted, Seliger and Shohamy (1990:40) emphasise that this awareness on the part of the subject may or may not affect the validity of the data.

Accordingly, data in this research study were collected via videotape, without the subjects' attention to the particular kind of data being sought, notwithstanding that the act of videotaping may have affected the subjects' behaviour.

3.3. Sampling

The research was conducted among five rural African high schools in the Eshowe circuit. These schools were selected among forty high schools in the Eshowe circuit. Although Seliger and Shohamy (1990:96) argue that in order for research to be generalisable, that is, applicable outside immediate research environment, it must be possible to assume that the population used in the research is representative of the general population to which the research would apply, by using methods such as *random sampling*, in which subjects for research are chosen at random from a much larger pool of potential subjects; this research study did not use random sampling. In fact, Blaxter et al (2006: 164) divide sampling strategies into two main groups: *probability* and *non-probability* sampling. They (ibid: 164) maintain that the most widely understood probability sampling approach is probably random sampling, where every individual or object in the group or 'population' of interest has an equal chance of being

chosen for study. In this study, however, the sampling approach adopted was non-probability sampling, particularly convenience and purposive sampling: where the former means sampling those most convenient; and the latter refers to handpicking supposedly typical or interesting cases. Actually, the five schools were selected because they were considered to be representative of African rural high schools in the Eshowe circuit, and because they were more accessible to the researcher in terms of proximity. These schools are located in Ndlangubo ward, and this ward was chosen because of the diversity of rural high schools represented; for instance, schools 'A' and 'B' are situated closer to town, whilst schools 'C', 'D', and 'E' are far away from town.

Admittedly, Seliger and Shohamy (1990:99) agree that concern for the size of the subject population does not apply to research in which the objective of the research is heuristic. They (ibid: 99) argue that the size of the subject population in a synthetic-heuristic study might be as small as one subject, and that the size of the subject population in studies of language acquisition is not always a relevant factor and depends on the research design, the topic, and even the type of data which are the focus of the study.

Nevertheless, Seliger and Shohamy (1990:104) suggest three essential areas: the *representativeness*, *retrievability*, and *confirmability* of the data, in dealing with validity in heuristic research. The following presents a discussion on these essential areas and their relation to the study:

3.3.1. Representativeness

Here they (ibid: 104) argue that research, which is considered 'naturalistic' or 'qualitative', must be able to show that the act of research or the presence of an observer has not distorted the nature of the data collected. Jacob (1987) cited in Seliger and Shohamy (1990:104) emphasises that less noticeable or intrusive methods of collecting data need to be found in order to ensure that the data collected are truly representative of the natural behaviour of the group.

In an example described below, Seliger and Shohamy (ibid: 104) demonstrate how a *particular method of data collection may distort the normal behaviour of the subject*:

In a study of participation patterns in the language classroom, observers sat in the back of the class and, using a coded system, noted different types of turn-taking by the class members. The class members were not told of the purpose of the observation. One alert language learner noticed that the observer made marks on a paper whenever anyone seemed to speak. Not knowing what the marks were, he began to increase his turn-taking. *When he saw that the observer noted his turn-taking, he increased it even more.*

In this study research data were collected via videotape and the subjects were not notified of what was under observation. As a result, it can be concluded that if subjects behaved 'unnaturally', such behaviour was minimal and therefore data could by and large be accepted as representative of the natural behaviour of the group.

3.3.2. Retrievability

Furthermore, Seliger and Shohamy (1990:104) emphasise that this aspect of validity refers to the researcher's access to the subjects' responses or to records or protocols of data, so that the same responses or behaviours may be inspected. They (ibid: 104) suggest that collecting it by some mechanical means, such as video or audio recording, can increase the retrievability of data.

In this study, as mentioned earlier, data were collected via videotape – transcripts of which are available in appendix.

3.3.3. Confirmability

In this aspect of validation in heuristic research Seliger and Shohamy (1990:105) are concerned with the ability of the researcher to confirm findings, either by re-inspection or by demonstrating the same findings through different sources. They (ibid: 105) argue that data drawn from observation or manual transcription could be confirmed by data drawn from video or audiotapes made at the same time as the observation.

Indeed, in this study transcripts of data made from videotapes are accessible in appendix for confirmation of observations made in five rural African high schools in the Eshowe circuit. These transcripts could be used in conjunction with video tapes should the need arise.

3.4. Data collection procedure

Importantly, it should be noted that this study, in terms of parameters discussed above, is qualitative research, in that it is *synthetic* or *holistic* (parameter 1), *heuristic* (parameter 2), with *little* or *no manipulation* (parameter 3) of the research environment, and uses data collection procedures with *low explicitness* (parameter 4). That said, this study employed the kind of observation found in qualitative research called *non-participant observation*, in which the investigator observes and records or takes notes of the observed activity, but without the control or guidance of a questionnaire or other instrument (Long cited in Seliger and Shohamy 1990:120). That is, the researcher captured language lessons in five different rural African high schools via videotape. One of the advantages of non-participant observation according to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1992:16) is that researchers are free to take notes and or make tape recordings during the observation itself. Another advantage noted by Seliger and Shohamy (1990:162) is that observations allow the study of a phenomenon at close range with many of the *contextual variables present, a feature which is very important in studying language behaviours*.

However, as noted before, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1992:17) point out that one drawback to this research methodology is that the mere presence of an observer may force the subjects to attend to what they say in a way different than if the observer were not present.

Nevertheless, Seliger and Shohamy (1990:121) conclude that qualitative research appears to be more appropriate for describing the social context of second language, such as dyadic speech interactions (who say *what* to *whom* and *when*), frequencies and descriptions of speech acts in given language-use contexts such as the language classroom, and descriptions of teacher and learner language in language classroom.

3.5. Type of data collected

Seliger and Shohamy (1990:154) argue that second language acquisition data can be drawn from any of the behaviours involved in a second language acquisition event, and may cover a wide variety of phenomena such as learner utterances, conversations, strategies used for producing and solving language problems, attitudes towards learning a language and toward its speakers, language used by teachers and students in classroom lessons, performances of learners on metalinguistic tasks such as judgment translations, imitations, and so on. Moreover, Seliger and Shohamy (1990:155) add that the data collected through assessment of those behaviours occur in a variety of forms, such as tests scores, descriptions, conversations, answers to questionnaires, interviews, verbal descriptions, or observation of language behaviours in a classroom.

The data in this study is in the form of language lessons captured via videotape from five rural African high schools in the Eshowe circuit. These data form the basis of analysis in addressing the research questions described in 3.1 above.

Having provided the theoretical background of the research design and the justification of the qualitative research approach adopted in this study, it is fitting that we proceed to the discussion of the actual procedures that were followed in this research. The following sections therefore discuss visits, observations, note-taking, and recording.

3.6. Visits.

Visits were made to Grade 11 and 12 classrooms of the five selected schools for the following reasons:

1. *To observe the use of English as a medium of instruction;*
2. To record complete English lessons for analysis;
3. To observe the amount of time learners spend communicating in English and
4. *To observe the extent to which learners of English as a Second Language are exposed to the target language.*

Permission to conduct these visits was requested and granted by school principals of the selected schools. The school principals connected the researcher with concerned Heads of Department (HOD's), who in turn referred the researcher to the relevant English Second Language educators. It was important to get permission as Bailey (1987:246) emphasizes that the researcher needs to get permission before studying other groups, cultures, or organizations.

3.7. Observations.

Observations were carried out during visits. In this study, the researcher used non-participant observation, as there was no involvement of the researcher in the activities that were being observed (see Larsen-Freeman & Long 1992: 16). The advantage of this observation is that the researcher was able to record behaviour in its natural environment and in its totality via videotape (See Bailey 1987:241).

The researcher further chose overt observation, where the observer (researcher) was visible to the subjects and the subjects (mainly learners and educators) aware that they were being observed. It was, nevertheless, borne in mind that in such an environment subjects might act differently than they would if they were not being observed (Bailey 1987:244 and Seliger & Shohamy 1990:161). The main reasons for carrying out the observational study were:

1. To investigate the use of English in the classroom as a medium of instruction and
2. To investigate learners' communicative competence in English as a Second Language.
3. To investigate whether grammar is taught in English lessons.

3.8. Note taking.

Notes were taken of everything that was observed during visits. These notes were taken whilst the researcher was on site. Bailey (1987:250) recommends that notes be recorded as quickly as possible after observation, since the

quantity of information forgotten is very slight over a short time period but accelerates quickly as time passes. Notes that were taken were mainly to capture factors that were not captured during the recording session. These factors included timetables that reflected the amount of time allocated to English as a subject of learning. Moreover, factors that reflected dominant learners' language of communication during the English period and after the English period were noted.

3.9. Recording.

Videotape was used for recording English lessons from five selected schools. The researcher brought the videotape during the English period on each selected school. Before each actual lesson was captured through videotape, the researcher arrived three periods earlier (when other subjects were being taught), and set up the instrument so that learners would get used to the presence of the videotape. This was to ensure that the natural environment of learning was maintained, and learners as well as educators viewed learning during recording as they normally would.

The following chapter presents the data that was collected through visits, observation, note-taking, and recording. Furthermore, recorded lessons were transcribed and are presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4. DATA PRESENTATION

4.0. Introduction

The data was collected from five selected high schools in Ndlangubo Ward, Eshowe Circuit. That is, the researcher visited, observed, took notes and video-recorded five English lessons from five selected high schools. Two of the lessons were video-recorded from Grade 11 whilst the other three were video-recorded from Grade 12 classrooms. All of these high schools were rural high schools. Below are the findings and analysis of transcripts³ of English lessons from these schools (categorised into school A to E⁴: where school A and B are transcripts for Grade 11 English lessons and school C, D and E are transcripts for Grade 12 English lessons).

This chapter thus consists of four sections. Section One presents findings relating to visits conducted in five selected schools. Section Two and Section Three discuss observations made in five selected schools and notes taken during visits respectively. Section Four deals with the analysis of each lesson.

4.1. Visits.

Five schools were visited in order to observe the use of English as a medium of instruction. These five schools were categorised into A, B, C, D, and E. It was

³ Transcribed lessons are in the appendix

⁴ The schools' and individual's names are not given

observed that English was indeed used as a medium of instruction in all the five selected schools. However, the use of English as a medium of instruction was characterized by code switching (where learners and teachers switch from English to isiZulu and visa versa) and code-mixing (where more than one language feature in a single sentence or utterance) with isiZulu or Afrikaans being the other language.

During the visits the researcher managed to record the entire English lesson in all the five selected schools. These recordings were conducted during the English period according to each school's composite timetable.

Furthermore, the amount of time allocated to the teaching of English as a Second Language was more or less the same in all the five selected schools, as we will see in 4.3.

However, the geographical location of the five selected schools deprived them from exposure to native and educated speakers of English. All five selected schools did not have audio-visual equipment like television and radio within the school. Nevertheless, there were newspapers that were offered by the Department of Education to help Grade 12 learners.

4.2. Observations.

The observation of the researcher was that English was being used as a

language of teaching and learning in all the five selected high schools. Notwithstanding such observation, learners in all the five selected high schools resorted to isiZulu when they spoke or discussed their work among themselves. This was observed when educators gave learners tasks to discuss in groups.

It was also observed that learners and educators did not have much difficulty in communicating in English albeit they exhibited fluency and accuracy challenges. This was captured in the recorded lessons as well.

4.3. Note taking.

The researcher took notes on the composite timetables of the five selected schools in order to establish the amount of time allocated to the teaching of English as a Second Language. School (A) on the one hand was using a seven-days cycle timetable, each period being sixty minutes. English appeared six times in the timetable, which meant there were six hours allocated to the teaching of English as a Second Language in seven days.

School (B) on the other hand was using an eight-days cycle timetable with each period being one hour long. Like school (A), English appeared six times in the composite timetable, which was also translated to six hours allocated to the teaching of English in seven days.

Similarly, school (C) had adopted an eight-days cycle, allocating sixty minutes to

each period. There were six periods of English in the composite timetable. English as a Second Language was, therefore, given six hours of teaching time in seven days.

In addition, school (E) used eight-days cycle the same as school (C) and school (B). There were six periods of English in the composite timetable, which means six hours were allocated to the teaching of English as a Second Language in seven days.

In contrast, school (D) was using a six-days cycle, where sixty minutes were allocated to each period. However, during the recording of the English lesson the period was thirty-five minutes. The English educator explained that though the timetable allocates sixty minutes to each period, periods on Fridays are reduced to thirty-five minutes. English appeared six times in the composite timetable. This means the time allocated to the teaching of English as a Second Language in school (D) was thirty-five minutes less on occasions when one of the six periods fell on Friday.

4.4. Analysis of lessons.

All English lessons in the five selected schools were recorded via videotape. Transcripts of these lessons are available in the appendix. Each lesson was analysed to see how far it satisfied Beaugrande and Dressler's (op. cit) seven standards of textuality restated below:

- (a) Cohesion,
- (b) Coherence,
- (c) Intentionality,
- (d) Acceptability,
- (e) Informativity,
- (f) Situationality, and
- (g) Intertextuality.

In addition, each lesson was discussed using Coulthard's⁵ model for analysis of classroom interaction. Coulthard (1988:124) discusses classroom discourse in terms of boundary exchanges, which consists of a frame⁶ and focus⁷. He further proposes a three-move structure proposed for teaching exchanges, consisting of initiation, response and follow-up or feedback, which produces the structure: T-P-T. *In this pattern the teacher asks a question, the learner answers the question followed by the teacher's evaluative feedback (follow-up).*

Furthermore, three major categories (discussed by Coulthard 1988: 126-127); namely meta-interactive, interactive and turn-taking were used in analyzing the lessons. Firstly, meta-interactive acts consist of 'marker' – the act, which realizes framing moves, i.e. now, right, etc; 'metastatement' talks about the discourse and realizes focusing moves whilst 'loop' is realized by such terms as 'pardon',

⁵ See Coulthard (1988:127), where seventeen acts are discussed.

⁶ 'Frame' is largely limited to five words: Okay, well, right, now, good.

⁷ 'Focus' follows a frame indicating the beginning of a transaction.

'again', 'what did you say', etc.

Secondly, the interactive acts consist of initiation options, which are informative, directive and elicitation; their appropriate responses, i.e. acknowledge, react and reply; and follow-up options, which are accept, evaluate and comment. Moreover, sometimes a teacher produces a statement, which is intended to be initiating and then, realizing the intention could be expressed better, relegates the 'initiation' into a starter.

Lastly, there are three acts associated with turn-taking in the classroom. Sometimes teachers nominate a learner; sometimes learners are required to bid by raising their hands or shouting 'Sir' or 'Miss' and then the teacher nominates one of those who have bid. At times the teacher provides cues to the learners to raise their hands and bid. In addition, Coulthard (op. cit) proposed 'aside' an act, which is meant to handle situation where the teacher withdrew from interaction and produced utterances such as 'Where did I put my chalk?'

Furthermore, lessons were analysed following three categories, which characterize a language lesson as discussed by Circurel cited by Mpepo (1990:72-73), which are summarized as:

- (a) Metalinguistic activity, i.e. an explicit teaching about language in the classroom.
- (b) Simulated discourse, i.e. activities such as repetition of other people's

discourse, simulation games and role-play.

(c) Carrying out of real life tasks or 'real' communication.

In addition to these three categories, lessons were analysed according to two major elements as discussed by Scrivener (2005:27-29); Riddell (2003:97); and Harmer (2006:199, 246), which are summarized as:

(a) Language systems: phonology, lexis or vocabulary, grammar, function, and discourse.

(b) Language skills: receptive (listening, reading) and productive (speaking, writing) skills.

4.4.1. Presentation and Analysis of School 'A' English Lesson

During school "A's" English lesson, line 1 and line 2⁸, the lesson begins with T-P pattern ('Teacher: Morning class; Pupil: Morning'), which is a common pattern during the opening of the school day⁹. Though the beginning of the lesson seems to follow the pattern T-P-T at A: 1-3, in fact, A: 3 ('I would like you to welcome...') is initiation instead of feedback. The educator proceeds to explain the purpose of the lesson, which is 'to learn how to summarise' (in A: 4). That being a metalinguistic¹⁰ expression suggests that school "A's" English lesson is a language lesson.

⁸ Henceforth A: 1-2.

⁹ See Coulthard 1988.

¹⁰ 'Metalinguistic' in this study is used to refer to a language used to describe or talk about language.

In A: 8 and A: 19, the lesson has a frame ('Okay') and focus ('You are going to read the passage...'). In A: 90, the lesson has a loop ('Read aloud please') where the learner has to repeat himself because of being inaudible.

Furthermore, the lesson in A: 22 may seem to be simulation, as the teacher tells learners that she is going to be both Linda and Jacob at the same time. In fact, the teacher does not simulate any activity. Instead, she reads the roles of Linda and Jacob as they appear in the dialogue. After reading, learners are issued with their own copies to read for themselves. The whole exercise is aimed at summarising the passage by answering questions that are based on it. However, the teacher tries to engage learners in 'real' communication when she divides them into groups so that they can work on the passage. Each group is tasked with choosing a secretary who makes a presentation for the group in A: 59-74, which further puts the lesson in the category of a language lesson.

This subsequently leads to a typical classroom discourse sequence in A: 78-83:

Initiation – teacher asks learners to present the points they have gathered in their groups (in A: 78). It appears as if the teacher provides a cue to the learners for nomination. But, learners do not bid for nomination in this lesson because group members have already nominated group representatives.

Response – a learner reads a point in reaction to the teacher's elicitation in A: 82.

Feedback (Follow-up) – teacher repeats the point read by the learner, which signifies acceptance of the utterance in A: 83. In many other instances the teacher uses 'Yes' for feedback, e.g. in A: 92, 94 and 96. In A: 85, the teacher gives feedback on another point mentioned by the learner. On her feedback she rejects the point offered by the learner, but elicits further clarity. Her elicitation however, implies that she is not interested in the reply and she quickly urges the learner to move to the third point in A: 86 and 88.

Furthermore, in A: 222-227 there seems to be a violation of Beaugrande and Dressler's (op. cit.) 'standard of textuality': cohesion. This occurs in A: 222 ('Why are you not writing?') where the teacher's elicitation is immediately followed by a directive ('Make use of your ears'), suggesting that learners were not listening. The teacher proceeds to reread her points, which is also followed by another directive not related to the point mentioned in A: 223-225. Moreover, at A: 225-226 we find a contradiction to the teacher's question in A: 222. The teacher had asked learners why they were not writing, but now she tells them that they do not need to write.

On the other hand, cohesion is evident in A: 222, which is a follow-up question from the one elicited in A: 220 ('...are you writing?'). The directive in A: 222

('Make use of your ears') is produced following learners' response in A: 221 ('No'), which as said before, implies that learners were not listening when the teacher was dictating the points. In A: 225, the teacher changes her mind and thinks it is better for learners to underline the points in the dialogue passage instead of writing them down.

In A: 235, there is an example of coherence (Beaugrande and Dressler 1981:84) ('Number six only. Five six'). In this case the teacher's utterance does not refer to numbers in general, but to the points that have been numbered: one, two, three up to seven. Thus, *five six* refers to points: number five and six.

Cohesion and coherence are text-centred; and to go beyond cohesion and coherence we need to consider intentionality (Beaugrande 1997:14), which explains the intentions of text producers. In A: 223-224 ('It is needed for cell and organ function – make use of your dialogue'), the teacher halts one utterance and replaces it with the following one not related (incoherent) to it. Though it sounds incoherent, the intention of the teacher is accomplished. Such instances of incoherence are common with conversation.

Another standard of textuality demonstrated in A: 189 is acceptability (Beaugrande 1997:14), where text receivers would generally interpret the utterance differently without dismissing its acceptability. In this utterance the key word 'water' has been omitted. Another example is in A: 175 ('Even is made by

water'), where the teacher mistakenly omitted 'saliva'.

In order to explain the learner's rejected response in A: 85-86, informativity (Beaugrande and Dressler 1981: 139) is applied. That is, the teacher rejects the learner's response ('Water helps to create easy movement') because she feels it lacks necessary information, which means it is not informative or is too general.

Furthermore, in A: 56-60, situationality (Beaugrande and Dressler 1981:9) is exemplified, where the teacher issues a string of instructions typical of a classroom situation. It is therefore in this situation (classroom) that the lesson or the text is received.

Finally, the seventh 'standard of textuality', which is intertextuality (Beaugrande 1997:15) is in A: 241-242, where learners are told that they will have to use their grammar exercise books - typical of a language lesson. Similarly, in A: 260, the teacher informs learners that the lesson has come to an end, and proceeds to ask if they have any questions regarding the lesson. Therefore, the whole text is received in the light of language lessons.

Moreover, this lesson is categorized as a 'language skills' lesson. The lesson focuses on the productive skill of writing with an aim of summarising a text. Speaking as learners discuss points for the summary, and reading as learners read the text and their points after summarising augments this skill. In fact, the

teacher clearly outlines what the lesson is about in A: 9-14 'You are going to read the passage quickly to get a general impression of a passage; in other words, you are going to skim-read. Number two: you are going to read the questions carefully. Number three: you are going to read the ...passage carefully select...selecting the important points from the summary. You are going to rearrange the points to use in any important...thereafter you are going to write'.

4.4.2. Presentation and Analysis of School 'B' English Lesson

Like School 'A' English lesson, the lesson opens with a T-P pattern in B: 1-2, which is characteristic of classroom 'Teacher – Pupil' greeting. Noticeably, the lesson begins without a frame, notwithstanding, the utterance in B: 3 ('Eh...wake up those who are sleeping') may take the function of a frame, and is meant to bring learners attention. The lesson proceeds straight to elicitation ('Can you please give me the sentence that has got the subject...') followed by response from learners. The pattern T-P-T is followed throughout the lesson, for example in B: 30-36, two acts (bid and nomination) concerned with turn-taking in the classroom are demonstrated:

T: (elicit) Can you please tell – eh, the subject of the first sentence.

P: (bid) [HANDS RAISED]

T: (nomination) Ja (Afrikaans=yes)

P: (reply) My mother.

T: (evaluation) My mother. (Accept) My mother is the subject of the sentence.

Moreover, in B: 83-84, the teacher provides a cue as demonstrated below:

T: (cue) Raise up your hands.

P: (bid) [HANDS RAISED]

T: (nomination) X (name of the learner)

P: (reply) Active.

T: (evaluation) They are in the active voice.

In the above transaction, the teacher provided a cue because learners responded en masse instead of individually.

In addition, in B: 450-51('Can I wipe the board?'), the act 'aside' is demonstrated in a similar way to B: 449-451. In B: 452, the lesson has a frame ('Okay') and focus ('Let us change these sentences...'). In B: 103-104, there is a starter ('The word flexible – I mean, eh, active?'). The act 'loop' appears in many places in the lesson, for example in B: 427 ('Eh?'), B: 467 ('Eh?'), B: 534 ('Eh?') and in many other instances. In these utterances the teacher indirectly tells learners to repeat their responses.

Furthermore, initiation options are evident in the following examples:

Directive, in B: 450-51 ('Can you please wipe the...')

Informative, in B: 522 there is a frame ('Okay') and focus ('We are through

with...'), where 'focus' aims to inform learners that they are through with a section of a lesson.

Elicitation, in B: 552 ('U 'is' uhamba nobani?)

Response is demonstrated in B: 554, where the learner replies ('Has')

This can also be exemplified by the exchange in B: 311-317:

Initiation: (elicitation) 'The fourth one?' (B: 311).

Response: (reply) 'Nomusa is washing the clothes' (B: 314).

Loop: 'Eh' (B: 315).

Response: (reply) 'Nomusa is washing the clothes' (B: 316)

Feedback: (evaluation) 'Nomusa is washing clothes' (B: 317). (Accept)

'Yes' (B: 318).

Furthermore, cohesion (Beaugrande op cit) is evident throughout the text, for example in B: 8-10, the teacher commands learners to produce sentences in simple present tense consisting of a subject, verb and object, at which learners respond with appropriate sentences. Another example is in B: 26, where the teacher gives a correct verb, 'washes', correcting 'washes' uttered by a learner. The teacher proceeds to elicit 'The last one please', where 'one' stands for the sentence that the learners must produce.

On the one hand, in B: 39-42, the lesson has an interesting exchange, where

after the teacher elicited the object of the first sentence, the learners' response, 'Obvious' was given en masse. In fact, learners were indicating to the teacher that everyone knows the answer, and the question is not worth asking. Notwithstanding, the teacher rejected their response, insisting 'There is no obvious here'. This may be interpreted as: the word 'obvious' is not the object of the sentence and it is not in the sentence. The probable interpretation is that the teacher wanted learners to respond individually. Nonetheless, the insertion of a frame ('Okay') and focus ('And the second sentence...') indicating Coulthard's (op. cit.) boundary exchange, followed by elicitation ('...the subject?'), gives an impression that the teacher accepted learners' answer 'obvious'. It also indicates that the text is coherent.

On the other hand, in B: 141-153 the teacher's utterance appears to be incoherent. In this exchange the teacher asks learners to change the sentence 'My mother cooks food' from active voice to passive voice. After learners have responded, 'Food is cooked by my mother', the teacher explains that the former subject of the sentence 'My mother' has become the object of the sentence. However, the teacher contradicts herself when she says 'But mother now is the subject of the sentence – that's why it is now passive'. Unfortunately, learners did not pick up the contradiction.

In B: 222-223 ('...tense was simple present tense. People are making noise now'), the utterance is explained in terms of intentionality (Beaugrande and

Dressler op cit). Although the utterance lacks cohesion, the teacher's intention of reducing the high level of noise is accomplished. Similarly, in B: 276-277, the teacher elicits passive voice for 'The boy kicks the ball'. The teacher is again distracted by high levels of noise and has to bring that to the attention of learners 'People are making noise now'. Though the teacher originally elicited passive voice, her intention changes along the way so that she can deal with high levels of noise.

In B: 441-442, the teacher gives the sentence, 'John and I were helping me'. Realizing that the sentence is illogical, the teacher changes it to 'John and I were helping us', which is still illogical. In such utterances, the standard of textuality applied is acceptability (Beaugrande op cit). In other words, text receivers accept such utterances as part of text even though they are illogical or incorrect. Fortunately, in B: 443, learners managed to bring the wrongness to the attention of the teacher, who changed the sentence to 'John and Themba were helping us'. Acceptability is also applied in B: 36, where the teacher intended to inform learners to respond en masse. Instead of saying 'all of us', the teacher says 'all of ice'.

