

Investigating the English Vocabulary Needs, Exposure, and Knowledge of IsiXhosa Speaking Learners for Transition from Learning to Read in the Foundation Phase to Reading to Learn in the Intermediate Phase: A Case Study.

By

Jabulani Sibanda

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Department of Education,  
Rhodes University,  
Grahamstown

Supervisor

Professor Jean Baxen-Rhodes University, Department of Education

April 2014

## **Declaration**

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is, to the best of my knowledge, original. This thesis has not been previously submitted, either in part or in its entirety, for the award of any other degree at any other university.

Signature.....

Date: .....

## **Abstract**

The nature of learners' transition from Grade 3 to Grade 4 has serious and far reaching ramifications for their educational success in the subsequent grades. This is true of the South African education system, as it is for several other education contexts. The challenge that complicates the transition is largely a lexical one. It is with that understanding that the present study aimed to do three things namely: to determine the vocabulary needs of Grade 3 learners for transitioning to Grade 4; to establish the extent to which Grade 3 isiXhosa speaking learners are exposed to, and prepared for, the acquisition of that requisite vocabulary; and to establish the extent of Grade 4 learners' knowledge of that vocabulary at the beginning of the year.

The vocabulary needs of Grade 3 learners for the transition to Grade 4 were determined from the Grade 4 subject textbook corpus. Word frequency was the criterion used to determine the usefulness and critical importance of a word for the transition. The AntConc concordance software program was used to generate word frequencies. Words with high frequency across the different subject areas, which were confirmed as high frequent in four other known word lists, were considered as constituting the vocabulary needs of learners at the verge of this significant transition.

The extent of learners' preparedness for transitioning to Grade 4 in terms of their vocabulary exposure and vocabulary instruction was determined through teacher interviews, classroom observations, analysis of teacher classroom talk, analysis of the exposure and recycling of high frequent vocabulary in Grade 3 reading materials and classroom print. From these diverse sources, findings point to a paucity in both the exposure and recycling of the requisite vocabulary in these sources of classroom language input. Classroom observations and teacher interviews attest to lack of deliberate vocabulary instruction in the Grade 3 English First Additional Language lessons. The only extensive coverage of the requisite vocabulary was in the Grade 3 reading materials which included Big books, Readers and Workbooks.

The Grade 4 learners' knowledge of the 60 high frequency words was tested through nine vocabulary tests, three of which tested their knowledge of word recognition, three tested passive word knowledge and the remaining three tested learners' active word knowledge. All the Grade 4 learners in the ten participating schools (297) were tested. Performance in the tests indicated that Grade 4 learners' knowledge of words requisite for reading to learn was

low. That observation was consistent with an analysis of learners' performance per school, per district, per word, per test and per word bands. Tests of word recognition were done better than those of passive word knowledge and active word knowledge. Particularly problematic was test 4 which tested learners' knowledge of definition of words.

## **Dedication**

*To my wife and friend Lucy, my son Kudzai Carlos, my daughter Mutsawashe Michelle and to my mother Violet and all those who inspired me in many ways than I can remember*

## **Acknowledgements**

I gratefully acknowledge my supervisor, Professor Jean Baxen and my co-supervisor, Sarah Murray for their insights, support, guidance, mentorship, intellectual input and the wonderful working relationship that I have enjoyed from the conception of this study to its consummation. Their unswerving patience, assistance and guidance was more than I could ever ask or hope for. I am indebted to them for this product I have the privilege to call my own.

Funding for this study was provided by the European Union through the Department of Higher Education within the Cape Consortium Foundation Phase Research Program. Without their generous financial support, neither the project nor my studies in South Africa would have been possible.

I would also like to acknowledge the Cape Consortium FP Research Program for negotiating access into the schools at the Provincial, District and school levels, and the consortium team for providing a collaborative space in which I could develop my study.

I am very grateful to Professor Radloff who handled the statistical component of the study from the design of the data capturing template to the analysis of the data. My many unreserved thanks go to her for the sterling work that only an academic of her calibre could have done.

My appreciation also goes to Sally Hunt in the Department of Linguistics (Rhodes University) for coming to my rescue when the word frequency count software I was using failed me. Thanks for introducing me to the AntConc software program and patiently taking your time to take me through the amazing things that it can do.

To Jonathan Jackson who edited the thesis for me, I thank you for the wonderful work done at short notice. Thanks for providing your services at the eleventh hour at great inconvenience to you.

I also acknowledge the contribution of Anna, Gladys, Thobeka who were my research assistants in the field and Akhona who did all the administrative work to ensure our work in the field ran smoothly. To the data capturers who transcribed my data and entered volumes of

test results; Phila, Phinda, Chengetai, Vuvu, Samu; I thank you. To Yvain, despite coming a little late to the project in which this study was conducted, the contribution you made to the the success of this study was as valuable as that you made to the project in general.

I also recognise the immense contribution of Albert and Wilbert, very dear friends, who assisted me with the design of the test templates and helped me make sense of the statistical data when I was overwhelmed.

To my colleagues; Lise, Erica, Saka, Nolulamo, Noluthando, Linda, Pelokazi, Xoli, San and Anna, you made the journey a less lonely one and your contribution is implicit in all this piece of work I humbly call my own. Rob you were great as part of the team using your vast experience to guide our writing.

Lucy, Kudzai, Mutsawashe, my family, my support base, thank you for the constant and consistent love and support. You were a great inspiration as was the wider family.

## Contents

Declaration.....	i
Abstract.....	ii
Dedication.....	iv
Acknowledgements.....	v
CHAPTER 1 NATURE OF THE STUDY .....	1
1.1 Introduction .....	1
1.2 Grade 3 to 4 Linguistic Transitional Challenges.....	2
1.2.1 The Notion of ‘Transition’ .....	2
1.2.2 Grade 3 to 4 Literacy Transitional Challenges as a Global Phenomenon .....	2
1.2.3 Grade 3 to 4 Literacy Transitional Challenge in Second Language Contexts .....	4
1.2.4 Grade 3 to 4 Literacy Transitional Challenges in Biliterate Contexts .....	6
1.2.5 Grade 3 to 4 Literacy Transitional Challenges in African Languages Contexts .....	6
1.2.6 Grade 3 to 4 Literacy Transitional Challenges in isiXhosa Contexts.....	8
1.3 Rationale for the Focus on Reading and on Grade 3.....	11
1.3.1 Rationale for Focusing on Grade 3 .....	11
1.3.2 Rationale for Focusing on Reading Literacy .....	13
1.4 The Prominence of Vocabulary.....	14
1.5 The Nexus between Vocabulary and Comprehension .....	16
1.5.1 The Instrumentalist Hypothesis .....	17
1.5.2 The Knowledge Hypothesis.....	18
1.5.3 The Aptitude Hypothesis .....	19
1.5.4 Access Hypothesis .....	19
1.5.5 By-product Hypothesis .....	20
1.5.6 Reciprocal Hypothesis .....	20
1.6 The Efficacy of High Frequency Words (HFW).....	21
1.7 Statement of the Problem .....	24

1.8	Research Questions .....	25
1.9	Chapter Summary and Thesis Overview.....	25
2.1	Introduction .....	27
2.2	Models of Second Language Acquisition .....	27
2.3.	Stages in Second Language Acquisition .....	32
2.4	Factors that Impact on Second Language Learning .....	33
2.5.	Theoretical Models of the Bilingual Lexicon .....	38
2.6	Word Learning Contexts .....	40
2.7	Relevant Literacy-related Studies within the South African Context .....	40
2.8	Vocabulary Teaching-Learning Strategies and the Role of Vocabulary Exposure ..	42
2.9	Chapter Summary.....	44
3.0	CHAPTER 3 CONCEPTUALISATION AND OPERATIONALISATION OF .....	46
	THE CONCEPTS ‘WORD’, ‘WORD KNOWLEDGE’ AND ‘WORD MEANING’ .....	46
3.1	Introduction .....	46
3.2	The Notion of ‘Word’ .....	46
3.2.1	Implications of the Word Constructs for this Study .....	56
3.2.2	Construct of ‘Word’ for the Present Study .....	57
3.3	Inclusion and Exclusion of Some Words .....	58
3.3.1	Content and Function Words .....	58
3.3.2	General, Academic and Technical Vocabulary .....	59
3.4	The Construct ‘Word Knowledge’ .....	60
3.4.1	Conceptions of ‘Word Knowledge’ for the Present Study .....	64
3.5	Chapter Summary.....	65
	CHAPTER 4 THEORETICAL ORIENTATION ON WORD MEANING AND .....	66
	WORD KNOWLEDGE.....	66
4.1	Introduction .....	66
4.2	Word Meaning: Decontextualized or Contextualised? .....	67

4.3	Theories of Word Meaning .....	71
4.4	Chapter Summary.....	78
5.0	CHAPTER 5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY .....	79
5.1	Introduction .....	79
5.2	Research Design.....	79
5.2.1	Case study .....	80
5.2.2	Sample and Focus .....	82
5.2.3.	Data Collection Instruments, Procedure and Rationale .....	83
5.3	Phases of the Research Process .....	83
5.3.1	Phase 1: Determining Grade 4 Subject Textbooks' Vocabulary Demands .....	83
5.3.2	Phase 2: Investigating Grade 3 Learners' Current Vocabulary Exposure .....	99
5.3.3.	Phase 3: Testing the Vocabulary Knowledge of Grade 4 Learners .....	106
	Pilot Testing.....	118
5.4	Validity and Reliability .....	119
5.5	Ethical Considerations.....	120
5.6	Chapter Summary.....	121
6.0	DATA PRESENTATION: GRADE 3 LEARNER PREPARATION FOR .....	123
	TRANSITION TO GRADE 4 .....	123
6.1	Introduction .....	123
6.2	Teacher Beliefs, Perceptions and Pedagogical Choices.....	124
6.2.1	Initial Exposure to the Second Language .....	124
6.2.2	Teachers' Pedagogical Choices .....	127
6.2.3	Teacher Beliefs and Perceptions about Exposure and Acquisition of English Vocabulary.....	131
6.2.4	Teacher Beliefs and Perceptions about Learner Competencies.....	137
6.2.5	Teacher Perceptions about the Supportive Nature of the School Context.....	142
6.3	Teachers' Perceived and Observed Pedagogical Practices Related to Vocabulary Development. ....	144

6.4	Extent of the Exposure to New English Words and Meanings from Teachers’ Pedagogical Practices .....	156
6.4.1	Strategies for Drawing Attention to New or Key English Words .....	157
6.4.2	Vocabulary Meaning Episodes .....	164
6.4.3	Teacher’s Model Use of English.....	174
6.4.4	Enablers and Constraints to Greater Exposure and Recycling of L2 Vocabulary 181	
6.4.5	Extent of English Vocabulary Exposure in Classroom Teacher Talk .....	199
6.4.6	Extent to which the HFW are Recycled in Teacher Talk .....	203
6.5	Extent to which Grade 3 Reading Materials meet Grade 4 Textbook Vocabulary Needs of Learners.....	216
6.6	Extent to which Classroom Print Met the Grade 4 Vocabulary Needs of Learners	224
6.7	Chapter Summary.....	239
7.0	CHAPTER 7 DATA PRESENTATION: GRADE 4 LEARNERS’ PERFORMANCE IN VOCABULARY TESTS .....	241
7.1	Introduction .....	241
7.2	Learner Performance in Individual Tests .....	242
7.3	Learner Performance According to Individual Words .....	246
7.4	Learners’ Performance per Test per School .....	251
7.5	Learners’ Performance according to Dimensions of Word Tested and Districts....	255
7.6	Chapter Summary.....	257
8.0	CHAPTER 8: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA .....	260
8.1:	Introduction .....	260
8.2	The interface between vocabulary-related teacher beliefs and practices .....	260
8.3	The role of the L1 in the L2 vocabulary development .....	271
8.4	Interplay between teacher input and learner output .....	272
8.5	Curriculum expectations viz the classroom realities.....	275
8.6	Classroom Print and Vocabulary Modelling .....	278

8.7	Learners' Knowledge of the 60 HFW .....	278
8.8	Chapter Summary.....	279
9.0	CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FROM THE STUDY .....	280
9.1	Introduction .....	280
9.2	What are the High Frequency English Words in the Grade 4 Subject Textbooks which represent the Vocabulary Needs of Grade 3 Learners for Fourth Grade Reading?.	280
9.3	To what extent are isiXhosa speaking learners prepared in Grade 3 to meet the vocabulary demands of reading to learn in English in Grade 4? .....	281
9.4	What High Frequency Grade 4 subject textbook vocabulary do Grade 4 learners know at the beginning of the year? .....	286
9.5	Recommendations .....	286
9.6	Chapter Summary.....	288
	References.....	290

## TABLES

Table 1: Adaptation of Bauer and Nation's Word Family Scale.....	54
Table 2: Across-Word Lists Comparisons.....	92
Table 3: Quantitative Sampling of Words from the 213 HFW.....	98
Table 4: The 60 HFW List.....	98
Table 5: Vocabulary Test Instruments Used and the Dimension of Word they Assessed.....	107
Table 6: Suggested Norms of Reading in LoLT, Grades 1-3.....	113
Table 7: Teachers' Professed versus Observed Practices.....	155
Table 8: Manifestations of Strategies of Drawing Attention to Words in Lessons Observed .....	158
Table 9: Vocabulary Meaning Episodes in Lessons Observed.....	165
Table 10: Manifestation of Vocabulary Meaning Episodes in Florence's Practice.....	167
Table 11: Teacher Modelling of the English Language in Classroom Talk.....	175
Table 12: Enablers to Greater Vocabulary Exposure and Recycling.....	182
Table 13: Constraints to Greater Vocabulary Exposure and Recycling.....	188
Table 14: The Type-Token Ratio of Teachers' Classroom Talk.....	200
Table 15: Distribution of Teachers' Words by Language.....	202
Table 16: Frequency of 60 HFW Use in Teacher-Talk.....	203
Table 17: Teacher-Talk Word Distribution across the Teachers.....	206
Table 18: Percentage of 5 Minute Intervals in which Words Appeared in each Teacher's Talk .....	208
Table 19: Words Recycled in 50%+ Intervals.....	210
Table 20: Word Coverage in Teacher Classroom Talk.....	212
Table 21: Contribution of Grade 3 Reading Materials to the 60 HFW.....	217
Table 22: Categorisation of HFW in Grade 3 Reading Material into 100 Word Frequency Bands.....	220
Table 23: Distribution of the 60 HFW in 100 Word Bands.....	222
Table 24: Words in Grade 3 Reading Material According to the 100 Word Bands.....	223
Table 25: Classroom Print Vocabulary Quantity and Representation of the HFW.....	236
Table 26: HFW in Teachers' Classroom Print.....	238
Table 27: Learner Performance on Word Recognition Tests.....	243
Table 28: Learners' Performance on Tests of Passive Word Knowledge.....	244
Table 29: Learners' Performance on Active Word Knowledge Tests.....	245
Table 30: Summary of Learners' Performance in Individual Tests.....	246

Table 31: Learners' Performance on Individual Words .....	247
Table 32: Tests with 50%+ Percentage Mean and Proportion of Words Covered .....	249
Table 33: Overall Mean Performance Categories and the Proportion of Words Covered ....	250
Table 34: Learners' Performance (Peri-urban Schools) .....	251
Table 35: Learners' Performance (Township Schools) .....	252
Table 36: Learners' Performance (Rural Schools) .....	253
Table 37: Learners' Performance on Word Dimensions per District .....	255
Table 38: District-Dimension Comparison .....	256
Table 39: Pairwise District Performance Comparisons .....	256
Table 40: Pairwise Comparisons of Word Dimensions .....	257
Table 41: Grade 4 Learner Performance on Words Absent from Grade 3 Reading Materials .....	275
Table 42: Grade 4 Learners' Performance on Words with Low Frequency in Grade 3 Reading Materials .....	275

## FIGURES

Figure 1: Theoretical Models of the Bilingual Lexicon.....	39
Figure 2: Relationship among the Current Word Constructs.....	56
Figure 3: Referent Theory Model .....	73
Figure 4: Relationship between Input, Uptake and Intake.....	133
Figure 5: The Type-Token Ratio of Teachers' Classroom Talk .....	201
Figure 6: Distribution of Teachers' Words by Language.....	202
Figure 7: Percentage of the 60 HFW in each Teacher's Talk .....	207
Figure 8 : Words in 50%+ 5 Minute Intervals .....	211
Figure 9: Distribution of 60 HFW within 100 Word Bands .....	223
Figure 10: Florence's Classroom Print.....	226
Figure 11: Esther's Classroom Print.....	229
Figure 12: Christine's Classroom Print .....	230
Figure 13: Kate's Classroom Print .....	231
Figure 14: Henrietta's Classroom Print.....	235
Figure 15: Percentage Words within the 60 HFW and 213 HFW in Classroom Print .....	237

## **CHAPTER 1 NATURE OF THE STUDY**

### **1.1 Introduction**

The school system is marked by important transitional landmarks which either disorient or empower learners. Whether these transitional points will constrain or expedite future learning and attainment depends on the extent to which the transitional needs of the learners are met. One of the most important transitional phases in the young learners' schooling is the transition from Grade 3 to Grade 4, which, in the South African context, marks a transition from the Foundation Phase (FP) to the Intermediate Phase (IP). Although the phases are named differently in different educational contexts around the world, the significance of third to fourth grade transition is internationally recognised (Lesnick, Goerge, Smithgall, and Gwynne, 2010).

Referring to early childhood in general, Vogler, Crivello and Woodhead (2008, p.1) posit that "... this phase of life is generally acknowledged as a period of accelerated and intense change, usually involving multiple developmental, social, and (for increasing numbers of children), institutional transitions, each of which has implications for current well-being and long-term outcomes." The rapid, acute, diverse nature of early childhood transitions and their impact as recognised in the quote above reflect the Grade 3 to 4 transition in particular.

The present study sought to understand the transitional needs of Grade 3 learners, with special emphasis on their vocabulary needs, and their level of preparedness for the challenges of Grade 4 learning. The study also sought to establish the extent to which those vocabulary needs had been met when learners started Grade 4.

This introductory chapter of the study interrogates the literacy transitional needs and challenges. This chapter provides the background to the study by examining Grade 3 learners' vocabulary needs when they transition to Grade 4 in the South African context. The chapter situates the study particularly on Grade 3 learners transitioning to learning through a language which is not their own. It considers the Grade 3 to 4 learners' transitional literacy challenge as a global phenomenon. It further discusses the phenomenon in relation to African Language learners transitioning to learning in English and extends the discussion to the linguistic needs of Grade 3 isiXhosa speaking learners for transitioning to Grade 4 within the

South African context. The chapter further extends the nature of the challenges through a discussion of complexities of reading to learn in a second language. It then proffers a rationale for a focus on reading literacy at Grade 3. The discussion on the significance of vocabulary for literacy and communication in general, and that of the efficacy of high frequency words, provides another layer of justification for the present study. The chapter then clarifies the nature of the study through a description of a statement of the problem and identification of the research questions guiding the investigation. It ends by providing a structural overview of the whole thesis through previewing the subsequent chapters.