In order to show informativity (Beaugrande op cit) in the lesson, the exchange in B: 39-40 is considered, where learners responded 'Obvious'. As a matter of fact, there is little or no information conveyed by this response, hence the teacher reacted 'There is no obvious here'.

In B: 19-22, situationality (Beaugrande and Dressler: op cit) features, because grammatical mistakes like the incorrect form of verb given by the learner and correct form given by the teacher is characteristic of classroom interaction. In a situation outside the classroom, mistakes of this nature go uncorrected.

As the first part of the lesson deals with sentence structure (subject, verb, object) followed by tense and voice, it shows that it is a language lesson, and so intertextuality (Beaugrande and Dressler: op cit) applies. For instance, in B: 3-4, the teacher elicits a sentence that has got 'the subject, the verb and the object', whilst in B: 80-81, the teacher elicits passive voice. The teacher asks learners to change all sentences from active voice to passive voice, in B: 134-135, whilst in B: 225-226 they are requested to change sentences from simple present tense to simple past tense.

This lesson is categorised as a language lesson because of metalinguistic terms such as subject, verb, object, voice and tense. However, the main focus of the lesson is in the correctness of sentences, which are de-contextualised. The only occasion where the lesson ventures beyond sentence level is in B: 98, where the teacher elicits: So can you tell me what does the word "active" mean?

In addition, this lesson is categorised under 'language systems' because it deals with grammar especially the sentence structure, tense, and voice e.g. in B: 3-5

...can you please give a sentence that has got the subject, the verb and the object. ...but that is in the present tense'. The teacher then moves on to highlight active and passive voice through elicitation.

4.4.3. Presentation and Analysis of School 'C' English Lesson

In C: 1, the lesson begins with a frame ('Right') and focus ('Today I will give you a short story to read...'). And in C: 17, the utterance ('Can't hear you') is a loop. The lesson proceeds with initiation, where the teacher gives an elicitation in C: 24-25 ('Let us quickly come to jobs that are meant for men.'). A learner gives a response in C: 26 ('Mineworker') followed by feedback, where the teacher firstly evaluates the response ('Mine working or mineworkers') and then accepts it ('Mineworkers').

In C: 61-62, there are three turn-taking acts in the classroom interaction namely: cue, bid and nomination. The teacher firstly provides a cue to learners ('Hands up'), and when learners bid for nomination by raising their hands, then the teacher nominates one learner ('Yes X' [name of the learner]). These turn-taking acts are notably spread throughout the lesson, for instance in C: 89-92: the teacher elicits ('Was she employed then?') and provides cues ('Hands up'). As learners raise their hands to bid for nomination, the teacher repeats elicitation ('...was she employed?') and then nominates one learner, who replies ('Yes') followed by an evaluation of the response ('She was then employed'). The interesting interaction is in C: 96, where the teacher provides a cue ('Hands up'),

because learners were responding en masse; she says ('Let us not be singing') meaning learners must respond individually. All learners bid, but only one is nominated.

A starter is in C: 103-104, where the teacher asks a question ('When was this taking place?'), which was intended for elicitation. The teacher changes her mind and relegates it to a starter, and the relegating statement ('How was she found she was not a man?') stands as an elicitation.

Furthermore, the lesson shows cohesion (Beaugrande and Dressler: op cit) in C: 5-9, where the teacher elicits jobs that are reserved only for women. In C: 10-23, learners give examples of jobs they regard to be reserved only for women, which are: domestic work, nursing and dressmaking.

Moreover, an interesting exchange in C: 29-30, demonstrates coherence (Beaugrande: op cit), where the teacher elicits jobs reserved for men, at which a learner responds 'house working'. Realising a possible confusion with the previously mentioned 'domestic work', the teacher decides to assume the learner means 'house building'. 'House working' may be incoherent in a sense that it does not refer to jobs reserved for men but 'house building' does.

In C: 100-101 ('I don't know whether I gonna say he or she, because he is a woman, he is a man. '), the teacher utters a rather incoherent statement, which,

however, achieves its intention of explaining the teacher's dilemma. In fact, the woman in the story they are reading disguises herself as a man, and when it is discovered that she is not a man, the teacher does not know whether to continue referring to her as man or to change and call her a woman. Amidst this confusion, intentionality (Beaugrande: op cit) is achieved.

In C: 143 ('...make false to get job...'), the learner tries to say the woman forges documents in order to be employed. The standard of textuality applied in such an utterance is acceptability (Beaugrande and Dressler: op cit), because the learner's utterance is accepted as text regardless of being grammatically incorrect.

In order to explain the exchange in C: 162-165, where the learner responds 'I think we have to look at: is that person deserve', informativity (Beaugrande: op cit) is used. Seeing that the learner's response lacks crucial information, the teacher provides it 'Does the person deserve the work'. Similarly, the learner responds, 'In his or her physical', at which the teacher expands the utterance 'Don't look whether she is beautiful or not beautiful'.

In C: 39-57, a typical classroom interaction occurs, where the teacher commands learners to read a story in turns. This interaction is explained in terms of situationality (Beaugrande and Dressler: op cit), as learners are expected to display their reading abilities and comprehension skills. That is why in C: 60 the

teacher gives a summary of the story.

When learners are given comprehension questions in C: 403-505, intertextuality (Beaugrande and Dressler: op cit) is evident, because in a classroom situation, comprehension questions are a usual feature. In this exercise, learners are given multiple choice questions followed by open-ended questions, which are nevertheless answered orally.

In addition, the lesson is categorised as a language lesson because in C: 1-7, the teacher explains to learners that they are going to read a story (comprehension passage), on which discussions will be based. However, before the story is read, the teacher gives learners a pre-reading activity, where they are expected to produce responses related to jobs reserved only for men versus those reserved only for women. Interestingly, the comprehension passage runs along the same paradigm.

Furthermore, in C: 109 the teacher asks learners 'Why did she complain?' In order to respond to the question, learners may have to imagine themselves as that woman, which may be simulation. On the contrary, the answer to the question is in the comprehension passage. Interestingly, this lesson is loaded with 'real' communication, especially when learners are to justify categories of jobs reserved for men versus jobs reserved for women; for example, in C: 175, the learner provides a reason why he rejects a baby-sitting job, whilst in C: 191,

another learner justifies his acceptance of it.

In C: 237-238, the teacher provides feedback ('He will not be shy') to the learner's response ('He will be not shy'). Although the teacher corrects this utterance, there are many instances in the lesson where grammatically incorrect utterances are left uncorrected, for example in C: 193 ('Mens doesn't have intensive care like womans.'). This suggests the teacher focuses on the acceptability of content rather than of form.

Moreover, this lesson is categorised under 'language skills', particularly the receptive skill of reading followed by the productive skill of speaking, for example in C: 1-2 'Right, today I will give you a short story to read then while you reading you are also going to get discussions'.

4.4.4. Presentation and Analysis of School 'D' English Lesson

The lesson begins with the introduction of the researcher followed by the focus of the lesson. In D: 8, it seems two topics that will be discussed have been given to six learners prior to the lesson. The focus is in D: 10 ('We are going to discuss problems...'). The entire lesson focuses on a group discussion among six learners, with very little intervention of the teacher.

In D: 61, there is a frame ('Okay') and focus ('Let us move on now to the next topic...'). Loop is in D: 19 ('Speak out, speak out.'). The pattern T-P-T and I-R-F

occurs sparingly in the entire lesson, for example in D: 65-67: at initiation stage, the teacher elicits ('We just look at the causes first'), and the learner responds ('The causes may be...'); the teacher gives feedback by evaluating the utterance ('One of the causes'), through which the teacher gives the learner the appropriate structure of the response. Another occurrence is in D: 92-94:

Initiation, T: (elicit) Do you think there are some bad results – bad impacts?

Response, P: (reply) Yes.

Feedback, T: (follow-up) What are they?

The interesting part of the above exchange is that, at the feedback stage, the teacher elicits instead of accepting the response. However, this elicitation functions as evaluation because the learner is expected to build up on the previous response.

Interestingly, learners control turn-taking acts in this lesson. Contrary to lesson A, B and C, learners in lesson D do not bid for nomination, they nominate each other, for example in D: 84-85 ('Let's hear what X [*name of the learner*] has to say'). Moreover, some learners nominate themselves in instances where the previous speaker leaves the 'floor' open. In many cases however, the teacher takes the 'floor' when learners have not nominated each other. Unlike most learners, the teacher does not nominate any particular individual, but leaves the 'floor' open to anyone who would like to take control.

On the one hand in D: 109-110, where the teacher commands learners to discuss reasons why they like or do not like TV and radio programmes, the lesson indicates cohesion (Beaugrande: op cit) because learners discuss their reasons as expected.

On the other hand, in D: 21 ('According to my opinion poverty is one of the causes of discipline, because if you are hungry you can't hear the teacher properly what he or she said. '), the utterance is incoherent. The mistake of the learner in this utterance is that, instead of speaking about lack of discipline, the learner refers to discipline. Notwithstanding, the question would still remain as to how hunger (which is expected to make one quiet) causes lack of discipline. In D: 45-50 as well, the learner's utterance is incoherent. In fact, the learner is supposed to suggest a solution to the problem of poverty at school, but the learner talks about class boycotts, without establishing their link with poverty, which is complicated by a suggestion of grants that would help those in class to be healthy – implying that healthy learners do not boycott classes.

Intentionality (Beaugrande and Dressler: op cit) is achieved in D: 54, where the teacher asks the learner to expatiate on the punishment that is suggested to be given by the principal to those who don't wear school uniform. Perhaps, due to other speakers who were waiting, the teacher opted not to follow-up her elicitation by inserting a frame ('Okay'), indicating that other learners may

proceed. The intention of the teacher is thus accomplished.

In D: 94-96 ('... 'cause as we are teenagers they can't take care of the things of the young ones. '), acceptability (Beaugrande: op cit) is achieved, because text receivers accept this as text even though cohesion and coherence is lacking.

In D: 52-54, informativity (Beaugrande: op cit) is applied, as the teacher elicits reasons to the suggestion of punishment to those who do not wear school uniform. Seemingly, the teacher wants to establish whether the learner refers to corporal punishment, which is a debatable issue. In other words, the learner needs to add more information.

In D: 11-13 ('Whenever we are conducting discussions, we always explore the points. We don't just say the point and keep quiet. We explore the point. '), situationality (Beaugrande: op cit) is used, because the utterance is typical of classroom instruction. In other words, the utterance fits the classroom situation.

This lesson is an oral lesson even though the teacher does not mention it. Intertextuality (Beaugrande and Dressler: op cit) is therefore applied, as the entire text is received and interpreted in the light of oral lessons. The lesson is notably learner-centred, as there is very little intervention from the teacher.

In addition, the teacher explains in D: 8-13 that the lesson is about topic

discussions. That is why she provides guidelines that learners must follow in their discussions, which characterises this lesson as a language lesson. Moreover, topics given to learners are to be discussed using a target language, which means learners are assumed to have necessary language to carry out the discussions. Fortunately, learners manage to maintain their discussions without obtrusive errors, which further confirm the lesson as a language lesson.

Similarly, this lesson is categorised under 'language skills', particularly the productive skill of speaking. In fact, the entire lesson focuses on oral discussions among six learners e.g. in D: 7-8 'May we have these six learners who will discuss those two topics'.

4.4.5. Presentation and Analysis of School 'E' English Lesson

The lesson begins with a frame ('Okay') and a lengthy explanation of what the lesson is about, which functions as focus in E: 1-23. The lesson focuses on literature work, where learners are divided into four groups. Each group is given a different literature topic. Each group chooses a representative who presents answers before the whole class, in E: 37-103. The lesson has a loop in E: 125 ('Speak aloud for the benefit of the whole class') and in E: 130 ('What?').

The pattern T-P-T or I-R-F prevails throughout the lesson, for instance in E: 102-106:

Initiation, T: (frame) Okay, (focus) last group.

Response, P: I am X (*name of the learner*), I represent group four...

Feedback, T: Okay, thank you group four.

Another instance is in E: 139-142:

Initiation, T: (elicitation) Is it good to do that?

Response, P: (reply) No.

Feedback, T: (evaluation) No. (accept) Yes.

In E: 8-11, there is a starter:

T: (starter) So as you sit in groups...group one will check that – they will talk about the irony in this story.

T: (starter) So they will deal with page eighteen.

T: (elicit) It means group one will read page eighteen, thereafter group one will talk about irony.

In this lesson the teacher does not provide cues, but learners bid for nomination,

as in E: 255-259:

T: (elicit) Any questions?

P: (bid) [HANDS RAISED]

T: (nomination) Yes X (*name of the learner*)

P: (reply) Mam, I want to know...

T: (comment) Okay, remember there was...

Furthermore, in E: 33-36 and in E: 37, cohesion (Beaugrande & Dressler: op cit) is achieved, where the teacher commands group one learners to present their findings on the question of irony. Therefore, one learner – a representative of group one – stands in front of the class explaining the irony found in the literature passage they have read.

In E: 39-41 ('In the veld there, there were two commandos: the one were Boers and the other was Mtosas tribe'), there is coherence (Beaugrande & Dressler: op cit). On the other hand, the utterance in E: 49-54 ('Then, eh, Veldkornet said that, they said the Mtosas were not that scared but he said that, he said – in that way I think the Boers were discriminating the Mtosas because every time you see that when the Boers are talking they use to put the Mtosas on a, on a harder side of the - and when we go on we see, we get Fannie Louw who was known as a man who use to create jokes.') is totally incoherent.

In order to understand the intention of the teacher in E: 9 ('So as you sit in groups, eh, group one, okay – another thing, Charles Bosman use...'), intentionality (Beaugrande: op cit) is applied. Initially, the teacher intends to inform group one of what they need to do, but, remembering some information, she changes her initial intention. Despite incoherence in the utterance, the teacher's intention is fulfilled.

In E: 321 ('It was between the Boers and White-speaking people...'),

acceptability (Beaugrande and Dressler: op cit) is used, because the teacher mistakenly refers to Englishmen as 'White-speaking people'. Even though such an utterance is confusing, it is accepted as text.

Informativity (Beaugrande: op cit) is demonstrated in E: 103-105 ('I am talking about symbolic that we find in the story. Okay, earth symbolise, the symbol of earth... soil symbolise'), as the learner fails to provide information related to the topic.

In E: 331-332 ('Okay, thank you, thank you, the period is over. I will answer that question. I will go back and check...') a typical classroom situation is evident, at which situationality (Beaugrande: op cit) is applied. The teacher is compelled to stop learners from asking more questions, because the period is over, but nevertheless promises to address their questions another time.

Intertextuality (Beaugrande and Dressler: op cit) helps us interpret the lesson in the light of literature lessons, for example in E: 11-14, the teacher explains that group one will talk about irony, group two will talk about sense of humour and group three will talk about satire, which are all elements of literature.

In this lesson the teacher gives learners tasks, which they are to work on in groups – thus categorising the lesson as a language lesson. Notably, there is no reference to grammatical items in the lesson, probably because the focus is on

literature. The teacher's feedback focuses on content rather than form.

In addition, this lesson is categorised under 'language skills' particularly the receptive skill of reading and the productive skill of speaking. Learners are divided into groups and each group is given a different topic which they discuss as they read the text. When all groups have discussed, each group is given a chance to present what they were discussing e.g. in E: 9-12 'So as you sit in groups, so, group one will check that – they will talk about irony in this story. So, they will deal with page eighteen, it means group one will read page eighteen, thereafter group one will talk about irony...'

The next chapter discusses interpretation of data.

CHAPTER 5. INTERPRETATION OF DATA

5.0. Introduction

This chapter discusses findings that were presented and analysed in Chapter Four. The chapter consists of five sections.

Section One discusses communicative competence in the light of this study. Section Two proceeds to look at communicative language teaching in the five selected schools. Section Three looks at the language of the texts that were analysed. Section Four discusses four stages of a lesson in four subsections: presentation, pre-communicative practice, communication and feedback on form as compared and contrasted with three stages of a lesson as realized in PPP, ARC, OHE / III, and ESA. Finally, Section Five looks at seven standards of textuality in the lessons that were analysed.

5.1. Communicative Competence

The five lessons that were analysed indicate in many respects that teachers and learners are successful in communication, in the sense that according to Savignon (1972:8), they managed to get the meaning across. Notwithstanding, all five lessons have instances of grammatical incompetence to varying degrees, for example in E: 196-197 ('That is the sign that they were scared of the Mtosas, because if they didn't scared of the Mtosas, they avail themselves to the Mtosas'), the teacher's utterance has grammatical flaws. The other instance in

D: 68-70 ('Some girls who are involved with any boyfriend who are working may have pressure to have a similar life with that boyfriend.') indicates a learner's grammatical incompetence.

Other examples of learners' grammatical incompetence are in C: 193 ('Mens doesn't have intensive care like womens.') and in B: 292 ('The food is ate by Themba'). One other utterance in A: 108-109 ('Water control body temperature and drinking water about six to...') further shows grammatical incompetence.

As suggested earlier, utterances in the five lessons that were analysed show some degree of competence on the social level of communication. For instance, cases of code-switching do not hamper communication between the learners and the teacher, mainly because these cases draw from the languages (Afrikaans, English, and isiZulu) existing in the environment. The following teacher utterance in B: 409-411 is a typical example:

T: ...Your sentence is still active. (*Pointing at the other learner*) Ja (Afrikaans=yes) X (*Name of the learner*) omdala, omncane (isiZulu=elder one, young one)

In the above example, the teacher easily switches from English (...Your sentence is still active) to Afrikaans (Ja) then to isiZulu (omdala, omncane) but successfully communicates with learners.

In sum, all the five lessons that were analysed failed to meet the criteria in communicative competence. This brings us to the next question of communicative language teaching, presented below.

5.2. Communicative Language Teaching

Before looking at communicative language teaching, it is essential to consider whether the five lessons that were analysed could indeed be characterised as language lessons. In this regard it is worth noting that each of the five lessons does not satisfy all the three categories that characterise a language lesson as discussed by Cicurel (1985) cited by Mpepo (1990:72-73). In fact, the only reason why lesson A is regarded as a language lesson is that learners are organised into groups and are requested to choose a secretary among themselves, who would present the summarized points of a dialogue in front of the class. On the other hand, lesson B is regarded as a language lesson only because of the use of metalinguistic terms, such as subject, verb, object, voice and tense. Similarly, lesson C is regarded as a language lesson simply because learners are given a comprehension passage on which to base their discussions. Moreover, another reason is that before they actually read the comprehension passage, they are asked to justify their reasons for accepting or rejecting certain jobs traditionally reserved for either males or females. Lesson D can be regarded as a language lesson on the grounds that the teacher informs learners that the lesson is about topic discussions (Oral lesson). Likewise, the teacher

gives learners literature aspects (irony, satire, symbolism), which they discuss in groups and afterwards present in front of the class; and that is the only reason lesson E is regarded as a language lesson.

However, when we consider characteristics of a language lesson presented by Scrivener (2005), Riddell (2003), and Harmer (2006); lesson A is considered as a 'language skills' lesson, focusing on the productive skill of writing, and includes another productive skill of speaking and a receptive skill of reading. That is, the teacher informs learners that they are going to read a passage, find the points that summarise the passage, after underlining the points, write them down so that the group secretary would present them in front of the class.

On the one hand, lesson B falls under a 'language systems' lesson, dealing with grammar (tense, simple sentence constituents, and voice). In this lesson the teacher elicits, firstly a simple sentence that has got a subject, a verb, and an object. She emphasises that the sentence must be in the present tense, presumably so that she could later move to other tenses. Afterwards the teacher highlights the difference between active voice and passive voice and then asks learners to transform sentences from active voice to passive voice.

On the other hand, like lesson A, lesson C is regarded as a 'language skills' lesson, concentrating on the receptive skill of reading followed by the productive skill of speaking. In this lesson learners are given a text to read; but before they

start reading the teacher leads them on a discussion, which is meant to set the context of the reading.

Similarly, lesson D is a 'language skill' lesson, focusing on the productive skill of speaking. Six learners are given topics for discussion and the entire lesson is about the discussion among these six learners.

Finally, lesson E incorporates two 'language skills': the receptive skill of reading and the productive skill of speaking. The teacher divides the class into groups and each group is given a different topic to discuss. After discussions each group chooses a representative who presents what the group has discussed.

School 'A' English lesson incorporates a group task, where learners are given a passage to summarise. The group task however, does not generate 'real' communication in a target language (English); instead discussions are conducted in isiZulu. Moreover, the teacher does not concern herself about the use of isiZulu in an English class discussion session; her concern is on points that learners must find as part of summarising. Nevertheless, the lesson is learner-centred because learners work on their own summarising the passage, and they make presentations in front of the class, notwithstanding the teacher's frequent interruptions. At the end of the lesson, the teacher gives feedback on summary points learners were expected find. Needless to say, her points are mere repetitions of what learners presented. In sum, the objective of the lesson is

learning how to summarise, and that may be why the teacher pays no attention to grammatical correctness.

In contrast, school 'B' English lesson is entirely teacher-centred, as the teacher elicits different sentences in order to demonstrate constituents of a simple sentence (subject, verb, object), tense and voice. As learners produce different sentences required by the teacher, some rules that govern tense and voice are explained. The lesson does not go beyond sentence production, and learners are not given any tasks through which 'real' communication can be exercised. Moreover, the teacher's feedback concentrates on the correctness of sentences produced.

Seemingly, school 'C' English lesson incorporates teacher-pupil discussions around the theme of the comprehension passage. Unlike school 'A' English lesson, where learners are seated in groups, school 'C' is similar to school 'B', in that learners are seated in a traditional format, with the teacher in front of the class being the centre of every activity. After the teacher has handed out a comprehension passage to learners, some volunteers read the passage in turns. The teacher then tries to generate discussions around the comprehension passage after learners have given a short summary, for example in C: 171-176:

T: ...I just employ you to look after my baby. Would you be happy to take a job? X (*name of the learner*)

P: No.

T: Why?

P: Because the baby use to cry every time, each and every time. So I won't be able to understand when they cry what is happening.

Towards the end of the lesson, the teacher explains some key words that were used in the passage, followed by multiple-choice questions that learners answer orally. It is clear that the lesson is teacher-centred, and like lesson 'A', pays no attention to grammar.

Interestingly, lesson 'D' is the most learner-centred of all lessons discussed thus far. Though lesson 'A' is also learner-centred, lesson 'D' differs in that the entire lesson revolves around six learners that were chosen to discuss two topics. The rest of the class listens attentively, whilst the teacher makes very little contribution to the discussion. The feedback from the teacher pertains to the content of discussions, with no reference made to language items. Nevertheless, the lesson has a different turn-taking pattern compared to other lessons. Unlike other lessons, learners in lesson 'D' are totally in charge of turn-taking acts. In this way learners display their ability to initiate, sustain and repair a group discussion. Interestingly, the entire discussion is conducted exclusively in English, with no evidence of code-switching and code-mixing. Unfortunately, the teacher does not give feedback at the end of the lesson because the bell rings, and the lesson ends abruptly. It can only be assumed that the objective of the lesson, which is to discuss two topics, is achieved.

School 'E' English lesson is similar to school 'A' in that learners are given a group task, where they are expected to answer literature questions using literature textbooks. In contrast to school 'A', where the teacher visits each group in order to monitor progress, the school 'E' teacher allows learners to work on their own, and call her only when they encounter difficulties. Presumably, learners encounter no challenges because they do not call the teacher, but their discussions are conducted in isiZulu.

Although discussions are conducted through isiZulu in both school 'A' and 'E', presentations are done in English, except that in school 'A' presentations consist of reading points that learners in a group agreed upon, whilst in school 'E' presentations are more of arguments. Moreover, there are cases of 'real' communication in school 'A', as in school 'E', where learners seek more clarity in the text while presenting their arguments on certain aspects of the text, for instance in E: 275-279: ('So mam, I eh, I think, eh I know that you will agree with me when I say the reason why Fannie Louw is that Fannie Louw was the first time to go in the commando when they fought against the Mtosas but the war didn't take place but when he go to another war that is when he died because he don't know how to go about having war.'). Furthermore, the feedback given by the teacher in lesson 'E' is similar to that given in lesson 'A' in that it concentrates on content rather than form, and similarly repeats what learners have said during presentations.

It is important at this stage to look closer into activities in communicative language teaching in order to ascertain the extent at which activities in each lesson could be regarded as communicative. Moreover, it is equally essential to consider learner and teacher roles in communicative language teaching so that we could judge whether these roles are realized in the five lessons. Thus, the next section discusses activities in CLT, followed by learner roles and lastly, teacher roles in CLT.

5.2.1. Activities in Communicative Language Teaching

In lesson E learners have a desire to communicate because they have a communicative purpose. For example, group one discusses irony in the short story, group two discusses sense of humour, group three discusses satire, and group four discusses symbolism. The focus of the lesson is on content and not on form. Moreover, there is no teacher intervention during the discussion, notwithstanding that most discussions are carried out in isiZulu. Nevertheless, learners successfully do their presentations in English. This lesson could therefore be regarded as communicative.

In lesson D a group of six learners are given topics to discuss and are encouraged to substantiate their points. There is real communication among these six learners because they have a communicative purpose and presumably, a communicative desire. There is not much attention paid to form than to

content, and learners are not concentrating on one language item only. Moreover, teacher intervention is minimal and there are no materials that dictate the form of language that learners should use. On these grounds, this lesson is definitely communicative.

In lesson C the teacher forms the centre of discussions. Consequently, there is no communication among learners – they communicate through the teacher; that is, if they want to raise a counter-argument, they speak directly to the teacher and not to each other. In the beginning of the lesson, the only communication that learners are engaged in with the teacher is in the form of answering questions – suggesting jobs that are reserved either for males or females. Expectedly, learners do not have a communicative purpose except for responding to teacher elicitation. Nonetheless, their responses are not confined to any one particular language item. Unfortunately, there is a lot of teacher intervention, as the teacher appears to talk more than learners combined. As a result, this lesson is low on a scale of being communicative.