## **1.2 Grade 3 to 4 Linguistic Transitional Challenges**

This section briefly covers four issues. It defines the general notion of transition; it identifies the Grade 3 to 4 transitional challenges generally, as well as specifically within the South African and the Eastern Cape context; and it identifies the implicit assumptions underlying the transitional expectations or ideals.

### **1.2.1 The Notion of ‘Transition’**

The term ‘transition’ has diverse meanings and defies singularity of definition. Terms almost synonymous with the concept ‘transitions’ are changeovers, passages, conversions or modulations. Vogler, Crivello and Woodhead (2008, p. 1) define transitions as “... key events and/or processes occurring at specific periods or turning points ...” Transitions are, therefore, defining periods which can potentially make or break the individuals involved. Vogler, Crivello and Woodhead (2008) identify vertical and horizontal transitions. Vertical transitions relate to ‘upward’ shifts from a lower level to a higher level. Rather than conceiving transitions as single-point events, transitions are multi-layered and characterized by continuities and discontinuities of experience (ibid). For this study, the term transition relates to the major linguistic and literacy shifts that characterise learners’ progression from Grade 3 to Grade 4 first internationally and then within the South African context.

### **1.2.2 Grade 3 to 4 Literacy Transitional Challenges as a Global Phenomenon**

Grade 3 to 4 transitional challenges are international phenomena. At an international level, Grade 4 is acknowledged as a key stage in a young learner’s schooling, and one in which the academic performance of many learners declines. This, notwithstanding the nature of the context whether first language (L1) or second language (L2). Even for English L1 speakers, international research points to a ‘Grade 4 slump’, a designation for the “...sudden drop-off

between third and fourth grade in the reading scores... (Hirsch, 2003, p.10). This is buttressed by Wright (2012, p. 353) who says, "By fourth grade, students with limited vocabulary knowledge are likely to slump in reading comprehension." One explanation for this is in the shift in focus of the reading demands made on learners.

The Annie Casey Foundation's 2010 Kids Count Special Report quoted by Lesnick et.al (2010, p. 5) notes that "...until the end of third grade, most children are learning to read. Beginning in fourth grade, however, the focus shifts as students begin reading to learn." Learning to read entails automatization of the rudiments that constitute the process and conventions of reading. The mechanical aspects of the reading process, which represent learning to read, are supposedly developed by the end of Grade 3. These are then used in Grade 4 to access information from texts. Reading to learn is more cognitively involving as it employs the reading skill as a learning tool to unlock textual meaning.

Unlike HL learners who learn to read when they have acquired the basic grammatical structures and oral language of their L1 as tacit knowledge (Tomasello, 2003), most L2 learners lack that initial linguistic resource base. They are compelled to learn to read their additional language simultaneously with the acquisition of the additional language's oral language which the L1 learners already have. The thousands of words L1 readers have as part of their lexicon enables them to associate the word with its orthographic make-up during reading, a privilege beginner L2 readers do not enjoy. The shift in the focus of reading presents comprehension challenges which are not unique to the second language (L2) learners but are well documented even among English L1 learners (Lesnick et.al, 2010).

Related to the learning to read-reading to learn challenge, is the greater complexity of textual language use at Grade 4 level. Because reading to learn presupposes content-area texts, Grade 4 marks a shift from the reading of predominantly narrative, story-like texts, whose language closely approximates ordinary language of everyday social interaction, to reading expository texts replete with content-dense vocabulary.

There is a shift from predominantly basic language to predominantly academic language use. The fact that learners may attain fluency in a language but have challenges with the language used for schooling speaks to the distinction between what Cummins (1981) calls Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language proficiency

(CALP). Apart from the conversational and academic distinction between BICS and CALP, the other major distinguishing features are the cognitive demands and contextual support each of the two dimensions of language draw on. BICS is context-embedded and cognitively undemanding whereas CALP is context-reduced and cognitively demanding. Context-embeddedness relates to BICS' reliance on verbal cues, gestures and extra-linguistic cues for communicating meaning. Because context fills in gaps in meaning, BICS can thrive with relatively few words. CALP by contrast is academic, context-reduced learning that takes place in a formal environment. CALP is not totally devoid of context hence the use of the term *context-reduced* rather than *decontextualized*. CALP is “the extent to which an individual has access to and command of the oral and written academic registers of schooling” (Cummins, 2000, p. 67).

Cummins (2008) warns against conflation of conversational fluency and academic language proficiency as a single unitary proficiency dimension by teachers. Proficiency in BICS does not automatically translate into proficiency in CALP but is a requisite step towards CALP. BICS can be a linguistic façade masking the learner's serious limitations in CALP. Exiting learners into an all-second language program on the basis of their oral fluency may therefore be detrimental to second language learning.

Because these are global literacy related transitional challenges, they apply within the South African contexts as well, as the South Africa DoE National Reading Strategy (2008) would attest. To add to these challenges, second language learners have to contend with having to learn in a language which is not theirs and in which they may lack proficiency.

### **1.2.3 Grade 3 to 4 Literacy Transitional Challenge in Second Language Contexts**

Although it would be an overgeneralization to claim that in L2 contexts, there is always a change in the language of learning and teaching at Grade 4 level, it is true of many contexts. In particular it is true of South Africa. The Department of Basic Education (DBE) Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (2011, p. 11) notes that “... in South Africa, many children start using their additional language, English, as the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) in Grade 4.” Prior to Grade 4, instruction, for most learners, is in the learner's HL but in Grade 4 it changes to a First Additional Language (FAL) for the majority of learners.

The widespread effect of the literacy transition within the South African context is manifest in that, “The LoLT [Language of learning and teaching] in Grade 4 results in more than 80% of learners being taught in a second language, mostly English, a language spoken by less than 10% of the population” (Howie, in Howie et al. 2008, p. 8). A minority retains their LoLT in Grade 4 and these are mostly English and Afrikaans home language (HL) speakers. For the majority, it “...means that they must reach a high level of competence in English by the end of Grade 3, and they need to be able to read and write well in English. For these reasons, their progress in literacy must be accelerated in Grades 2 and 3” (CAPS, 2011, p.11).

In his BICS-CALP distinction, Cummins (1981) posits that competence in the L2 at the BICS level takes 2 to 3 years of learning whereas at the CALP level it requires 5 to 7 years to develop proficiency. Reading to learn presupposes operating at CALP level. If Cummins’ time frames hold, learners shifting to a First Additional Language (FAL) as their LoLT in Grade 4 would not have the requisite language proficiency to cope with the cognitive, academic, linguistic demands Grade 4 reading makes even if they were introduced to the FAL from Grade 1.

What makes the case of the Grade 3 learners participating in the present study critical in this regard is that, although CAPS makes the teaching of the FAL as a compulsory learning area from Grade 1 with effect from 2012, the current (2012) Grade 3 learners did their Grade 1 and 2 under a dispensation which did not oblige schools to teach them English FAL. The requirement was that the learners were supposed to have been introduced to English FAL by Grade 3. Supposing these learners were only introduced to English FAL in Grade 3, the question then would be to what extent they can be expected to possess requisite linguistic skills to expedite their transition to Grade 4. That the DBE CAPS (2011) acknowledges that only the HL is sufficiently reinforced in and out of school throughout the school day, raises the question of on what basis learners can be expected to have the requisite vocabulary.

What further compounds the challenge is that African languages are structurally different from English (South Africa Department of Education National Reading Strategy, 2008). It would be naïve to assume that learners would switch over to English in Grade 4 and register success on the basis of what they did in the Foundation Phase in their Home Language.

#### **1.2.4 Grade 3 to 4 Literacy Transitional Challenges in Biliterate Contexts**

Although in some instances the biliterate learner's HL and L2 have common aspects and interact positively, they are also quite separate to the extent of interfering one with the other. Where interference results, it becomes a challenge for the learner to map particular concepts to two languages differing in both phonological and syntactic forms; a challenge the monolingual learner is spared. This then retards the biliterate learner's vocabulary acquisition and development. Allman (2005) notes that, having dual labels for everything reduces the frequency of particular words in either language. This reduction stems from the impossibility of concurrent production of language in both language mediums which compel the bilingual to employ each language's vocabulary with less frequency than the monolingual speaker would. This reduces the vocabulary size in each language. This is symptomatic of overall verbal deficit (Bialystok, 2009).

At the word meaning level, word and meaning are two separate constructs. Learners may have first language (L1) meaning or concepts and lack second language (L2) words or labels for those concepts, a problem the L1 reader does not face. Although there is a considerable variation in vocabulary knowledge estimates of L1 users, the range is between 5000 and 7000 words for 6 year olds by the time reading is introduced (Cunningham, 2005). Such linguistic resources favouring the L1 speaker cannot be assumed for L2 contexts.

#### **1.2.5 Grade 3 to 4 Literacy Transitional Challenges in African Languages Contexts**

Koda (2007) sees the orthographic distance between languages as impacting on the performance of different linguistic groups in the L2 particularly at the level of decoding. The greater the orthographic distance, the greater the challenge. Languages which are close together (cognates) like English and Spanish present less challenges than non-cognates like English and African Languages. The African Language speaking learner who learns through the medium of English therefore, suffers another setback that other L2 speaking learners learning in English may be spared. Bergman (2006, p.4) notes that

The level of transparency (how reliably a letter maps onto a speech sound) measured on a continuum with 'transparent' or 'shallow' at one end and 'opaque' or 'deep' at the other, has been shown to determine how easily children learn to read.

African languages have transparent orthographies whereas English, in particular, has an opaque orthography. This is why in isiXhosa for instance, the letter combination 'ch' has a consistent sound whereas in English its sound depends on the word in which it appears as in

‘chair’ and ‘choir’. The regularity of African languages allow for a grapheme to phoneme kind of reading whereas “English is read through a lexical process” (ibid). This underscores the pivotal role of the lexical dimension in English reading and also points to the need for African language learners to possess a sufficient vocabulary repertoire in English in order to read to learn in the language.

A sound vocabulary repertoire is, therefore, a significant indicator of reading proficiency for both the L1 and L2 beginner reader. Cobb and Horst (2001) attribute fluent reading to learners’ possession of a large sight vocabulary; words that are so familiar they are automatically recognised. They further observe that synthetic phonics, which trains learners to read words by building them up, is inapplicable to most English words which do not have one to one phoneme-grapheme correspondence. Such opacity of English spelling necessitates sight word reading. Sight word reading is critical for the development of fluency and is at the word recognition level of word knowledge.

The challenge for African language speaking learners learning in English heightens when one considers that estimates of the vocabulary threshold needed to profit from reading in Grade 4 are uniform for both first language (L1) and second language (L2) English speakers as texts make similar vocabulary demands on both.

An appraisal of the typical African L2 classroom context affects the nature and adds to the enormity of the challenge L2 learners face. Clegg (2007) describes the current typical African classroom as characterized by learners with low L2 proficiency, L2 teachers who lack confidence in the language, learners who use very little L2 in their reading, writing and speech, classroom discourse devoid of real meaning and characterized by repetition and memorization, and cognitively unchallenging lessons.

To add to these, “[E]nglish as target language and LOLT is only heard, spoken and written in the formal school context” (Setati & Adler, 2001, p. 243). Such environments hardly meet the requirements of L2 learning as well as learning through the medium of the L2. This is not in keeping with the ideal conditions conducive for learning in the L2 medium, some of which are identified by Clegg (2007) as a sound literacy background, a sound grounding in early L1 literacy, sufficient exposure to the L2, a reasonably good facility in L2, and comprehensibility of the textbooks used.

The assumption that by the end of Grade 3, African language speaking learners have mastered the art of reading in their Home Language (HL) and that they will transfer these reading skills to reading in a First Additional Language (FAL) at Grade 4 merits investigation. While aspects like decoding are transferrable from an African Language to English, the structural and orthographic distinctions between the languages do not allow for full transfer. There are also other important language aspects like vocabulary that cannot be imported from one language to the other<sup>1</sup>.

### **1.2.6 Grade 3 to 4 Literacy Transitional Challenges in isiXhosa Contexts**

The present study recognises the reading literacy transitional challenges of learners transitioning to learn through another language. The study especially focuses on isiXhosa learners who learn to read in their mother tongue from Grades 1-3 and then transition into reading to learn in English from Grade 4.

Gough and Tunmer's (1986) 'Simple View of Reading' posits that a learner's ability to decode words and to understand spoken language is a sound predictor of their ability to read and understand text. This presents a challenge to the second language learner who, despite not having developed sufficient facility in the L2 oral language, is expected to read to learn in this language by the beginning of fourth grade in the L2. The learner can only draw on their oral command of isiXhosa, especially their knowledge of words and their meanings.

When isiXhosa speaking learners start English in Grade 1 (if indeed they do so in that grade), the focus is mainly oral. Learners already have the concepts and vocabulary in isiXhosa but may still have to learn the English labels. This is however, not always the case, since bilingual children may acquire new concepts in either language. A case in point is how isiXhosa children often learn numbers and colours first, in English. Such cases are more exceptions than the norm because often times it is the English label that learners do not know. They may, for example, know the word 'inja' in isiXhosa quite well. What they have to learn in their additional language is another label for 'inja' i.e. 'dog'. Once they begin reading in English, they will have to learn to decode it (in this case they will be able to transfer their

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<sup>1</sup> This point is argued further in Chapter 2, but it will suffice in this section to note that there is a condition to the extent to which L1 competence can substantially transfer to L2 competence, and that is some degree of proficiency within the L2 itself.

decoding knowledge from isiXhosa). Children do not have to learn to read their L2 from scratch – they already know how to decode. Provided that they get a reasonably strong foundation of learning to read in their L1/HL, the challenge of learning to read in the L2 by biliterate learners is primarily a language challenge, especially at the level of the word.

What further compounds the challenge in the present study's context is that the learners are taught by non-native speakers of the English language who may not be very competent in the language themselves. Both the teacher and the learner think in their first language and translate their thoughts into English which brings travail to the language learning and acquisition process. The isiXhosa speaking learners within the study suffer the disadvantage that the second language, for the majority of them, is restricted to the classroom. They, therefore, hardly practice its use outside the formal classroom environment; a disadvantage the L1 user is spared.

The children who are the focus of the present study are introduced to the skills of reading in isiXhosa, their HL. This is the language in which they acquire initial literacy (i.e. they learn to decode and comprehend written text). The connection between English text and isiXhosa oral language is however, difficult to make. The assumption that by end of Grade 3, learners have, not only mastered the art of reading in their HL, but also have the large English vocabulary repertoire necessary to profit from reading in Grade 4 where English is the LoLT needs investigation. The South African literacy landscape, which is well researched through international and national benchmark tests, indicates that this is not the case. Pretorius and Currin (2010, p. 67) give a compendious picture of the South African literacy landscape thus:

In South Africa the first large scale national systemic evaluations undertaken by the Department of Education in 2001 across all nine provinces showed Grade 3 learners achieving a national mean of 38% for reading and writing in their home language (Department of Education, 2003)... In the 2006 PIRLS study South African Grade 4 and 5 learners came last of the 40 participating countries (Mullis et al., 2007). In fact, our learners not only came last, they came badly last, with 78% of the Grade 5 learners not even achieving the lowest reading benchmarks (Van Staden and Howie, 2008). These consistently low literacy levels suggest that learners are starting off poorly in reading and staying on a poor reading trajectory.

The benchmark assessments show that by Grade 3, the last grade in the FP when learners are expected to have developed reading competence or mastered the art of reading, many learners have not developed reading and writing proficiency even in their Home Language (HL). By the end of Grade 3, lack of vocabulary knowledge takes a toll on textual comprehension. The

ideal would be that as learners learn to read in a FAL they extend their linguistic knowledge, deal with the HL transfer effects, gradually wean themselves from overreliance on their HL for understanding the FAL and start to employ L2-specific resources. These challenges have major implications for success in schools.

Coming to the Eastern Cape province of South Africa where the present study is located, the 2011 South Africa Department of Basic Education (DBE) Annual National Assessments (ANA) report recorded a Grade 3 literacy mean score of 39% in the Eastern Cape with most children being tested in their HL. One would expect that reading in the HL would be easier for the learners than reading in a First Additional Language (FAL) as learners already possess the oral language in the HL. This is because the HL is the language one has learnt first; one the learner identifies with and is identified as a native speaker of by others; the language one knows best; and/or one uses most (UNESCO 2003, *Education in Multilingual World*, p. 15). The ANA report's (2011) appraisal of the key factors accounting for the poor performance by the learners include learners' inability to read and an acute lack of basic vocabulary, among others.

The present study sought to understand the vocabulary needs of English Second Language (ESL) learners on the verge of such significant transition. That Cummins (2000) argues that CALP needs 5-7 years to develop makes it imperative to interrogate the extent to which the transitional needs of learners are met after only three years of FP education. The transitional challenges discussed above explain in part the decline in performance among South African learners as they transition from the FP to the IP. If the transition to reading to learn in Grade 4 is a challenge for HL learners who already have had at least three years of learning in the language, who have an intuitive knowledge of the language, and who already possess a well-developed oral vocabulary in the language, then the challenge for the second language learner transitioning to reading to learn in English can only be greater. Grade 3 becomes an important stage at which the transitional needs of learners should be met.

### **1.3 Rationale for the Focus on Reading and on Grade 3**

This section argues for why there is firstly; a focus on third grade and secondly, a focus on reading literacy. A sub-section is devoted to each of these focus points. Although reading comes through in the justification of focus on Grade 3, it is further discussed in its own section.

#### **1.3.1 Rationale for Focusing on Grade 3**

The focus on reading at Grade 3 level is justified in terms of early literacy engendering foundational and lasting effects on later literacy. Before looking at Grade 3 specifically, it is instructive to advance the significance of early literacy in general. Rosenberg (2010) attests to an abundance of literature and research confirming that children from linguistically and materially rich backgrounds have a head start over their counterparts who are disadvantaged linguistically and materially. The disadvantaged learners lack the linguistic capital that is compatible with the school system's literacy forms and practices. Unless there is an early intervention to forestall the cycle of disadvantage, the so called *Matthew effects* will perpetuate the disadvantage. The Matthew effect is Merton's (1968) term for situations where those who have (in this case, the requisite linguistic repertoire) will continue to have more and those without (that linguistic capital) will continue to lag behind. Those with limited linguistic repertoire cannot maximally profit from texts or classroom talk and, therefore, cannot further develop their shallow repertoires (Pretorius & Currin, 2010). What the Matthew effect attests to is that early literacy success begets later literacy success and academic achievement. Conversely, failure to read by the end of Grade 3 heralds the beginning of lifelong skills acquisition problems in all areas of learning. Children's failure in the early stages induces a hatred and phobia for reading which affects reading to learn in future. Schmitt and Gregory (2005) note that although early reading success is not a guarantee of future academic success, early reading failure is a sure predictor of future academic problems. Of Foundation Phase learners, Witt (2003, p. 2) asserts, "... difficulties with reading literacy, if not addressed, then permeate all future educational undertaking as the gap between their reading literacy skills and the demands of the curriculum widens."

If no intervention is made in the FP, learners keep falling behind and their plight becomes insurmountable as they get to the IP. The earlier the intervention, the better the chances of accelerating progress of low performing children to acceptable performance levels. The effect of early intervention has been proven in New Zealand's 'Reading Recovery' programme for

learners with particular reading problems at the earliest stages. Early literacy provides a foundation upon which all other learning will hinge. As Orellana and D'warte (2010) observe, early skills are building blocks for the next and higher set of skills to be acquired. In this regard, early literacy is a precursor to any subsequent academic attainment. The Annie Casey Foundation (2010, p. 5) regards reading proficiency by end of Grade 3 as "... a key milestone in a child's educational development and a sentinel indicator of future educational success." The significance of early literacy is also affirmed by Armbruster, Lehr, and Osborne (2003, p. 2) who say

The road to becoming a reader begins the day a child is born and continues through the end of third grade. At that point, a child must read with ease and understanding to take advantage of the learning opportunities in fourth grade and beyond—in school and in life.

The Foundation Phase therefore, becomes a critical stage at which massive investment of time, energy and other resources should be made to solidify the literacy foundation of learners. Reading proficiency in particular, is a greater determinant of success in future academic endeavours than other components of literacy like writing, speaking and listening and so would merit some attention.

The pivotal significance of reading proficiency by Grade 3 is attested by Lesnick et al. (2010, p. 3) who observe that, "Third-grade reading level is a significant predictor of eighth-grade reading level." This, they argue, is evident from "[m]ultilevel regression models that take into account third-grade school effects and demographic characteristics of students [which] affirm the importance of third-grade reading level" (ibid).

From research, Armbruster, Lehr, Osborn (2001) note that 85 to 90 percent of struggling readers can be assisted to raise their reading skills to average reading levels if intervention is done prior to Grade 3. That Grade 3 reading competence, or lack of it, has substantial effects on later schooling can therefore not be contested. Lesnick et al. (2010) advocate the institution and implementation of 'remedial intervention programs' with fidelity, if desirable 'reading performance trajectories' are to be a reality in learners' lives. In the present study's context, a seamless transition between third and fourth grade in literacy can only be possible if isiXhosa speaking learners have acquired the requisite vocabulary in English, the language they will use as LoLT in Grade 4.

### 1.3.2 Rationale for Focusing on Reading Literacy

The international (PIRLS) and Annual National Assessment (ANA) benchmark surveys assess reading literacy through measurement of the processes of comprehension, purposes for reading, reading behaviours and attitudes towards reading (Mullis, Kennedy, Martin and Sainsbury, 2004). Taking reading literacy as a proxy for general literacy proficiency is tantamount to regarding the two as analogous or even synonymous. Pretorius, (2002, p. 175) observes that "...although reading ability alone cannot guarantee academic success, it is highly likely that a lack of reading ability can function as a key barrier to academic achievement." This is because reading forms the basis of all other learning areas. Pakhiti (2006, p. 21) notes that reading instruction should aim "... to help learners develop their reading skills to automatic levels because the more automatized the readers' processing is, the more efficient reading will be." *Automaticity* is defined by Armbruster, Lehr, and Osborne (2001, p. 21) as the fast, effortless word recognition that comes with a great deal of reading practice." To keep up with the information load learners should have the capacity to process information automatically without conscious monitoring. Segalowitz & Hulstijn (2005) particularly identify vocabulary as a unit of language that requires automatization so as to free attentional capacity for the processing of meaning.

Since English does not adhere to a strict letter-sound correspondence, phonemic awareness and phonic skills, which contribute to the art of decoding in reading, will not be sufficient to bring about reading fluency. In English, the letter combination 'ch' for example, is sounded differently in the words 'school', 'church', 'choir', 'schedule' unlike in most, if not all African languages where the orthography is transparent. Automatization in reading would, therefore, require a learner to have a sufficient repertoire of words in their lexicon. These should be words they can identify on sight which speeds up their reading and induces fluency. Such "...automaticity of lexical access can free up cognitive processing capacity which can be devoted to the comprehension of text" (Browne & Culligan, 2008, p. 11). Automatization of a micro skill leads to mastery of the next higher skill whose automatization also facilitates acquisition and mastery of the yet higher skill. Text comprehension would therefore need mastery of requisite vocabulary assuming that the other lower order skills of phonemic awareness, phonics and fluency have already been automatized. Automatization shifts the reader's attention from the mechanical processes of reading represented by the lower level reading skills to textual comprehension. Text comprehension needs mastery of the vocabulary that is prevalent in the text. Close to, or fully automated memory is one of the

conditions required for reading comprehension, and vocabulary is one of those language tools which the memory can accommodate once word meaning is consolidated (Abadzi, 2008). Situations where a reader has mastered the mechanics of reading but encounters too many unfamiliar words and structures leads to failure to process the material read.

Lexical recognition or proficiency in word recognition translates to grammatical recognition as well, which eases and expedites the reading process. Ehri (2005, p. 168) notes that

... words are the basic units that readers' eyes pick up and process to construct meaning out of print. The key to understanding how reading skill develops is understanding how beginners learn to recognize written words accurately and automatically.

What makes words reliable units for processing is their being spelt the same way whenever they appear in text. All this, points to vocabulary being a strong predictor of reading success, particularly for English which does not have a regular grapho-phonetic relationship or symbol-sound relationship.

Despite the several challenges affecting the L2 reader, it is unfortunate that a substantial percentage of reading research has been on reading in L1 contexts rather than in L2 contexts. The language threshold the learners need to cross in order to surmount all these transitional challenges has consistently been proven to be largely a lexical one (Nation, 2001; Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010). Possession of a sufficient vocabulary repertoire becomes critical to schooling success. The significance of vocabulary explains why the present study takes it as a proxy for literacy development and a sentinel indicator of learner readiness to meet transitional challenges.

#### **1.4 The Prominence of Vocabulary**

The importance that is attached to vocabulary in language learning and communication is manifest in its role in both these domains compared to the lesser importance of other aspects of a language. Sánchez and Manchón (2007) quote Singleton's (1999, p. 4) assertion that "...the major challenge of learning and using a language –whether as L1 or as L2–lies, not in the area of broad syntactic principles, but in the 'nitty-gritty' of the lexicon." Vocabulary is here accorded primacy over syntax since syntax is nothing more than the grammatical ordering or arrangement of words in sentences. Without vocabulary there can be no syntax. Hunt and Beglar (2005, p. 2) refer to the lexicon as "the heart of language comprehension and

use...” The lexicon is a language user's knowledge of words. Where comprehension eludes a reader or listener at the level of the word, there cannot be any comprehension at the level of discourse, making vocabulary foundational to comprehension. Lewis (2000, p. 8) regards the acquisition of sufficiently large vocabulary as “the single most important task facing language learners...” and Laufer (1998, p. 255) sees the difference in quantity of vocabulary between L1 and L2 users as the most distinguishing feature of their acquisition of a language. First language users only have an edge over the second language users in their possession of a sound vocabulary repertoire.

Acknowledging the importance of vocabulary, Samir (2007, p. 45) asserts that, “[P]erhaps the greatest tools we can give students, not only in their education but more generally in life, is a large, rich vocabulary.” Through words people communicate, and through words learners can engage in their academic activities. Eskey and Grabe (1988, p. 232) make the apt analogy that “...words seem to have a status in language akin to that of molecules in physical structures.” In as much as all physical structures emanate from molecules, so is the relationship between language and vocabulary. Without words there is no language, is the implication. As Wilkins (1974) quoted by Xu (2010, p. 117) puts it, “[W]ithout grammar very little can be conveyed, but without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.” Vocabulary, therefore, has pre-eminence over grammar. In the same vein, Carmen (2009) sees as useless, knowledge of all grammatical rules without knowledge of words and contends that vocabulary both shapes and transmits meaning. Communication, therefore, hinges on the possession of a sound vocabulary repertoire between and among interactants. The power of words cannot be overstated.

Much has also been said about the need for sound vocabulary knowledge particularly among second language learners. Lee (2011) sees the learning and mastery of thousands of words as indispensable to engaging in a diverse range of language uses; a viewpoint shared by Hamzah, Kafipour, and Abdullah (2009). Vocabulary knowledge impacts all aspects of second language (L2) proficiency and is predictive and reflective of reading achievement (Pikulski & Templeton, 2004; Godev, 2009). Baker, Simmons and Kame’enui (1998) extend the indispensable role of vocabulary to the realm of learning in general. They posit that learning, by virtue of it being a language based activity, is fundamentally and profoundly dependent on vocabulary knowledge.

In a vocabulary checklist test administered by Alderson (2005), the correlation of vocabulary and reading was .64, its correlation with particular aspects of reading such as identification of main idea was .50, understanding specific details was .47, and lexical inferencing was .58. Considering the several variables that impact reading proficiency, such high correlations from a single variable is remarkable. Llinares, Leiva, Cartaya, and Louis (2008) see limited lexical knowledge as representing the greatest obstacle L2 beginners face in reading texts, more so than inadequate grammatical knowledge or reading strategies. There is therefore, a sense in which learning a new language is nothing much than learning its vocabulary, particularly at the early stages of learning the language (Read, 2000). The pivotal influence of the lexical dimension on the acquisition and learning of a second language cannot be overemphasized. No wonder there has been an explosion of both theoretical and empirical research in the field of vocabulary, particularly from the 1990s. Debates on the interplay between vocabulary and comprehension as the ultimate goal of reading, further extend the rationale for the focus on vocabulary in the present study.

### **1.5 The Nexus between Vocabulary and Comprehension**

The relationship between vocabulary and comprehension is generally acknowledged. Tannenbaum, Torgesen, and Wagner (2006) cite early factor analytic research (Davis, 1944; Spearritt, 1972) which established word knowledge as key to reading comprehension. For Davis (1944), the basis of the finding was a factor analysis of nine skills underlying reading comprehension. Findings were that word knowledge and reasoning "...accounted for 89% of the variance in reading comprehension" (Tannenbaum, Torgesen & Wagner, 2006, p. 382). A re-analysis of the same data by Spearritt (1972) revealed four main factors namely; "word knowledge, drawing inferences from the content, following the structure of the passage, and recognizing a writer's intent and tone" (Tannenbaum, Torgesen & Wagner, 2006, p. 382). Of the four, word knowledge was the best differentiated.

Over the years, there has been an increasing interest and massive investment in research on learners' vocabulary knowledge with several tests being developed to measure it. This increasing interest in learners' vocabulary knowledge stems from an acknowledgement of the existence of a relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension and proficiency. Although the bulk of research that has consistently proven the existence of a relationship between vocabulary and comprehension has been within L1 contexts, the same holds true for all contexts, be they second language, third language or foreign language

contexts. On the basis of extensive evidence derived from multiple sources of assessment data, Carver (2003) posits that the vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension relationship is so strong that they can possibly produce perfect correlations. This is tantamount to regarding vocabulary as a proxy for reading comprehension.

Baumann (2005) cites, as evidence for the strength of the vocabulary comprehension relationship, the close relationship between vocabulary and IQ, test performance, results from early descriptive studies, several correlational and factor analytic studies, the close affinity between vocabulary and achievement tests, as well as the centrality of vocabulary to readability. What is of contention is the nature of the vocabulary-comprehension relationship. Is the correlation a product of a deeper variable? If not, which causes the other, or do they reciprocally affect each other? These debates are best articulated in the hypotheses that have been developed to explain the nature of this fluid relationship. A snapshot of these hypotheses and their relatedness to the present study follows as a way to justify a route to reading comprehension via vocabulary proficiency and access.

### **1.5.1 The Instrumentalist Hypothesis**

The instrumentalist view posits a direct causal relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. Beck, McKeown and Kucan (2008) assert a robust correlation between word knowledge and textual comprehension. Vocabulary knowledge is an index to how well readers will read and comprehend texts (Armbruster, Lehr & Osborn, 2003). Laufer (1998, p. 1) in Golkar and Yamin (2007, p. 91) calls vocabulary "... the best single predictor of reading comprehension." For this reason 95% word-knowledge coverage proposed by Browne, Cihni and Culligan (2007) would guarantee textual comprehension without the aid of a dictionary, leaving only 5% unrecognized words' meanings recoverable from their contextual use. Shen (2008, p. 135) asserts "... the threshold for reading comprehension is, to a large extent, lexical", implying that lexical deficit hinders successful comprehension. Biemiller (2005) and Laufer (2000) both attest to the positive, predictive, causative, preconditional, and concurrent effects of vocabulary on comprehension. Correlations found between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension in different studies range from .30 to .80 which is significant considering the multiple factors that compete with vocabulary to influence comprehension.

Tannenbaum, Torgesen, and Wagner (2006) note from a review of Snow's studies that the correlation between vocabulary and comprehension increased as the learners' grade levels got higher with the correlation among first, fourth, and seventh graders being .45, .62, and .69, respectively. The correlation is also manifest in studies Tannenbaum, Torgesen, and Wagner (2006) review, which manipulated the level of word difficulty in texts by either replacing some words with either the high frequency or low frequency words. Where replacements were done with High Frequency Words (HFW) reading comprehension was enhanced and where the replacement was done using low frequency vocabulary, comprehension was compromised. Although the hypothesis has the support of a voluminous body of research, its failure to acknowledge that the direction of the influence is not only unidirectional is its major limitation.

### **1.5.2 The Knowledge Hypothesis**

Unlike the instrumentalist hypothesis, the knowledge hypothesis rejects a causal relationship between vocabulary and comprehension and rather asserts that both are affected by general knowledge of the world. The soundness of a learner's cultural schema is what engenders comprehension. Put differently, subject matter knowledge and exposure determines both the vocabulary knowledge of the learner and text comprehension. Anderson and Freebody, (1981, p. 82) represent this position when they describe vocabulary and comprehension merely as "...the exposed tip(s) of the conceptual iceberg." The two relate only as they share the same underlying foundation, subject matter knowledge.

The knowledge hypothesis relates closely to schema theory, where words are perceived as mere surface representations of the deeper conceptual representations in readers' schemata (Bos & Anders, 1990; Elleman, Lindo, Morphy & Compton 2009). This makes vocabulary knowledge a proxy for a learner's world knowledge. The hypothesis presupposes reading to learn where learners have mastered the art of reading and now use it to learn subject content since, according to Araújo, Folgado and Pocinho (2009), the more complex a text becomes, the more knowledge of the world is required. However, complete rejection of a causal relationship between vocabulary and comprehension is limiting as it underestimates the challenges learners may face in their textual understanding where they have both the concept and the label in their HL but do not have the label in the L2 in which the text is written.

### **1.5.3 The Aptitude Hypothesis**

As with the knowledge hypothesis, the aptitude hypothesis downplays a direct relationship between vocabulary and comprehension and attributes successful comprehension to "...superior mental agility" (Baumann, 2005, p. 121) or general verbal aptitude or intelligence. Nagy (2005) acknowledges the correlation between learners' vocabulary knowledge test scores and reading comprehension test scores but denies that it is a causal one. He contends rather, that the relationship emanates from the two kinds of tests drawing on similar intellectual abilities or meta-linguistic awareness. The aptitude hypothesis implies that very little, if anything, can be done to enhance learner comprehension since one's aptitude is largely inherent. This is in contrast to the instrumentalist hypothesis where the teacher can enhance textual comprehension by developing learner knowledge of the key vocabulary. It also differs from the knowledge hypothesis where activating or broadening a learner's knowledge of the world would be a route towards textual comprehension.

### **1.5.4 Access Hypothesis**

The access hypothesis builds upon the instrumentalist hypothesis by acknowledging a causal relationship between vocabulary and comprehension. It however, goes further to assert that the relationship is only to the extent that the vocabulary is within learners' easy access and that access can be enhanced through practice (Shen, 2008). The extent of learner access to the vocabulary in the text is what leads to comprehension. Access is itself a measure of several attributes like fluency of lexical access, speed of word recognition, and speed of word retrieval from memory (Elleman, et al., 2009). Proper and accurate word meaning representation eases words' accessibility and frees up the higher level cognitive processes required for comprehension. Conversely, where lower level aspects like vocabulary knowledge are not automatized, it results in impairment of higher level processes like comprehension. Only those words that the learners can access can be used for text processing and lead to comprehension. Automaticity of word knowledge and word reading is key to the effect vocabulary would have on comprehension. The access hypothesis adds a condition to the instrumental hypothesis, that of accessibility of the vocabulary. This is particularly important when reading in an additional language where practice is necessary to ensure access.

### **1.5.5 By-product Hypothesis**

Like the instrumentalist hypothesis, the by-product hypothesis sees a causal relationship between vocabulary and comprehension but asserts that "...development in vocabulary is a consequence-not a cause-of comprehension" (Curtis, 1995, p. 44). The causal relationship is still uni-directional but the direction of causality is reversed. In other words, the by-product hypothesis is the inverse of the instrumentalist view. It is through sufficient exposure to texts which learners can comprehend that their vocabulary repertoire grows. Vocabulary is seen as a natural result of reading comprehension. Krashen (1985) asserts that when learners are exposed to comprehensible input, the input will be sufficient to generate both vocabulary and language production.

### **1.5.6 Reciprocal Hypothesis**

Limitations manifest in the hypotheses discussed led to the emergence of the reciprocal hypothesis. Nagy (2005) faults extant hypotheses for masking rather than clarifying the relationship between vocabulary and comprehension. While believing in the causal nature of the vocabulary-comprehension relationship, he contends that the causation is bi-directional rather than unidirectional. This led him to the reciprocal hypothesis, which posits a chicken and egg relationship between vocabulary and comprehension where each depends on the other for existence. Verhoeven and Leeuwe (2008) also ideate the relationship between vocabulary and comprehension as causally reciprocal.