In lesson B learners do not have a communicative purpose, which is expected to affect their desire to communicate. Learners are only engaged in responding to teacher elicitation. In addition, their responses are confined to a particular language item e.g. a sentence with a subject, an object, and a verb in the present tense. Moreover, the teacher is the centre of everything in the lesson. Therefore, on the scale of being communicative, this lesson is very low.

In lesson A learners are tasked with summarising a text, which gives them a communicative purpose. As learners discuss the text in groups, underlining and writing main points, they get a chance to have real communication, albeit mostly in isiZulu. In addition, the materials that the teacher uses do not dictate any one particular language item that learners must use. The verdict would therefore be that this lesson is communicative.

5.2.2. Learner roles in Communicative Language Teaching

In lesson A the teacher first reads the passage to the learners after which learners go through the same passage in groups, selecting main points to summarise the passage. As learners work in groups, the learner role of being a negotiator within the group is realized. That is, learners need to agree in their respective groups about main points that summarise the passage, and since they are limited to sixty words, they need to negotiate about words that are to be left out. For example, in A: 60-61 'Start underlining points, if you agree on a point, you need to write it down'. Similarly, each group is expected to choose a secretary, and that need learners to negotiate.

On the contrary, lesson B does not have an example of a learner role of being a negotiator within a group. In this lesson learners only interact with the teacher and not among themselves. This is because they are not arranged in groups and even though they are seated in pairs (and in threes), they do not interact with one

another – they simple respond to teacher elicitation e.g. in B: 3-5 ‘...can you please give a sentence that has got the subject, the verb, and the object. The sentence that has got the subject, the verb, and the object but that is in the present tense’.

Similarly, in lesson C the role of a learner of being a negotiator within a group is not realized, even though the teacher tells them that they are going to read a short story and while they are reading they are going to get discussions. Indeed, learners do read the short story, and after that they have discussions, albeit not with each other; instead they simple respond to teacher elicitation, for example in C: 60-61 ‘So who can be able to summarise the story for us? Who can be able to tell us what the story is about? Hands up!’ So, interaction in this lesson is between the teacher and the learners.

On the contrary, there is a lot of negotiation within the group of six learners in lesson D. They need to negotiate, for instance, about the one that must get a turn; sometimes about agreeing and disagreeing with each other. In fact, each learner gets a turn to say his or her opinion on the topic e.g. in D: 41-43 ‘Learner (5): Okay, I think according to the wearing of school uniform I think the teachers and principal must make a school uniform compulsory...’ Therefore, each learner contributes to the group, whilst getting something in return, for instance in D: 52-53 ‘Learner (3): I think our teachers must report. Report to the principal for those who don’t wear school uniform; the principal must give punishment’.

In lesson E, learners are grouped into four groups and they are given different topics per group. During group discussions the role of a learner as a negotiator is realized as each learner needs to contribute to the group so that at the end each group would have something to report, for example in E: 31-32 'Discuss all your questions. If you encounter any problems, just raise up your hand'. So, discussions are carried out in groups albeit in isiZulu – reporting is nevertheless done in English.

5.2.3. Teacher roles in Communicative Language Teaching

In lesson A, the teacher's role is that of being the organiser of resources as she gives learners handouts with a passage that needs to be summarised. In addition, she acts as a guide because she gives learners guidelines of how they are to carry out the activity e.g. in A: 56-59 'Make use of a lead pencil to underline the facts or the points you think should be underlined...Your secretary will write point...' In this lesson the teacher further assumes the role of a counsellor through confirmation, for instance in A: 83-83 'Learner: Water controls body temperature. Educator: Water controls the body temperature'; and through feedback, for example in A: 91-92 'Learner: We wash our hands to get rid of germs. Educator: Yes'. Additionally, in lesson A the teacher acts as a group process manager because she monitors, for instance in A: 63-64 '(To another group): Are you finding anything here?' She also encourages, for example in A: 67-68 '(To another group): Find the points mark them one, two, three, four, five,

give them to the secretary’.

In lesson B the role of the teacher is that of being a counsellor because she provides feedback in B: 25-26 ‘Learner: Nomusa washes the clothes. Educator: Nomusa washes the clothes’; and confirmation in B: 28-29 ‘Learner: Themba is cool. Educator: Themba is cool’.

In lesson C the teacher acts as an organiser of resources because she distributes handouts to learners. She also acts as a guide within classroom procedures in C: 2-3 ‘...but before you start reading I would like you to be telling me – we are going to look at things concerning jobs’. In addition, she acts as a counsellor through confirmation in C: 32-33 ‘Learner: Shoemaker. Educator: Shoemaker’, and feedback in C: 29-30 ‘Learner: House working. Educator: House builders’.

In lesson D the teacher acts as a facilitator between participants in D: 19 ‘Speak out!’ And in D: 36 ‘Educator: We haven’t heard of the solutions to the problems’. Additionally, she acts as an independent participant in D: 52-54 ‘Learner: I think our teachers must report. Report to the principal for those who don’t wear school uniform; the principal must give punishment. Educator: What punishment?’ Furthermore, she acts as guide within classroom procedures and activities in D: 61-62 ‘Educator: That’s all, okay. Let us move on now to the next topic about teenage pregnancy’. The teacher does note gaps though not for later

commentary, instead she corrects on the spot in D: 66-68 'Learner (1): The causes may be... Educator: One of he causes. Learner (1): One of the causes might be...'

In lesson E the teacher assumes the role of being a guide within classroom procedure and activities in E: 9-10 'So as you sit in groups, so, group one will check that – they will talk about the irony in this story'. The teacher further acts as a counsellor as she gives confirmation and feedback in E: 121-122 'Learner: Growing plants. Educator: Okay, grow plants in the soil and what else?' She also paraphrases in E: 126-127 'Learner: For reaping. Educator: For reaping. Yes for harvesting purposes'.

5.3. Language of the Texts

The language of the texts (transcripts of five English lessons) in this study illustrates the dominance of isiZulu and little Afrikaans in the repertoire of classroom interaction during an English Second Language lesson, for example, in C: 499 ('Ja [Afrikaans=yes]), the teacher uses an Afrikaans word 'Ja' (and in many other instances) instead of English 'Yes' (although the word 'Yes' is used in E: 153 and in many other instances). Moreover, in C: 280 ('Hawu! [isiZulu=wow!]), the teacher exclaims in isiZulu 'Hawu!', though the English equivalent 'Wow!' could be used. In B: 577 ('webantu' [isiZulu=people]), instead of using the English word 'people', the teacher opts for the isiZulu equivalent 'webantu'. In B: 568 ('siyezwana' [isiZulu=do we understand each other]) and in

many other instances, the teacher uses the isiZulu expression 'siyezwana', instead of English 'do we understand each other'. Similarly, in B: 565 ('angithi' [isiZulu=isn't it]) an isiZulu expression 'angithi' is preferred to English 'isn't it'. In B: 551 ('kuyezwakala' [isiZulu=do you understand]), the teacher chooses to use isiZulu 'kuyezwakala' instead of English 'do you understand', and in B: 445 ('Yebo' [isiZulu=yes]), instead of English 'Yes', the teacher uses isiZulu 'Yebo'.

Furthermore, the language of the texts illustrates some English words that are used with a different meaning from the dictionary meaning, for instance:

- (a) 'Your sentence is still active', in B: 409, meaning 'your sentence is still in active voice'.
- (b) 'Intensive care' in C: 191 & 193, meaning 'tender care'.
- (c) 'According to my opinion' in D: 21, meaning 'in my opinion'.
- (d) 'They light up their houses' in E: 148, and 'They fired their house' in E: 158, both meaning 'they burnt their house(s)'.
- (e) 'English-speaking people' in E: 314, meaning 'Englishmen'.
- (f) There are also non-English plural forms or countable nouns, for example:
 - (i) 'mens', in C: 298, instead of 'men', and
 - (ii) 'womens' in C: 289, instead of 'women'.

The non-English noun plural forms above could be attributed to the influence of Afrikaans 'mans'.

Notably, all cases of code-switching (involving English, isiZulu and, or Afrikaans), except during learners' group discussions in lesson 'A' and 'E', where isiZulu is used throughout the discussions, come from teachers' utterances, except for lesson 'D' where there is no evidence of code-switching, for example:

- (a) 'U-X (name of the learner) useshonile yini', in B: 141, which is a question translated as 'has X (name of the learner) died'. This utterance is in fact used metaphorically, when the teacher, noticing the quietness of the learner who had been nominated, asked if the learner was still there.
- (b) 'Ngicela ubuye wena ngane, buya la eklasini uyeke ukubheka phandle' (isiZulu=Please come back you child, come back to class and stop looking outside), in A: 178-179, where the teacher reprimands a learner who was no longer paying attention, but looking outside through the window.

Teachers' utterances not only involve code switching, but code-mixing (where more than one language features in a single sentence or utterance) as well, for example:

- (a) In A: 201 ('Why – umsindo?' [isiZulu=noise]), the teacher mixes isiZulu and English, questioning the high level of noise.

- (b) In B: 410-411 (Ja [Afrikaans=yes] X (*name of the learner*) omdala omncane [isiZulu=the elder one, the younger one]), whilst nominating a learner, the teacher mixes Afrikaans and isiZulu, but since she does not know the name of the nominated learner, she refers to the learner's brother, who is either older or younger than the nominated learner, that is why she says 'elder one, younger one'
- (c) In B: 565 (Uyakhumbula ukuthi ku- [isiZulu=you remember that in] continuous we have used 'being'), the teacher mixes isiZulu and English.

Having considered the language of the texts it is imperative that we look at how much each of the five lessons is organised into the four stages of lessons adopted from Mpepo (1990:159).

5.4. Four Stages of Lessons

School 'A' English lesson seems to be organised into four stages, namely: presentation stage, pre-communication practice stage, communication stage, and feedback on form stage. The extents to which elements of these stages appear in all five lessons are discussed below, starting with the presentation stage.

5.4.1. The Presentation Stage

Lesson 'C' begins with a frame ('Right'), in C: 1, and focus ('today I will give you

a short story to read...'), in C: 1-2. In this lesson, the teacher indicates to learners that reading will be followed by discussions. Lesson 'A' and 'B' on the contrary, begin with a greeting exchange, whilst lesson 'E' begins with a directive in E: 1 ('Sit down') followed by the teacher's greeting. Moreover, in lesson 'E' in E: 3-17, the teacher gives a lengthy explanation of the contents of the lesson. On the other hand, lesson 'D' differs, in that the lesson begins with a lengthy introduction by the teacher followed by a somewhat detailed explanation of the lesson. In addition, lesson 'E' is similar to lesson 'A' in that, in E: 2, it has a frame ('Okay') and focus ('as I have said go and read...'). Although lesson 'B' begins in the same way as lesson 'A', it does not have the presentation stage, because after a greeting exchange, the teacher proceeds to elicitation.

5.4.2. The Pre-communication Stage

In lesson 'A', in A: 39-51, the reading of a dialogue passage by the teacher represents this stage. Lesson 'B' however, entirely comprises this stage; that is, from the beginning of the lesson proper, in B: 3, up to the end, the teacher elicits comments on different linguistic items. In lesson 'C', in C: 6-39, the teacher elicits different kinds of work reserved only for men versus those reserved only for women, which is part of the pre-communication stage. Similarly, the reading of a comprehension passage in C: 40-59 represents the pre-communication stage, because the teacher aims to generate discussions around the theme of the passage. Contrastingly, lessons 'E' and 'D' do not have a pre-communication stage, as these lessons proceed to the communication stage immediately after

the presentation stage.

5.4.3. The Communication Stage

This stage is achieved during group discussions, especially in lessons: 'A', 'D', and 'E'. For example, in A: 53-80, learners in different groups are given a dialogue passage, which they have to summarise in sixty words. Even though group discussions in lesson 'A' are conducted in isiZulu, the teacher does not intervene or comment about that. Moreover, the feedback given by the teacher at this stage only provides encouragement to learners towards finishing the task, for example, in A: 64 ('Are you finding anything here?'), and in A: 67-68 ('Find the points, mark them: one, two, three, four, five; give them to the secretary.'). Although lesson 'E' has group discussions like lesson 'A', the difference is that in lesson 'E' the teacher does not visit any group; groups discuss the topics in isiZulu on their own up to the end of discussions. Nevertheless, presentations in lesson 'A' and 'E' are done in English.

As mentioned, the whole of lesson 'D' represents this stage, albeit with the involvement of only six learners, whilst the rest of the class listens attentively. The teacher's involvement in the entire lesson seems to be limited to cases where learners need to proceed to the next topic.

On the one hand, lessons 'B' and 'C' do not include group discussions. Instead learners are expected only to respond to elicitations from teachers,

notwithstanding some instances in lesson 'C' where some 'real' communication occurs between learners and the teacher. In lesson 'B' on the other hand, learners' responses do not go beyond sentence level.

5.4.4. The Feedback Stage

In lesson 'A' the feedback given at the end of the lesson does not focus on linguistic forms. Contrastingly, feedback in lesson 'B' spread throughout the lesson focuses only on linguistic forms. Though feedback in lesson 'C' is spread throughout the lesson as in lesson 'B', it does not focus on linguistic items. Lesson 'D' differs from all the other lessons in that it does not have this stage, as the lesson stays in the communication stage up to the end. Lesson 'E' is similar to lesson 'A' in that feedback, which does not focus on linguistic forms, is given at the end of the lesson.

In conclusion, the following observations can be made for each of the following lessons:

- (a) Lesson 'A' has all the four stages except that there is no linguistic input in presentation stage. Moreover, at the feedback stage there is no reference to linguistic forms.
- (b) Lesson 'B' does not have the presentation stage or the communication stage.
- (c) Lesson 'C' does not have the communication stage.
- (d) Lesson 'D' does not have the pre-communication stage or the

feedback stage.

- (e) Lesson 'E' does not have pre-communication stage. The communication stage however, is not monitored and the feedback stage does not focus on linguistic forms.

Having categorised lesson into four stages, it is essential that we further categorise them into three stages.

5.5. Three stages of a lesson

The three stages of a lesson in which lessons are categorised below consist of PPP, ARC, OHE/III, and ESA.

5.5.1. PPP

'PPP' stands for 'presentation', 'practice', and 'production'. We will start with presentation.

5.5.1.1. Presentation

In lesson 'E' the presentation stage occurs when the teacher gives a short background to the text that the learners will use. This sets the context of the lesson. This means all discussions would revolve around the text foregrounded by the teacher. In lesson 'D' presentation occurs when the teacher gives the topics that will be discussed, for example D: 10-13 'We are going to discuss problems related to discipline in education centres: Topic number two: we are

looking at the causes and solutions. Whenever we are conducting discussions we always explore the points. We don't just say the point and keep quiet. We explore the point'. In lesson 'C' presentation stage is when the teacher conducts a discussion of different jobs stereotypes. This sets the context of the reading because the text is about job stereotypes. On the contrary, lesson 'B' does not have presentation stage. The language that the teacher wants to focus on is not contextualised. Since the aim of lesson 'A' is summarising, presentation stage occurs when learners read the text they are going to summarise.

5.5.1.2. Practice

In lesson 'E' this stage is realised when learners discuss in groups. On the contrary, lesson 'D' does not have this stage. However, in lesson 'C' practice stage occurs at the end of the lesson, where learners have to answer multiple-choice questions. Interestingly, the entire lesson 'B' occurs in this stage. The teacher elicits and learners respond appropriately whilst correct answers are sometimes drilled or mostly echoed. However, even at this stage learners do not practice with each other, whether in groups or in pairs. The teacher is at the centre of the entire lesson. In lesson 'A' practice stage is realised when learners summarise the text in groups.

5.5.1.3. Production

In lesson 'E' production stage occurs when students give presentations of their discussions. In lesson 'D' the entire discussion of topics represents production

stage. In lesson 'C' production stage is when learners give their impressions of what the story is about. On the contrary, lesson 'B' does not have this stage - the lesson ends with the teacher still eliciting different tenses and voice. In lesson 'A' each group is tasked with choosing a secretary who does not only records answers but also is expected to give feedback. It is during the time when each group presents their points that production stage is realised.

5.5.2. ARC

In lesson 'A' learners are expected to summarise a text in about sixty words, which is an example of guided writing and therefore provokes restricted use of language by students (Harmer 2006:83). This lesson therefore does not have 'authentic use'; nevertheless, they have restricted exposure as they are given the text to read for summary writing. 'Clarification' occurs when the teacher elicits correct answers from learners. Moreover, in this lesson 'clarification' and 'restricted output' appear to be intertwined. Therefore, this lesson can be labelled as 'Restricted exposure', 'Clarification', and 'Restricted output'.

Similarly, lesson 'B' does not have 'authentic use' but 'restricted use' in the form of elicited sentences. However, when following Scrivener's (op. cit) sequence, this lesson does not have 'restricted exposure' or 'restricted output'. Seemingly, most of the lesson occurs on 'Clarification'.

In lesson 'C' the teacher firstly elicits different jobs associated with men and

women. If learners were discussing among themselves it would have been 'authentic use'; and since it is not 'authentic use' they mostly have one-word responses, which is an example of 'restricted use'. However, the teacher uses learners' responses in introducing them to the text, which is about job stereotypes. This stage could thus be labelled as 'Clarification'. Therefore, in Scrivener's (op. cit) sequence, this lesson follows a sequence: 'Clarification', 'Restricted exposure', and 'Restricted output'. When learners answer multiple-choice questions, it is an example of 'restricted output'. On the other hand, when they give their own understanding of the story, it suggests 'authentic output'.

In lesson 'D' the six learners who are discussing topics are engaged in a communicative activity and therefore give an example of 'authentic use'. This lesson does not have 'Clarification' because even though the teacher tells the learners that when they give a point they need to explore it, she does not explain or clarify how they are to 'explore' points. It can only be assumed that learners know about it from previous lessons. Therefore, Scrivener's (op. cit) procedure: 'Restricted exposure', 'Clarification', and 'Restricted output' do not apply in this lesson.

In lesson 'E' students are given a communicative activity to work in groups, which is an example of 'authentic use'. Interestingly, 'Clarification' stage occurs at the end when the teacher gives feedback, however through elicitation.

5.5.3. OHE / III

In lesson 'A' learners are given a text to read and thus are allowed to **Observe**. As learners are expected to write a summary they need to **Hypothesise** and on that basis, the actual writing and presentation of their summaries could be labelled as **Experiment**. On the one hand, it could be argued that the reading of the text is an example of **Illustration**; on the other hand **Interaction** occurs when they write the summary in groups. Further, the oral presentations are akin to **Induction**.

In lesson 'B' learners are not allowed to **Observe** but they are seemingly expected to **Hypothesise**. Nevertheless, learners manage to give correct sentences which stage could be labelled as **Experiment**. Similarly, they are not given any **Illustration**, but are given questions, which could be **Interaction**, albeit with the teacher and not with each other. Unfortunately, it is not easy to conclude that **Induction** occurs, as learners are not given a chance to practice language in any given context.

In lesson 'C' the lesson starts with a discussion about different jobs, however, when learners read the passage it is then that they are allowed to **Observe**. Unlike lessons 'A' and 'B', this lesson starts with **Hypothesising**, then **Observation** and ends with **Experiment**. Similarly, the lesson starts with **Interaction** when learners give examples of different jobs, and then moves to **Illustration** as they read the text. Interestingly, there appears to be two cases of **Induction**: one

when after reading, learners give own impressions of what the story is about, and when they respond to multiple-choice questions.

On the contrary, lesson 'D' does not have the stages: **Observe** and **Hypothesis**; instead the entire lesson occurs in **Experiment** stage. Also, the stage **Illustration** does not occur, but there is evidence of **Interaction**, which arguably leads to **Induction**.

However, in lesson 'E' students do **Observe** as they read given passages in groups. They also **Hypothesise** when they prepare answers in groups. Finally, they **Experiment** when they present their answers and when they discuss with the teacher afterwards. Similarly, the text they read exemplifies **Illustration**, and group discussions are **Interaction**, whilst presentations represent **Induction**

5.5.4. ESA

In lesson 'A' the teacher **Engages** learners when she asks them to read the text that would be later summarised. Unexpectedly, what follows is the stage **Activate**, as learners work in groups to summarise the text. Finally, the stage **Study** occurs when learners give correct points to the teacher, which points are later confirmed by the teacher. Therefore, instead of ESA sequence, this lesson follows an EAS sequence.

In lesson 'B' the stage **Engage** is arguably absent because the lesson starts with

elicitation of sentences without any established context. Nevertheless, most of the lesson occurs in **Study stage**, and the **Activate stage** is notably absent.

Unlike lesson 'B', lesson 'C' starts with **Engage stage** as the teacher elicits different jobs. The lesson moves to **Study stage** as learners read the passage, firstly to get general understanding and later to answer multiple-choice questions. The **Activate stage** occurs when learners try to argue about why they choose or reject certain jobs generally reserved for either gender.

Interestingly, lesson 'D' does have **Engage stage** since learners are firstly told about topics for discussion. However, the **Study stage** does not exist, instead the actual discussions are an example of **Activate stage**.

Similarly, there is clear evidence of **Engagement** in lesson 'E', which occurs when learners are assigned different portions of a text to read. As learners busy themselves in groups answering different questions, it is an example of **Study stage**, whilst presentations that follow represent **Activate stage**.

In conclusion, the following observations can be made for each of the following lessons:

- (a) Lesson 'E' has all the stages in PPP (presentation, practice, and production). In ARC lesson 'E' has 'authentic use', and 'clarification' stages. Similarly, in OHE / III lesson 'E' has all the stages, that is,

'observe', 'hypothesis', and 'experiment' as well as 'illustration', 'interaction', and 'induction'. In addition, lesson 'E' has all the components ESA, that is, 'engage', 'study', and 'activate' stages.

(b) Lesson 'D' has only two stages in PPP, which are 'presentation' and 'production'. In ARC lesson 'D' has 'authentic use' but does not have 'clarification' stage. Similarly, in OHE / III, lesson 'D' does not have stages 'observe' and 'hypothesis'; instead there is only 'experiment' stage. In addition, the stages 'illustration' and 'induction' are absent but there is 'interaction'. In the ESA procedure, lesson 'D' has 'engage' stage, but there is no 'study' stage because most of the lesson occurs in 'activate' stage.

(c) Lesson 'C' has all stages in PPP. In ARC this lesson has 'restricted use' and 'clarification' stages. In OHE / III lesson 'C' has all stages, that is, 'observe', 'hypothesis', and 'experiment' as well as 'illustration', 'interaction', and 'induction'. In ESA lesson 'C' has all stages as well.

(d) Lesson 'B' has only one stage in PPP, which is 'practice' stage. In ARC lesson 'B' has 'restricted use' and 'clarification'. In OHE / III lesson 'B' has only one visible stage, which is 'experiment', and there is neither 'illustration' nor 'induction' stages. Similarly, lesson 'B' has only one stage in ESA, which is 'study' stage.

(e) Lesson 'A' has all stages in PPP. In ARC lesson 'A' has 'restricted use' and 'clarification'. In OHE / III, lesson 'A' has all the stages. Similarly, in ESA lesson 'A' has all the stages as well.

It was interesting to compare and contrast the four stages of a lesson with the three stages of a lesson for each lesson. Below are some observations that were made between a three-stage lesson procedure and a four-stage lesson procedure.

5.6. Four-stage lesson procedure versus three-stage lesson procedure

The following observations derived from a three-stage lesson analysis and four-stage lesson analyses were made in each lesson:

- (a) Lesson 'A' has all the stages in both 'three-stage' and 'four-stage' lesson procedures, except that in ARC there is no 'authentic use'. This means lesson 'A' has four stages in a 'four-stage' lesson procedure, and three stages in a 'three-stage' lesson procedure.
- (b) Lesson 'B' has two stages missing in both 'four-stage' and 'three-stage' lesson procedures, except that in ARC the lesson has 'restricted use' and 'clarification'. This means lesson 'B' has two stages in a 'four-stage' lesson procedure, and one stage in a 'three-stage' lesson procedure.
- (c) Lesson 'C' has all the stages in a 'three-stage' lesson procedure, except that in ARC there is 'restricted use' and 'clarification'. However, in a 'four-stage' lesson procedure, only one stage is missing. This means lesson 'C' has a total of three stages in each lesson procedure.
- (d) Lesson 'D' has two stages in a 'three-stage' lesson procedure, which

occur mainly in PPP and ESA. In ARC the lesson has only 'authentic use', and in OHE / III there are 'experiment' and 'interaction' stages. Similarly, in a 'four-stage' lesson procedure, lesson 'D' has two stages. This means, lesson 'D' has a total of two stages in each lesson procedure.

(e) Lesson 'E' has all the stages in a 'three-stage' lesson procedure, except that in ARC there is 'authentic use' and 'clarification'. However, in a 'four-stage' lesson procedure, one stage is missing. This means, lesson 'E' has a total of three stages in each lesson procedure.

From these observations we can conclude that lessons 'E', 'D', and 'C' have the same number of stages irrespective of whether the 'three-stage' or the 'four-stage' lesson procedure is used. On the contrary, lesson 'B', and 'A' have a different number of stages when a different 'lesson-stage procedure is used: lesson 'B' has two stages when subjected to a 'four-stage' lesson procedure, but only one when subjected to a 'three-stage' lesson procedure; whilst lesson 'A' has three stages when subjected to a 'three-stage' procedure, and four stages when subjected to a 'four-stage' lesson procedure.

In order to judge whether the five lessons that were analysed can be regarded as texts we shall consider the seven 'standards of textuality' proposed by Beaugrande and Dressler (1981).

5.7. Seven Standards of Textuality

The seven standards of textuality by Beaugrande and Dressler's (op. cit.) distinguish between texts and non-texts. According to Beaugrande (1997:61), these standards of textuality are activated whenever communicative events occur.

It is, therefore, necessary to note some observations concerning these standards of textuality in the five lessons.

Cohesion, for example, is text-based and looks at the connection of words within a sequence and concentrates on text producers, which in this case are teachers and learners. It is worth noting that cohesion is realised in all the five lessons.

For example:

Reference: A: 64-65 (I've read the points...I've read them, there are eight of them...)

In the above example, them refers to 'points' mentioned in the preceding sentence.

Substitution: B: 190-191 (...there are verb that changes from eh, present tense like eh, like this one...)

In this example, one substitutes for 'verb'.

Ellipsis: C: 109-110 (...Why did she complain?... Why?)