From the hypotheses discussed above, there is a manifest lack of consensus on both the nature and direction of the vocabulary-comprehension relationship despite agreement that there is a relationship between the two. What is apparent is the complexity of this relationship; plausibly including varying degrees of causality and reciprocity (depending on the hypothesis). The relationship between vocabulary and comprehension remains both contentious and complex.

Vocabulary is a huge component of a language with English for example, running into millions of words. A lifetime within the classroom would not suffice to give attention to all the words there are in a language. This then necessitates the selection of part of a language's vocabulary which, when accorded adequate explicit attention, would ensure learner proficiency in the language. The frequency with which words are used or appear in a

language corpus, which is the next subject of discussion, is one useful criterion for determining the vocabulary to privilege in language teaching and learning.

### **1.6 The Efficacy of High Frequency Words (HFW)**

Of all the available criteria for the determination of important vocabulary in a language, word frequency has arguably been employed in most research (Nation, 2012), and with good reason. Several criteria have been used as a basis for the compilation of lists of words which would be prioritized in vocabulary development. The six key criteria, some of which are derived from Nation and Waring (1997) are: the frequency with which a word is used; their coverage (where the breadth of a word's coverage in a corpus should accord it a privileged status within the list); their range (where words appearing in diverse types of texts need prioritization over those appearing in restricted types of texts); their availability (where words generally available or known to L1 users of a language may merit inclusion in the lists even if they are not highly frequent in the texts); their learnability (where easier to learn words should precede the more difficult ones). The difficulty of word learning itself is a measure of the degree of similarity between the word in the target language and its L1 equivalent, the ease in the demonstration of their meanings, the regularity of the words as well as the extent to which the word embodies elements similar to aspects of the language the learners have already acquired; and the opportunism (where inclusion is based on a word's relevance to the learners' immediate situation).

Despite the diverse range of criteria, Beck et.al. (2002) advise the prioritization by teachers of frequency and word usefulness over other criteria. They group words into three tiers with the first tier comprising high frequent words learners are likely to know, the second comprising high frequent words proficient users know which learners are less likely to know, and the third made up of rare words learners are very unlikely to know. They propose that teachers operate at the second level and disregard the other two. The justification is that the first tier words are already known (an assumption this study cannot afford to make owing to the characteristic features of the learners who are the focus of the study), and the third tier words are rare and can be developed as and when they are encountered in context rather than to be made part of word lists. Another characteristic feature of Tier 2 words which merits focusing on them is that they lend themselves to instruction as well as knowledge at different levels and on different dimensions. Within the second tier are also words that describe concepts learners already have a superficial or general knowledge of, with precision and specificity.

Sensitivity to the South African context as represented by learner characteristics at a particular level is, however, requisite for developing lists of words to privilege, consonant with learner needs. Assuming that Tier 1 words would cause no difficulty for learners would be unrealistic in a context such as that on which the present study is based.

In the present study's compilation of HFW to determine the vocabulary needs of learners from a textbook corpus, frequency was used as the defining criterion. The other five criteria were employed in the selection of the words used to test the learners from the HFW representing learners' vocabulary needs. What follows is a justification of the use of frequency as a criterion for determining the most important vocabulary to prioritise.

High frequency words have been perceived as a notorious obstacle for readers (Morimoto & Loewen, 2007). This is true for both L1 and L2 readers. Because these words are high coverage words in texts (Gardner, 2007) representing a high percentage of the total number of words met receptively and used productively (Hunt & Beglar, 2005), learners need to master them to register success in reading. Ignorance of low frequency words would only affect the comprehension of those few instances where the words are used unlike the effect of ignorance of words that are all over the text. Mastery of 3000 HFW (Morimoto & Loewen, 2007) has been deemed sufficient for learners to achieve 95% comprehension of general texts (Nation, 2001). Crossing that high frequency vocabulary threshold positions one for better textual comprehension (Nation, 2001) and eases mastery of the less common words from context (Llach & Gallego, 2009). Where only one in 20+ words is unknown, it is easier to recover its meaning on the basis of the many others around it which are known. Being the most functional and most prevalent words in texts, their knowledge becomes predictive of reading success.

Frequency of usage determines acquisition, as words "...come to be read automatically by sight, which is the most efficient, unobtrusive way to read words in text" (Ehri, 2005:167). Because they are encountered regularly, the brain recognises them when even only part of the word is seen. A practical example is that of a learner who cannot read but can distinguish his or her name from other names. The learner can tell by the letters which go up like 'b d h k l' or those that go down like 'g j q y' or by the length of the name. This is because the learner would have had so much exposure to his or her name as not to have to decode it but

recognises it instantly when encountered. Such is the power of frequency in establishing mental associations. Frequency increases the probability that a word will be known.

Frequency, recency, and context of exposure lead to textual comprehension (Ellis, 1995). Recency and frequency go together because words which recur in text often (frequency), will be encountered quite often, which continually gives them a degree of recency in learners' minds. Frequency offers opportunities for repetitive practice (Browne, 2002) which boosts comprehension and retention of any kind of information, and vocabulary is not an exception. One's memory traces are activated and the lexical items entrenched, enmeshed and elaborated from the frequency of their occurrence (Long & Doughty, 2009). This relieves short term memory; unlike a situation where the memory is constantly being exposed to new words. Memory retains things exposed to it repetitively. Repetition strengthens memory entries of high frequency words, easing their retrieval as well, an observation Sripada (2008) says is endorsed by all memory research. According to Frishkoff, Collins-Thompson, Perfetti and Callan (2008), robust memory representations result from repeated word exposure.

According to Ellis, (1995, p. 7) "... input modules recognise, and output modules produce, high frequency patterns faster ...". Both our reception and expression of high frequency words is faster. Because the word has been encountered severally, retrieving it for purposes of comprehension and/ or production is expedited. Frequency of word occurrence is therefore, an indicator of the likelihood or potential of a word being acquired. Zahar, Cobb and Spada (2001) cite Saragi, Nation and Meister's (1978) study, where less than six instances of exposure to a word resulted in its learning by half the participants, whereas an exposure of six or more times led to the learning of the word by 93% of the learners. They also cite Nation's (1982) review of similar studies years later which found an ideal of 16 encounters common in the literature. There has not been any definitive evaluation of the number of exposures to a word needs to ensure its learning, partly because of the incremental nature of word learning where even a single encounter with a word may lead to some superficial amount of its learning.

The challenges described in this chapter actuate the following questions, among others, which are key to the present study:

- Does policy (Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements) attempt to avoid the literacy transition challenges identified above? If so, how?

- What vocabulary in the L2 do children possess in the first few months in Grade 4?
- Do Grade 3 English textbooks, reading materials and classroom print provide exposure to the required English vocabulary?
- Does teacher talk model the requisite English vocabulary to prepare learners for a seamless transition? If so, how?

These questions provide a context for the present study. They are clarified in the statement of the problem below.

### **1.7 Statement of the Problem**

The present study focuses on isiXhosa speaking learners who are taught to read in their HL/L1 in the FP and in Grade 4 are expected to transition to reading to learn (and by implication, applying reading skills in learning content) in English as LoLT without having had much exposure to English even as an additional language or subject area. Although, according to the CAPS (2011), the Grade 3 learners are learning to read primarily in their HL (7 hours per week of isiXhosa literacy in Grade 3 + isiXhosa LoLT); they are also reading and writing in English (4 hours per week) in Grade 3. The question is whether that reading and writing in English adequately prepares them for the quantitatively and qualitatively more challenging reading demands in the IP.

The concern becomes even more valid considering two factors. First, the reading materials used to teach learners in the FP are largely narrative whereas reading to learn in the IP implies expository texts. Second, prior to the new curriculum imperative (CAPS, 2011) the Language in Education Policy of 1997 stated that from Grade 3 learners shall offer at least one additional language. The upshot is that prior to 2012, schools were not obliged to offer FAL before third grade. It is likely, therefore, that many isiXhosa speaking learners would only have had a year of studying English before they are expected to acquire content in different subjects through the English language.

Against this backdrop, the present study seeks to do three things. First, it seeks to establish the English vocabulary of Grade 3 isiXhosa speaking learners necessary for their transition to Grade 4. This it does by investigating the kind of vocabulary Grade 4 content subject textbooks employ most, which, if unknown by the learners, will compromise their

understanding of the texts. Currently, the vocabulary the third grade learner needs to know in the South African context is not known. Although the curriculum document (CAPS, 2011) has a list of 300 HFW, it acknowledges that the list is not reflective of South African learners' vocabulary needs.

Second, the study seeks to understand ways in which major sources of Grade 3 learners' classroom language input namely; their reading material (Big Books for Shared reading, readers for group guided reading, reading material for independent reading, and DBE workbooks), teacher-talk and classroom print, provide opportunities for learners' encounter with the requisite vocabulary for the transition to Grade 4. This, with a view to determining learners' likelihood to incidentally acquire such requisite vocabulary before Grade 4. In line with this second aspect, the study explores teacher beliefs, perceptions, pedagogical choices and pedagogical practices to further interrogate the degree of Grade 3 learners' preparedness for the transition to Grade 4. Third, the study seeks to appraise how much of this vocabulary learners have, as part of their basic vocabulary repertoire, by the time they begin Grade 4. This it does through testing the learners' knowledge of the vocabulary requisite for success in Grade 4 reading during the early months of Grade 4. These three imperatives are reflected in the research questions which guided the present study.

## **1.8 Research Questions**

This study is framed by the following questions:

1. What are the High Frequency English words in the Grade 4 subject textbooks which represent the vocabulary needs of Grade 3 learners for Grade 4 reading?
2. To what extent are isiXhosa speaking learners prepared in Grade 3 to meet the vocabulary demands of reading to learn in English in Grade 4?
3. What High Frequency Grade 4 subject textbook vocabulary do Grade 4 learners know at the beginning of the year?

While the research questions both illuminate and guide the present study, its positioning as discussed in the next chapter further clarifies the nature of the problem.

## **1.9 Chapter Summary and Thesis Overview**

This first chapter introduced the study by exploring the reading related transitional challenges from Grade 3 to Grade 4 within the South African context. Having noted that the transitional

challenge is largely a lexical one, the chapter discussed the significance of vocabulary, its interplay with comprehension and the need for privileging high frequency vocabulary. The chapter also discussed the particular challenge of reading to learn within the medium of a second language. The chapter clarified the study's research focus in the form of the problem statement and the attendant research questions.

Chapter 2 continues the contextualisation of the study by positioning it within the broad areas of intersection between vocabulary and comprehension as well as between the L1 and the L2 in relation to language learning and vocabulary development. Interrogation of the vocabulary-comprehension relationship is of import seeing that generally the ultimate goal of reading is comprehension and that reading with comprehension is a significant nature of the shift from learning to read to reading to learn. The interplay between the L1 and L2 is instructive to understanding the pedagogical decisions and practices necessary for ensuring effective transitioning from using the L1 as LoLT to use of L2 as LoLT.

Chapter 3 then defines key constructs of '*word*' and '*word knowledge*' on which the understanding and appreciation of the present study depends. It operationalises these constructs for the purposes of this study. Seeing that word meaning is a key dimension of word knowledge as Chapter 3 indicates, Chapter 4 discusses theoretical perspectives on word meaning specifically and word knowledge generally. Chapter 5 then details how data for the present study was obtained and from which sources. It explores the steps that were taken to determine the vocabulary needs of Grade 4 learners, the attendant challenges and lessons learnt. It describes and justifies the tests that were used to test learners' knowledge of the requisite vocabulary and discusses how the determination of Grade 3 learner preparedness for the requisite vocabulary was made. Chapter 6 presents data on the extent of the Grade 3 learners' preparedness for the transition to Grade 4 in terms of their exposure to requisite benchmark Grade 4 vocabulary. Chapter 7 follows up with the presentation of data of a quantitative nature on the Grade 4 learners' knowledge of key benchmark vocabulary by the beginning of Grade 4. The data presented in Chapter 6 and Chapter 7 is analysed in Chapter 8. Chapter 9 concludes the study by responding directly to each of the three research questions that guided the study. It then proffers recommendations on the basis of the study's findings.

## 2.0 CHAPTER 2 PERSPECTIVES AND ISSUES AROUND SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND LEARNING

### 2.1 Introduction

A study which seeks to understand the preparedness of learners for a transition to learning in a second language requires an understanding of the acquisition of the second language. This chapter extends the previous chapter's justification of the study's focus by locating the study within the theory and practice of second language learning. It explores diverse issues related to second language acquisition and learning from multiple perspectives to position the present study as well as to animate the complexity of second language learning. Because the present study focuses on the complex transitional needs of second language learners, it is imperative that it be located within the second language literacy acquisition and learning context. The complex nature of second language acquisition and learning is evident in that the field is fraught with multiple and diverse myths and unresolved dichotomies. Some of the myths and dichotomies will surface in this chapter's discussion. The diversity of models which try to account for L2 learning is testimony to this complexity. Barjesteh and Vaseghi (2012) note that the explosion in second language acquisition (SLA) research is manifest in the plethora of approaches, theories, models, laws, and principles that have been promulgated to account for SLA. This study was particularly interested in the SLA models.

### 2.2 Models of Second Language Acquisition

This section gives a snapshot of the models of second language acquisition which attempt to explain how a second language is acquired or learnt. Each of these privilege particular features of the language as most imperative.

#### *Input Hypothesis*

This model, which is associated with the work of Stephen Krashen, contends that the L2 is acquired (not learned) in the same way the L1 is acquired; through comprehensible input. Krashen (1985) considers input all that is necessary for the acquisition of a second language provided it is comprehensible to the language learner and that the learner has a low affective filter (attitudinal and mental dispositions which would not interfere with the acquisition of the input). Hart and Risley's (1995) work also lends credence to the role of input in language learning. Their study identified characteristics of parent language input in terms of linguistic diversity and feedback, rather than any other learner factors, as predictive of vocabulary

scores at ages 9–10. From their study, the lower the input children received, the lower their language knowledge and skills were. In a study by Gersten, Baker, Haager and Graves (2005) English language learners who reached near-native-like proficiency in English were those in classrooms where the nature of the language input was of a superior quality. This explains why according to Van Patten (2003), all the second language acquisition models have an element of input. The ‘input hypothesis’ magnifies the role of input in second language acquisition above all the others seeing it not just as necessary but also sufficient for learners to acquire a second language, provided the conditions are right. It is the sufficiency of input that Swain (2005) challenges in her output hypothesis.

### *Output Hypothesis*

The premise of the output hypothesis is that although the role of input in second language learning is not denied, it is nevertheless inadequate to account for SLA. From a review of studies in French immersion programs in Canada, Swain (2005) noted that despite the abundance of comprehensible input L2 learners had exposure to and which positively impacted on their oral proficiency, their productive language skills of speaking and writing were limited and were nowhere near those of native speakers’. What was lacking was the motivation or compulsion on the part of learners, to produce the language. Swain (2005) identifies three functions of output namely; noticing/triggering, hypothesis testing, and metalinguistic/reflective functions. By trying to produce language either through speaking or writing, learners would become aware of gaps and problems in their current L2 system (noticing) which motivates or ‘triggers’ them to pay greater attention to that which can make up for the lack. Output also compels the learner to hypothesize how the message encoded should look (for writing) or sound (for speaking). Learners go further to test the hypothesis through the actual production of the utterance which will draw feedback from the more knowledgeable others. It provides them with opportunities to experiment with new structures and forms (testing hypothesis) On the basis of this feedback they can then modify their utterance or make further hypotheses. The metalinguistic function of output is what leads the learner to use language to reflect on their or others’ language with a view to modifying it. Input then becomes the aspect that gives impetus to output. It provides learners with opportunities to reflect on, discuss and analyze these problems explicitly (reflecting). Second language production (i.e. output) compels learners to engage in complete grammatical processing and push the development of L2 syntax and morphology. Pushed learner output seems most useful in the area of vocabulary than in more other areas.

Related to the role of output is the concept of access. According to Antony (2008, p. 473), “[A]ccess involves searching the vocabulary store, or lexicon, in the brain to find appropriate words and forms of words necessary to express a particular meaning.” In language production or output, the communicator has to retrieve from their lexicon, the necessary terms (vocabulary) combine and order them in acceptable ways in sentences and whole discourses to encode meaning (syntax). Whereas access in the L1 is almost automatic, it requires conscious attention in the L2 (Antony, 2008). The meaning encoded constitutes the output. Both the input and output hypotheses present compelling explanations for second language acquisition, which invites a hypothesis that recognises both input and output in its explanation of second language acquisition. This, the interaction hypothesis seeks to do.

### *Interaction Hypothesis*

The interaction hypothesis was introduced by Long in 1983 to account for the role of interaction in second language learning. It is largely seen as an extension of the input hypothesis. Although the ‘interaction’ the ‘interaction hypothesis’ promotes is that between interactants within the second language learning environment, there is a sense in which that interaction brings about the interaction between input and output. Through interaction the learners create both the input and the output from which they learn. The basis of Long’s (1983) hypothesis was his observation of sixteen native and sixteen non-native pairs of interactants’ informal oral communication in which they explained rules of a game to each other. Despite the linguistic nature of the pairing, grammatical constructions noted were similar. There was, however, greater use or even reliance on interaction patterns like repetitions, clarification requests, or confirmation checks by both pairs. Within the interaction process, interlocutors negotiate meaning and facilitate comprehension which leads to language learning. In their guest editorial comment to the *International Journal of Educational Research*, Mayo and Solar (2002, p. 233) note that “Research has shown that L2 learners’ participation in negotiated interaction eases the access to conditions claimed to bolster language learning, namely: comprehensible input.” The input is not just consumed, it is queried, recycled and paraphrased which increases its comprehensibility. Within the interaction pattern, there is modified input and modified interaction. The former refers to modifications to the linguistic forms whereas modified interaction refers to modifications to the interactional structures (Wei, 2012). Within the negotiation process, the output is also modified as well as the attendant feedback. Modification of the interactional structure of

discourse through negotiated interaction between interlocutors is one way by which input is rendered comprehensible. Linked to the social constructivist model, classrooms therefore, need to be optimal learning environments where contexts for interaction are carefully designed to enable learners to create their own language knowledge within a socially constructed process of discovery.

From the three major hypotheses, it is apparent that second language learning proceeds on the basis of an interplay between input and output within a context of interaction. The acculturation model, automaticity model (Bialystok, 1978/1982), conditions outcomes model (Van Lier, 1996), and the associative model hypotheses have been used to explain second language acquisition but their application in classroom teaching is limited. A snapshot description of each of these models will suffice to give a general picture of the scope of alternative explanations that have been given to account for second language acquisition. The importance of interaction, which the interaction hypothesis emphasizes, is extended in Schumann's (1986) acculturation model which explains L2 acquisition in terms of the amount and quality of interaction L2 learners have with the L1 language users.

#### *The acculturation model*

Schumann's acculturation model is perceived by Barjesteh and Vaseghi (2012, p. 579) as possibly "... the earliest model toward centrality to learner factors..." in SLA. This model posits that the extent of second language learning is influenced by the social and psychological distance between the L1 and L2. The culture of the L2 systems and how the learner views and is viewed by the new target language group impacts on their acquisition of the language. According to the model,

...any learner can be placed along a continuum ranging from social-psychological distance to social-psychological proximity with the speakers of the target language. The degree of language acquisition, then, would correlate with the degree of the learner's proximity to the target group (Barjesteh & Vaseghi, 2012, p. 579).

The model accounts for natural rather than tutored SLA but its usefulness to the present study is in its underscoring the importance of SLA occurring incidentally through exposure to much input. Proximity of a second language acquirer to the native speakers exposes the acquirer to much input which ultimately leads to acquisition. The model is more useful in teacher preparation as a model that examines the impact of external factors on L2 learning. Equally limited in application is the automaticity model.

### *Automaticity model*

The model distinguishes between explicit and implicit language knowledge and the degree to which the individual analyzes, monitors, and uses two languages with ease (to use language with automaticity or control) (Bialystok, 1978/1982). The model has limited application to L2 instruction but provides a framework for cognitive learning in the L2.

### *Conditions outcomes model*

The conditions outcomes model (Van Lier, 1996) merges both input and output factors in SLA. It identifies the critical conditions required for language acquisition such as learner receptivity, attention and practiced intake. These are accessed in authentic forms rather than formal artificial forms. A creative way for their use is devised. In this way, the learner's L2 proficiency is developed. The model places emphasis on optimal learner output or production within authentic and meaningful interaction. Awareness, autonomy and authenticity are identified by Van Lier as key principles in SLA. Classroom interaction and learner output are also considered in this study.

### *The Associative-Cognitive model*

Ellis (2006, p. 100) posits that "SLA is governed by the same principles of associative and cognitive learning that underpin the rest of human knowledge." This perspective is based on the fact that high-frequency constructions are more readily processed than low-frequency ones. Such associative learning of a language from frequency of usage applies to words, letters, morphemes, syntactic patterns, and so forth. Frequency of both the use and exposure to language aspects result in their acquisition. Again here the elements of input, interaction and output are implied with the frequency of use being the general ingredient leading to associations and ultimately cognitive learning. The most significant contribution of the model to the present study is the key role it assigns to *frequency*, *recency*, and *context* of constructions in SLA; concepts which are also key in this study. Acquisition is perceived as progressing through repeated exposure to input.

A fuller picture of L2 learning can only emerge from viewing all the models as providing vital insights from different perspectives which enrich the understanding of L2 acquisition, rather than viewing them as mutually exclusive. Although there is much diversity in terms of the principles and imperatives of L2 learning, there is greater convergence of opinion with

regard to stages through which learners acquire a language. Although there is much diversity in the SLA models, there is a relatively high degree of consensus on the stages learners pass through in their acquisition of a second language.

### **2.3. Stages in Second Language Acquisition**

One similarity between first language acquisition and second language acquisition is that both proceed by stages and are characterized by developmental orders. Language is acquired through predictable and sequential stages of language development. Orosco and Hoover (2009) identify the following literature as giving a consistent perspective on the stages through which the learner passes in the acquisition of a second language (Baca & Cervantes, 2004; Cummins, 2000; Grossman, 1995; Hoover et al., 2008; Ovando, Collier & Combs, 2003). The literature testifies to second language acquirers going through the same stages with only the detail in the descriptions of the stages and the naming of some stages being different.

#### *Stage 1: Silent stage*

The initial stage a second language acquirer passes through is the silent stage. The stage, also called the pre-production stage, is envisaged to take up to 6 months. This initial active listening stage is characterized by very little use of the second language. L2 use may be in the form of 'Yes/No' type responses with no elaboration. Non-verbal responses are also characteristic of this stage. These should demonstrate comprehension. Focus at this stage is on internalizing the new language's vocabulary, structure, grammar etc. There is no compulsion for language production at this stage, even oral language. At this stage, shy and withdrawn behaviour and even some inattention may result from lack of facility with the productive aspects of the language. Language production becomes more manifest in the production stage.

#### *Stage 2: Production stage*

Some divide the production stage into early production (6 months after the silent stage) and speech emergence (1 year after the early production phase). During this stage the learner encodes communication on a more regular basis rather than just decoding it. The learner develops a repertoire of words (about 1000) in the early production phase which they draw from to communicate. In the speech emergence phase, vocabulary develops (to about 3000 words) as learners continue to communicate. In the early stage, learners can give one word

responses to questions, employ repetitive language patterns, and begin to verbalise. As they graduate to the speech emergence phase within the stage, they can communicate in short phrases and full simple sentences. Learners at the stage are prone to errors and the frustration the errors bring. With increase in vocabulary repertoire, learners develop some measure of L2 fluency in the intermediate fluency stage.

#### *Stage 3: Intermediate fluency stage*

The intermediate fluency stage again takes about an additional 1 year from the previous stage. Here, a learner understands and uses a large number of words (about 6000). They can now generate complex sentences, seek clarification, speak for extended periods and give opinions. Their facility in written language has significantly improved although they still make errors.

#### *Stage 4: Advanced or Continued Language Development stage*

At this stage, the learners develop and refine their language skills and fluency. Their comprehension and expressive ability have advanced and this is manifest in them making few errors. The learners have also developed content area vocabulary. This stage requires 5-7 years to develop fluency in the second language. In Cummins' (2000) second language proficiency model, this stage represents a learner operating at CALP. There is use of academic language. The progression of learners from one stage to the next is itself dependent on the factors that act upon second language learning and these also merit consideration.

## **2.4 Factors that Impact on Second Language Learning**

Literature abounds on the factors connected to L2 learning success. These factors can be broadly categorized as learner variables and environmental factors. The learner variables are the internal factors and the environmental factors are the external factors. Learner variables include age, aptitude, motivation and attitude, personality, cognitive style, hemisphere specialization and learning strategies. Environmental factors influencing instructed SLA include the type and quality of instruction and input, the environment, the material of instruction (graded, sequencing, ungraded, skill-oriented materials) among others. I elaborate on a few of these factors which have a bearing on the present study. These are age, aptitude, personality, motivation and attitude as well as the role of the L1.

### *Age*

In terms of age, research is inconclusive on its actual effects on learners' second language achievement. Research findings however, have a propensity towards the conclusion that older children acquire the second language fastest followed by adults then by young children; a conclusion which favours adolescent acquisition of a second language. The exception is in the area of pronunciation where children fare better and can eventually acquire native accents. Older learners and adults are advantaged by their prior literacy experience as they already know how to read and write in their first language. This literacy experience allows them to compare and contrast their L1 and L2 linguistic patterns and forms and analyse the language abstractly (VanPatten & Williams, 2007). All learners of second languages subconsciously transfer grammatical properties of their first language to the second language. They have also developed the sociolinguistic competence in language use. According to Krashen and Terrell (1983, p. 45),

[O]ver the long run, those who start second languages as children will usually reach higher levels of competence than those who start as adults (i.e. after age 15). Over the short run, however adults are faster in attaining second language proficiency than younger children.

The critical period for language acquisition has been variously set. Penfield and Roberts (1959) who first introduced the concept of a critical period for language learning posit that the human brain gets progressively stiff and rigid beyond nine years. Kumaravadivelu (2006) sets the age limit at puberty. He further notes the debate surrounding the critical period hypothesis where, for some, it only exists for foreign language accents, for others it exists for both accents and grammar, and for yet others, it does not exist at all. Marinova-Todd (2003) even asserts that availability, access and quality of second-language input and instruction influences second language learning more than the age factor does. This is not to altogether deny the influence of the age factor but to acknowledge both its limitations and the presence of other factors accounting for SLA. Another of these factors is the aptitude of the learners.

### *Aptitude*

Aptitude relates to innate attributes learners are individually endowed with which facilitate or constrain their acquisition of a second language. Not much research has been conducted on the role of aptitude in second language learning possibly because it is an area teachers can hardly do anything about. Carroll (1991) identifies four sub-components of aptitude namely; phonetic coding ability (capacity for sound discrimination), associative memory (capacity to

connect native and second language equivalents), grammatical sensitivity (appreciating the function of words in sentences), and inductive language analytic (ability to identify patterns, especially in verbal material, which may involve implicit or explicit rule representation). Skehan's (1989) sub-components of aptitude are auditory (ability to convert acoustic input into processable input), linguistic (capacity for language rule inferences, linguistic generalizations or extrapolations) and memory abilities (acquisition, storage and retrieval of new information like formulaic expressions). Aptitude differs from intelligence in that aptitude relates more closely to language learning success, expressed as a talent for language. Aptitude on its own is not adequate if it is coupled with commensurate motivation and positive attitude.

Learner motivation is requisite for second language as it is for all learning. The motivation may be integrative, instrumental, or resultative. In L2 contexts, learner attitude has been seen to correlate with second language acquisition. Parental and peer attitudes may also shape learner attitudes. Learner attitude towards the learning context and the language impacts on their language learning. Their attitude towards native culture and people will affect the motivation to acquire the language.

#### *Personality factors*

Self-esteem (the individual's feeling of self-worth) correlates with second language learning. Research is inconclusive on the role of extroversion and introversion with introverts seeming to fare well on reading and grammar but with extroversion being a trait that spurs learners to persevere with their study, which ultimately promotes second language acquisition (SLA). Anxiety can facilitate or debilitate, and so can influence language acquisition either way. Willingness to take risks and use the language facilitates language acquisition whereas sensitivity to censure or rejection constrains language acquisition. Research results are inconclusive regarding the role of empathy in SLA.

#### *Native Language*

This fifth factor, which El-dali (2012, p. 8) calls 'a non-stop debate' riddled with controversy, is the exact nature of the role of L1 in L2 learning. The lack of consensus is evident from the mass of evidence and counter-evidence for L1 influence. The controversy, discussion of which is beyond the scope of the present study, evokes partisan feelings. Koda (2007) considers as primary, understanding the interaction of the L1 and L2 and their coalescence in

the development of L2 reading skills in L2 reading research. The tension between the separation model and the integration model (Cook, 2003) in explaining the relationship between the L1 and L2 seems to have been resolved. According to the separationist model, there is a watertight compartmentalisation of the languages within the language user, where one language has nothing to do with the other (ibid). Such a mono-linguistic view proposes that L2 learning proceeds autonomously from L1 influence (Riches & Genesee, 2006). This is because the L2 learner cannot make the connection between the two languages in their mind.

The integration model however, sees the two language systems as integrally linked to the extent that one impacts on the other and the two share a single system (Cook, 2003). The extreme version of the integration model goes so far as to assert that “[W]e cannot count languages in mind as first, second, or third languages because they form a unitary system” (Talebi, 2013, p. 433). Current thinking rejects both models and rather goes along with the partial integration model which is a watered down version of the total integration model. While maintaining that the two language systems are separate, the partial integration model acknowledges the overlap of the language systems within the language user (Cook, 2003). That there is interplay between the L1 and the L2 in the learning of the latter is now widely acknowledged. This explains why the L1 as a variable in empirical research on L2 learning only gained recognition from the nineties (Jiang, 2011). Bilingual memory research has attested to the fact that bilinguals’ lexicons in the L1 and L2 overlap significantly. Second language reading differs from initial L1 reading in that in L2 reading there is interaction between the systems of the two languages.

There is, however, no consensus on the nature of the relationship with two major hypotheses accounting for the interplay differently. The two positions are the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis (LIH) and the Linguistic Threshold Hypothesis (LTH) (Cummins, 1979). The former hypothesis argues that L1 reading ability transfers to L2 reading as learners make a cross-linguistic transfer of their abilities from the L1 to the L2. The LTH posits that such ability transfers are only possible among learners who have attained a certain level of L2 proficiency (ibid). The LIH would predict that proficient L1 readers would be equally proficient L2 readers whereas the LTH would predict the extent of learners’ proficiency in L2 reading from how much of the L2 the learners know.

Both hypotheses are supported by a voluminous body of empirical work whose findings have not been consistent.<sup>2</sup> Jiang (2011, p. 179) observes that “The argument between the two hypotheses has not been whether there is transfer or not, but rather *when* transfer occurs (Bernhardt, 2005; Grabe, 2009).” Research (Verhoeven, 1994, 2000; Droop & Verhoeven, 2003) has shown that general reading skills are interdependent and transferable between L1 and L2 but “...lexical and syntactic skills are not likely to be readily transferred between L1 and L2, and these skills are strong predictors of L2 reading abilities” (Jiang, 2011, p. 179).

According to the LIH, the degree of congruence between the L1 and the L2 eases or complicates the acquisition of the L2. Close languages would have many cognates which expedite the lexical development of learners. Koda (2007) notes that the orthographic distance between two languages impacts performance differences in decoding across L1 linguistic groups. The learner’s proficiency in the L1 will influence their acquisition of L2 as they can transfer some skills to L2 acquisition. The complementary nature of the L1 to the L2 is expressed in the observations that: “the mother tongue is the launch pad for the second language” (Morgan & Rinvolutri, 2004, p. 8), and that the most effective way to begin to learn the meaning of a word is by translation into L1 (Nation, 2003).

The degree to which the L1 would positively impact L2 learning is dependent on the level of learner proficiency in the L1. The higher the proficiency, the more the L1 eases the acquisition of the L2 forms.

Because the present study deals with the L2 at the lexical level, it is informed more by the LTH than the LIH seeing that despite its acknowledged importance in L2 learning, vocabulary is least likely to be transferred from L1 to L2 contexts. The Threshold Hypothesis is represented clearly by Alderson (2000, p. 38–39), when he contends that:

The clear conclusion of [L1 reading versus L2 language knowledge] studies is that second-language knowledge is more important than first-language reading abilities, and that a linguistic threshold exists which must be crossed before first-language

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<sup>2</sup> Evidence for the Linguistic interdependence hypothesis is manifest from several studies demonstrating the relationship between the L1 and the L2. Jiang (2011, p. 178) says, “[R]esearch on the reading abilities of bilingual children has demonstrated moderate but significant relationships between their L1 and L2 reading abilities (Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995; Cummins, 1991; Van Gelderen, et al., 2004; Van Gelderen, Schoonen, Stoel, de Gloppe & Hulstijn, 2007; Verhoeven, 1991, 1994, 2000; Droop & Verhoeven, 2003). Jiang (2011) similarly cites research in support of the Linguistic Threshold Hypothesis which includes the work of Bernhardt and Kamil (1995), Bossers (1991), Brisbois (1995), Carrell (1991), Pichette, Segalowitz, and Connors (2003), among others.

reading ability can transfer to the second-language reading context. However, it is clear that this linguistic threshold is not absolute but must vary by task: the more demanding the task, the higher the linguistic threshold.

The notion of an unconditional transfer of L1 knowledge and proficiencies to the L2 is, therefore, a misleading assumption. Equally instructive in this regard is Koda's (2007, p. 29) observation that

In all studies, L2 variables were found to have a stronger impact, overriding the variance attributable to L1 experience. Thus, although L2 print information processing is guided by insights stemming from literacy experiences in the two languages, L2 print input appears to be the dominant force in shaping reading sub skills in that language.

The role of L1 proficiency in facilitating L2 learning is not denied in both quotes above. What is noted is the fallacy of expecting learners to do well in a second language they have hardly any knowledge of on the basis of them having a knowledge of the L1. Mastery of literacy in one language does not translate to significant literacy acquisition in another linguistic context. Even for superficial gains to be made, the linguistic aspects being transferred from the L1 should have been developed to automaticity levels.

Consensus in theoretical models of the bilingual lexicon is that the L1 and L2 have independent lexical systems which however map onto shared semantic (or conceptual) representations (Miikkulainen & Kiran, 2009). What is still of contention is how the two lexical systems interact with the semantic system. A brief review of the bilingual processing models is instructive on the role of the first language in the vocabulary development in the second language.

## **2.5. Theoretical Models of the Bilingual Lexicon**

Four models: concept-mediation model, word-association model, mixed model, and the asymmetrical model have been developed to address the nature of the lexicon of a bilingual learner. The concept-mediation model posits that both lexica (the L1 and L2 lexical systems) have direct access to the semantic or conceptual system. This is contrary to word association models which contend that the L2 lexical system's access to meaning is via the mediation of the L1 (Potter, So, Von Eckardt, & Feldman, 1984). Empirical evidence provided by Kroll and Curley (1998) suggests that the concept mediation model applies to bilinguals who have attained high proficiency levels in the two languages whereas the word association model explains the nature of word retrieval from concepts by less-proficient bilinguals.

Miikkulainen and Kiran (2009) see De Groot’s mixed model as providing the explanation. In the mixed model both lexica have a direct connection to each other and an indirect one through a shared semantic representation. Because the less proficient bilingual lacks proficiency in the L2, he or she does not benefit from a direct access to the semantic representation through the L2.

The asymmetrical model emerged as a revision of the mixed model. In this model, “The associations from L2 to L1 are assumed to be stronger than those from L1 to L2, and the links between the semantic system and L1 are assumed to be stronger than those between the semantic system and L2” (Miikkulainen & Kiran, 2009, p. 192). All four models assume a common semantic system with the difference only lying in their language representations.

The four models are diagrammatically represented by Miikkulainen and Kiran (2009, p. 192) thus;

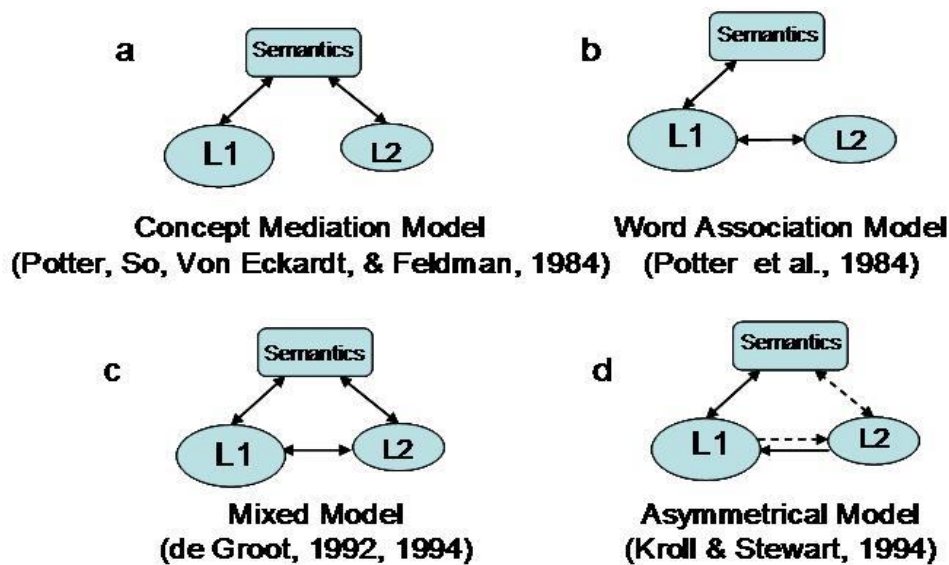


Figure 1: Theoretical Models of the Bilingual Lexicon

Jiang (2000) identifies three phases in the acquisition of L2 vocabulary. In the first phase learner focus is on the formal properties of a word. In the second phase learners impose their L1 semantic and syntactic features on the L2 lexical entries. The new word is matched with the pre-existing L1 meanings and may lead to lexical transfer. In the last stage; L2 semantic, syntactic and morphological information is incorporated into corresponding known vocabulary. This stage marks a departure from reliance on L1 mediation and is the L2

integration stage. The role of the L1 in L2 vocabulary learning is stronger among the less proficient learners. During the initial learning of L2 words, they are learnt in relation to known L1 concepts and become part of existing schemas. The phases of vocabulary acquisition are themselves, dependent on the nature of the word learning contexts.