In the above example, elements in the second question 'Why?' are presupposed to be supplied from the preceding question 'Why did she complain?'

Conjunction: D: 58-59 (To those who are addicted maybe to drugs – I think the solution to that is that they have to be taken to AA...)

That, in the above example, is a reference item that relates the second clause to the preceding one – it serves a cohesive function.

Lexical cohesion: E: 64-69 (They have that frighteness because they don't know how to beat the Mtosas... And we find that Veldkornet had everything in his mind and he decided to take the whole Boers and run away because he feel that this war can't win this war, because they can't beat this kaffir, they are afraid of them.)

This kaffir actually refers back to 'Mtosas' in the example above.

Coherence is also text-based and concentrates on text producers as well. Its main concern is whether texts make sense or not. There are instances where learners' and teachers' utterances in all five lessons are incoherent, which is

unusual especially for teachers. To illustrate, let us consider the following examples:

(1) A: 110-111 (...Water control body temperature that the point that I hear. That's the point I'm hearing first.)

The above utterance from the teacher is incoherent because many points have been mentioned by learners and accepted by the teacher prior to this one.

(2) B: 38-40 (Teacher: And the object of the first sentence?)

Learner: Obvious

Teacher: There is no obvious here. Okay. And the second sentence, the object?)

The above exchange is incoherent because the teacher elicited the object of the first sentence, where learners replied 'obvious'. Even though the teacher rejected 'obvious' as the correct answer, she goes on to elicit the subject of the second sentence.

(3) C: 11-12 (...So, domestic working or domestic worker are definitely referred to as a people who are working for rich of this world.)

This utterance from the teacher is also incoherent because a rich person who, for instance, owns a company can have a private secretary; and that secretary

would not be referred to as a domestic worker.

(4) D: 21-23 (According to my opinion poverty is one of the causes of discipline because if you are hungry you can't hear the teacher properly what he or she said.)

It does not seem to make sense, in the above utterance that hunger makes one undisciplined; on the contrary it may make one quiet or passive in the classroom.

(5) E: 6-8 (...They were trying to civilise the Mtosa tribe. So, as we sit according to the groups, eh, group one; okay – another thing: Charles Bosman use, eh a sense of humour...)

In the above utterance from the teacher, she talks about civilising Mtosa tribe, then she suddenly moves on and talks about groups, she again shifts and discusses Charles Bosman, which makes the whole utterance incoherent.

Intentionality, which is not text-centred, subsumes what text producers intend to mean. This has featured mostly in lessons where cohesion and coherence are lacking, and has been observed in conversations, for example:

In A: 110-111, the teacher actually intended to tell learners that the point they are mentioning is the one she has been waiting to hear, and no learner had

mentioned it up to that point.

Again, in B: 38-40 the teacher's intention is to indicate to learners that she expected them to give the 'object' of the sentence, though that object seems obvious both to the learners and the teacher, which is why she moves on to elicit the subject of another sentence.

Another example is in C: 11-12, where the teacher intended to show learners that domestic workers often work for people who are well-to-do in comparison to them.

In addition, the learner intended to indicate that if you are hungry you may not hear the teacher's instructions, which may be interpreted as being undisciplined, in D: 21-23.

The last example is in E: 6-8, where the teacher was giving a brief summary of the story; she also wanted to arrange learners into groups. Whilst she was arranging them into groups she remembered some important information about the story that she needed to tell the learners.

Seemingly, the intentions of text producers, mainly of getting the meaning across, are achieved.

Acceptability on the other hand, looks into text receivers' engagement in accepting something as text. In other words, it helps one judge whether the lessons that were analysed could be regarded as texts. Indeed, the five lessons should be accepted in the understanding of classroom interaction. For instance, the following examples can be accepted as typical classroom interactions:

(1) E: 37-39 – Learner (Group 1): Good morning everyone.

Learners: Good morning.

Learner (Group 1): I am X (*name of the learner*) representing group one...

(2) C: 261-264 – Learner: But, Miss, do you know that the science says opposite charges attract each other, like charges repel each other?

Teacher: I'm not sure, but when someone is sick do you think they are attracted to each other?

(3) B: 583-584 – Teacher: Where did you leave 'been'?

Learner: Zodwa has been bitten by a dog.

Informativity looks into information presented in the texts. In the five lessons, there are some cases, particularly in the input expected from teachers, which indicate lack of informativity. Lesson 'A' is one example:

A: 4 (...today we are going to learn how to summarise.)

In lesson A the teacher does not give learners any information regarding how to summarise, as she promised in the above example; instead she gives them a dialogue and they are asked to summarise main points in sixty words.

Situationality looks at the context wherein the text occurs. All the five lessons occur within a classroom context, producing some interesting classroom oriented repertoire. Even the errors that occur can be understood in the context of learning. Let us consider the following example:

D: 19-20 – Teacher: Speak out! Speak out!

Learner (3): Is one of the problems in our schools.

It is common for teachers, especially in this context of oral discussions in the classroom, to command learners to speak aloud so that the whole class can benefit from the discussions.

Intertextuality connects texts with those of the same kind. That is why it has been imperative to establish whether the five lessons can be regarded as language lessons. When these texts are compared with what language lessons should be like, there are features that confirm that.

For example, lesson A is about summary writing; lesson B concentrates on simple sentence constituents i.e. subject, verb, object; lesson C deals with

comprehension skills; lesson D is an oral lesson, and lesson E is a literature lesson.

In the next chapter, that is, Chapter Six, possible solutions for lexical and syntactic errors that were found in the five lessons are discussed.

CHAPTER 6. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS ARISING FROM LEXICAL AND SYNTACTIC ERRORS FOUND IN ENGLISH LESSON TRANSCRIPTS.

6.0. Introduction

This Chapter will discuss pedagogical implications by way of highlighting and suggesting possible solutions to the lexical and syntactic errors (Adapted from Fowler and Fowler 1974) found in English lesson transcripts. Fowler and Fowler (1974:11-14) discuss the 'general principle' that may be translated into practical rules in the domain of vocabulary as follows:

- (a) Prefer the familiar word to the far-fetched, e.g. 'I have, no particular business at L____', said he; 'I was merely going *thither* to pass a day or two.' – BORROW. (there);
- (b) Prefer the concrete word (or rather expression) to the abstract, e.g. *There seems to have been an absence of attempt at conciliation between rival sects.* – *Daily Telegraph*. (The sects seem never even to have tried mutual conciliation);
- (c) Prefer the single word to the circumlocution, e.g. Inaccuracies were *in many cases* due to cramped methods of writing. – *Cambridge University Reporter*. (often), and
- (d) Prefer the short word to the long, e.g. On the Berlin Bourse to-day the prospect of a general strike was cheerfully *envisaged*. – *Times*. (faced).

Fowler and Fowler (1974:69-73) further discuss syntactic mistakes that can be made so often that they are now almost right by prescription. Some of the examples of the mistakes they present include the following:

- (a) Case: When a verb or preposition governs two pronouns united by *and* – e.g. (i) *Between you and I*; (ii) The interrogative *who* is often used for *whom*, as, 'Who did you see?'
- (b) Number: The copula should always agree with the subject, not with the complement. These are wrong: (i) The *pages* which describe how 34th Osaka Regiment wiped out the tradition that had survived since the Saigo

rebellion *is* a typical *piece* of description. – *Times*. (ii) People do not believe now as they did, but the moral *inconsistencies* of our contemporaries *is* no *proof* thereof. – *Daily Telegraph*.

Chapter Six consists of nine sections. Section One exposes learners' lexical errors found in English lessons A, B, C, D and E transcripts, whilst Section Two deals with learners' syntactic errors. Section three discusses fossilization, and learning and acquisition as sources of error. Sections four and five look at National Curriculum Statement (NCS): Grades 10-12 English First Additional Language Policy, and Learning Programme Guidelines: Languages¹¹ respectively. Section Five is divided into three subsections, which are: text-based approach, the communicative approach, and implications of the communicative approach for classroom practice. Section Six presents teachers' lexical errors, whereas section seven looks at teachers' syntactic errors. Section eight discusses the envisaged teacher in National Curriculum Statement and pedagogical implications whilst section nine finally looks at the role of code-switching in teaching and learning.

6.1. Learners' Lexical Errors Found in English Lesson Transcripts.

Lexical errors presented here are when learners failed to use the appropriate vocabulary item. These errors have been identified from English lessons A, B, C, D and E. Next to each error, a correct entry is presented in parenthesis. It is recommended that the context in which these errors occur be consulted in the appendix.

¹¹ This includes English Home Language, English First Additional Language, and English Second

A: 132 – water our clothes [*wash our clothes*]

C: 143 – make false to get a job [*forged (documents) to get a job*]

E: 46 – fire up their huts [*burn their huts*]

E: 64 – They have that frighteness [*they are frightened*]

E: 75-76 – war between the Mtosas and the White [*war between Mtosas and Boers*]

E: 158 – they fired their houses [*they burnt their houses*]

When we apply Fowler & Fowler's (op cit) 'general principle' in the domain of vocabulary, the following observations were made in some errors listed above:

- (a) In A: 132 'water our clothes' the learner expresses an obvious observation when one washes clothes: items are dipped in water. However, instead of using a concrete word 'wash' the learner, unfortunately, relied on the abstract expression 'water' which made the utterance incorrect.
- (b) In C: 143 'make false to get a job', instead of using a single word 'forged' the learner used circumlocution by way of explaining how forgery is made. The learner may have relied on circumlocution because he did not have an appropriate 'single word' in his repertoire.
- (c) In E: 46 'fire up their huts' the learner used both circumlocution and expression. That is, the learner expressed the event of burning a hut by making an image of flames going up (fire up) the hut. The learner

would have used 'burn' for the same purpose but opted for circumlocution, which unfortunately rendered the expression incorrect.

(d) In E: 75-76 'war between the Mtosa and the White' the learner uses an abstract expression 'white' which generally refers to a South African of European origin. That is, Boers are 'white' people, but not all white people are Boers, which is why the expression 'white' is incorrect in this context because Mtosas fought the Boers in particular and not the 'white' in general.

6.2. Learners' Syntactic Errors Found in English Lesson Transcripts

Learners' syntactic errors presented here include a range of grammatical items e.g. tense, concord, word order, parts of speech, etc. It is recommended that the appendix be consulted in order to better understand the context in which these errors occurred. A corrected version of each error is provided in parenthesis.

A: 157 – water controlling body temperature [*water controls body temperature*]

B: 18 – Nomusa wash the clothes [*Nomusa washes the clothes*]

B: 63 – washs [*washes*]

B: 162 – A car is drive by Siphso [*A car is driven by Siphso*]

B: 166 – A car is drove by Siphso [*A car is driven by Siphso*]

B: 190 – There are verb that changes [*There are verbs that change*]

B: 216 – Food are eaten by Themba [*Food is eaten by Themba*]

- B: 231 – Mother was cook food [*Mother was cooking food*]
- B: 273 – droven [*driven*]
- B: 292 – The food is ate by Themba [*The food is eaten by Themba*]
- B: 341 – The car is being driven Siphho [*The car is being driven by Siphho*]
- B: 412-413 – The car was being driving by Siphho [*The car was being driven by Siphho*]
- C: 77 – She even try to... [*She even tried to...*]
- C: 162 – is that person deserve [*does that person deserve*]
- C: 175-176 - ...the baby use to cry...understand when they... [*...the baby used to cry...understand when it...*]
- C: 191 – mens doesn't have intensive care like womans [*men don't have tender care like women*]
- C: 237 – He will be not shy [*He will not be shy*]
- C: 246-247 – help the womens [*help the women*]
- C: 288 – that belief of that there [*that belief that there*]
- C: 334 – the leaders of the world should be a man [*the leaders of the world should be men*]
- D: 16 – According to my opinion [*In my opinion*]
- D: 22-23 – can't hear the teacher properly what he or she said [*can't hear the teacher properly what he or she says*]
- D: 25 – problem that cause [*problem that causes*]
- D: 28 – that make him [*that makes him*]
- D: 41 – According to the wearing [*Concerning the wearing*]

D: 46-47 – the real school who have [*the real school that has*]

D: 56 – like in meetings that what problems [*like in meetings what problems*]

D: 69 – boyfriend who are [*boyfriend who is*]

D: 98-99 – they are trying to do abortions, than she do abortion [*they are trying to do abortions, then she does abortion*]

D: 105 – I think they not be pregnant if they... [*I think they will not be pregnant if they...*]

D: 116-117 – Yizo Yizo are not good to us as a youth [*Yizo Yizo is not good to us as youth*]

E: 42 – There it is come the Boers [*There come the Boers*]

E: 44 – didn't take any interest of what they are saying [*didn't take any interest of what they were saying*]

E: 55 – Fannie Louw it was his first to go in the... [*It was the first time for Fannie Louw to go to the...*]

E: 59 – he will always known [*he will always know*]

E: 78 – as if they do not afraid Mtosas [*as if they are not afraid of Mtosas*]

E: 80 – that they are pride [*that they are proud*]

E: 93 – Mtosas, which was coming by the women [*Mtosas who were led by women*]

E: 268 – war with another countries. [*war with other countries*]

E: 276-277 – Fannie Louw was the first time to go in the commando [*It was Fannie Louw's first time to go to the commando.*]

E: 319-320 – The war between... and the Boers were in England [*The war between... and the Boers was in England*]

It was necessary to determine whether errors listed above result from fossilisation or is due to acquisition and learning. The following discussion therefore argues the source of errors, specifically with regards to fossilisation, and acquisition and learning.

6.3. Fossilisation versus acquisition and learning in errors

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1992: 60) describe the phenomenon of *fossilisation* as follows:

Fossilisable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular native language will tend to keep in their interlanguage, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the target language.

Similarly, McLaughlin (1993: 61) considers fossilisation as the state of affairs that exists when the learners cease to elaborate the interlanguage in some respect, no matter how long there is exposure, new data, or new teaching. In other words, fossilised errors are those that learners tend to keep regardless of the amount of correction they receive. However, some errors are not a result of fossilisation but are due to the process of acquisition and learning as Larsen-Freeman and Long (1992: 59-60) comment that rather than being seen as something to be prevented, then, errors are signs that learners are actively engaged in hypothesis testing which would ultimately result in acquisition of

target language rules. This means, some errors are inevitably part and parcel of learning.

With regards to the errors committed by learners in five lessons in this study it should be recalled that data were collected in one particular time in contrast to a long period of time. Hence, it would be unjustified to hastily attribute these errors to fossilisation, given the fact that data do not indicate the amount of exposure, instruction, and explanation on the errors identified. For instance, the error in A: 157 'water controlling body temperature' would not be regarded as a fossilised error because in A: 191 'water plays an important role in controlling body temperature' another learner gives the correct response of the same answer. Therefore, the learner in A: 157 omitted 'plays important role in' possibly because as a group they needed to reduce the number of words to sixty as required in the question.

Nevertheless, the error in B: 63 'washes' appears fossilised because it also occurs in B: 25 'Nomusa washes the clothes' despite the teacher's correction in both instances. Actually, this type of error seemingly results from learners generalizing on the rule of first person singular verbs formation as applied in, for example B: 12 'drives', B: 61 'kicks', B: 77 'cooks', etc.

Other examples of seemingly fossilised errors are in C: 191 'mens doesn't have intensive care like womens' and in C: 246-247 'help the womans'. In fact, the

utterance in C 191 is repeated exactly in C: 193 'mens doesn't have intensive care like womens'. Similarly, these errors emanate from over-generalisation on the rule of plural forms. That is, the learner knows that plurals generally suffix '-s', unfortunately fails to note exceptions.

There is arguably one error that appears absolutely fossilised - it has to do with the inappropriate use of 'according', for example in D: 16 'According to my opinion' and in D: 41 'According to the wearing'. Interestingly, this error is picked up from a teacher's utterance as well in E: 137 'So according to my understanding', notwithstanding that the teacher concerned is in another school. The same teacher makes a similar error in E: 7 'as we sit according to the groups'. This error can be attributed to mother tongue (isiZulu) interference because when each of the above utterances is translated to isiZulu the use of 'according' is appropriate.

Furthermore, the error in E: 319-320 'The war between... and the Boers were in England' is a result of incorrect *number* (Fowler and Fowler op cit). In this utterance the learner assumed that the copula should agree with 'Boers' unfortunately at the expense of the subject 'The war'. Obviously, this is not a fossilised error.

In conclusion, it appears that most errors are not due to fossilisation but are an inevitable result of acquisition and learning. In other words, these errors are

typical of second language learning as learners move towards second language attainment.

6.4. National Curriculum Statement: Grades 10-12 English First Additional Language¹² Policy

In order to address the lexical and syntactic errors presented in 6.1 and 6.2 above, it is necessary to look at the National Curriculum Statement (NCS): Grades 10-12 English Additional Language Policy (2003). In this policy there are four learning outcomes, but we will look at learning outcome one and four in order to remedy the errors found in the transcripts.

Learning Outcome one¹³ envisages the learner that is able to listen and speak for a variety of purposes, audiences and contexts. This would be achieved when the learner is able to demonstrate planning and research skills for oral presentations. However, in order for the learner to be able to demonstrate planning and research skills for oral presentations, the teacher should give learners activities to identify and choose formats, vocabulary, and language structures and conventions (See Pakenham 1986 for possible exercises). These activities will help learners to improve their lexical competence because learners will be exposed to a variety of vocabulary items.

¹² In contrast to English Home Language, English First Additional Language is equivalent to English Second Language

¹³ NCS (2003: 16-17)

Furthermore, Learning Outcome four¹⁴ anticipates the learner that is able to use language structures and conventions appropriately and effectively. There are two ways that will be discussed here for Learning Outcome four to be achieved. Firstly, the learner must be able to identify and explain the meanings of words and use them correctly in a range of texts. However, the teacher's responsibility is to arrange activities where learners are able to apply knowledge of roots, prefixes and suffixes to determine the meaning of new words. In addition, the teacher must arrange activities where learners can use gender, plurals and diminutives of nouns correctly.

Secondly, Learning Outcome four will be achieved when the learner is able to use structurally sound sentences in a meaningful and functional manner (See also Kelly 1976). The teacher's responsibility in making sure that learners are able to use structurally sound sentences in a meaning and functional manner is to organize activities that will enable them to do the following:

- (i) Identify and use parts of speech such as nouns, verbs, pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs in selected texts accurately and meaningfully;
- (ii) Use verb forms and auxiliaries to express tense and mood in familiar contexts with increasing accuracy;
- (iii) Use subject, object and predicate correctly;
- (iv) Use simple sentences appropriately and correctly and construct acceptable compound and complex sentences by using clauses, phrases and conjunctions;
- (v) Recognize and use different sentence types such as statements, questions, commands and instructions with growing accuracy;
- (vi) Use active and passive voice appropriately;

¹⁴ NCS (2003: 38-39, 40-41)

- (vii) Use direct and indirect speech correctly;
- (viii) Use correct word order in sentences with growing accuracy and understand how word order can influence meaning and
- (ix) Use concord with increasing accuracy.

6.5. Learning Programme Guidelines: Languages

In the NCS policy, The Department of Education further provides a *Learning Programme Guidelines: Languages* document (2005), proposing a text-based approach and the communicative approach, in order to ensure that the learning outcomes discussed above are achieved.

6.5.1. Text-based Approach

The use of 'texts' is greatly encouraged for the teaching of language. These texts¹⁵ should expose the learner to *inter alia*, models of written and spoken language with a wide variety of structures to help the learner develop correct and appropriate use of language (NCS 2003:46). The purpose of a text-based approach is to enable learners to become competent, confident and critical readers, writers, viewers and designers of texts. It involves listening to, reading, viewing and analysing texts to understand how they are produced and what their effects are.

Furthermore, the *Learning Programme Guidelines: Languages* (2005:10) states that a text-based approach pays attention to formal aspects of language (grammar and vocabulary) but these are viewed in terms of their effects and not

¹⁵ Text is used to include written, oral, audio-visual and multi-media texts such as posters, advertisements, radio, and television programmes and a range of different written texts.

studied or analysed in an isolated way.

6.5.2.The Communicative Approach

The communicative approach in this context means that when learning a language, a learner should have a great deal of exposure to it and many opportunities to practice or produce the language by communicating for social and other purposes. Language learning should be a natural, informal process carried over into the classroom where literary skills of reading, reviewing, writing and presenting are learned in a 'natural' way. Learners learn to read by reading a great deal and learn to write by writing a lot. (NCS 2003:47).

6.5.2.1. Implications of the Communicative Approach for Classroom Practice¹⁶

When following a communicative approach the following implications for classroom practice are apparent (Compare with Hill 1974):

- (i) Language skills should be taught in an integrated way;
- (ii) Learners should be given ample opportunities to use language in class;
- (iii) The teacher is viewed as an important source of language input in an Additional Language class;
- (iv) Learners should use language in situations that require them to interact and communicate real feelings, ideas, and information for real purposes;
- (v) Texts from a range of different genres and modes such as oral, written or multimedia should be used and can be linked through themes;
- (vi) The focus is on effectively communicating meaning rather than on using the correct form of language and
- (vii) Language structures should be taught in context, e.g. the teacher can focus the learners' attention on the correct use of the tense in a text and then provide opportunities for practice using the tense in different, authentic writing activities.

¹⁶ See Learning Programme Guidelines (2005:10-11)

Through careful implementation of the NCS policy, learners' errors presented in 6.1 and 6.2 could be addressed successfully. Notwithstanding, teachers' errors pose a more serious challenge. These errors are presented below starting with lexical errors followed by syntactic ones.

6.6. Teachers' Lexical Errors

These errors are presented in the same fashion as learners' lexical errors. Corrected entries are presented in parenthesis.

A: 99 – refuse that around [*refuse around*]

C: 103 – when was this taking place [*when was she discovered*]

C: 133-134 – why do you think to work domestic workers should only be for female? [*why do you think domestic work is only for females?*]

C: 398 – So don't be sexism. [*So don't be sexist*]

E: 18 – as well as the symbolic. [*as well as the symbolism*]

E: 148 – They light up their houses. [*They burnt their houses*]

E: 242 – how importancy soil was... [*how important soil was...*]

Similarly, when applying Fowler and Fowler's (op cit) 'general principle' in the domain of vocabulary, the following observations regarding some teachers' lexical errors were made:

(a) In C: 103 'when was this taking place' the teacher opts for

circumlocution: 'taking place' instead of a single word 'discovered'. Unfortunately, circumlocution in this context changes the meaning that would have been avoided by using a single word.

(b) In E: 148 'They light up their houses' the teacher uses both circumlocution and abstract expression. That is, the teacher expresses the event of setting the house on fire, which is characterized by visible light caused by blazing flames. However, such an expression can only be correct when used metaphorically; otherwise lighting up a house literally implies switching on electricity or lighting up a lamp or candle, which has nothing to do with burning especially since Mtosas houses were literally burnt. Therefore, a single or concrete word would have made the utterance correct.

6.7. Teachers' Syntactic Errors

It is advisable to read the following teachers' syntactic errors in conjunction with the appendix so as to get the context in which these errors occurred. Similarly, the errors are presented with corrected entries in parenthesis.

A: 75 – give us a report back [*give us a report*]

A: 76 – nobody must be writing [*nobody writes*]

A: 150 – Even the fluid... are made up of water. [*Even the fluid... is made up of water.*]

B: 30 - ...they are all have got... [*...they all have got*]

B: 108 – to be busy about something [*to be busy with something*]

B: 126-127 – those who are... who answers the questions [*those who are ...who answer the questions*]

B: 134-135 – And then let us try and change now these sentences. [*And then now let us try and change these sentences.*]

B: 137 - ...but it must now passive [*but it must now be passive*]

B: 160 – a object of the... [*an object of the ...*]

B: 188 – There are verbs that does... [*There are verbs that do...*]

B: 226-227 – we'll change them in the board [*we'll change them on the board*]

C: 1 – while you reading [*while you are reading*]

C: 2-3 – I would like you to be telling me [*I would like you to tell me*]

C: 12 – as a people who are [*as people who are*]

C: 60 – who can be able to summarise the story [*who can summarise the story*]

C: 66-67 – There is a woman wanting to do [*There is a woman who wants to do*]

C: 67 – Then what is happening [*Then what happened*]

C: 72-73 - ...turned down for several times [*...turned down several times*]

C: 80 – no one will just thinks... [*no one will just think...*]

C: 96 – Let us not be singing [*Let us not sing*]

C: 124 – the company was presented now... [*the company was presented then...*]

- C: 203-204 – that a very nice job [*that is a very nice job*]
- C: 204 – in many places baby sitters has been referred to... [*in many places baby sitters have been referred to ...*]
- C: 257 – male nurse are so... [*male nurses are so...*]
- C: 296 – house builder can be men as well as... [*house builders can be men as well as...*]
- C: 302 – who refuses for you... [*who refuses you...*]
- C: 344 – Don't we use mind... [*Don't we use the mind*]
- C: 363-364 - ...a woman could not build a houses [*a woman could not build a house*]
- C: 502 – the truth would have been come out [*the truth would have come out*]
- E: 7 – as we sit according to the groups [*as we sit in groups*]
- E: 8 – Charles Bosman use... [*Charles Bosman uses...*]
- E: 17 – the author use... [*the author uses...*]
- E: 20 – each group ten minute... [*each group ten minutes...*]
- E: 137 – So, according to my understanding [*So, in my understanding*]
- E: 144 – they are superior than... [*they are superior to...*]
- E: 171 – Is it a right thing that done by the Boers? [*Was it a right thing done by the Boers?*]
- E: 190 – Why is the Boers... [*Why are the Boers...*]
- E: 196-197 – because if they didn't scared... [*because if they were not scared...*]

E: 226 – soil was very important thing... [*soil was a very important thing*]

E: 260-261 – giving the Boers that presents. [*giving the Boers those presents*]

E: 312 – that what I want to say... [*that is what I want to say...*]

Unlike learners' errors, which could be addressed when teachers meticulously implement the NCS policy, teachers' errors are more challenging. Nevertheless, the NCS policy assumes that educators are competent enough to help learners achieve the desired outcomes. The following subsection is a discussion on an envisaged teacher in NCS policy and its pedagogical implications.