## **2.6 Word Learning Contexts**

Learning contexts are not homogeneous. Armbruster et al. (2001) identify diverse types and contexts of word learning. These are not in any way sequential. One context is where the learners have, in their repertoire, the receptive knowledge of a word and are learning another of its meanings. In this context, a new meaning is acquired for an already known word. A second instance is where the learner knows a concept but does not have a label for it in the target language. What they need to learn is the new word whose concept is already familiar to them. The third context of word learning is where the learners are ignorant of both the word or label and the concept it represents. What has to be learnt is the meaning of a novel word representing an unknown concept. The last instance is where learners learn the nuanced meanings and uses of a word. These represent the finer, subtle distinguishing features of a word's meaning or use. The learners in this case, already know the denotative word meaning sufficiently well. The learners get to the connotative meaning of a word. Such word learning serves to clarify and enrich the knowledge of a known word. This fourth level of word learning relates to the depth of word knowledge. For learners who have not attained a high level of proficiency within the language, the recall of newly acquired words is more effective through translation than from within the second language context (Schmitt, 2008). The influence on second language acquisition of the stages, factors, models this chapter has discussed becomes apparent from a review of relevant studies.

## **2.7 Relevant Literacy-related Studies within the South African Context**

This section brings together a conglomeration of studies that speak to different aspects of the present study. The studies have literacy transition and literacy-related foci. Closely related to the present study is the notable Threshold Project (MacDonald, 1990) which Hoadley (2010) reports on. The study sought to understand learner challenges in coping with 'crossing the threshold' to learning all subject areas in the medium of English within the then apartheid homeland of Bophuthatswana in South Africa. The study indicated that, at most, the learners had a vocabulary repertoire of 700 words when the curriculum demands could only be met by a minimum of 7000 words. The most proficient among the learners had only a tenth of the

requisite vocabulary and this compromised learners' reading with comprehension and effective learning in general. "The sudden transition resulted in most learners resorting to rote learning content which they did not understand" (p.8). There was gross loss of meaning on the part of the learners. Learners' pedagogical experiences were connected to the high dropout rate at Grade 4 at the time. Although the present study does not seek to determine the size of isiXhosa speaking learners' English vocabulary repertoire to determine their preparedness to learn in English, it seeks to make the determination of learners' readiness for Grade 4 reading on the basis of their knowledge of targeted vocabulary, the HFW.

Without providing any context, Hoadley (2010, p. 8, 9) quotes Chick's (1996) conclusion, in a study of a socio-linguistic kind with older learners which is comparable to the present study, thus;

chorusing and rhythmic chanting in classroom, and absence of individual, evaluated performances (what he terms 'safe-talk') was a strategy to mask both teacher's and students' poor command of English and their lack of understanding of academic content. In a sense it represented a form of learning that enabled them to hide the absence of substance.

Classroom dynamics are an important feature of the present study and the quality of teacher language use and interaction is instructive. The extent to which classroom dynamics, particularly as guided by teacher talk, is significant for the determination of Grade 3 learners' level of preparedness for the reading challenges of Grade 4. The next study by Taylor and Moyane extends the investigation into the classroom dynamics and identifies their characteristic features.

Taylor and Moyane's (2004) Khanyisa Education Support programme baseline study of 24 randomly selected primary schools in two rural Limpopo province districts confirmed chorusing, low cognitive demand, weak assessment, slow pacing, poor quality and quantity of reading and writing as characteristic at the third grade level. Individual learner interaction with books constituted a mere 3% of time in the literacy classrooms. The most manifest form of learner reading was the reading of three or four sentences on the board chorally after the teacher. The scant writing that was evident was that of decontextualized words and not sentences. The existent classroom practices were exposed as very limiting in terms of developing learners' proficiency in the target language. Because the extent to which attempts were made to enhance Grade 3 isiXhosa speaking learners' proficiency in the English

language was key to establishing the extent to which they were prepared for the challenges of reading in Grade 4, Taylor and Moyane's study was instructive.

Because the transitional challenges informing the present study are reading-related, a review of research in reading was necessary. Hoadley (2010) reports on a HSRC study conducted in twenty schools in Limpopo in Grade 1 to 4 classes on the teaching of reading. The study was large scale involving 2 hour observations in 77 classes. Results indicated very little reading where in 12% of the classrooms virtually no reading was visible. In the few instances where it was evident, teacher modeling was absent and the reading was confined to words in isolation and not extended texts. Only picture discussions were quite evident. In 69% of the time, learner responses were not elaborated on. The study concluded that "...the scale of exposure to vocabulary (even pedestrian vocabulary) and text falls way below what should be expected at each grade level observed" (Hoadley, 2010, p. 18).

From the review of the research cited in this chapter and several other studies, Hoadley (2010, p. 18) identifies what characterises Foundation Phase literacy classrooms thus:

- Students have limited opportunities to handle books and bound material;
- There is limited teaching of reading;
- Students mainly read isolated words rather than extended texts;
- There is little emphasis on the comprehension of text – the focus is on decoding not meaning;
- There is little or no elaboration on learner responses (IR with no E);
- Learning is largely communalised;
- There is virtually no vocabulary and spelling development, and very little formal teaching of phonics; and
- There is a lack of (good) print material in classrooms.

## **2.8 Vocabulary Teaching-Learning Strategies and the Role of Vocabulary Exposure**

From Schmitt's (1997, p. 207-208) taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies, some key vocabulary teaching strategies that can be inferred and are relevant for the second language beginner learners described in this study are:

- Provision of an L1 equivalent
- Guessing word meaning from contextual use
- Teaching word lists
- Using flash cards
- Use of a new word in a sentence
- Giving the meaning or synonym of a word
- Practicing word meaning with peers for consolidation
- Pictorial word representation

- Making connections between words and their synonyms or antonyms
- Use of semantic maps
- Drilling an aspect of a word, for example pronunciation, spelling etc
- Use of physical action e.g. demonstration or gestures
- Verbal and/ or written repetition of word
- Labelling objects in classroom

Long and Richards (2001) have found that strategies of drawing attention to words and defining them lead to vocabulary gains. Attention drawing strategies include activities like presentation of words to learners prior to their reading of a particular selection and pre-teaching them as well as highlighting them. Their manifestation in teacher practices would be indicators of the potential for teacher practices to impact on vocabulary learning. Learners can only learn those words that they are exposed to. Hart and Risley's (1995) landmark study on the massive discrepancies in vocabulary knowledge of learners according to their different socio-economic status attests to the significance of word exposure to word acquisition and knowledge. There is however, no consensus in research on the number of words average learners of an average school-age learn per day or per week. Daily word acquisition estimates are extremely varied ranging from three words a day (Joos, 1964), through seven (Beck et al., 2002) to twenty (Miller, 1978). Beck et al. (2002) even found that among what they called 'at-risk' learners, the figure was as low as one or two words a day.

Within L1 English speaking contexts, Biemiller (2005) found that lowest quartile learners learnt between 500 and 600 words a year. According to the Vocabulary Learning Hypothesis, "[M]ost vocabulary is learned gradually through repeated exposure to new and known words, in various contexts" (Nagy and Herman, 1985, p. 16). They note that a single word encounter only gives the learner a 5 to 10% probability of knowing and retaining it. They peg the ideal number of word encounters for the entrenchment of a word in memory in varied contexts at 10-12 exposures. More and varied contextualised exposures would be needed to ensure transference of words from passive to active vocabulary. Hinkel (2007, p. 6) notes that "...a large passive vocabulary does not necessarily result in a better active vocabulary." Active vocabulary is one a language user can easily and readily draw on for productive language use whereas passive vocabulary is latent. The frequency of word usages required for learners to 'own' a word underscores the importance of strategies that will ensure vocabulary instruction does not go "a mile wide but only an inch deep". Sacrificing depth for breadth is itself counter-productive. The meaningfulness of the context in which vocabulary is encountered is

as important, if not more important than the mere exposure of the vocabulary, especially for developing active vocabulary.

Lessons where focus is on a specific topic or theme allow for the recycling of vocabulary within a meaningful context which allows for sufficient practice with the related vocabulary. There is also need for multiple exposures which complement to develop learners' robust vocabularies. Mere word repetition or word drill will not avail much (Stahl, 2005). Possibly the most consistent finding in vocabulary instruction is that varied, multiple and meaningful word exposure is requisite for vocabulary development. The more concrete the learners' experiences with new words, the better they will be positioned to comprehend and retain them.

Several researchers including Biemiller (2005) have documented the meagre percentage of vocabulary instructional time and the absence of systematic, explicit vocabulary instruction in schools within second language contexts. Traditionally, word instruction was delegated to the glossary and the dictionary or was in the form of a quick oral definition. These accorded learners an on-the-fly word exposure which hardly translated to word learning on a long-term basis seeing that learners needed multiple word exposures in multiple contexts for them to understand, remember, and apply new words (Nagy, 2005).

In Saragi, Nation and Meister's (1978) study, learners learned 93% of the words after six or more exposures to the words while words presented less than six times were learned by only half the learners. Jenkins, Stein and Wysocki's study (1984) had only 25% of the learners learning a word after 10 encounters. Although such discrepancies characterize research on the amount of exposure that triggers word learning, what is held in common is the idea that the more the frequency of word exposure the greater the likelihood of it being learnt. The discrepancies in the estimates emanate from a host of other confounding variables including the nature of the word exposure and the word testing, the proficiency levels of the learners, among others.

## **2.9 Chapter Summary**

This chapter has located the present study by positioning it within the broad debates on the nature of second language learning and acquisition among biliterate learners. The chapter has also located the study within related studies conducted in contexts similar to the present

study's context in South Africa. The studies are instructive for the present study in terms of pointing to the nature of the classroom dynamics impacting the acquisition of a second language by learners. The present study investigates the presence and nature of these and more factors as well as seeking to determine the learners' knowledge of critical vocabulary. The subsequent chapter conceptualises and operationalizes the key concepts for which clarity of meaning is pivotal to understanding the nature of this study. These are the concept 'word' and the concepts 'word meaning' and 'word knowledge'.

### **3.0 CHAPTER 3 CONCEPTUALISATION AND OPERATIONALISATION OF THE CONCEPTS ‘WORD’, ‘WORD KNOWLEDGE’ AND ‘WORD MEANING’**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

Any attempt to understand vocabulary needs requires deconstruction of, and engagement with, key concepts such as what a ‘word’ is. Similarly, any attempt to establish the vocabulary knowledge of learners requires clarity and specificity about what knowing a word is and what word meaning entails. These key concepts are conceptualised and operationalized in this study. The need for the conceptualisation of the key concepts in this study stems from the multiplicity of meanings they can take on. The study’s investigation and the resultant findings should and will be an expression of a particular conceptualisation of the key concepts. This chapter is, therefore devoted to the conceptualisation, and in some instances, operationalization of these key concepts. The key terms or concepts which are the focus of the chapter are: the notion of word, the concept word knowledge, the concept word meaning, the concepts content and structural words, as well as the concepts general, specialised, academic and technical vocabulary. A clear conceptualisation of these terms is meant to address questions like ‘What word unit of analysis should be used in the present study?’ ‘What constitutes knowledge of a word for third grade English second language learners?’ ‘Do words have meanings in and of themselves or do they derive their meanings from context?’ ‘Should structural words be considered in a study investigating learners’ word knowledge?’ ‘Which kind of vocabulary needs to be used in making a determination of third grade learners’ lexical preparedness to profit from reading content area texts?’ These are concerns at the heart of this study. Because all these questions hinge on the notion of a word, this chapter not only deals with this notion first, but also offers a more detailed discussion of it than of the other concepts like word knowledge.

#### **3.2 The Notion of ‘Word’**

Any study which requires the determination of vocabulary needs on the basis of word frequency counts requires a clear conception of the construct ‘word’ and its operationalization if valid conclusions are to be drawn. Generation of high frequency vocabulary is dependent on how ‘word’ is defined as a unit of analysis. Measurement of word knowledge among learners is a challenge owing to lack of consensus in the literature about what a word is. This has led researchers to produce what Read (2000, p. 16) calls “...wildly

differing figures...” in their word counts. Laufer and Goldstein (2004, p. 399) observes that even the vocabulary tests researchers may come up with are “...contingent upon the test designer’s definition of a word.” The challenge of defining the construct ‘word’ with precision has plagued both L1 and L2 contexts as observed by Gardner (2007, p. 245) who says:

The definition of what constitutes a word for counting purposes and potential learning purposes has also been the subject of extensive debate in L1 and L2 instructional contexts for quite some time (Anderson and Freebody, 1981; Anderson and Nagy, 1992; Bauer and Nation, 1993; Hazenberg and Hulstijn, 1996; Goulden et al. 1990; Nagy and Anderson, 1984; Wesche and Paribakht, 1996).

Literature on lexical frequency measures acknowledges the divergence in the conceptualisation of the construct ‘word’ for counting purposes (Read & Chappelle, 2001; Nation, 2001; Milton, 2009) which necessitates the operationalization of the construct ‘word’ in the present study. Gardner (2007, p. 242) views the definition of the construct ‘word’ for counting and analysis purposes as the greatest challenge besetting corpus-based vocabulary research. He further notes that what compounds the challenge is “... the additional concern of whether researcher-based conceptualizations of word (i.e. the criteria used to group words, count words, etc.) actually match the psychological realities of Word (i.e. actual knowledge of or about words in the minds of target language users).” This becomes a validity concern. Any sound definition of word should ensure that word forms which are considered the same word by the word definition or unit of counting are registered in the mind and acquired by learners as the same word. What follows then, is an appraisal of the four current conceptualisations of the construct ‘word’ namely; word as a token, as a type, as a lemma, and as a word family. The inappropriateness of each of these constructs for use in the present study is discussed and the perspective of ‘word’ adapted for the present study is discussed and reasons for its use advanced.

#### *Word as Token*

The most general use of the notion of ‘word’ is as a token. Carter’s (1998, p. 4) definition of ‘word’ in Catalán and Francisco (2008, p. 151) as “...any sequence of letters (and a limited number of other characteristics such as hyphen and apostrophe) bounded on either side by a space or punctuation mark” is consonant with the conception of word as token. Conceptualising word as token is the ordinary, more general conception of word. For example, when a research journal instructs authors to limit their manuscript to 6 000 words,

the unit of word the journal would be referring to is that of word as token. In word as token, each lexical item is regarded as a separate word from any other and is counted as many times as it recurs in a text. Nation (2001) observes that word as token is sometimes referred to as running words in a text. A statement '*The singer sang a song different from the songs the other singers had sung*' would have 14 word tokens or running words. All the combination of letters standing out as lexically independent units separated from other units by a space would be separate words no matter the number of times they recur.

Conceptualising word as token has no merit in word frequency counts because the same word is counted as a separate form every time it appears in a text which means there can be no determination of the frequency of a word's appearance in a text. In the 14 token statement above, the first 'the' is word number 1, the second is word number 8 and the third is word number 10. One who knows all the words in the statement is considered as knowing 14 words despite the word 'the' appearing three times in text bearing the same orthographic constitution or spelling, the same pronunciation and the same meaning in all the appearances. The present study which depended on a computation of word frequencies could therefore, not adopt the definition of word as token. Limitations such as these in the conceptualisation of word as a token could possibly have necessitated the consideration of other word constructs like word as type which are amenable to the generation of frequency counts. The notion of word as a type therefore, merited consideration in the present study.

#### *Word as Type*

In conceptualising word as a type, one considers the same word appearing several times as a single word. Tweedie and Baayen (1998, p. 325) say, "[A] word token is an instance of a particular word type." A word token differs from a word type in that a word is only counted once no matter how many times it recurs in a text. The statement '*The singer sang a song different from the songs the other singers had sung*' would this time be considered 12 words long because the form 'the' would only be counted once. Nation (2001, p. 7) notes that, "We count words in this way if we want to answer questions like 'How large was Shakespeare's vocabulary?' 'How many words do you need to know to read this book?'" Use of word as type makes two assumptions which can be challenged. First; is the assumption that every individual word is unique and so even words that are derived from another have to be considered as separate words.

A learner who knows the word ‘girls’ has to demonstrate knowledge of the word ‘girl’ for them to be regarded as knowledgeable about both words. This is unrealistic and is not consistent with how we acquire a language’s vocabulary. We derive meanings of some words from our knowledge of related others. If I am told that a new verb ‘grut’ has been coined, I would not need to be told about the presence of *gruts*, *grutting* and *grutted*. I would know these on the basis of my knowledge of grut. I would also know that one who *gruts* is a *grutter*. The perspective of word as token represents a denial of the learning burden principle which Nation (2001) defines as the amount of effort required to learn a new word once a closely related word is known. If every word form was acquired separately, then vocabulary acquisition would be a painfully slow process. The reality, even for beginners, is that learners can recover the meaning of some words from their knowledge of others.

The second assumption in the ‘word as type’ construct is that each form with the same string of letters is one word. Homonyms, which are words with the same spelling and pronunciation but different meanings, would present problems. An overused but apt example of a homonym is ‘bank’. Bank as a financial institution has nothing in common with the bank of a river. It is ironic that word as type would deny ‘girl’ and ‘girls’ same word status but give it to all the variations of the word bank. Some words also function as both nouns and verbs depending on their use and knowledge of a word as a verb does not translate to its knowledge as a noun and vice versa. On the one hand, the type discounts some word forms from being considered as the same word because of a difference in their orthographic identity no matter how small the difference or how close to each other the two forms may be. On the other hand, it considers totally different words like homonyms as one word when they are not related at all in terms of what they signify. Such limitations on the part of the type, and in particular its disregard of the learning burden principle, provided the rationale for the consideration of the lemma unit of counting, which applies the learning burden principle.