6.8. Envisaged Teacher in National Curriculum Statement¹⁷ and Pedagogical Implications

The National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 (General) visualises teachers who are qualified, competent, dedicated and caring. It is assumed that they will be able to fulfil the various roles, which include being mediators of learning, interpreters and designers of Learning Programmes and materials, leaders, administrators and managers, scholars, researchers and lifelong learners, community members, citizens and pastors, assessors, and subject specialists.

However, the teachers' errors presented in 6.6 indicate that teachers are not competent in the language. Nonetheless, as lifelong learners, it is expedient that the Department of Education puts programmes in place, which will help teachers

improve their competence especially in the teaching of English Second Language through the communicative approach. Until teachers undergo in-service training, such errors as presented above will hamper effective teaching and learning.

This means that a greater challenge lies with training and re-training of teachers so they can perform their teaching duties competently. Otherwise, English Second Language learners will continue with similar errors as presented in 6.6.

Apart from concerns raised by teachers' errors, it was noted that cases of code-switching occurred in teachers' utterances. It was therefore important to consider the impact of code-switching in teaching and learning. Hence, the following section discusses the role of code-switching in teaching and learning.

6.9. Role of code-switching

According to Mawasha (op cit), teachers routinely code-switch in content-subject presentation to facilitate comprehension. In other words, it is common for teachers of content subjects, such as, Biology, Mathematics, Geography, etc to switch to learners' vernacular in order to speed up understanding. This suggests that cases of code-switching would be minimal in language-subject presentation such as English, isiZulu, and Afrikaans. In fact, this is evident in five lessons that were analysed in that lessons 'D' and 'E' do not have any occurrence of code-

⁷ See NCS Grades 10-12 (General) Overview document (2003:18)

switching (except that learners' group discussions in lesson 'E' are predominantly conducted in isiZulu). Lesson 'C' has two instances of code-switching: one in C: 280 'Hawu! (isiZulu=wow!)', and the other in C: 499 'Ja' (Afrikaans=yes)'. Even though the occurrence of 'Ja' is found in other teacher's utterances in lesson 'C' there is no other example of code-switching in the whole lesson.

Nevertheless, one example of code-switching that suggests facilitation of comprehension is in B: 564-566 'Educator: I have been helped by... I have been helped by, by, by who, by Ben. Angithi? (isiZulu=isn't it?) Uyakhumbula ukuthi ku-continuous we have used being? (isiZulu=do you remember that in...?) We have used being but kwi- (isiZulu=in) kwi-present perfect tense naku (isiZulu=and in) past perfect tense we use 'being' siyezwana? (isiZulu=do we understand each other?)'.

In the above utterance the teacher highlights the difference between the uses of 'being' in continuous tense versus 'been' in perfect tense. Mistakenly, the teacher tells learners that we use 'being' in perfect tense even though she had earlier shown them the use of 'been' in perfect tense in B: 564 'I have been helped by...'. However, even in this utterance it is clear that isiZulu words that the teacher switches to are not the gist of the lesson. That is, the teacher retains the crucial lexical items i.e. 'continuous', 'present perfect', and 'past perfect tense' that would have been replaced by their isiZulu counterparts if the teacher

aimed at facilitating comprehension. Seemingly, the teacher switches codes in this utterance for purposes of emphasis; that is, switching to isiZulu whilst explaining an English grammar rule compels learners to pay more attention on the items in focus. This agrees with Mawasha's (op cit) assertion that teachers switch codes to aid understanding on subject content or concept, notwithstanding that in the above utterance the gist concepts are still expressed in the target language.

Mawasha (op cit) further claims that teachers code-switch when their personal facility in English as a classroom language falters. Clearly, in all the lessons that were analysed there is no evidence that teachers resorted to code-switching because their personal facility in English as a classroom language faltered. Undoubtedly, this claim would be true with content-subject lessons. In fact, most cases of code-switching in the five lessons are confined to questions e.g. in B: 568 'Siyezwana? (isiZulu=do we understand each other?); B: 565 'Angithi (isiZulu=isn't it?); B: 551 'Kuyezwakala (isiZulu=do you understand?); B: 552 'U-s uhamba nobani? Uhamba nayiphi i-axiliary verb? (isiZulu=what goes with 'is'? Which auxiliary verb goes with it?'. In addition, many cases of code-switching involve the use of 'Ja' (Afrikaans=yes), whereas other additional cases that do not involve questions are in B: 555-558 'That's why singabanga sisasho ukuthi: The boy have (isiZulu=we didn't say). Siyezwana? (isiZulu=do we understand each other?). Because u-have goes with 'I' and 'we'. Siyezwana? (isiZulu=do we understand each other?). That's why we have said: The boy has been taken

by who?' Clearly, the teacher does not code-switch in these utterances because of problems with English language. On the contrary, it seems the teacher code-switches because of the multilingual context (the teacher shares common languages with learners that she switches to at will). For instance, in B: 555 she says 'That's why singabanga sisasho ukuthi: (isiZulu=we didn't say)' – mixing English with isiZulu, whilst in a similar utterance in B: 558 she says 'That's why we have said:' – proving that code-switching in B: 555 is not a result of faltering in English as a classroom language.

Interestingly, some cases of code-switching indicate that teachers do so to regulate behaviour, for example in A: 178-179 'Ngicela ubuye wena ngane, buya la eklasini uyeke ukubheka phandle' (isiZulu=Please come back you child, come back to class and stop looking outside). In this utterance the teacher switches to isiZulu reprimanding the learner who was no longer paying attention, but looking outside through the window. Similarly, in A: 201 'Why - umsindo?' (isiZulu=noise) the teacher resorts to isiZulu in order to draw learners' attention to the unacceptable high level of noise.

In the next chapter, conclusions and recommendations arising from the findings of the study will be discussed.

CHAPTER 7. CONCLUSIONS RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

7.0. Introduction

This chapter will make conclusions on matters arising from the findings in preceding chapters. It consists of four sections. Section One draws conclusions on the communicative competence in relation to communicative language teaching. Section Two proceeds to look at implications for communicative competence arising from code-switching. Section Three considers communication in English in the English Second Language lesson. Finally, Section Four presents some recommendations.

The study hoped to explore the research questions restated below:

1. To what extent are learners of English as a Second Language exposed to the target language?
2. How much time do learners spend communicating in English?
3. How is English used as a medium of instruction?
4. Is grammar taught in English lessons?
5. What demands in the teaching of English as a Second Language do learners' and teachers' discourse suggest?
6. What are the options that can be used to improve teaching and learning?

7.1. Communicative Competence and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

The findings presented in chapter five indicate inadequate communicative competence among both learners and teachers. The greatest shortfall concerns grammatical competence. Although grammatical competence, *per se*, does not make up communicative competence, it is, however, an important aspect, especially in teaching and learning. Furthermore, the communication stage, particularly for lessons 'A' and 'E', indicated that English was not used as a language of communication in the classroom, especially among learners. The findings in this study indicate an aggressive shift away from emphasis on grammatical accuracy, in favour of getting the meaning across, however inaccurate, which is in line with proponents of the communicative approach. Contrary to the notion of the communicative approach, which emphasises a learner-centred approach (Baker 1996: 287), the findings from this study show that most lessons are teacher-centred. The lack of linguistic input by teachers would suggest incompetence on the teachers in as far as the treatment of the grammatical component in the communicative approach is concerned.

Furthermore, the activities in communicative language teaching suggest that lessons 'A', 'D', and 'E' were communicative in stark contrast to lessons 'B' and 'C' that were not. This is because lessons 'A', 'D', and 'E' had a communicative purpose whilst lessons 'B' and 'C' did not. Similarly, learner roles as envisaged in CLT were only realized in communicative lessons. However, teacher roles in

CLT, though not fully realised in each lesson, could be identified in each lesson. There is, therefore, a tremendous need to develop activities that are communicative in nature. This will help learners communicate especially among themselves. Cases of vernacular discussions dominating communicative activities can be minimised when the teacher assumes a role of being a facilitator of the communication process between participants, and the role of group process manager that involves monitoring, encouraging, and noting of gaps that would be addressed during a debriefing session. Unfortunately, none of the teachers in the five lessons adhered to these roles meticulously. Moreover, when teachers adhere to their roles as envisaged in CLT, it will reciprocate to learners whose success seemingly depends on teachers' thoroughness.

7.2. Code-switching and Implications for Communicative Competence

As mentioned in Chapter Five and Six, code-switching cases occurred among the teachers. One reason might be that learners were wary about the interference of other languages within the English lesson. Interestingly, teachers reverted to their home language when they wanted to express their emotions, for example to reprimand, to calm the high level of noise among learners or to drive a point home.

In fact, this occurrence of code-switching and code-mixing confirms what Mawasha (1996:21) states: that code-switching and code-mixing occur routinely in African education to facilitate comprehension and internalisation of subject

content matter. However, the question would arise as to whether or not the teachers are competent in both English and the local language, in our case isiZulu.

It would appear that teachers did not consider the use of isiZulu by learners to have any impeding effect on communicative competence in English. This might confuse learners who needed much time to communicate in the target language. The practice of allowing the use of isiZulu by learners by their teachers would seem to confirm Mawasha's (*ibid*: 21) claim that code-switching does not negatively affect competence in the target language. The tolerance of code-switching by teachers might also raise the question as to whether teachers were competent enough to teach the structure of the target language.

Nonetheless, cases of code-switching in the five lessons involve such lexical items that are basic and common in spoken discourse, which lexical items are understood by teachers and learners in all languages involved (isiZulu, English, Afrikaans) e.g. 'Ja' (Afrikaans=Yes), 'Yebo' (isiZulu=Yes).

The adoption of eleven official languages in South Africa has created a somewhat distorted freedom, where teachers, sometimes because of incompetence in the target language they are teaching, switch to a vernacular, to the disadvantage of learners. The question raised above concerning competency in both English and the local language in question becomes

important. It should be borne in mind that Mawasha's (op cit) assertion of the routine use of code-switching by African educators refers to content subjects to a greater extent, understandably because these subjects have technical lexical items that may need a vernacular to speed up comprehension. That said, the cases of code-switching in the analysed lessons do not suggest incompetence in the target language – even the errors committed by teachers do not arise from code-switching. A positive role is rather implied in the use of code-switching by teachers, notwithstanding that learners still need maximum exposure in the target language especially in the classroom as such exposure could not be guaranteed outside the classroom as the study suggests.

7.3. Communication in English as a Second Language

As mentioned, most learners' communication (i.e. communicative tasks) is predominantly in isiZulu, the vernacular of most learners and teachers in the study. Communication in English appears to be infested with some 'varieties' of English, for instance in C: 191 ('intensive care') and in E: 158 ('fired their house'). Notably, whatever varieties of English learners come with (and teachers in some cases), teachers make no effort to give learners an appropriate expression. This is a departure from emphasis on correct grammar and perfect sentence structuring as favoured by communicative approach proponents; but learners managed to communicate with their teachers and among themselves successfully especially in lesson 'D', amidst the cloud of grammatical inaccuracy. This scenario creates a problem because teachers do not seem to be teaching

the language; in fact, the findings indicate grammatical errors committed by teachers – worsening the situation. The question that arises from this situation concerns the training offered to the teachers and their capability to teach the target language (English as a Second Language).

The findings also reveal that learners of English as a Second Language have inadequate exposure to native and educated speakers of English, and English in its spoken and written forms. All five selected schools did not have audio-visual equipment like television or tele-video, and radio within the school. This means that learners are exposed to English language only during the one-hour English period. Sadly, even during that hour, class discussions that could be run in English are carried out in isiZulu. Consequently, learners do not have enough communicative practice in English inside the classroom.

7.4. Recommendations

As the findings reveal that learners' communicative competence is inadequate, seemingly because of the teaching methodology that does not effectively foster the elements of communicative language teaching, there is an urgent need to consider teacher training and re-training on the communicative approach. This means teacher training and re-training should address the following:

- (i) The importance of English as the language of higher learning and education acquisition globally;
- (ii) The implementation of text-based and communicative

approaches as propounded by the Department of Education;

- (iii) The place of English within the context of African Renaissance and
- (iv) The cultivation of a culture of reading among teachers who would easily pass this culture to learners.

Moreover, learners in rural schools need a wider exposure to the target language. Some education programmes offered on the radio and television could improve the learning of English. The schools, especially in rural arrears, have the responsibility:

- (i) To purchase relevant audio-visual materials that would enable English language teachers to expose the learners to both written and spoken forms of English. This would involve the establishment of libraries in schools;
- (ii) To provide or to expose learners to Internet facilities, especially in this age of computers, which would help learners, learn English even better and excitingly and
- (iii) To motivate learners about the importance of English proficiency in the global market, which would help correct some misconceptions about the functional place of English among the eleven official languages in South Africa.

Most importantly, the Department of Education would need to spell out clearly the

teaching methodology that would translate into a classroom situation the many vital proclamations found in the NCS. That is, teachers would need to be clear about the procedures envisaged in the communicative language lesson, which might be provided in the form of model lessons document(s). Thus, teachers would be able to give more emphasis to activities that promote communication in the target language. This would be possible when teachers are trained about activities that foster the communicative approach and about methods that teachers could use in addressing grammatical competence within the communicative language teaching. Having said this, the findings indicated that the problem of teacher ineffectiveness existed much more deeply and had even wider implications. There is, therefore, a need to probe the linguistic realities that may affect on teacher training and teaching and learning. In addition, the current status of English as a medium of instruction preference as reported by Mawasha (1996: 20) needs further investigation.

7.5. Suggestions

There are a number of issues and concerns that might be of interest to the study, but have not been dealt with. This is because they fall outside the scope of the study. Nonetheless, the following suggestions would need to be made:

- (i) There is, therefore, a need to probe the linguistic realities that may affect teacher training and teaching.
- (ii) The current status of English as a medium of instruction preference as reported by Mawasha (1996: 20) needs further investigation.

- (iii) The reported (Mawasha op. cit) positive attitude towards English by learners would need further investigation to establish the current situation.

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APPENDIX

School A - English Lesson transcript

Setting: A female educator stands in front of the class and starts teaching. The researcher moves about the class with the video camera capturing the whole lesson. Learners are seated in a group format on their desks. Most learners are seated in pairs whilst few of them sit in threes.

Teacher: Morning class.

Learners: Morning.

(3) Educator: I would like you to welcome Mr. X (*Researcher*) who has come to pay us a visit today as we are going to learn how to summarize. I'm expecting you to listen carefully, thereafter I am going to give you the papers, thereafter I'm (6) going to read to you once – only once, thereafter you'll have to read the passage in you groups and collect the most important points in whatever you'll be reading. Firstly, I'll read you the rules – please listen carefully. Okay. You are (9) going to read the passage quickly to get a general impression of a passage, in other words, you are going to skim read. Number two: you are going to read the questions carefully. Number three: you are going to read the, the, the, the, (12) the passage carefully select... selecting the important points from the summary. You are going to rearrange the points to use in any important... (*inaudible*) ...thereafter you are going to write... (*inaudible*)... sentences either in

(15) point form or according to the instruction given in the question thereafter you are going to count the words. I'm expecting you to write only sixty words. We all understand?

(18) Learners: Yes

Educator: Okay. Now I'm reading the passage to you and I'm expecting you to listen carefully thereafter I'm going to give you the papers so that you can find the (21) points within your groups, listen carefully – Okay – this is a dialogue, this is a conversation between Linda and Jacob – I am going to be Linda and be Jacob at the same time (*The educator reads the dialogue*):

(24) **Linda**: Do you realize that plain water is important for your health?

Jacob: I don't think so. I can survive on Coke.

Linda: The body needs water to function efficiently. We would die within a few (27) days if we don't have water.

Jacob: But water is tasteless, it...

Linda: Even so, it assists in all cell and organ functions. Even the saliva in our (30) mouth is formed from water. The fluids that surround our joints area also made up of water. This helps to create easy movement.

Jacob: All this talking of water makes me feel hot.

(33) **Linda**: Yes, water plays an important role in controlling body temperature. Drinking water helps to keep you cool – we should drink from six to eight glasses a day.

(36) **Jacob**: I think you are right about the importance of water. I have read that water helps food to move through the intestines to be excreted as waste,

preventing constipation.

(39) Linda: Now you are thinking along the right track. Instead of buying a Coke why don't you get a glass of water?

Jacob: I'll do that. You know, besides our health, we also need water for other (42) uses. What about our personal hygiene? If there is no water how could we wash our bodies? Imagine the odour we all didn't bath regularly.

Linda: did you ever think how many times a day we wash our hands to get rid of (45) germs? Every time we touch something or mess our hands we run to the tap.

Jacob: We also wash our clothes and everything else we use. Imagine not (48) being able to wash our clothing or pots or floors or...

Linda: Water is very important to our lives – for our health and hygiene. We must also not waste water. Think of all those people out there who have no (51) access to tap water.

(Dialogue ends)

Now I'm going to give you the passage in your groups and I'm expecting to select (54) the most important points. I think there are eight of them and together they make up sixty words. I'm expecting you to make a summary of sixty words.

Okay! *(The educator distributes summary handouts to learners)*. Make use of a (57) lead pencil to underline the facts or the points you think should be underlined. Make use of the lead pencil. Read the passage and get more important points. Your secretary will write point on that blank (60) paper...*(inaudible)*...lead pencil *(Educator talks to one group)*: Start

underlining points, if you agree on a point, you need to write it down. What is important is to get a point out of this. (*Speaking to another group*): Ja

(63) (Afrikaans=Yes) if you agree on a point give it to a secretary. (*To another group*): Are you finding anything here? Ja (Afrikaans=Yes) I've read the points...(*inaudible*)...I've read them, there are eight of them and I'm expecting

(66) only seven. (*To another group*): Finding anything? The most important point – finding anything? (*To another group*): Find the points mark them one,

two, three, four, five, give them to the secretary. (*To the whole class*): Time is

(69) running out. (*All groups get busy searching for points. The educator moves from one group to the other for support*)

How far are you? Sixty words...sixty or less.

(72) Learners: Sixty!

Teacher: (*To a group*) Number six and seven – one and the same point, number nine, it's out. (*To the whole class*) Pens down. Pens down. Pens down. Now

(75) I'm expecting your, your, your, your secretary to give us a report back. (*To learners who were still writing*) Nobody must be writing, okay? Nobody must be

writing, nobody must be writing. (*To one group*) That group over there, please

(78) give us a report back. Read us all the sentence... the points that you have written. (*To a group that was still writing*) No more writing, no more writing, it's

over now – no more writing – over. (*To the group secretary that has been*

(81) *selected*) Stand up and read.

Learner: Water controls body temperature.

Educator: Water controls the body temperature.

(84)Learner: Water helps to create easy movement.

Educator: But why? I don't accept water creates easy movement. Where? In the car? On top of a tree? The third one.

(87)Learner: We wa...

Educator: The third one –

Learner: We wash our hands... (*inaudible*)

(90)Educator: Read aloud please.

Learner: We wash our hands to get rid of germs.

Educator: Yes.

(93)Learner: Water helps to remove food in intestines.

Educator: Yes.

Learner: You will die within few days if you don't have water.

(96)Educator: Yes.

Learner: The saliva in our mouth is formed by water.

Educator: The saliva in our mouth is formed by water. Yes.

(99)Learner: Refuse that around our joints carrier also made up of water.

Educator: Yes. Sit down. Just give him a hand please. (*Learners clap their hands*)

(102)Second group. Second group. (*Pointing to one learner from a second selected group*). Yes (X). Listen, listen.

Learner: Water is important for health and hygiene.

(105)Educator: Water is important for health and hygiene.

Learner: Water... (*inaudible*) you'll die within few days if you don't have water.

Sshh. It assists all cells and organ function that form around our joint area is (108)also made out of water, this assist to create easy movement. Water control body temperature and drinking water about six to –

Educator: Ja (Afrikaans=yes) water control body temperature that the point that I (111)hear. That's the point that I'm hearing first. Go on.

Learner: Water helps food to move through the intestines to be excreted as waste.

(114)Educator: Yes, water helps food move through our intestines. That's a point.

Learner: We wash our hands with water to get rid of germs.

(117)Educator: Yes, we wash our hands, our bodies with water to get rid of germs. *(To the learner who had been doing the presentation) Sit down. (To the whole class) Give her a hand. (Learners clap their hands) Yes you* (120)*(Pointing to one learner representing the third selected group) Speak aloud please.*

Learner: You would die, you would die within the four days if you do not have (123 water. Even the saliva in our mouth is formed from water.

Educator: Ja (Afrikaans=yes), she mention saliva. Yes, go on.

Learner: Yes, water plays an important role in the control of body temperature.

(126) Educator: Yes, water controls body temperature. That's a point. Three.

Learner: They create easy movement in the body.

Educator: They create easy movement in the body. But, that is not specific.

(129) Where about in the body? Go on.

Learner: Water helps food to move through the intestine.

Educator: Yes, water helps the food move through the intestines. What else?

(132) Learner: We also water our clothes in everything else we use.

Educator: We also use water in washing our clothes and everything else we use.

Thank you. Lets give her a hand. (*Learners clap their hands*) Another group,

(135) another group, another group. Ssshhh. Please keep quiet! Yes! (*Pointing to one learner who represents another group*)

Learner: Drink water helps to keep cool.

(138) Educator: Drink water in order to keep your body cool. Another point.

Learner: Water helps food to move through the intestines.

Educator: Water helps food to move through the intestines. Go on.

(141) Learner: Saliva in our mouth is – is formed from water.

Educator: Yes, saliva in our mouth is formed from water. Yes!

Learner: We wash our hands to get rid of germs.

(144) Educator: We wash our hands to get rid of germs.

Learner: If we don't have water we will die.

Educator: Yes.

(147) Learner: Water is important to our lives. Water controls body temperature.

Educator: Water controls body temperature. (*Pointing to another group*) Yes, this group. (*Rebuking learners generally*) Umsindo! (IsiZulu=noise)

(150) Learner: Even the fluid that surrou- surround our joints is made up of water.

Educator: Even the fluid that surround our joints are made up of water. Yes, first point. Yes!

(153) Learner: You should drink water about six to eight glasses a day.

Educator: You must drink six to eight glasses of water per day.

Learner: Water helps food to, to move through the intestines.

(156) Educator: Water helps the food to move through the intestines. Four!

Learner: Water controlling body temperature.

Educator: Water controls body temperature. Five!

(159) Learner: Beside our health we need water for our uses.

Educator: We need water for other uses. Eh!

Learner: Even, even the saliva – water helps the saliva, saliva in our mouth to

(162) form.

Educator: Ja (Afrikaans=yes) water helps in the formation of the saliva in our mouth. Let, let us give her a hand. (*Learners clap their hands*). Another

(165) group from here. This group (*pointing at one learner*) X (*the name of the learner*), stand up. (*To the whole class*) be quiet please.

Learner: Water is very important to our lives.

(168) Educator: Pick up the paper and put it in front of you and start reading.

Learner: Water is very important to our lives for our... (*inaudible*)... we wash our hands with water.

(171) Educator: We wash our hands with water

Learner: Drinking water helps one keep cool.

Educator: Drink water to keep the body cool.

(174) Learner: Even our saliva in mouth is formed by water.

Educator: Even is made by water.

Learner: It assist in, in all the cell and organ functions.

(177) Educator: It assist in all the cell and organ functions. (*To a learner who was no longer concentrating*) Ngicela ubuye wena ngane, buya la eklasini uyeke ukubheka phandle (IsiZulu=Please come back you child, come back to class and (180) stop looking outside) Go on, go on X (*the name of the learner*).

Learner: Oh! We would drink six to eight glasses of water a day.

Educator: Drink eight, six to eight glasses a day – six to eight glasses of water, (183) not Coke. Okay. Next group. We've got only two groups left. Give him a hand please. (*Learners clap their hands*)

Learner: We wash our hands. We wash our hands to get rid of germs.

(186) Educator: We wash our hands to get rid of germs with water. Two!

Learner: Water helps create easy movement in the body.

Educator: Water helps create easy movement in the body.

(189) Learner: We should drink about six to eight glasses a day.

Educator: Drink six to eight glasses of water.

Learner: Water plays an important role in controlling body temperature.

(192) Educator: Water controls body temperature.

Learner: Drinking water keeps you cool.

Educator: That's almost the same.

(195) Learner: Water helps, water helps food to move through the intestines.

Educator: Ja (Afrikaans=yes) water helps food to move through the intestines.

Good. That's all. (*To the whole class*) Give her a hand. (*Learners clap their (198) hands*). Okay, last, last group. The last group.

Learner: Water plays an important role in controlling body temperature.

Educator: Water keeps an important role in controlling body temperature. That's (201) a point. (To the whole class) Why – umsindo! (IsiZulu=noise)

Learner: We also wash clothes and everything else with water.

Educator: We also wash clothes and everything else with water. That's number (204)two. Third point.

Learner: Water helps food to move through the intestines to be excreted as waste, preventing constipation.

(207)Educator: Water helps food move through intestines preventing constipation. Four.

Learner: We wash hands to get rid of germs.

(210)Educator: We wash hands to get rid of germs. That's the second point...*(inaudible)*...

Learner: Fluids that surround our joints are made up of water.

(213) Educator: Yes, good point!

Learner: It creates an easy movement to our body.

Educator: Yes, thank you. Sit down. (To the whole class) Give him a hand.

(216) Okay. Eh, have a paper and pen ready. I'm going to give you my points.

The points that I have gathered from this dialogue. Have a pen and paper ready, okay. (Educator reads the points) It is needed for cell and organ functions.

(219)Number two: it is used to create saliva – that's another point. Number three: it forms fluids that surround the joints – are you writing?

Learners: No.

(222)Educator: Why are you not writing? Make use of your ears. Okay, I'm going to start. (*Educator reads the points again*) Number one: it is needed for cell and organ function – make use of your dialogue. Just underline what I'm (225)reading, okay. Make use of the dialogue. You don't need to write: it is needed for cell and organ functions – underline. That is the first point. It is used to create saliva – that's number two on saliva. It is used to create saliva.

(228) Number three: it forms fluids that surround our joints. That's number three. Number four: it helps in controlling body temperature. Number five: it prevents constipation by helping food to move through the intestinal tract. That is the fifth (231)point. Number six: it is used for washing hands and bathing – number six. Number seven: it is used for washing our clothes and other utensils we use daily. That's the last one. Repeat?

(234) Learners: Yes.

Educator: For the very last time – number six only. Number six only. Five six: it prevents constipation by helping food move through the intestines – that's (237)number five. Number six: it is used for washing hands and bathing. Number seven: it is used for washing our clothing and other utensils we use daily. Seven points. Number of words – sixty; then we also look at the grammar, (240)okay. For your homework, your homework. Turn your paper around and you'll see the basic method of summary writing for Grade 11 and Grade 12. Go paste this paper in your grammar exercise book so that it remains your (243)constant reminder. Who else did not receive? Okay, we have come to the end of our lesson. We have come to the end of our lesson. Do you have any

question? Do you have any question regarding this lesson? Do you have any
(246)question? Don't have any question?

Learners: Yes. (*Meaning they don't have any question*)

Educator: Okay, I know you need to ask me for question but you are not
(249)prepared to ask me. If you are given a test to summarize, read it through,
scan, scanning or read fast thereafter do it slowly may be four times, after
reading it the fourth time you will start picking up the important points.

(252)Siyezwana? (IsiZulu=do we understand each other?)

Learners: Yes.

Educator: And remember that you must not waste your time reading the, the
(255)passage twenty times because you'll be working for ten marks.

Siyezwana? (IsiZulu=do we understand each other?)

Learners: Yes.

(258) Educator: Do you understand?

Learners: Yes.

Educator: That's the end of our lesson, Mr. X (Researcher) thank you very much.

School B. – English Lesson transcript

Setting: A female educator stands in front of the class. The researcher moves about with a video camera recording the lesson. The class is seated in rows facing the educator. Some learners are seated in pairs whilst others are seated in threes on their desks.

Educator: Good day.

Learners: Good day.

(3) Educator: Eh...wake up those who are sleeping...can you please give a sentence that has got the subject, the verb and the object. The sentence that has got the subject, the verb and the object but that is in the present tense. X

(6)(*the name of the learner*)

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: The subject, the verb and the, and the object in the simple present (9)tense. Present tense. Yes same sentence but in the simple present tense.

Learner: My mother cooks food.

Educator: Another one. Yes – Siphon drive...

(12)Learner: Drives.

Educator: Siphon, drives the car. Third one. Yes, at the back there.

Learner: The boy kicks the ball.

(15)Educator: The boy...

Learner: The boy kicks the ball.

Educator: Yes (*pointing at the other learner*).

(18) Learner: Nomusa wash the clothes.

Educator: Nomusa...

Learner: Wash.

(21) Educator: Correct your sentence – Nomusa...

Learner: Nomusa wash the clothes.

Educator: Can you correct that verb, class. (*Pointing at the other learner*) Ja

(24)(Afrikaans=yes)

Learner: Nomusa washes the clothes.

Educator: Nomusa washes the clothes. The last one now. The last one, X (*the*

(27)*name of the learner*)

Learner: Themba is cool.

Educator: Themba is cool. Themba is... If you look at these sentences they are

(30)all, they are all, have got the subject, the verb and the object. Can you

please tell – eh, the subject of the first sentence. The subject of the first

sentence. The subject of the first sentence. (*Pointing at the other learner*) Ja

(33)(Afrikaans=yes)

Learner: My mother...

Educator: My mother. My mother is the subject of the sentence - and the verb of

(36) this sentence? All of ice – all of us.

Learners: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: And the object of the first sentence?

(39) Learners: Obvious.

Educator: There is no obvious here. Okay. And the second sentence, the subject?

(42)Learners: Sipho.

Educator: The verb?

Learners: Drives.

(45)Educator: The, eh, the, the verb o...

Learners: Car.

Educator: The object. The object of the sentence?

(48)Learners: Car.

Educator: The object of the sentence. Of the third sentence?

Learners: Ball.

(51)Educator: The boy or the ball?

Learners: The boy.

Educator: Object?

(54)Learners: Boy.

Educator: Niyakrema ngoba manje asisalandelisanga nge-subject (IsiZulu=you are cramming now because we have not followed with the subject). Object?

(57)Learners: The ball.

Educator: The ball. And the subject of the sentence?

Learners: The boy.

(60)Educator: The verb?

Learners: Kicks.

Educator: And the...the verb of this sentence

(63)Learners: Washes.

Educator: Washes – and the subject?

Learners: ...(*inaudible*)

(66)Educator: The object?

Learners: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: The verb of the sentence?

(69)Learners: Is.

Educator: The subject?

Learners: Themba.

(72)Educator: The object?

Learners: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: Okay. Eh, my, mother is the subject of the sentence. It means that,

(75)eh, the mother is the one who is doing the action. The mother is the one who is doing the action. Which action?

Learners: Cooks.

(78)Educator: Which action?

Learners: Cooks.

Educator: So, eh, what can we call these sentences? Can we say they are in

(81)the passive or active voice?

Learners: Active.

Educator: Raise up your hands. X (*name of the learner*)

(84)Learner: Active.

Educator: They are in the active voice. Why do we say they are in the active

voice? Why do we say they are in the active voice, X (*name of the learner*)

(87)Learner: There is 's' at the end of the verb.

Educator: Because?

Learner: There's 's' at the end of the verb.

(90)Educator: Because there's 's' at the end of the – not exactly. This 's' shows that the sentence is in the simple present tense – X (*pointing at the other learner*)

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

(93)Educator: Because the subject of the sentence is the doer of the action. The person who is acting is the subject of the sentence. Who is acting here?

Learners: Mother.

(96)Educator: Mother who is busy with what?

Learners: Food.

Educator: Cooking food. So can you tell me what does the word 'active' mean?

(99)Just the word 'active' mean? Just the word 'active' mean? The word 'active',

X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

(102) Educator: Flexible. Ja (Afrikaans=yes), I can give you one out of two. Yes, omunye angathini? (IsiZulu=what can the other say?) The word flexible – I mean eh, active? Active. Someone who wants to try? Anyone who wants to try? Yes,

(105)(*pointing at the other learner*)

Learner: (*inaudible*)

Educator: In class, eh. I can give you one out of two. Okay, eh, to be active

(108)means to be busy about something. Kuyezwakala? (IsiZulu=do you

understand?) Like, like in the classroom if you are, if you are, if you are concentrating, you are raising your hand – if the teacher is asking you a question (111)– it mean, it means that you are active. You are involved in something.

Kuyezwakala? (IsiZulu=do you understand?) Like in these sentences – the mother is busy with cooking. Angithi? (IsiZulu=is it not so?) Siphiso is busy (114)doing what?

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: Eh?

(117) Learner: Driving.

Educator: Driving the car – he is involved in something, is doing, is busy with something, which means there is something that you are doing, it can be either (120)you are working, you are talking, whatever you are doing but is the action that you are doing. That is the – to be active. And then what is the opposite of active? If the person is not active, is what? Ja? (Afrikaans=yes) Is passive. (123)There are people here in the classroom who, who are always passive. I don't want to point people but there're people if you ask question, they just look at you. They, it's like they are sitting in their home watching TV in their (126)sofas, but there are those who are active, who eh, who answers the questions – who are willing to, to learn. Okay. Let us change. Try and change these sentences into, from active voice to passive voice. I have said that if (129)this sentence is active it means that the subject of the sentence is the one who is doing the, the, the, the, the, the action. Siyezwana? (IsiZulu=do we understand each other?) Like these sentences they are in the active voice:

(132)The mother is cooking food. The action is food; that's what the mother is doing. That's what is Sipho doing – driving the car. Kuyezwakala? (IsiZulu=do you understand each?) All of these sentences. And then let us try and change

(135) now these sentences into passive voice, but they must have the same meaning. The meaning must not change. The meaning must be the same, but it must now passive – X (the name of the learner)

(138)Learner: Food...(inaudible)

Educator: Food – raise your voice, X (name of the learner)

Learner: Food is cooked by my mother.

(141)Educator: Food is cooked by...food is cooked by...U-X useshonile yini?

(IsiZulu=has X (name of the learner) died?)

Learner: By my mother.

(144)Educator: By my mother. Okay. Food is cooked by my mother. This sentence is said to be passive because the, the subject of the sentence, is the subject of the sentence is now the object of the sentence. Kuyezwakala?

(147)(IsiZulu=do you understand?) The subject of the sentence in this sentence is no longer a doer of the action. Kuyezwakala? (IsiZulu=do you understand?) It

is not the food who is cooking mother, angithi? (IsiZulu=isn't it?) But it is mother

(150)who is cooking food. But mother now is the subject of the sentence,

siyewwana? (IsiZulu=do we understand each other?) That's why it is now

passive, siyewwana? (IsiZulu=do we understand each other?) Siyewwana?

(153)Learners: Yes.

Educator: Do you understand that?

Learners: Yes.

Educator: Why is this sentence said to be passive, eh? Why is it said to be
(156)passive now? X (name of the learner)

Learner: Because mother...is not doing the action.

Educator: Ja (Afrikaans=yes), because the doer of the action is no longer a
(159)subject of the sentence, siyezwana? (IsiZulu= do we understand each
other?) The doer of the action is now a object of the sentence, siyezwana?
Number two: Siphso drives a car. Siphso drives a car. Ja X (name of the learner)

(162)Learner: A car is drive by Siphso.

Educator: A car is...A car is...

Learner: A car is drive by Siphso.

(165)Educator: Not exactly. The verb, the verb must be in a past participle.

Learner: A car is drove by Siphso.

Educator: Not drove. Drove is the past tense. Drive – drove. (Pointing at the

(168)other learner) Ja (Afrikaans=yes)

Learner: ...(inaudible)

Educator: Yes, not was

(171)Learner: Is.

Educator: A car is driven by who? By who?

Learner: Sipho.

(174)Educator: By Sipho, angithi? (IsiZulu=isn't it?) A car is driven by Sipho.

Whenever we use the passive voice we use the helping verb; it depends. It depends in the tense of the sentence. If the tense of the sentence is, eh. If the

(177)sentence is in the present tense, we use the helping verbs that are in the present tense, kuyezwakala? (IsiZulu=do you understand?) And also the verb changes into past participle. Is that understandable? The verb changes

(180)into past participle whether the sentence is in the present tense, past tense, whatever tense but the verb changes into past participle, kuyezwakala?

(IsiZulu=do you understand?) You cannot see it in the, in the first sentence

(183)because eh, the present tense of cook is eh, is cook, angithi? (IsiZulu=isn't it?); and then past tense – past tense of cook?

Learner: Cooked.

(186) Educator: Eh, past participle?

Learner: Cook.

Educator: Cooked. Is also cooked. There are verbs that does, eh that does not

(189)change from past tense; they, they remain in the past tense but in the past participle, and there are verb that changes from eh, present tense like eh, like

this one 'drive' to 'drove' to 'driven' angithi? (IsiZulu=isn't it?) Siyezwana?

(192)(IsiZulu=do we understand each other?) Most of the verbs when they are changed into past participle they add '-en' at the end of the verb. Not all of them

but most of them, they add '-en' like 'driven'. Third sentence: The boy kicks the (195)ball. The boy kicks the ball. (*Pointing at the other learner*) Ja (Afrikaans=yes)

Learner: The ball is kicked by the boy

(198)Educator: Yes. The ball is kicked by the...

Learner: Boy.

Educator: The ball is kicked - by who?

(201)Learner: The boy.

Educator: By the boy. Okay. Number three, four: Nomsa washes the clothes.

Nomsa washes the clothes. Nomsa washes the clothes. (*Pointing at the*

(204)*other learner*) X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: The clothes...you are talking about many clothes, angithi?

(207)(*IsiZulu=isn't it*) About many clothes – is? (*Pointing at the other learner*) Ja

(Afrikaans=yes) X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: The clothes are washed by Nomsa.

(210) Educator: The clothes are washed by who?

Learner: Nomsa.

Educator: By who?

(213) Learner: Nomsa.

Educator: Washed by Nomsa. The last sentence: Themba eats food. Themba eats food.

(216) Learner: Food are eaten by Themba.

Educator: Eh, X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: Food is eaten by Themba.

(219) Educator: Food is eaten by Themba.

Learner: (*One learner teasing the other*) T-zozo (this does not mean anything)

Educator: Food is eaten by Themba. Okay. These sentences were in the – were (222) in the active voice, but eh, tense was simple present tense. People are making noise now. What's happening? The food is...oh! Thank you. Thank you very much that you are participating. It means that you are active, you (225) are not passive. Okay. These sentences are in the simple present tense. I want us to change these sentences into simple past tense. We'll change them in the board: My mother cooks food. Simple past tense now, X (*name of the* (228) *learner*)

Learner: My mother was cooking food.

Educator: Simple, simple past tense. Simple past tense. Correct yourself.

(231) Learner: My mother was cook food.

Educator: Not exactly. (*Pointing at another learner*) Ja (Afrikaans=yes)

Learner: My mother cooked.

(234) Educator: My mother cooked food. Siphon drives the car. Siphon drives the car. (*Pointing at the other learner*) Ja (Afrikaans=yes) X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: Siphon drove a car

(237) Educator: Siphon drove a car. The boy kicks the ball. That boy kicks the ball. Where are you, X? (*name of the learner*) Ja (Afrikaans=yes) – kicked; Nomusa washes, Nomsa washes – all of us

(240) Learners: Nomsa washed clothes.

Educator: Washed. Themba eats food. Themba eats... X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: Themba ate food.

(243) Educator: Themba?

Learner: Ate food.

Educator: Themba?

(246) Learner: Ate.

Educator: Ate, Themba ate. Okay. Can I wipe here?

Learners: Yes.

(249) Educator: Yes?

Learners: Yes.

Educator: Okay, let us try and change now these sentences in the simple past

(252)tense but in the active voice and let us try and change them into passive.

Let's try and change them into passive voice: My mother cooked food. My

mother cooked food. X (*Name of a learner*)

(255)Learner: The food was cooked by my mother.

Educator: The food?

Learner: Was, was.

(258)Educator: The food was

Learner: Cooked,

Educator: Cooked by?

(261)Learner: My mother.

Educator: By?

Learner: My mother.

(264)Educator: By my mother. The only difference now between the simple the.

the, the, the simple present tense and simple past tense is the helping verb. Do

you still remember that in the present tense we have said: The food is (267)cooked by my mother; and now the helping verb is changed because of the tense, siyezwana? (IsiZulu=do we understand each other?) The helping verb has changed because of the ...Sipho drove a car. Sipho drove a car. Raise (270)your voice. A car was?

Learner: Drove.

Educator: Not drove.

(273)Learner: Drogen.

Educator: Driven. A car was driven by who?

Learner: Sipho.

(276)Educator: By Sipho. And then – The boy kicked the ball. The boy kicked the ball. (*Pointing at another learner*) Yes. People are making noise now. Ja (Afrikaans=yes)

(279) Learner: The ball was kicked by...

Educator: The ball was kicked by...by who? By the?

Learner: Boy.

(282) Educator: Sekuphele i-battery yini? (IsiZulu=has the battery expired?) Nomsa washed the car, the clothes. Nomsa washed the clothes. (*Pointing at the other learner*) Ja (Afrikaans=yes)

(285)Learner: The clothes were washed by Nomsa.

Educator: The clothes?

Learner: Were – the clothes were.

(288)Educator: Were washed by who?

Learner: By Nomsa.

Educator: By Nomsa. Themba ate food. Themba ate food. Themba ate food.

(291)(*Pointing at the other learner*) Ja (Afrikaans=yes) you.

Learner: The food is ate by Themba.

Educator: Is?

(294)Learner: Was ate by Themba.

Educator: Was?

Learner: Ate.

(297)Educator: Was ate! Was eaten by Themba. Was eaten by, by Themba.

Okay. We are through with simple present tense and simple past tense. Let us go to present continuous tense. Present continuous tense. Let us first

(300)change these sentences into present continuous tense: My mother cooks food. X (*name of the learner*). My mother is cooking food. Is cooking. Number two. Number two. X (*name of the learner*) girl.

(303)Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: People are now making noise. I can't hear X (*name of the learner*).

(*Pointing at the same learner again*) X (*name of the learner*)

(306)Learner: Sipho is driving a car.

Educator: Sipho is driving... a car. Number three. X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

(309)Educator: Eh?

Learner: The boy is kicking the ball.

Educator: The boy is kicking the ball. Eh, the fourth one. The fourth one –

(312)ekhoneni. (*IsiZulu=At the corner – referring to the learner seated at the corner*)

Learner: Nomsa is washing the clothes.

(315) Educator: Eh?

Learner: Nomsa is washing the clothes. Nomsa is washing the clothes.

Educator: Nomusa is washing the clothes. Yes. The last one. The last one.

(318)(*Pointing at the other learner*) Yes.

Learner: Themba is eating.

Educator: Themba is eating. Okay. I've got, I also have got eh, a sentence; my

(321)sentence now. My sentence is eh: John, John is helping me. John is helping me. These sentences are in the present continuous tense. How do we see that they are in the present continuous tense? How do we see them that

(324)they are in the present continuous tense? What shows?

Learner: The verb ends with '-ing'.

Educator: The verbs end with '-ing'. What else?

(327)Learner: Helping verb.

Educator: The helping verb is in which tense? The helping verb that is in, the, the helping verbs that are in the present tense and the verb that ends with...

(330)Learners & Educator: -ing.

Educator: Kuyezwakala? (IsiZulu=do you understand?) Then let us change them into passive voice. When changing the, the, the, the, the continuous tense we

(333)use being. We use being from the word 'be' and '-ing' is added to show that it is continuing. Let us change the first sentence: My mother is cooking food. Eh,

mfowabo ka- (IsiZulu=brother to) X (*name of the learner*)

(336)Learner: Food is being cooked.

Educator: Food is?

Learner: Being.

(339)Educator: Is being – cooked – by – by my mother. Siphso is driving the car.

Sipho is driving the car. (*Pointing at the other learner*) Yes.

Learner: The car is being...The car is being driven Sipho.

(342)Educator: The car is being driven by, by, by Sipho. The boy is kicking the ball. The boy is kicking the ball. (*Pointing at the other learner*) Yebo.

(IsiZulu=yes) X (*name of the learner*)

(345)Learner: The ball is being kicked by the boy

Educator: The ball is being kicked by the boy. All right. Number last. Is it number last? Oh! Themba is eating food. Themba is eating food. Oh!

(348)Nomsa is washing the clothes. Nomsa is washing the clothes.

Learner: The clothes are being washed by Nomsa.

Educator: The clothes are being washed by Nomsa. The clothes are being

(351)washed by Nomsa. Okay. Themba is eating food. Themba is eating food.

(*Pointing at the learner*) X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: The food is eaten by Themba.

(354)Educator: The food is?

Learner: Being eaten by Themba.

Educator: The food is being eaten by Themba. Here is my sentence: John is

(357)helping me. John is helping me. (*Pointing at the other learner*) Ja

(Afrikaans=yes)

Learner: I am being helped by...

(360) Educator: I am...I am

Learner: I am being helped by John.

Educator: I am being helped by – by – John. I am being helped by John. I

(363)thought that we were going to say 'me'. We have used the first person 'I' because we cannot start the sentence with 'me'. Kuyezwakala? (IsiZulu=do you understand?) The pronoun... we cannot start the sentence ngo-, ngo-

(366)(IsiZulu=with) me. And then: John is helping us. Same sentence: John is

helping us. John is helping us. (*Pointing at the other learner*) Ja (Afrikaans=yes)

Learner: We are being helped.

(369)Educator: We are being helped by?

Learner: John.

Educator: Eh – John is helping them. John is helping them. John is helping

(372)them. Eh, (*pointing at the other learner*) X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: They are being.

Educator: They are being helped by John; siyaqhubeka (IsiZulu=we are

(375)proceeding). Eh, that was present continuous. The past continuous tense

of this sentence: My mother is cooking food. Let us change it into now past

continuous. Past continuous: My mother was cooking food. (*Pointing at the*

(378)other learner) Ja (Afrikaans=yes)

Learner: My mother was cooking food.

Educator: My mother was. We only change the helping verb. Siphho is
(381)driving the car. All of us.

Learners: Siphho was driving the car.

Educator: The boy is kicking the ball.

(384)Learners: The boy was kicking the ball.

Educator: Nomsa is washing.

Learners: Nomsa was washing.

(387)Educator: Themba is washing.

Learners: Was.

Educator: John is helping.

(390)Learners: Was.

Educator: Nomsa and John are helping them.

Learners: Were.

(393)Educator: Were. Okay. Can I wipe this side? Okay. Let us change these sentences from the eh, past, past continuous to passive voice: My mother was cooking food. My mother was cooking food. Where are the people? Tired?

(396)My mother was cooking food. (*Pointing to one learner*) Ja (Afrikaans=yes)

Learner: The food was being cooked by my mother.

Educator: By...The food was being cooked by my mother. The food was being
(399)cooked by my mother. By my mother. The only difference between the
present continuous tense and the past continuous tense is the...?

Learners: Helping verb.

(402)Educator: The helping verb. But everything is the same. We have used 'is'
in the present continuous and now we are using 'was'. Kuyezwakala?
(IsiZulu=do you understand? Is it clear? Siphso was driving the car. Siphso
(405)was driving the car. Eh, (Pointing the other learner) ja (Afrikaans=yes)

Learner: ...(inaudible)

Educator: Eh?

(408)Learner: ...(inaudible)

Educator: Not exactly. Your sentence is still active. Your sentence is still active.
(Pointing at the other learner) Ja (Afrikaans=yes) X (name of the learner)
(411)omdala, omncane (IsiZulu= elder one, young one)

Learner: The car was...The car was being drive – driving. The car was being
driving by Siphso.

(414) Educator: The car was being driven. The car was being driven by...?

Learner: By Siphso.

Educator: The boy was kicking the ball. (Pointing at the other learner) Yes.

(417) Learner: ...(inaudible)

Educator: The ball was being – was being? By who? By John. Nomsa is
washing the clothes. Nomsa is washing the clothes. (Pointing at the learner) X.

(420)X (name of the learner)

Learner: The clothes were...

Educator: Eh?

(423)Learner: The clothes were...

Educator: The clothes were being...the clothes were being washed by – by Nomsa, angithi? (IsiZulu=isn't it?) Okay. Themba is eating – is eating food.

(426)Themba is eating food. Themba is eating food. X (name of the learner)

Learner: ...(inaudible)

Educator: Eh?

(429)Learner: Food was being eat by Themba.

Educator: Was being?

Learner: Eat by Themba.

(432)Educator: Not eat. (Pointing at the other learner) Ja (Afrikaans=yes)

Learner: The food was being eaten by Themba.

Educator: By Themba – The food was being eaten by Themba. I have said that

(435)the verb changes into past participle, X (name of the learner) not into past tense. Okay. John is helping me. John is helping me. John is helping me, X (name of the learner). X (name of the learner)

(438)Learner: I am being helped by John.

Educator: Eh? John, John is helping me.

Learner: I'm, I was being helped by John.

(441)Educator: I was being helped by John. Eh, John and I were, were helping me – were helping us. John and I were helping us. John and I were helping us.

Oh! Excuse me, sorry. Thank you very much. John and...Let's say John (444)and Themba were helping us. It means that you are listening. You can even, eh see the mistake. (*Pointing at the other learner*) Yebo (IsiZulu=yes)

Learner: ...(inaudible)

(447) Educator: Eh?

Learner: They were being helped by John and Themba.

Educator: They were being helped by John and Themba. Can you please wipe (451)the board for me now. I'll be coming to future tense now. We are moving a lot. Okay: My mother, eh, cooks food. Let us change that sentence into simple future tense. Simple future tense. The simple future tense – the rule of the (454)simple future tense says that 'I' and 'we' goes with shall and, eh, the rest goes with will, but the coloured people can say the visa versa of that. So I want the simple future tense 'I' and 'we' uses 'shall' and the other persons uses 'will': (457)My mother cooks food. (*Pointing at the other learner*) Ja (Afrikaans=yes)

Learner: My mother will cook food.

Educator: My mother will cook food. My mother will cook food. Second (460)sentence: Siphso drives the car. Siphso drives the car. X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: Siphso will drive a car.

(463)Educator: Siphso will drive a car. Third one: The boy kicks the ball. Themba will eat food – okay. Do you still see that these sentences are still in the active voice?

(466) Learners: Yes.

Educator: Eh?

Learners: Yes.

(469) Educator: Who is the doer of the action?

Learners: Mother.

Educator: Eh?

(472) Learners: Mother.

Educator: Is still the mother who is going to do what?

Learners: Cook food.

(475) Educator: Who is going to?

Learners: Cook food.

Educator: And the eh, doer of the action is who her?

(478) Learner: Siphoh.

Educator: Is Siphoh. And Siphoh is the subject of the sentence. Siyezwana?

(IsiZulu=do we understand each other?) Let us change these sentences into

(481)passive voice: My mother will cook food. Let us change them from being

active to passive. From being active to passive: My mother will cook food. X

(name of the learner)

(484)Learner: Food...(inaudible)

Educator: Eh?

Learner: Food will be cooked by my mother.

(487)Educator: The food will be cooked by – by my mother. Siphoh will drive the

car. Siphoh will drive the car. X (name of the learner)

Learner: ...(inaudible)

'490)Educator: The car will be driven by Siphon. The car will be driven by Siphon.

Okay, let's say – let us change these sentences: The boy – The boy kicks the ball. Let us say: I will kick the ball.

'493)Learner: I shall.

Educator: Or I shall kick the ball because is the, eh, simple future tense. I shall - I shall kick the ball. Let us change it into, into passive voice. I shall kick the

'496)ball. Raise up your hands, eh X (*name of the learner*), X.

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: The ball?

'499)Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: The ball will be kicked by...will be kicked by – by I?

Learner: By me.

'502)Educator: By me. Nomsa will wash the clothes. Nomsa will wash the clothes. Nomsa will wash the clothes. All of us.

Learner: The clothes will be washed by Nomsa.

'505)Educator: Eh?

Learner: The clothes will be washed by Nomsa.

Educator: I also want to change this sentence. Themba, eh, Themba will kick

'508)me. Themba will kick me. Let us change it into passive voice. Themba will kick me. (*Pointing at the other learner*) Ja (*Afrikaans=yes*) X (*name of the*

learner) the other one, not the one...(*inaudible*)

'511)Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: Eh?

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

(514)Educator: I will...

Learner: Shall.

Educator: Eh?

(517)Learner: Shall.

Educator: X (*name of the learner*): I shall be kicked by...I shall be kicked by who?