#### *Word as Lemma*

The conception of word as a lemma considers several words sharing particular characteristics or attributes as one word. Francis and Kučera (1982, p. 1) in Gardner (2007, p. 243-244) define a lemma as ‘a set of lexical forms having the same stem and belonging to the same major word class, differing only in inflection and/or spelling.’ From the statement ‘*The singer sang a song different from the songs the other singers had sung*’ some words would be considered as the same word on account of one being a base form and another being its

inflected form. Both words, however, have to belong to the same word class. The form *singer* will be the base form for *singers* and being both nouns, the two belong to the same lemma and are therefore, considered as one word in the computation of word frequencies. The same holds true for the forms *song* and *songs* (both nouns) as well as *sang* and *sung* (both verbs from the base form *sing*). The assumption is that the learning burden between the base form and the inflected form is eliminated or eased considerably if the base form and the grammatical functioning of the morphological inflections are known. If the meaning of a word can just be recovered from that of the other, then the two are actually one, is the thinking behind the learning burden principle. The ‘s’ added to *singer* and *song* to come up with *singers* and *songs* respectively is an inflection which is just indicative of the same word’s change in grammatical functioning from a singular to a plural form.

The requirement of having members of a lemma sharing the same part of speech means that, in a statement ‘*Take the water and water the flowers*’, the first *water* would be considered a different word from the second. Knowing the meaning of *water* as a noun would not translate to knowing its use as a verb. Browne, Cihî and Culligan (2007, p. 2) endorse the rationale for the constitution of lemmas by arguing that

...statistical item difficulty factors for ‘accept’, ‘accepts’ and ‘accepting’ are very close, whereas the statistical difficulties for ‘acceptable’, ‘acceptance’ and ‘unacceptable’, are all quite different. One hypothesis is that the brain treats these six items as four different Base Words.

Although lemma constitution seems to be a neat, well defined linguistic notion, in practice it is replete with challenges and limitations. Francis and Kučera’s (1982, p. 1) lemma definition accommodates irregular forms within a lemma despite them not being transparent. Examples are forms like *went*, *sought*, *best* and so forth. There is nothing in the orthographic make up or even their pronunciation which suggests that their base forms are *go*, *seek* and *good*. As Gardner (2007, p. 244) observes,

... the case of the irregulars poses serious quandaries relating to the psychological validity of such family relationships—namely, that the opaque spelling and phonological connections between the lemma headword and the family members will surely cause more and different learning problems than their more transparent counterparts.

This defeats the whole learning burden principle for which the lemma was created to address. Writing about the place of irregular forms within a lemma, Nation (2001, p. 8) notes that “[T]he learning burden of these is clearly heavier than the learning burden of regular forms

like books, runs, talked, washed and fastest.” He questions whether irregular forms should share the same lemma as the base form or should constitute separate lemmas. There appears to be no consensus on the place of irregular forms within a lemma. According to Milton (2009, p. 10) “[A] lemma includes a headword and its most frequent inflections and this process must not involve changing the part of speech from that of the headword.”

The introduction of the qualification, ‘most frequent inflections,’ to the lemmatisation process is an attempt to make the constitution of a lemma less accommodative and more manageable. What criteria to use to determine which inflections are the most frequent can be questioned. Should these be inflections inflecting the bulk of words within a language or should these be inflections inflecting the most used forms? Even what constitutes a headword is not clear. Sinclair (1991) in Nation (2001) questions whether it should be the base form or the most frequent form.

Nation (2001) adds the reduced or contracted ‘n’t’ form to the constituents of a lemma. A close look would show that even the contracted forms do not impose uniform learning burden to warrant having all of them considered the same word as their full forms. There are what I see as transparent contracted forms like *do not-don’t*, *have not-haven’t* but there are also opaque contracted forms like *will not-won’t*, *am not-ain’t*. It is, therefore, a gross overgeneralization to assume that the contracted form will be known once the full forms are known.

Stubbs (2002) proposes that members of the same lemma should share the same meaning which has the problem of not clearly distinguishing a lemma from a lexeme, since the lexeme also denotes a group of words sharing the same meaning and same word class. An addition of the element of same meaning to the composition of a lemma would make the compilation of lemmas a daunting challenge. Knowles and Mohd Don (2004, p. 71) acknowledge the tremendous difficulty of constituting a lemma and the unconvincing generalisations often emanating from “...generalizations about whole lemma...” and advise researchers to consider “...individual word meanings...” as the basis for their word count and analyses. According to Browne, Cihl and Culligan (2007, p. 2) “...the brain stores and processes lemmas having similar difficulty factors as forms of the same word, and ... stores and processes lemmas having different difficulty factors as different words.” The challenge then is to constitute lemmas in the way that the brain recognises, processes and stores word forms as one word.

The perspective of word as lemma raises more questions than it answers and evidently embraces within its fold several word forms with dissimilar learning burden. These limitations on the part of the lemma necessitated the consideration of the last of the current notions of the construct ‘word’; word as word family.

### *Word as Word Family*

Word as word family is more accommodative of words with diverse features than the lemma. Whereas a lemma is a grouping of words produced through inflectional processes, a word family is a group of words created through word formation processes. A word family is less precisely determined than a lemma is. According to Nation (2001, p. 8), “[A] word family consists of a headword, its inflected forms, and its closely related derived forms.” Word family as a unit of counting is also based on the learning burden principle where words are grouped together into a family if the effort to learn a derivative (word derived from another) is eased by the knowledge of the base word. The word family unit of counting is, however, broader than the lemma in that while it includes all the words in a lemma, it goes further to incorporate some words into the word family of a base word which would not make it into a lemma. In the first instance, the restriction of having words belong to the same part of speech as the base does not apply. Words traversing word classes can gain membership in the same word family. In the statement *‘The singer sang a song different from the songs the other singers had sung’*, the forms *singer, sang, song, songs, singers* and *sung* can be part of the same word family and would be considered as one word for word frequency counts. This effectively reduces the number of words in the statement to seven.

Word families have their basis of the understanding that the acquisition of thousands of words is through the application of morphological rules which ensure “...little or no extra learning when one or more of the members is already known to the learner (Chung, 2009, p. 162). For instance, the process of affixation which includes prefixation and suffixation eases the learning of many words. A word family therefore, “... includes a wider range of inflections and derivations...as the basis of word counts” (Milton, 2009, p. 11). A word family formula would thus be, *Word Family=Base form +Basic Inflected forms+ Transparent derivatives*. Such definition is imprecise because it does not spell out the criteria that qualify some word forms as basic inflected and transparent derivatives. Use of word families as a unit for measuring learners’ vocabulary knowledge makes unwarranted assumptions about learner knowledge and competences. Bauer and Nation (1993) identify the

kinds of knowledge learners should possess to appreciate the similarities of words falling within the same family. Learners need to be conversant with word bases and recognise them in words, like the relational knowledge between *sung* and *singer* emanating from their sharing the same base form, *sing*.

Bauer and Nation (1993) endorse the need for learners who are knowledgeable about the morphological properties of words, learners who would know that *mean* does not derive from *me* despite the orthographic or spelling string for *me* occurring in *mean*. Learners should also have some implicit knowledge of the role of affixes (prefixes and suffixes) in word formation and word meaning as well as be able to use permissible base-affix combinations in speech and writing. It would be naïve to expect learners, particularly second language learners in the early years of schooling to have such intricate morphological knowledge. This renders the value of word families as units of counting and analyses highly suspect for the present study.

The learning burden of words belonging to the same family may not be as negligible as the construct of word families implies. Nation (2001, p. 8) rightly observes that, “The major problem in counting using word families as the unit is to decide what should be included in a word family and what should not. Learners’ knowledge of the prefixes and suffixes develops as they gain more experience of the language. What might be a sensible word family for one learner may be beyond another learner’s present level of proficiency.” This, according to him necessitates the setting up of a word families incremental scale from “... the most elementary and transparent members and moving on to less obvious possibilities” (p. 8).

Bauer and Nation (1993) came up with seven levels or word family scale based on an analysis of the 1,000,000 token Lancaster-Oslo-Bergen (LOB) corpus dealing mainly with affixation. Table 1 presents an adaptation of Bauer and Nation’s (1993, p. 254) scale from the second level to the seventh level of inflections and affixations.

Table 1: Adaptation of Bauer and Nation's Word Family Scale

Level	Affixation and inflection
1	No affixes.
2	-s, -ing, -ed, -er, -est, (all inflections)
3	-able, -er, -ish, -less, -ly, -ness, -th, -y, non-, un-, ( <i>Most frequent and regular derivational affixes</i> )
4	-al, -ation, -ess, -ful, -ism, -ist, -ity, -ize, -ment, -ous, in- ( <i>Frequent, orthographically regular affixes</i> )
5	-age, -al, -ally, -an, -ance, -ant, -ary, -atory, -dom, -eer, -en, -ence, -ent, -ery, -ese, -esque, -ette, -hood, -I, -ian, -ite, -let, -ling, -ly, -most, -ory, -ship, -ward, -ways, -wise, ante-, anti-, arch-, bi-, circum-, counter-, en-, ex-, fore-, hyper-, inter-, mid-, mis-, neo-, post-, pro-, semi-, sub-, un- ( <i>Regular but infrequent affixes</i> ).
6	-able, -ee, -ic, -ify, -ion, -ist, -ition, -ive, -th, -y, pre-, re- ( <i>Frequent but irregular affixes</i> ).
7	ab-, ad-, com-, de-, dis-, ex-, and sub- ( <i>Classical roots and affixes</i> ).

NB: Bracketed words in italics at the end of each level from level 4 through to 7 are not part of the original.

At level 1, learners are assumed to treat each form as a different word. At level 2 only words sharing the same base and inflections are considered to have membership of a word family. The plural ‘-s’, ‘-es’, third singular present ‘-es’, the past participle ‘-ing’, the comparative ‘-er’, the superlative ‘-est’, the possessive ‘-s’ which I identified earlier for the lemma are the inflectional categories at this level recognisable from a “...minimal morphographic analysis” (Bauer & Nation 1993, p. 258). This is the analysis of the minimum meaningful unit and the written or graphic symbols. The challenge of the frequent but irregular affixes at level 6 lies in that “...parts of the base are deleted or additions besides the suffix are needed, or because there are major problems involved in segmenting them caused by homography” (Bauer & Nation, 1993, p. 261). Homographs are words which share the same spelling but mean different things.

Gardner (2007, p. 247) appreciates the "... apparent advantage of this seven-level categorization scheme ... that Word or Word Family can be operationalized at various defensible levels for analysis and comparative analysis purposes—at least in terms of learners' abilities to associate morphologically related words." Learner perceived competence would determine at which level the constitution of word families should be made. From the word family scale, Gardner (2007) however, notes as problematic the repetition of many affixed forms at the different levels. The suffix '-able' is at both level 3 and level 6 and it is not clear then where to place words ending in '-able'. He also critiques the scale for failure to acknowledge that "... derivational prefixes and derivational suffixes may present different learning dilemmas for developing readers..." as well as assuming "... that learners' exposure to, and acquisition of, morphologically-related words is somehow linear in nature—in other words, that language learners acquire base forms before their inflected and derived family members " (p. 247). Another challenge besetting the use of word families as counting units is the diversity of learner orientations to morphological issues, and the multiple morphological variables that need to be considered. Such challenges cast doubt on the efficacy of word families as a suitable unit of counting in young learners' vocabulary measurement despite the word family's extensive use in vocabulary measures.

As one moves from a consideration of words as tokens to types to lemma and to word family, the word count gets progressively smaller. This is because within a type there are tokens and within lemmas are tokens and types and all the three are subsumed within the word family. This progressive decline in the word counts from the token to the word family constructs is diagrammatised in Figure 2.

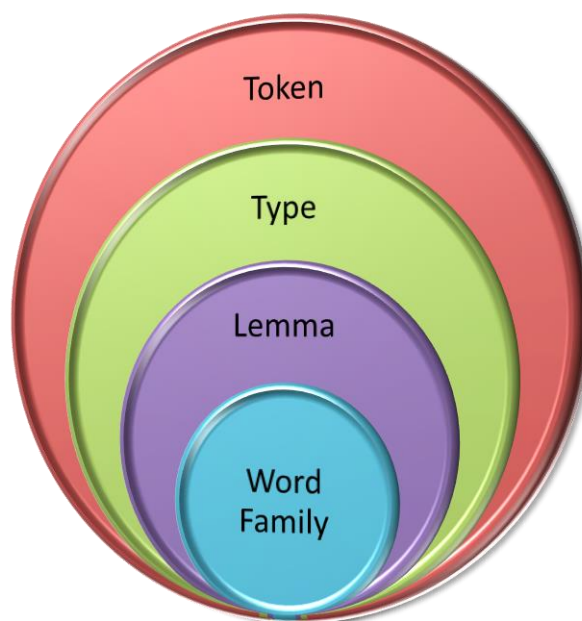


Figure 2: Relationship among the Current Word Constructs

### 3.2.1 Implications of the Word Constructs for this Study

As evident in the discussion above, each of the word constructs has limitations as a unit of vocabulary measurement and analysis. The conceptualisations of word as lemma and as word family are riddled with complications and unresolved concerns identified above, which compromise the reliability of measures based on their use as counting units. The way the learning burden principle is over-applied in the lemmatisation of words and in the constitution of word family units, applies to proficient readers who can deduce the meaning and use of one word from that of several others, but does not equally apply to beginners who do not have intricate knowledge of morphological inflections and derivations.

Conceptualising word as a type would defeat the concept of high frequency vocabulary as, for instance, the word 'the' in one sentence would be considered different from the same word in other parts of the sentence or in other sentences. This would mean no high frequency words would be generated. Because the word as token ignores the learning burden principle altogether, it is severely limited for use in the present study. Knowing the word *songs* logically presupposes knowledge of the word *song* and the two would well be considered as one word even for foundation phase learners. The learning burden principle is a noble principle which, in my view, the lemma and word family constructs over-extend, and the

token and type ignore. This rejection of the notions of word as they are currently constituted required the adaptation of a particular word notion to suit the present study.

### **3.2.2 Construct of ‘Word’ for the Present Study**

An interrogation of the efficacy of different perspectives on the notion of word necessitated a shift from the current conceptualisations of word in the present study. In the generation of high frequency words for this study, I used the type as the unit of counting seeing that available software packages could not accommodate the unit of counting I adopted for the computation of word frequency lists. Once the list of word tokens was generated, I infused the learning burden principle by combining the frequencies of those words I regarded as having negligible learning burden from each other. I then repositioned these combined words on the word frequency list. For this study’s word notion, I considered words sharing the same base and the following inflections; the present progressive (-ing) as in eating, plural (-s) as in books, possessive (-’s) as in boy’s, past regular (-ed) as in talked, third person singular (-s) as in walks, and the long plural (-es) as in mangoes, as one word.

The inclusion of the above inflections and exclusion of others which the construction of lemmas and word families include was based on extensive morpheme studies by Dulay and Burt, 1974; Fathman, 1975; Makino, (1980) cited in Krashen, (1987) which showed that acquisition of English grammatical structures follows a 'natural order' which is predictable and is independent of instruction, learners' age, L1 background, or conditions of exposure. The inflected forms I included were found to be the ones learners naturally acquire first, and in the order in which I listed them. This struck a balance between ignoring the learning burden principle and over-extending its application. I excluded the comparative and superlative inflections for adjectives and included the tense inflections for verbs and plural inflections for nouns. I also excluded any irregular forms in the verb and noun categories and the contracted forms as well. Words like ‘cry’ and ‘cries’ were considered as separate words since the language learner would need to remove y and add ‘ies’. Such conversions would potentially increase rather than reduce the learning burden.

Even after settling for a particular unit of word for word frequency counts, there was still the challenge of which words to include and which ones to exclude in the frequency word count.

### **3.3 Inclusion and Exclusion of Some Words**

Word forms like proper nouns merited exclusion in the word frequency count because these could be non-English words themselves. Content and function words are two distinct word categories serving different functions in language. Decisions had to be made whether to include both groups in the word counts. Still under the issue of inclusion-exclusion of words, was that of whether, in this study, all words should be included seeing that for content area textbooks, the words fall into three broad categories namely; general vocabulary, specialised vocabulary and technical vocabulary. This section addresses these issues.

#### **3.3.1 Content and Function Words**

Content words comprise the familiar nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives (Wilson, Fox & Pascoe, 2004) which have meaning of and on their own whereas function words essentially serve grammatical purposes. Function words are also referred to as structural or service words. McCarthy (1990) describes function words as those devoid of lexical content or meaning of their own like articles, pronouns, demonstratives and basic conjunctions. In a statement *'the greedy dog ate hungrily'* the adjective 'greedy', the noun 'dog', the verb 'ate' and the adverb 'hungrily' all have meaning on their own but the article 'the' does not mean anything on its own. It merely gives grammaticality to the utterance. Function words give a language user cues to the structure of a sentence and define relationships between content words. In a telegram or short message service (sms) where brevity is extolled, we can dispense with a word such as 'the' and not detract from the meaning of the utterance. That the function words serve a grammatical function explains why one would find them strewn all over a text. They cement the content-laden words together. Segalowitz and Lane's (2000) study confirmed neurolinguistic theory and electrophysiological evidence that lexical access for function words was faster than for content words. They however, attribute that to function words being predictable in text and being familiar because of frequency of usage. The fact that most function words are relatively short may also explain their ease of access. This tempts the vocabulary knowledge researcher into assuming that function words are known and therefore, their knowledge by learners needs not be tested.

Function words, however, are not devoid of all meaning, but only have a low semantic load. A preposition like 'through' encodes meaning despite being a function word and it would be naïve to assume learner knowledge of it just because it is a function word. Are the prepositions *to, at, for* similar in complexity to *against, beneath* and *between*? To me the

former are basic but the latter are not as they have some perceptible semantic load. Excluding all prepositions or conjunctions on the assumption that they are obviously known would be short sighted. Ellis (2008) observes that these grammatical words are also a closed class. This is unlike the content words which allow new members into their class. The function words have a fixed membership, for example the pronouns and the articles. One can count and exhaust them. Most of these words are short words and the brevity and phonological reduction is meant to reduce articulatory effort. For the present study, both content and function words were included. Learners need knowledge of both function and content words to understand texts which they read. The texts learners would encounter in the transition from Grade 3 to 4 would largely be content area hence the next section which provides an understanding of the kinds of vocabulary such texts embody.