Learner: By Themba.

(520)Educator: By Themba.

Learner: (*Teasing*) Themba T.

Educator: Okay. We are through with the future tense now. I want us to do the

(523)last one now. Last one: the sentences in the present perfect tense.

Present perfect tense. In the present perfect tense, eh. Which auxiliary verb do

we use to show that the sentences now is in the present perfect tense?

(526)(*Pointing at the other learner*) Yes...(*inaudible*) The last one now. The last

sentence in the present perfect tense. The last sentence in the present perfect

tense. The last sentence, X (*name of the learner*)

(529) Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: Okay. When we change this, eh, into, into passive voice, we use be.

we use be, siyezwana? (*IsiZulu=do we understand each other?*) Change that

(532)into passive voice. Eh, X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: Eh?

(535) Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: Not exactly. Your sentence is still in active voice. Your sentence...X

(name of the learner)

(538) Learner: ...*(inaudible)*

Educator: Have.

Learner: ...*(inaudible)*

(541) Educator: The ball has been... The ball has been taken by who? By who?

Learner: By me.

Educator: The ball has been taken by...

(544) Learners & Educator: Me.

Educator: Do you understand how we...?*(inaudible)* Do you understand? Eh?

You don't understand. The sentence is in the present perfect tense. We have

(547)used 'have': I have taken the ball. 'I' is the subject of the sentence; 'taken' is the verb in the past participle; 'the ball' is the object of the sentence. Angithi?

(IsiZulu=isn't it?) We have started the sentence, eh, with the object of the

(550)sentence. The object of the sentence is now the subject of the sentence,

kuyezwakala? (IsiZulu=do you understand?) Because we have used the, the

third person: the boy who is. U-is uhamba nobani? Uhamba nayiphi i-auxiliary

(553)verb? (IsiZulu=what goes with 'is'? Which auxiliary verb goes with it?)

Learner: Has.

Educator: U-has. (IsiZulu=it's has) That's why singabanga sisasho ukuthi: The

(556)boy have. (IsiZulu=we didn't say) Siyezwana? (IsiZulu=do we understand

each other?) Because u-have, u-have goes with 'I' and 'we'. Siyezwana?

(IsiZulu=do we understand each other?) That's why we have said: The boy has

(559)been taken by who? By, by, by me. Ben has helped me. Ben has helped me. (*Pointing at the learner*) Yes.

Learner: I have been helped.

(562)Educator: I?

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: I have been helped by...I have been helped by, by, by who, by Ben.

(565)Angithi? (IsiZulu=isn't it?) Uyakhumbula ukuthi ku-continuous we have used being? (IsiZulu=do you remember that in...?) We have used being but kwi-,

kwi-present perfect tense (IsiZulu=in) naku (IsiZulu=and in) past perfect

(568)tense we use 'being' siyezwana? (IsiZulu=do we understand each other?)

She has worked very hard at the school. She has... (*Pointing at the other learner*) Ja (Afrikaans=yes)

(571) Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: She has worked very hard at school. We are expected to have the subject of the sentence, the verb and the object. object – that we don't have.

(574)Can you give me the, the, the, the correct sentence that has got the subject, the verb, and the object. The correct that has got the subject, the subject, the verb, and the object but in the present perfect tense. The present, present

(577)perfect tense. Webantu. (IsiZulu=people!) Okay. Let us continue with this one: The boy has – The dog has bitten Zodwa. The dog has bitten Zodwa. X

(*name of the learner*)

(580)Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: Zodwa has?

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

(583)Educator: Where did you leave 'been'?

Learner: Zodwa has been bitten by a dog.

Educator: Zodwa has been bitten by a dog. Okay, eh, take out your exercise (586)books and write this work. No, you are going to copy and write that as homework. Thank you very much.

School C. English Lesson Transcript

Setting: The educator stands in front of the class and learners are seated on their desks. They are seated in pairs (a very small number of learners are seated in singles) in rows.

Educator: Right, today I will give you a short story to read then while you reading you are also going to get discussions, but before you start reading I would like (3)you to be telling me; we are going to look at things concerning jobs. Sometimes when we look for jobs some of the jobs are reserved for men and some are reserved for women. Can you just in one minute give me jobs that are (6)said to be for women and also jobs that are said to be for men. Can you just give me an example of a job that is said to be for women; men would not like to do that job because they know or they have been made to understand it is for (9)women. Can you think of any job? Yes, X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: Domestic working. So, domestic working or domestic workers are (12)definitely referred to as a people who are working for rich of this world. What else? Any other job? (*Pointing at the other learner*) Yes.

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

(15) Educator: What?

Learner: Nursing.

Educator: Can't hear you.

(18) Learner: Nursing.

Educator: Nursing, okay. Nursing is also – has also been always referred to as a women job. What else? (*Pointing at the other learner*) Yes.

(21) Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: The?

Learner: Dressmaker.

(24) Educator: Dressmaker, yes – dressmaker. Let us quickly come to jobs that are meant for men, (*pointing at the other learner*) yes.

Learner: Mineworker.

(27) Educator: Mine working or mine workers. Mine workers. They are people who are supposed to work in mines. What else? X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: House working.

(30) Educator: House builders. House building. House building. What else? X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: Shoemaker.

(33) Educator: Shoemaker. Shoemaker.

Learner: Truck driver.

Educator: Truck drivers. Okay, thank you. I know they are so many. I just want
(36) us to see if what they are saying that there are specific jobs for specific
people – to find out if this is true – but in the story... *(the educator distributes
handouts to learners. Some fall on the floor and certain learners pick them up)*
(39) Thank you. The story we will be reading will be telling us something. Right.
Can someone read for us? Can anyone read for us?

Learner:...*(One learner starts reading inaudibly)*

(42) Educator: Let us start with the topic.

Learner: Naked truth.

Educator: Naked?

(45) Learner: Naked truth about the new worker. ...*(The learner resumes
reading still inaudible)*

Educator: Okay, someone please.

(48) Learner: ...*(Another learner takes from where the other learner had ended
and continues reading nevertheless inaudible)*

Educator: Speak a bit louder.

(51) Learner: ...*(The learner continues with reading inaudibly)*

Educator: Yes, can someone read? Anyone.

Learner:...*(Another learner picks up from where the other learner had ended and*

(54)continues reading inaudibly)

Educator: (Correcting the learner) First protested.

Learner: ...(The learner continues reading)

(57)Educator: Another one please.

Learner: ...(Another learner continues from where the other one had stopped reading, however inaudible)

(60)Educator: Mmhh. Okay. So, who can be able to summarize the story for us?

Who can be able to tell us what the story is about? Hands up (pointing at the other learner) yes X. (name of the learner) Can you try X? (name of the

(63)learner)

Learner: I think that the story is talking about, eh the woman who wants to do the men's job.

(66) Educator: So what happened? X. (name of the learner) There is a woman wanting to do a, a job that is labeled as a job for men. Then what is happening.

X? (name of the learner) Anyone who has, eh anything to say? X. (name of the

(69)learner)

Learner: Ja (Afrikaans=yes) you see, she tried, eh several companies they just turned her down by saying they don't employ women.

(72)Educator: Ja (Afrikaans=yes) So the woman was turned down for several times when she visited companies. Then what did she decide to do to overcome

this problem of being turned down? What did she do? (*Pointing at the other*
(75)*learner*) Yes – some people are not saying anything or you can't read. X
(*name of the learner*)

Learner: She even try to cut her hair to make it short and started wearing men's
(78)clothes.

Educator: Mmhh. What else did she do? What else did she do to make sure that
no one will just thinks she is a woman? What else did she do? She cut her hair
(81)short and wore men's clothes. What else did she do? Hands up, (*pointing at*
the learner) yes X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: She tried herself ...(*inaudible*)

(84)Educator: Of a...

Learner: Of a man Meshack Mlambo.

Educator: Meshack Mlambo was a man therefore she changed herself to be a
(87)man. You see that?

Learners: Yes.

Educator: Was she employed then? Hands up. Was she employed when she
(90)came and she was a man? Was she, was she employed? (*Pointing at the*
other learner) Yes, X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: Yes.

(93) Educator: She was then employed. She was then employed. What can you say about her when she was doing the job as a house builder? Was she doing it properly or there were signs that he was not a man? Was there any sign?

(96) Hands up. Let us not be singing. X (*name of the learner*) now she was employed as a man – what my question is: was he doing the work as perfect, as perfect as man can do that work? What do you say?

(99) Learner: Yes.

Educator: He did that. I don't know whether I gonna say he or she because he is a woman, he is a man. Right, so right therefore. This woman was then

(102) revealed not to be a man – when? Later she was discovered that she was not a real man. When was this taking place or when did it take place? How was she found she was not a man? X (*name of the learner*)

(105) Learner: When she fell down the...

Educator: And she was to be...

Learner: Examined.

(108) Educator: Examined by the doctor. Do you see when the doctor told her to take off her clothes, she protested that she complained. Why did she complain?

Take off you clothes. No! Why? Why do you think she complained? There are (111) people who have said nothing. X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: She knew the truth will come out.

Educator: The truth will come out therefore she wanted to complain and the (114)doctor was strong enough to tell her that he was going to tell her boss and then she was forced to take off the clothes and immediately the truth came out that she was not a but a woman. Then we are told that this company had a (117)problem whether to sack her or to make her remain in the company. Therefore as I have asked the question: was she doing the work perfectly – as you can see from line thirty; the company investigated the case through the (120)labour office and discovered the truth. Now that she is her former self again, she is what she used to be – Wanda was presenting a company with a problem. They are now having a female in the company. So a problem has (123)been created. According to the survey the company's personnel officer said the company was presented now with a problem. "We don't know what to do", he said, "we don't want to lose a good worker." To see a good worker, a (126)good worker as a, a builder – as a house builder. "We don't want to lose a good worker by handing her over the police for giving false information or whether to strike a blow of a woman's movement and employ the first female (129)scaffolder in the firm. And when she was asked why she made false declare – why did she give the false information in the firm, she said, "I couldn't get a job and therefore I had to give a false information." So some of the work as (132)woman have said before are men for it. So having seen now what this lady did; looking at the types of jobs given on the chalkboard – why do you think to work domestic workers should only be for female? Do you have any reason? Do (135)you agree that domestic workers should be female? Do you agree with

that? Do you agree that domestic workers should be females only? X (*name of the learner*)

(138)Learner: No, I don't agree with that.

Educator: You don't think so?

Learner: Yes, because...

(141)Educator: What is your reason?

Learner: Because if I can make an example with this story, you can see the woman here, eh, make false to get job and she...(*inaudible*)

(144)Educator: Mh, I just want to know from you when we look at a work are we looking at the ability or at the physical built of a man? What do we look for? If a work is being advertised then what are we really looking for? The ability, (147)that is, is a person able to do the work or we want to have a person who is fat or who is big or who is muscular? What do we look? What, eh, are we looking for if we want someone to do a work? Are we looking for his ability or we (150)want to look at a person whether he is male or female? (*Pointing at the other learner*) Ja (Afrikaans=yes) ...(*inaudible*) If we want someone to work for us, are we looking for his physical built or for his ability? X (*name of the learner*) (153)try.

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: How she, how the person will do the work. Is someone able – I think

(156) that is what we should be looking according to the story. You have to ask the person's documents. *(Pointing at the other learner)* How she, how the person will do the work. Is someone able – I think that is what we should be (159) looking according to the story. You have to ask the person's documents. *(Pointing at the other learner)* Yes, X *(name of the learner)*, what do you want to tell us?

(162) Learner: I think we have to look at: is that person deserve.

Educator: Does the person deserve the work?

Learner: In his or her physical.

(165) Educator: Don't look whether she is beautiful or not beautiful.

Learner: No.

Educator: Okay. Right, let me ask the males. Would you like to be a baby sitter (168) – to look after a baby? Would you like to be a baby sitter. I'm definitely asking the males. Would you like to be a baby sitter?

Learner: No.

(171) Educator: Hands up because I want a reason. I just employ you to look after my baby. Would you be happy to take a job? X *(name of the learner)*

Learner: No.

(174) Educator: Why?

Learner: Because the baby use to cry every time each and every time so I won't be able to understand when they cry what is happening.

(177) Educator: Don't be able to understand but you can.

Learner: No. The only problem...

Educator: But you can look after your own new baby born. (*Pointing at the other*

(180)learner) Ja (Afrikaans=yes) would you like to be my baby sitter?

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: You would like to do the job: to look after my baby.

(183) Learner: Yes.

Educator: Because there's no problem

Learner: No problem because I love babies.

(186) Educator: You love babies?

Learner: They are so cute...(*inaudible*)

Educator: Ja (Afrikaans=yes) so when the baby is crying there will be a baby's

(189)bottle you'll feed him so that so what is the problem. When you finish she is

wet; the nappies will be there you change the baby. X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: Mens doesn't have intensive care like womans.

(192) Educator: What?

Learner: Mens doesn't have intensive care like womans.

Educator: No, it does by telling yourself as X (*name of the learner*) has said there (195)is no problem – the baby will be ate – they will be laughing; they will be laughing together. When the baby is wet, he will be checking the baby, checking out the nappies.

(198)Learner: But at the end you will earn.

Educator: You'll earn some money; so there is no need to stay at home if there is a job of a - of sitting with the baby. You see that? So there is no need. So (201)we are able to look after babies X (*name of the learner*) it's not a problem. If I employ to be a baby sitter, don't worry; you'll be getting a lot of money. You won't be working manna, it's just a matter of playing with the baby, that a (204)very nice job. So therefore in many places baby-sitters has been referred to as female's job or women's job, which is really not true. Everyone is able to do a job. It's only that our minds have become stereotyped. What we were told (207)in the past that we won't do it. Therefore what about nursing? Nursing. We have male nurses we have female nurses. Will you be happy girls if your husband is a male nurse?

(210) Learners: No.

Educator: Will you be happy?

Learners: No.

(213) Educator: Girls, your husband is a male nurse; will you be happy? Will you be happy? Tell me, tell me. I want to know let us not say no X. (*name of the learner*) Your husband is a male nurse; are you happy? (*Pointing at the learner*)

(216) Your husband is a male nurse; are you happy? (*Pointing at the learner*)
Yes.

Learner: No, Miss.

(219) Educator: You won't be happy?

Learner: No.

Educator: Why?

(222) Learner: He will help other women?

Educator: Yes.

Learner: No. I can't.

(225) Educator: What's wrong with that? Is there anything wrong?

Learners: No.

Educator: Nothing, he will go... (*inaudible*) he will...? What will he do? X (*name*

(228) *of the learner*)

Learner: He will touch another woman?

Educator: What's wrong with that?

(231) Learner: Whh! I can't!

Educator: He is a male nurse and is his job. ...*(inaudible)* will you be happy?

Learner: ...*(inaudible)*

(234) Educator: You will be happy. Yes, why?

Learner: Because...*(inaudible)*

Educator: He will?

(237) Learner: He will be not shy.

Educator: He will, eh, not be shy.

Learner: ...*(inaudible)*

(240) Educator: That's a good one. Will you like to be a male nurse? Anyone, guys?

Learners: Ja, ja (Afrikaans=yes, yes)

(243) Educator: (*Pointing at the other learner*) Yes X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: Yes, I would like to be a male nurse.

Educator: Why?

(246) Learner: Because I'll be able to communicate with other peoples; help the womens...*(inaudible)*

Educator: Next, (*pointing at the other learner*) yes, any reason?

(249) Learner: Yes, I would like to be in one room with one woman.

Educator: Ah! You are being naughty!

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

(252) Educator: Thank you X. (*name of the learner*) Right, so that is the thing.

Women and men can do the same job. As we can see at first nursing was taken as it, it was the job for women only but male take to (255) understand...(*inaudible*). But I will be helped by male nurse and many female prefer to be helped by a male nurse than female nurse. Is it not so?

They say male nurse are so kind more than the word kind than females.

(258) When you want to give birth you are helped by a male nurse everything

they say is wonderful. (*Pointing at the other learner*) Yes, X (*name of the learner*)

(261) Learner: But Miss, do you know that the science says opposite charges attract each other, like charges repel each other?

Educator: I'm not sure, but when someone is sick do you think they are attracted

(264) to each other? She is sick – someone is sick; someone is in labour pains about to give birth, do you think he will be attracted to that person?

Learner: No.

(267) Educator: Right. So I think most of the jobs can be done by women can

also be done by men in the same way. Let us look at the shoemaker. Is there any lady who likes to be a shoemaker?

(270) Learners: No.

Educator: Why? There is so much money; we are for a shoemaker. Anyone please allowed to come. Ladies would you like to be a shoemaker?

(273) Learners: No.

Educator: Do you have a reason? X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

(276) Educator: There are still more males. Women still need more changes.

(*Pointing at the other learner*) Ja, (Afrikaans=yes) would you like to be a shoemaker X (*name of the learner*)

(279) Learner: No.

Educator: Hawu! (IsiZulu=Wow!) Why boys love to be male nurses, why don't you love to be shoemakers? So, you are going back to say there are jobs that (282) can only be done by a man when we have come to conclude, are nearly about to give a conclusion that anyone can do any job; so can't you be a shoemaker?

(285) Learner: No, I can't because...

Educator: You can't. So I think women are still stereotyped, (*pointing at the other*

learner) X (name of the learner)

(288)Learner: Miss, the thing is we have that belief of that there are some of the jobs that are for mens and some that are for womens. We have a very strong belief.

(291) Educator: Why?

Learner: I don't know.

Educator: What is it that is there because we have seen I can to the hospital and (294)find a male it's fine there is no problem, eh? What is wrong? Why do we have that in mind? There are jobs that, for instance we have seen that house builders, house builder can be men as well as women. So why? (*Pointing at the* (297)other learner) Yes.

Learner: Womens always think that the tough jobs are for mens because they are animals.

(300)Educator: Is it women or is it men with this thing? Is it men or women?

Learner: Both, men.

Educator: Both; who refuses for you to be a house builder; is it a man or (303)women?

Learner: Man, women.

Educator: Man – so in the past we use to look how tough is the job so it was

(306) taken for granted that some of the jobs are tougher than the other. But, really when a person is determined to do that job you find that he will or she will be able to do any of job as we have seen there are woman who are truck drivers.

(309) Is it not true? Some women can drive trucks and also there are taxi drivers – can you see any taxi driver?

Learners: Yes.

(312) Educator: So at first taxi drivers were just a...

Educator & Learners: A man's job.

Educator: Do you see that?

(315) Learners: Yes.

Educator: Therefore, what is, which is the other work that you can do which was for men; like police – policeman as it was policeman. So to be a policeman it

(318) meant that you should be...

Educator & Learners: A man.

Educator: So now do we have ladies who are police?

(321) Learners: Yes.

Educator: I know there are many. So, would you be happy if the next president of South Africa will be a woman?

(324) Learners: No, yes.

Educator: What is the difference now?

Learners: There is the difference.

(327) Educator: What is the difference?

Learners: That topic you are talking about must be raised in the parliament.

Educator: What is there in parliament...*(inaudible)* so will you be happy if the
(330) next president is a woman, X? *(name of the learner)*

Learner: No.

Educator: What?

(333) Learner: Because the law said that the leaders should be the men. The leader of a home is a man the leaders of the world should be a man.

Educator: Not at all.

(336) Learner: Then how can a leader of this world be a woman? How can a woman lead a man? Even in our school how can a woman lead a man? Even in the Bible; no it can't.

(339) Educator: Is there any difference between leading and working? Is there any difference between leading and working?

Learner: Ja (Afrikaans=yes), there is.

(342) Educator: If there is can someone give me.

Learner: ...*(inaudible)* working is just a process.

Educator: Don't we use mind in the two? Don't we use our minds? So what is **(345)**the difference? I can lead as a woman; who told you that? *(Pointing at the other learner)* Yes what do you say, X? *(name of the learner)*

Learner: ...*(inaudible)*

(348) Educator: What do you say about men because most of them are drunkards because I now usually led by woman, what do you say about that? *(Pointing to another learner)* Ja (Afrikaans=yes) X *(name of the learner)*

(351) Learner: Mam, long time ago a house was not built by a man; a woman built a house. A woman knows what is...

Educator: What do you say about Wanda who was able to build a house who **(354)**was able to work as men?

Learner: ...*(inaudible)*

Educator: No, she was employed, and we thinking about what we have read **(357)**here. A woman seeing that she was not given an opportunity changed herself into a man and then she was able to do the job exactly as the man could do the job and she worked properly. So you say women could not build a house **(360)**but this one.

Learner: A man cannot build house; he supplies the money and women know what to do at home. No!

(363)Educator: You are changing statements, you said a woman could not build a houses.

Learner: A man supplies the money, maybe some R3000.00...*(inaudible)*

(366)Educator: You mean all the skyscrapers and high buildings are build by women, X? *(name of the learner)*

Learner: I wasn't comparing.

(369)Educator: No, we are looking at the facts. There are buildings that are high in the sky; you mean they are built by women because men would supply money and women would build the houses?

(372) Learner: ...*(inaudible)*

Educator: Why do you separate building as one thing; a woman can build one type of a house and a woman cannot build a certain type of a building? Why is (375)that? X *(name of the learner)* what is your conclusion as far as sexism is concerned? What can we conclude? We are women and men who can do the same job.

(378)Learner: Yes.

Educator: All we do we all agree?

Learner: Yes.

(381)Educator: X *(name of the learner)* do you agree now?

Learner: Ja (Afrikaans=yes)

Educator: That women can do the same job as men?

(384)Learner: Ja (Afrikaans =yes) they can.

Educator: Is it? So definitely we are happy that the men now can see that we are just equal, we also have the minds like themselves do; not in the past where (387)people are taken as if we cannot do anything; we must sit at home looking after the babies. So some men can, are able to look after babies at home. Do we all agree?

(390)Learners: Yes.

Educator: Okay, so I just have some words I know you know them but: sex – a state of being male or female. Sexist – someone who strongly believes that (393)one gender is better than the other one; one who would believe that man is better than woman or women are better we refer to that person as a sexist. Then sexism would be a process where one person believes that the members of (396)one sex are less intelligent. As you have been saying that women cannot be president of so- South Africa you are saying men are more intelligent than women, which is really not true. So don't be sexism. Scaffolding – is just a (399)structure which is meant to help someone where the building is high up to climb up, but when you slip everything will be bad. To undone is to unfasten – to find out the truth. For example, if I fasten my buttons you will see what I'm (402)wearing inside. Coined – to make someone believe something that is false.

I have questions please don't worry I'll ask your few minutes. Right. Choose the best answer for each question: (a) What do you think each in line climb refers (405)to? (A) climbing. (B) getting a job. (C) climbing scaffolding. (D) getting a job as secretary. Line number nine, line number nine. What do you think each refers to? (*Pointing to one learner*) Yes A, B, C.

(408) Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: B – refers to getting a job. Number two: What does the phrase “it’s a man’s world”, “it’s a man’s world” imply? A, B, C, D. A – serious to get a, a (411)job as a woman than as a man. Men find it easier to get jobs than women. The building industry employs only men. A, B, C, D. (*Pointing at the other learner*) Yes, A, B, C, D.

(414) Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: Mh. Let us not take that one. It’s D – the building industry employs only men. That’s why ‘men’ was put in brackets to emphasize that they want (417)men – to emphasize that they want men. Number three: What does the phrasal verb ‘turned her down’ in line twelve mean? A – they wouldn’t employ her. They refuse to listen. They threatened to report her. They put her on a (420)waiting list. A, B, C, D. (*Pointing to another learner*) Yes.

Learner: A.

Educator: A – they wouldn’t employ her. Why did Wanda fall off the scaffolding: (423)A, B, C, D. It was slippery. She slipped. She couldn’t climb very well. The

scaffolding was loose.

Learners: D.

(426)Educator: It would be D. What is she going to do about the case. Employ –
A. Employ what is a very good worker. Sack her because the other men object
working with her. Hand her over to the police for giving false information.

(429)They do not know. A, B, C, D.

Learners: D.

Educator: D: They do not know. Just for one minute, just for one minute. I'll be
(432)very happy if you can look at the title of the story 'Naked truth about the new
worker'. Is the topic of the story fit well in the story? I hear 'yes' , let us support
our yes. Naked truth about the new worker. Is the title of the story fitting well
(435)with the story we have read? Just a minute. What is your reason?

Learners: ...(inaudible)

Educator: Let us find out, when was a truth – when was the truth revealed then.
(438)When was the truth revealed, that this was not a man? When was the truth
revealed that this was not a, a man? This was a woman. When was the truth
revealed? (*Pointing at the other learner*) Yes, X (*name of the learner*)

(441)Learner: When she was told to undress.

Educator: So, when she was told to undress. Undress – take off your clothes
you become a woman. So here the naked is about the woman. Don't you see

(444)that? So, if the man had not taken off her clothes, do you think the truth would have come out? So, because she was taking all the clothes that is when the truth was revealed.

(447)Learner: Do you mean that what gave the truth is about the naked woman is just the sex organ?

Educator: Let us look at the paragraph.

(496) Learner: Eh?

Educator: Let us read: Mr. Lamu of Sambu scaffolding and was...(*inaudible*). There a doctor demanded the he take off. Do you see that?

(499) Learner: Ja (Afrikaans=yes)

Educator: X (*name of the learner*), he take off his clothes for a proper examination. Mr. Lamu at first protested. He complained. He didn't want to take (502)off his clothes because the truth would have been come out, so but had to comply when the doctor threatened to make a report to her boss. If you don't want to take off you clothes I will tell your boss. So at last the naked truth was (505)out when the clothes were taken off. Okay, thank you. Let's call it a day.

School D. English Lesson Transcript

Setting: The learners are seated in rows and the educator explains the lesson in front of the class. A female educator requests six volunteer learner to come and sit in front of the class. Six learners volunteer and sit in a horseshoe format in front of the class and are given topics by the educator from which to generate oral discussions. The educator then moves and sits at the front desk in one of the rows as the six learners proceed with their discussions. The researcher concentrates the video camera on the six learners seated in front of the class, but otherwise moves about the class recording the whole lesson.

Educator: This is Mr. X (*Researcher*) we talked about – is coming from Y (*name of the school*). He is just here for a visit just to see how we improve during the (3) English period because he is an English teacher. So, he will be as you can see, video-rising every process. So I pleading you please make sure that your picture shows the true you. It must show the true you...(*inaudible*). I need (6)learners who are very cooperative. There are volunteer learners who are going to volunteer as you are going to see them. May we have these six learners who will discuss those two topics. Please quickly. (*Referring to one learner*) (9)Because your voice is too low please move over there so that you are nearer to the camera. We are going to discuss problems related to discipline in education centers. Topic number two: We are looking at the causes and (12)solutions. Whenever we are conducting discussions we always explore the points. We don't just say the point and keep quiet. We explore the point.

Learner (1): First I would like to...(inaudible). As you all know here at (15)school...(inaudible), eh, let's hear what X (name of the learner) has to say.

Learner (2): According to my opinion I think that ...(inaudible)

Learner (3): The lack of discipline in education centers is one of the problems we (18)have in our school.

Educator: Speak out! Speak out!

Learner (3): Is one of the problems in our schools.

(21)Learner (4): According to my opinion poverty is one of the causes of discipline because if you are hungry you can't hear the teacher properly what he or she said. So. I can say...(inaudible). Let us hear what X (name of the (24)learner) has to say.

Learner (5): Okay. I think the other problem that cause discipline in our school is improper wearing of school uniform. I think while a child or a learner isn't (27)wearing a school uniform, may be is wearing her fashion shirt he will go up and down in school wanted to be seen what is he wearing so that make him undisciplined at school. Let us hear what X (name of the learner) is going to say.

(30) Learner (6): One of the problems is that...(inaudible). Thank you. Let us hear what X (name of the learner) is going to say.

Learner (1): Just to add on the topic...(inaudible). Let's take dagga. People who (33)smoke dagga do not act normally. Even in class they act like hooligans

'cause something is taking place in those people's veins. You see, so it's like that especially us as teenagers, you see. Thank you.

(36)Educator: We haven't heard of the solutions to the problems. Give us solutions. Drug problems; what is the solution? Not wearing school uniform, carrying of the weapons, what is the solution?

(39)Learner (6): ...(*inaudible*). Let's hear what X (*name of the learner*) has to say.

Learner (5): Okay, I think according to the wearing of school uniform I think (42)the teachers and principal must make a, a school uniform compulsory...(*inaudible*).

Learner (2): ...(*inaudible*).

(45) Learner (4): I can say that the problem of poverty at school. The solution will be: the teachers should pick up some information about the, the real school who have got problems in classrooms and think about their background, you see, so (48)that they can see what make them to boycott classes. Everything like that, you see, may be it is poverty, may be there could be some grant that would help those in class to be healthy.

(51)Educator: For the entire school?

Learner (3): I think our teachers must report. Report to the principal for those who don't wear school uniform; the principal must give punishment.

(54)Educator: What punishment? Okay.

Learner (5): I think to add emh, teachers and parents must cooperate and teachers I think they must tell the parents like in meetings that what problems are (57)they facing with their children. Thank you.

Learner (1): To those who are addicted may be to drugs – I think the solution to that is that they have to be taken to AA who give advices to people to people who (60)are addicted to something. That all.

Educator: That's all, okay. Let us move on now to the next topic about teenage pregnancy. I said to you we have a problem of high rate of pregnancy at school, (63)so we are looking at the causes because there might be causes that you know, that we as teachers might not know, and what might be the solutions to those problems. We just look at the causes first.

(66)Learner (1): The causes may be...

Educator: One of the causes.

Learner (1): One of the causes might be: some girls who are involved with (69)any boyfriend who are working may have pressure to have a similar life with that boyfriend. Let's hear what X (*name of the learner*) has to say.

Learner (2): ...(inaudible) Let hear what X (*name of the learner*) has to say.

(72)Learner (3): Eh, I think that another problem of pregnancy at school is poverty. When may be a girl does not have all the things that he needs in her life

and if may be she can decide to fall in love may be with a rich man or may be
(75)with a man that is working so that she can get what she needs and that's
where she will get pregnant.

Learner (4): ...(*inaudible*).

(78) Learner (5): The other problem is rights...(*inaudible*). Let's hear what X
(*name of the learner*)

Learner (6): I think that...(*inaudible*).

(81) Learner (2): ...(*inaudible*).

Educator: ...(*inaudible*).

Learner (3): I think may be the teenagers must be too much advised about their
(84)lives and what they must do in their lives. Let's hear what X (*name of the*
learner) has to say.

Learner (5): I think there must be some parties especially for teenagers,
(87)workshops and social workers to advice them on what is meant by parents
and something like that. ...(*inaudible*) has to say.

Learner (1): And me too in this problem I think may be they could get some or
(90)educated so they can get full knowledge when they fall in love.

Learner (2): ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: Do you think there are some bad results – bad impacts?

(93) Learners: Yes.

Educator: What are they?

Learner (1): 'Cause, 'cause as we are teenagers they can't take care of the (96) things of the young ones. They don't have parental care in life... (*inaudible*).

Educator: What are the negative impacts?

Learner (5): I can say that some are dying because they are trying to do (99) abortions, then she do abortion... (*inaudible*)

Learner (3): Sometimes they end up not knowing what to do in future.

Educator: Negative impact on the part of... (*inaudible*). Do you want to say (102) something?

Learner (2): I think, eh, it can create... (*inaudible*) doing bad things may be steal some money so that he can support his baby.

(105) Learner (6): I think they not be pregnant if they are not prepared financially, emotionally. Even married couples are encouraged that they mustn't be pregnant if they are not ready, because having a child is such a big (108) responsibility.

Educator: Mh. TV and Radio in five minutes, discuss why you say you like them, why you say you don't like them.

(111) Learner (1): There are some TV programme and Radio programme that

are suitable for older people like news...*(inaudible)*.

Learner (2): TV programmes like religious are essential in people's lives because
(114)they encourage people to know how to pray and so believe in him.

Learner (3): I want to say that there TV programmes that are good for us and
there are those that are bad. If I can talk about 'Yizo Yizo'. Yizo Yizo are not
(117)good to us as a youth because...*(inaudible)*.

The bell rings and the lesson ends.

School E. English Lesson Transcript

Setting: A female educator stands in front of the class facing the learners. Learners are seated, each learner on a chair and a desk for each. The educator explains the lesson after which learners disperse into separate groups. They carry out their work in groups and they choose one learner as a group secretary who would also make a group presentation. The researcher moves about the class video-recording the entire lesson.

Educator: Sit down. Good day. Okay. Never mind Mr. X (*Researcher*) from our neighboring school. It's just a normal lesson. Okay, as I have said go and read (3) the story called: Funeral Earth. Okay, the story is called: Funeral Earth by H. Bosman. Open on page eighteen. All right. Okay, as you sit in groups, so. In short, this story is between the Boers and the Mtosa tribe. So the Boers were (6) trying to enlighten the Mtosa tribe. They were trying to civilize the Mtosa tribe. So, as we sit according to the groups, eh, group one; okay – another thing: Charles Bosman use, eh a sense of humour, eh, satire as well as irony in this (9) story. So as you sit in groups, so, group one will check that – they will talk about the irony in this story. So, they will deal with page eighteen, it means group one will read page eighteen, thereafter group one will talk about irony; then (12) group two will talk about sense of humour in page nineteen; then group three for X (*name of the learner*) and their members will talk about satire and more used in the story from page twenty to twenty-one. So we are going to read (15) those two pages thereafter you'll tell us something about satire. Then the last group for X (*name of the learner*) will discuss the symbolic, which is used by

the author in this story. I said the author use what, the satire, the irony, eh the, (18)as well as the symbolic, symbolic or symbolism where you get what, the title 'Funeral Earth'; so it symbolizes something. So the last group will talk about that. So I will give you ten minute – each group ten minute, to check each page. So (21)I'm already giving you the task to do. Group one give the, the irony on page nineteen. Then group two page twenty to twenty-one also irony, page twenty to twenty-one. Group three.

(24)Learners: Page eighteen?

Educator: There's irony then group two, irony and sense of humour page nineteen. Group two. Oh! I'm sorry! Page nineteen.

(27)Learners: Page eighteen.

Educator: Page eighteen and nineteen, yes. Then group three is page twenty to twenty-one. Then the last group four is symbolic page twenty-two. So, it's (30)quarter to twelve now, by – let me give you fifteen minutes to do that, then I'll give you five minutes for presentation, so just do that. Discuss all your questions. If you encounter any problems, just raise up you're your hand. (33)(*Discussions continue in groups*). Five minutes left. (*Discussions continue*). Two minutes left. (*Discussions continue*). Okay, time is up. Time up. So this is the turn of group one. Come forward and tell us about irony that is in this (36)story on page eighteen.

Learner (Group 1): Good morning everyone.

Learners: Good morning.

(39) Learner (Group 1): I am X (*name of the learner*) representing group one. In the veld there, there were two commandos: the one were Boers and the other was Mtosa tribe. Mtosas were Black people and they lived in the bush in the (42)veld. There it is come the Boers; they come to Mtosas tribe with the aim to civilize the Mtosas. They come there and they tell them that they want to civilize them, but the Mtosas didn't take any, any interest of what they are saying that (45)they want to, to civilize them. What the Boers did – they, they, they told them and they fire up their huts. In a way that they would want the Mtosas to see that want them to change the way they live, but the Mtosas didn't know any (48)appreciation to that. And when we go on we get an irony where, where the Veldkornet said, say that I can sense the, I can sense the kaffirs all around us. Then, eh, Veldkornet said that, they said the Mtosas, they; the Mtosas were (51)not that scared but he said that, he said – in that way I think the Boers were discriminating the Mtosas because every time you see that when the Boers are talking they use to put the Mtosas on a, on a harder side of the – and when (54)we go on we see, we get Fannie Louw who was known as a man who, who use to create jokes. Fannie Louw it was his first to go in the commando, and we find that he try; he tried by all means to show how, how clever he is when he (57)tried to sniff out in the way that he wants to make a joke that he smell – he smell a whole war of assegais with broad blades and short handles. I think Fannie Louw was lying, but he wants to prove a point that he will always known (60)as a person who use to create jokes. But Veldkornet disagree with him

(84)out, out of here as quick as hell men. In that, in that paragraph we get that they afraid to be in the bush because they afraid of Mtosas they wanted to be in scattered areas where there are no trees in order to see the Mtosas coming (87)long from the way. But at the same time we get that because they proud of themselves they didn't want to stay in the bush as the Mtosas in. Thank you.

Educator: Group three.

(90)Learner (Group 3): I am X (*name of the learner*) from group three. Mh, on page nineteen we get that when the Boers saw Mtosas from a long way they were very afraid and they took out their guns and show them to Mtosas. And (93)Mtosas, which was coming by the women, who were unarmed and they were carrying loads in their heads: lion and zebra skins, bags, hides, mats; thereafter came Ndambe: Sitjefu counselor and told that, that the White men were kings (96)among them and elephants among them. Eh, Ndambe emphasize that and talk about the soil, how important in their lives because they sow their food in the soil, and they use soil in their graveyards. And after that, eh, Ndambe (99)emphasize that he do not wish to continue fighting with the Boers. Mh. After that Mtosa tribe took the soil and press it together between his fingers to show the importance of the soil. Thank you.

(102)Educator: Okay, last group.

Learner (Group 4): I am X (*name of the learner*) I represent group four. Eh. I am talking about symbolic that we find in the story. Okay, earth symbolize, the (105)symbol of earth ...(*inaudible*) soil symbolize.

Educator: Okay, thank you group four. All right. I gave each group five minutes to present what they have read. All right, mh, but the last group, I am not happy. (108) May be to ask you as a group, may be the one who represents you doesn't, mh, give us the clear message. My question is the clear point; what is the symbol of earth or of soil in the story? It symbolizes what, may be? I said talk (111) about symbolic figure in, in the last page. Group four – could you elaborate about the symbol of soil. No answer? Okay, anyone. (*Pointing at the other learner*) Yes.

(114) Learner: It symbolizes ...(*inaudible*).

Educator: Nature of life. How? Yes you are right, but how?

Learner: ...(*inaudible*) some plants.

(117) Educator: Yes it symbolizes; soil symbolizes nature of, of life. You said nature of life or source of life?

Learner: Nature.

(120) Educator: Okay. Nature of life or source of life – yes, how?

Learner: Growing plants.

Educator: Okay, grow plants in the soil and what else? (*Pointing at one learner*)

(123) Yes X (*name of the learner*)

Learner: ...(*inaudible*).

Educator: Speak aloud, for the benefit of the class.

(126) Learner: For reaping.

Educator: For reaping. Yes for harvesting purposes, okay, harvest, (*referring to one learner*) anything X? (*name of the learner*).

(129) Learner: We can also drop soil in the grave.

Educator: What?

Learner: Also drop soil in the grave.

(132) Educator: Okay, drop soil in the grave. What else? What else? It's all? All right, thank you for your presentation. You present well, seemingly you understand you, your story. Okay, to, to sum up on top of your presentation, eh, (135)like group one they mentioned that, eh, Boers came to civilize or to enlighten what; the Mtosas. So, they just enlighten their houses too as the sign to show that they enlighten the Mtosas. So, according to my understanding that (138)is not correct or everyone sees. How can you say you are enlightening somebody when you are lighting up his house or her house? Is it good to do that?

(141)Learners: No.

Educator: No. Yes, so as group one mentioned I think, eh, the Boers get that superior position and give, give the Mtosas the inferior position. So they (144)think that they were superior than Mtosas. (*Pointing at the learner*) Yes X

(name of the learner).

Learner: Sorry mam. What exactly did Boer did on the Mtosa's huts? What
(147) exactly Boers did on Mtosa's huts?

Educator: They light up their houses.

Learner: They light up?

(150) Educator: Yes, that's the sign that they enlighten them. They make them to be civilized. That is why I am asking you: is it a right thing?

Learner: Okay, mam, may be they enlighten their hut.

(153) Educator: Yes.

Learner: How may be can you say?

Educator: They use fire, they fired.

(156) Learner: They fired?

Educator: Yes.

Learner: I mentioned that they fired their house, I didn't say that thing mam.

(159) Educator: No X *(name of the learner)* I don't disagree with you.

Learner: Mam are you?

Educator: You didn't get my point.

(162) Learner: No, what exactly are saying because I'm not clear now?

Educator: Okay, then I said: talk about the irony used by the author in this passage on page eighteen.

(165) Learner: Yes.

Educator: Yes, on your presentation you hinted out, if I am not mistaken. Am I lying class?

(168) Learners: No.

Educator: He said that the Boers enlighten their houses, because eh, Boers feel that they were superior than the Mtosas. So I agree with you. That's why I (171) asked that is it a right thing that done by the Boers – to fire their houses? No, it was not good. You see, remember there was a war between the Mtosas and-

(174) Learners: Mtosas.

Educator: So, according to my understanding of the book or of the story as I have said that the Boers received that superior position while the Mtosas (177) received what – the inferior position. So according to my understanding that was not right for the Boers to light or to fire the homes of the Mtosas. Is that clear?

(180) Learner: Yes.

Educator: Yes, let's come to group two. I said group two talk about sense of

humour on page eighteen. Yes, eh, page nineteen. So the second paragraph (183)says, eh: Let us get out of here as quick as hell men, he said speaking very distinctively. Perhaps the Mtosas are hiding the flat land where there are no trees and this long tumble green grass in them. So, okay as group two said that, (186)eh, Boers had that pride or that superior position, so according to group two or understanding of the story; although the Boer, the Boers obtained the poor position but they feel scared of Mtosas. Why? Because they decided to be on (189)turf land rather than in the bush, we hear that the Mtosas were in the bush. Why is the Boers have that pride or not feel scared of the Mtosas come inside of the bush and get the Mtosas, you see? And the last line: we should not (192)hinder ourselves by going to sleep in the thick bush; we told one another. It was watery and veld commando and mash and turf land good enough for us in the sand. Yes, so I supported group two that the author there use what – (195)the sense of humour, eh, because the Boers were scared of, of Mtosas. That is the sign that they were scared of the Mtosas, because if they didn't scared of the Mtosas, they avail themselves to the Mtosas, you see.

(198) Learners: Yes.

Educator: Yes. Then group three: they talked about satire, but group three, you didn't mention the gifts that brought by-

(201) Learners: We mentioned.

Educator: You mentioned?

Learners: Yes.

(204) Educator: Okay, so like the beast was a sign of what? Sign of what?

Learners: Of peace.

Educator: Okay, yes it was a sign of peace, yes. So, according to my **(207)** understanding of the book or of the story; the Mtosas were clever than the-

Learners: Boers.

Educator: The Boers. Because it was time for sowing, they are going to sow in **(210)** their fields. Is that clear?

Learners: Yes.

Educator: So, according to the Mtosas it was better for them to, to go and reap **(213)** rather continue with, with the war. Is that clear?

Learners: Yes.

Educator: So at the beginning of, of, of this story, the Boers were trying to civilize **(216)** the Mtosas but all of a sudden, we get that the Mtosas was against that and this is the sign that the Mtosas were clever than the-

Learners & Educator: The Boers.

(219) Educator: Yes, we heard that Mtosas were also farmers – is that clear?

Learners: Yes.

Educator: So this is the sign that they were farmers because it was great for
(222)them to go and sow or reap their, their plants – is that clear?

Learners: Yes.

Educator: Because they are farmers. Then the last group: they discuss about the
(225)symbolic, which is used by the author. Yes, as the title say 'Funeral Earth'
so it means soil. They said – the last group – soil was very important thing in, in
the Mtosas; yes and in the Boers may be. Their aim was there to invade what -
(228)to invade the land, the land of the Mtosas; to take the land of the Mtosas.
So then what was important it was the, the battle or the war between the Boers
and the Mtosas. Remember that the Boers had guns and the Mtosas uses what?

(231)Learners: Sticks.

Educator: Assegais.

Learners: Assegais.

(234)Educator: So, according to the Boers, I think they thought that they would
defeat the Mtosas.

Learners: Mtosas.

(237)Educator: So, I'm now coming to the point of the soil. So, according to, to,
to the Mtosas, eh, the soil was very important. Why? Because it serves or it
served many purposes, so they, they plant, they plant, they plant in the soil
(240)then according to the Boers they realize the importance of soil during the

funeral of Fannie Louw. Oom Lourens noticed that during the funeral of Fannie Louw how important soil was, because they get the lesson from Mtosas that (243) they get what – plant in the soil, so now they buried, they buried who – Fannie Louw in the soil. So I think that is the significance of the story. We get the significance of the story at the end. When we get the importance of soil. So (246) soil serves as the source of life and it is the place where we use to bury our bodies in the soil. Are there any questions? Any questions? (*Pointing at the learner*) Yes X (*name of the learner*).

(249) Learner: ...(*inaudible*) I hear that there is somebody who is – who is, who between...(*inaudible*)

Educator: Okay, the last paragraph on page nineteen: It can't be worse (252) than some of the laws that the Volksraad is already passing out; Combrink said in a rough way – why he was not himself appointed commander because he had voted against the President. It means it was Combrink who voted (255) against the President. Any questions? (*Pointing at the learner*) Yes X (*name of the learner*).

Learner: Mam, I want to know what was the cause that made Fannie Louw to (258) die?

Educator: Okay, remember there was a battle between the Mtosas and Boers so the Mtosas do stop and won that battle, they won by giving the Boers that (261) presents. Is that clear? So afterwards there was the Anglo-Boer war: between the English-speaking people and the Boers. I think Fannie Louw died in

that war. The war between the Whites, which is the English-speaking (264)people and the Boers. So, the Boers continue with the war although the Mtosas stopped the war. So continue with the war between Boers and the White people.

(267) Learner: So the Boers came and get fight every time, because the Mtosas stopped fight and they continued the war with another countries.

Educator: So seemingly although I will not agree but the action shows that if I do (270)this it means that Boers trusted themselves. They took, eh brave people – so they think they will defeat the what – the Whites or the English-speaking people. So, and another thing, may be, which I didn't mention, so this story (273)happen during the apartheid era. So that is why may be you get the words like 'kaffir', which are discriminating the Blacks people.

Learner: So mam, I eh, I think, eh I know that you will agree with me when I say (276)the reason why Fannie Louw is that Fannie Louw was the first time to go in the commando when they fought against the Mtosas but the war didn't take place but when he go to another war that is when he died because he don't know (279)how to go about having war.

Educator: You mean he had no tactics?

Learner: Yes.

(282)Educator: Of how to handle war?

Learner: Of how to handle a gun.

Educator: But he was in commando, he was one of the soldiers.

(285) Learner: But he mention that it was his first time to go to, to commando.

Educator: Yes, X (*name of the learner*) I get your point, yes you may go to the war for the first time; you can survive or escape – it is luck. May be it was (288) his bad luck, not because he had no skill, or tactics to go to war. (*Pointing to the other learner*) Yes.

Learner: ...(*inaudible*).

(291) Educator: Okay, okay, okay. All right as in the beginning of the story is the one who plays jokes. Any question? (*Pointing at the learner*) Yes.

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

(294) Educator: What is the question? What is the question? (*Pointing at the same learner*) Yes.

Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

(297) Educator: Although I don't have the correct answer, but because it is mentioned it is the Boers from, from Transvaal – I think they were neighbors but they were Boers all of them, but coming from Transvaal.

(300) Learner: ...(*inaudible*)

Educator: Yes, I think so because they want the Boers that fight against the

Mtosas. It is there on page nineteen.

(303) Learner: Let me show you.

Educator: Oh, yes: when we met from that scrabble bush we discovered our friend Veldkornet had been right as always for another group of Transvaal **(306)**burghers had hit on the same strategy. Yes, it means there were other group, but they came from Transvaal; all were burghers.

Learner: It means there was some other war taking place.

(309)Educator: In the bush, it was time for war, war was continuing there.

Learner: Do you agree with me when I say, eh there are many wars taking place?

(312)Educator: Yes, that what I want to say that because after the Mtosas stopped the war between them and the Boers so the Boers continuing with the war with, with the Anglo – the English-speaking people and the Boers, so it **(315)**was time for war, not the Boers alone, you see.

Learner: The Boers against the Mtosas and the English-speaking people.

Educator: And the other group – the English, so are there any questions?

(318)*(Pointing to one learner)* Yes.

Learner: The war between, eh the White people and the Boers were, eh in England?

(321)Educator: No, I think it is in England. It is mentioned as it is Anglo-Boer war, Anglo means, it means the English speaking people. It was between the Boers and the White-speaking people – England – English-speaking people.

(324)You mean it's taking place in the place of the Mtosas?

Learner: ...(*inaudible*) because the Boers were with the Mtosas but now they are talking about England, so I don't know how come you – because they were in (327)Mtosas area.

Educator: Yes, I think the battle was in England.

Learner: How come that they were in Mtosas and now they turn to England, how (330)come?

Educator: Okay, thank you, thank you, the period is over. I will answer that question, I will go back and check; but what I know is that the battle was between (333)the English-speaking people and the Boers.

Learner: I agree with that ...(*inaudible*) particular time

Educator: So, there were many wars in that time, so, thank you. See you.

DESCRIPTION OF SCHOOLS

SCHOOL 'A'

This school is situated at Mlalazi Reserve, which is about 10 km from Eshowe. It was built by the community and has a population of 1200 learners, 37 teachers, one clerk and one security guard. The school caters for Grade 8 to Grade 12 with a teacher-pupil ratio of 1: 50 per class. The school has electricity, a telephone, one computer for administration and one duplicating machine. There are three streams offered at school, which are science, commerce and humanities. The school still uses pit latrines for sanitation. The predominant language is IsiZulu. There are no audio-visual materials in the school except for newspapers offered to Grade 12 learners by the Department of Education.

SCHOOL 'B'

The school is situated at Ndlangubo Reserve, which is 21 km from Empangeni on the old Eshowe Road. The school was built by the community and caters for Grade 8 to 12 learners. The enrolment of the school stands at 1167 learners, 37 teachers, one caretaker, one cleaner and one night watchman. The school has electricity a fax machine and a telephone. There is one computer for administration, one photocopying machine and one duplicating machine. The school offers three streams: science, commerce and humanities. IsiZulu is the predominant language.

The teacher-pupil ratio per class is 1: 60, though some classes have a ratio of up to 1:80. There is no library in the school premises and the once operational science laboratory is in a state of disrepair. Audio-visual materials are non-existent, albeit newspapers offered by the Department of Education as part of Learner Support Material for Grade 12. Though the administration block has water-flushed toilets, learners still use pit latrines for sanitation. In addition to water tanks that store storm water, the school has a water tap for running water.

SCHOOL 'C'

This school is situated at Nomyaca Reserve, which is 35 km from Empangeni. The community, to cater for Grade 8 to 12 learners built the school. The enrolment is around 700 learners, close to 20 teachers and one security guard. The predominant language is IsiZulu. There are three streams offered at school: science, commerce and humanities. The average teacher- learner ratio per class is 1:40. The school has electricity, a telephone, one computer for administration and one photocopying machine. There is no library within the school premises. Audio-visual materials are not available in the school, except for print media (newspapers) offered to Grade 12 learners by the Department of Education. The school still uses pit latrines for sanitation and stores storm water in water tanks.

SCHOOL 'D'

The school is situated at 45 km from Empangeni on the old Eshowe Road. The school is the oldest in the area and was built by the community. It has an enrolment of 600 learners, 20 teachers, one clerk and one security guard. The teacher-pupil ratio per class is 1: 35. The school does not have a library and audio-visual materials consist of print media in the form of newspapers offered by the Department of Education to Grade 12 learners. There are three streams offered at school, namely: science, commerce and humanities. The school has electricity, a telephone; fax machine, one computer for administration and one duplicating machine. The school caters for Grade 8 to 12 learners. The predominant language is IsiZulu. Moreover, pit latrines are still used for sanitation.

SCHOOL 'E'

The school is situated at Ofasimba Reserve, which is about 28 km from Empangeni. The school is a Technical High School offering subjects on technical stream, science stream and commerce stream. It has an enrolment of 600 learners, 18 teachers and one night watchman. The school caters for Grade 8 to 12 learners at the teacher-pupil ratio of 1: 30 per class. The school has electricity, one telephone, one duplicating machine and a fax machine. The school had computers for learners but were all stolen – only one is available for administration purposes. Pit latrines are still used for sanitation and water tanks

are utilized for storm water storage. The school does not have a library and audio-visual materials consist of newspapers offered to Grade 12 by the Department of Education. The predominant language is IsiZulu.