### **3.3.2 General, Academic and Technical Vocabulary**

By focusing on informational or expository texts, the present study expected to yield more academic and technical vocabulary among high frequency words than would narrative texts which may have predominantly general vocabulary as high frequency. The language of texts in Grade 4 would closely approximate that reflective of CALP as discussed in the first chapter of the study. The distinction between and among the three kinds of vocabulary is worth noting. Whereas academic vocabulary cuts across a wide range of academic texts, technical vocabulary is specific to a particular field of study; what we would refer to as a subject area's jargon. General vocabulary designates the common conversational vocabulary one would hear anywhere in ordinary daily life communication. The word 'boy' would belong to general vocabulary, 'photosynthesis' to technical vocabulary and 'argue' to academic vocabulary. Academic vocabulary is sometimes referred to as sub-technical vocabulary, semi-technical vocabulary or specialized non-technical lexis (Hyland and Tse, 2007). The same authors give estimates of these vocabulary types in most texts as general vocabulary (about 80%); academic vocabulary (8%-10% of running words); technical vocabulary (5%) of texts.

Academic words are associated with content learning, which is the essence of reading to learn, and are conceptually more complex than general vocabulary. Robust academic vocabularies would ease comprehension of specific content area texts as they traverse all content area texts. Although technical vocabulary is also important to the understanding of texts, it was excluded from the words tested in the present study on two grounds. First,

technical words embody the concepts for the particular disciplines and teachers are obliged to teach their meanings explicitly. These should not represent an obstacle to comprehension of texts. Second; they are specific to particular disciplines and do not cut across disciplines. They therefore, do not affect comprehension of all the range of texts within the grade level. General vocabulary merits inclusion on the basis of its wide representation in all text types. Kirkness and Neill (2009) observe that it is the technical words which are highlighted in the running text, listed at the end of the chapter where they first occur, and defined in a glossary to draw attention to them. This then, made it imperative to establish the extent to which the assumption is justified that general and academic vocabulary is common-sense vocabulary which does not merit explicit mediation.

Understanding the notion of what it means to know a word was critical for this study given that it provides a rationale for operationalizing the concept ‘word knowledge’.

### **3.4 The Construct ‘Word Knowledge’**

The notion of what it means to know a word was critical given that it provided the indicators on which to base learners’ demonstrated knowledge or ignorance of the word in the word knowledge assessments. Assessment of word knowledge is essentially an assessment of actions and behaviours demonstrative of that knowledge. An unrealistic determination of expected learner actions and behaviours constituting word knowledge results in equally unrealistic estimates of learners’ word knowledge. Too low expectations would overrate learner word knowledge and conversely too high expectations would underestimate their word knowledge. It is for this reason that what counts as word knowledge needed to be clarified in relation to the present study.

What constitutes word knowledge is not easy to identify. Folse (2004) acknowledges how complicated it is to unravel the construct ‘word knowledge’. What it means not to know a word is as problematic to conceptualise as is what knowing a word is. Rapaport (2003, p. 2) asserts that “[A]n unknown word for a reader is by definition a word (or phrase) that the reader has either never seen before, or is such that he or she has only the vaguest idea about its meaning.” Questions that come to mind are whether merely seeing and recognising a word qualify it as known, whether having a rudimentary idea about a word would constitute word knowledge for that word, whether one needed to know a word’s meaning or use to be considered having knowledge of the word. How much of a word one needs to know to be

qualified as knowing a word is not an easy question to address. This renders problematic any uniform definition of word knowledge.

The multifaceted nature of what it is to know a word makes consensus on the definition of the construct elusive (Qian & Schedl, 2004). The lack of uniformity in conception of word knowledge is largely because there are several dimensions or sub-knowledges of a word which can be known or unknown, which complicate the determination of what dimension or dimensions of a word a learner should know to be considered as knowing a word. According to Schoonen and Verhallen (2008), lexical knowledge transcends the ability to match words with their pictures or synonyms and extends to other knowledges about the word. When one says a learner knows a word, one needs to be clear what knowledge about the word they possess. To understand the complexity of determining what word knowledge is, one needs to examine the diverse attributes of a word that a language user can potentially demonstrate competence in.

Thirteen dimensions of specific sub-knowledges are listed by Duppenhaler (2004, p. 2) numbers 1-7 taken from Folse (2004, p. 16) and 8-13 from Moras (2001). These are:

- polysemy, indicating that a word rarely has more than one meaning (e.g., get the mail [go and retrieve], get angry [become], get to the airport [arrive], etc., and “head” [of a person, of a pin, of an organization]);
- denotation and connotation (denotation refers to the most basic or specific meaning of a word). Connotation (positive, negative, or neutral) is an idea that is suggested by or associated with a word (e.g. slender, thin, skinny);
- spelling and pronunciation;
- part of speech;
- frequency;
- usage (i.e., is it appropriate to use that word instead of a synonym or similar word);
- collocation (“A collocation is a word or phrase that naturally and frequently occurs before, after, or very near the target vocabulary item”);
- boundaries between conceptual meaning (e.g. cup, mug, bowl);
- homonymy: distinguishing between the various meanings of a single word form which has several meanings which are not closely related (e.g. a file: used to put papers in or a tool);
- homophony: understanding words that have the same pronunciation but different spellings and meanings (e.g. flour, flower: to, too, two);
- synonymy: distinguishing between the different shades of meaning that synonymous words have (e.g. extend, increase, expand);
- style, register, dialect: being able to distinguish between different levels of formality, the effect of different contexts and topics, as well as differences in geographical variation;

- translation: awareness of certain differences and similarities between the native and the foreign language (e.g. false cognates).

The question remains, which of these dimensions of a word, are critical enough for learners to demonstrate competence in, to allow one to draw conclusions about their word knowledge? Laufer and Goldstein (2004, p. 400) observe that most vocabulary based knowledge tests focus on a single sub-knowledge, for instance “comprehension of meaning (Meara & Buxton, 1987; Nation, 1983), production of meaning, (Laufer & Nation, 1999), vocabulary use (Laufer & Nation, 1995), or word associations (Read, 1993).” Meaning seems to be central to word knowledge either through decoding or encoding of meaning through the word. Laufer and Goldstein (2004) identify Read (1989) and Schmitt (1999) as two researchers who have gone against the grain and measured various sub-knowledges simultaneously. Wesche and Paribakhtj (1996) attempted to trace learner progress along a vocabulary knowledge continuum. Such studies cutting through the word knowledge continuum are exceptions to the general trend which favours concentration on single sub-knowledges and going for breadth rather than depth. Read (1993) defines ‘depth’ of knowledge as ‘the quality of the learner’s vocabulary knowledge’ and ‘breadth’ of knowledge as ‘the size of a learner’s vocabulary.’

Accepting that there is a wide range of word sub-knowledges, Sun, Zhang and Scardamalia (2008, p. 6) note that “Lexical knowledge is not all-or-nothing; it involves an acquisition continuum, with increasing depth of understanding over conditions of multiple and varied uses of words.” Laufer and Goldstein (2004, p. 400) had earlier noted the same by saying “...lexical knowledge has been construed as a continuum consisting of several levels of knowledge, starting with superficial familiarity with a word and ending in the ability to use the word correctly in free production.” Rather than conceiving word knowledge in polar terms of knowing or not knowing, current thinking favours the conception of word knowledge in terms of degrees of knowing (Duppenhaler, 2004). These recognise the incremental or cumulative and recursive nature of word knowledge from “not knowing” to “rich knowledge” of a word’s meaning. This continuum is represented in different words such as; superficial familiarity to competent use (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004), partial to precise knowledge, shallow to deep knowledge, receptive to productive knowledge, passive to active knowledge (Henricksen, 1999), breadth of knowledge to depth of knowledge, knowledge of

form to knowledge of meaning and use (Milton, 2009), complete innocence to complete competence (Miller, 1999).

These terms mark the poles of scales, representing a move from a lower level of knowing to a higher level with various stages between them. Each word known by a learner can be located at a certain point in the continuum of word knowledge. That "...lexical knowledge consists of progressive levels of knowledge..." (Laufer & Goldstein 2004, p. 400) is manifest in Hatch and Brown's (1995) envisaged five stages that learners pass through in their acquisition of lexical items. Progressively, these are; encountering the lexical item, familiarising with both the auditory(pronunciation) and visual (spelling or its orthographic make up) form of the word, acquainting oneself with the meaning of the word or its definition, consolidating the form and meaning of the word in memory through diverse strategies, and competent use of the word in communication.

Sometimes, however, word mastery does not follow this sequence or may not even involve all these stages. For example most people are competent in the use of the word *time* but cannot define it and yet the stages presuppose that competent word use is the last stage while word definition is the third. What is worth noting though is that word use is generally regarded as the highest stage indicative of one's competence. Even the terms identified as having been used to describe this continuum in word knowledge attest to use of a word being representative of total mastery of its meaning. Terms like competent use, productive knowledge, active use, knowledge of meaning and use, are found at the end of the continuum signifying the ideal to be aspired for.

Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2002) propose word knowledge development along the following five stages namely: no knowledge of a word; general word sense; narrow, context-bound word knowledge; word knowledge but no ability to readily recall and appropriately apply it; rich, decontextualized word meaning knowledge; as well as word knowledge and knowledge of its relationship to other words.

Though the continuum is based on first language learners of a language, it also has application for second language learners. What distinguishes the L1 and L2 contexts is that in the latter context, the continuum is not as orderly, sequential and incremental as in the L1

context. Knowledge of a word in the L1 may ease the knowledge of the L2 form considerably such that some stages of the continuum above may be bypassed.

According to Stahl and Bravo (2010), what further complicates word knowledge is that, apart from being multidimensional or multifaceted, it is also incremental, is context dependent, develops across a lifetime, and has a receptive/productive duality. Incrementality speaks to the fact that with every exposure learners' knowledge of a word increases. This implies differential levels of word knowledge over different levels. Context dependence brings the complication that knowing a word in one context is no guarantee of knowing it in other contexts. This poses the challenge of which context of a word's meaning should be the basic one. Because it is life long, conclusions about learners' word knowledge can only be made at a specific point and cannot be assumed to remain the same seeing we are bombarded with words all the time. The receptive/productive duality would mean that knowing a word receptively does not necessarily lead to knowledge of its use. The question of which aspect of word knowledge was taken up in the present study is the aspect elucidated below.

### **3.4.1 Conceptions of 'Word Knowledge' for the Present Study**

What is apparent from all the discussion relating to word knowledge is the need for any research on word knowledge to operationalize the construct for the purpose of the study depending on the nature of the study as well as the competence level of the research participants. Such operationalization of the construct 'word knowledge' would have serious ramifications for the focus of the research study and for its methodology. The present study took its cue from Bauman's (2003) assertion, in Paratore and McComack (2007), that learners' use of words in an oral or written context provides uncontroverted evidence of word knowledge.

Three dimensions of word knowledge were applied to operationalize the test: whether Grade 4 learners in this study knew a word', namely; word recognition, passive word knowledge, and active word knowledge. Within the word recognition dimension, learners needed to demonstrate competence in recognising a word as an existing word among pseudo-words, reading the word as a sight word, and being able to distinguish its orthographic boundary within a statement where lexical forms are not spaced. In the passive word knowledge category, learners should be able to define a word and complete simple sentences using the most appropriate word from given options. The active word knowledge dimension would

require learners to provide L2 equivalents of given L1 forms, supply words fitting a description or complete an utterance with the aid of clues and complete a dictation exercise. In the passive and active vocabulary knowledge dimension, word meaning is fundamental. The next chapter theoretically conceptualises and operationalizes word meaning for the present study.

### **3.5 Chapter Summary**

This chapter has defined the key terms pivotal to the understanding of the present study. The terms conceptualised have no fixed definitions, hence the need for their operationalization for the purposes of this study. A construct broader than the type but less accommodating than the lemma, was used as the word construct for this study, as a way of incorporating the learning burden principle without overextending it. For the present study, ‘word knowledge’ has been conceptualised to mean word recognition, word meaning and word use, with word meaning in turn comprising several dimensions. Such operationalization of key concepts helps their understanding and appreciation in the subsequent chapters of the study where the terms are employed with regularity.

This chapter has problematized the concept ‘word knowledge’. This problematisation is taken further in the next chapter’s theorisation of the concepts ‘word knowledge’ and ‘word meaning’ from multiple perspectives. The result of the conceptualisation and operationalization of the key terms is the adaptation of current word constructs to suit the nature of the present study. It has also resulted in defining ‘word knowledge’ and ‘word meaning’ in specific ways which aided the researcher to identify word knowledge and word meaning when it was exhibited.

## **CHAPTER 4 THEORETICAL ORIENTATION ON WORD MEANING AND WORD KNOWLEDGE**

### **4.1 Introduction**

One dimension of the present study is the determination of learners' knowledge of vocabulary requisite for reading to learn in Grade 4 in their early months within the grade. The study tested learners' knowledge of words at three levels. The levels were the word recognition, passive word knowledge, and active word knowledge levels. In the last two dimensions, word meaning knowledge is fundamental. It is therefore important to have a clear conception of what word meaning actually entails.

The question, 'what does a particular word mean?' is deceptively simple and yet is a difficult one to answer. Whether word meaning is embodied in a word's definition, whether word meaning knowledge is best demonstrated by giving the word's equivalent in another language, whether word meaning knowledge resides in one's ability to identify its referents, are some of the concerns interrogated in this chapter. More challenging still is the question of how one would ascertain word meaning knowledge of those words that cannot be reduced to a definition, that have no equivalent in the learner's L1, and that cannot be attached to a particular referent. The malleability of word meaning is evident in that its meaning may shift in relation to its sentential context to denote multiple entities or properties.

The present study did not draw on a single theory but was informed by a range of theories that seek to explain word knowledge in general, and word meaning in particular. Several hypotheses and theories, potentially constituting what could be a unified theory of 'word', are the basis of the discussion in this chapter. The chapter explores the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of words as they encode meaning. How words encode their meaning is key to any study of word knowledge as word meaning constitutes an integral, if not 'the' single most important aspect of what it is to know a word. Words' encoding of meaning is discussed under the reference theory, idea theory, and use theory which provide perspectives important for an understanding of what constitutes knowledge of word meaning. Vygotsky's (1978) ideas related to word meaning set up the debate on whether words depend on context or are independent of context for their meaning, a debate which paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of words and context extend.

## 4.2 Word Meaning: Decontextualized or Contextualised?

Vygotsky's (1978) emphasis on the greater mediating role of language compared to other modalities of meaning explains why semiotic mediation has come to be perceived as synonymous with linguistic mediation. He acknowledges the role of the word in uniting language and thought and equates word meaning with linguistic meaning. He explores the trajectory of word mastery from its role as a signal corresponding to a concrete object to a symbol of some abstract idea. As signals referring to real objects, words represent a contextualised notion of meaning but as symbols, words represent decontextualised meaning. Vygotsky (1962), writing about the L1, initially elevates words to the status of sole determinants of linguistic meaning without much regard for the role of context from which words derive their meanings. Later, he acknowledges the role of context in contributing to word meaning, but only after the establishment of the core meaning of a word (Vygotsky 1978). In this study, the signal function of words and their symbolic functions were conceived, not as levels or stages of word knowledge, but as a factor of the nature of particular words and what they make reference to. Some words just signify observable phenomena whereas others symbolise abstract concepts. Meaning is therefore, both in the individual words and situated in context.

In terms of vocabulary instruction, decontextualising word instruction occurs when "...the word is removed from its message context to be focused on as a language item" Nation (2001, p. 100). Unaldi et al. (2013) regard Atkinson's (1975) *mnemonic key word* method as representative of the memory technique to decontextualised word instruction. The technique involves establishing sound associations between a word and any other L1 word and creation of a mental image of the word. They further identify the use of wordlists, flashcards and dictionaries as important aids for decontextualised word instruction. DeCarrico (2001, p. 288-289) notes that "...especially at the beginning levels, the teaching of word lists through words association techniques has proven to be successful way to learn a large number of words in a short period and retain them over time."

Contextualised vocabulary instruction is seen as a slow way of learning a word. Unaldi et al. (2013, p. 82) observe that

...the merits of spending too much time to learn just one word from a context by trying to make guesses with an instructor in the class knowing the answer but not

telling it have been questioned and criticized by many EFL learners in quite a few anecdotes.

They, however, see contextualized vocabulary instruction as allowing the acquisition of word knowledge in its multiple dimensions that decontextualised instruction does not. They see contextualising vocabulary instruction as leading to gains in both the linguistic features of a word, its semantic rules as well the knowledge of its use. This is in contrast to the decontextualised word instruction where only one dimension of a word is gained be it a definition, synonym, an L1 equivalent or any other dimension. According to Nelson and Stage (2007, p.3) “[T]he use of contextually-based instruction is especially true for words that have multiple meanings (Beck et al., 2002).”

Seeing that word meaning is an essential component of what it means to know a word, it was important in this study to isolate some indicators of learners’ word knowledge which impacted the present study. The three key indicators were recognition of the concept/word, manifestation of passive word meaning knowledge, as well as active demonstration of word meaning knowledge through supplying words appropriate to given contexts. The three—word recognition, passive word meaning knowledge and active word meaning knowledge—were considered representative of the whole range of word knowledge indicators expected of second language learners at Grade 3 and 4 levels.

Word recognition and word definition represent paradigmatic relations which signify meaning making from decontextualized use of language, while word use represents syntagmatic relations, where meaning is contextualised (Changhong, 2010). The two belong to two different broad views on a word’s meaning. First, the view that, though they are flexible, words have core meanings. Second, the view that words are themselves devoid of meaning and it is only context that gives them meaning (Bolger, Balass, Landen & Perfetti, 2008). A word relates to those in the same class which it can be interchanged with (paradigmatic relationship) as well as those around it (syntagmatic relationship). On the one hand, paradigmatic aspects focus on the decontextualized meanings of words. This is consistent with the first view which asserts that a word embodies meaning on its own and does not require context for it to be meaningful. Dictionaries define words paradigmatically and only contextualise them to exemplify their use(s). Syntagmatic relations, on the other hand, emanate from the second view where context gives meaning to words. The view explains why words sometimes assume or encode new meanings with a change in context.

Paradigmatic aspects of word meaning can be represented through synonymy (words with same meanings), antonymy (opposites), among other ways. The meaning of the word huge can be given as: the opposite of small (antonym), big, large (synonym), inkhulu (translation-isiXhosa equivalent).

The provision of synonyms may, however, be a real challenge for learners except for a few simple words. Paradigmatic level of word meaning knowledge relates to breadth of word knowledge whereas syntagmatic level relates to depth of word knowledge. The paradigmatic level allows the abstraction of high frequency words from context for analysis. The present study does not take an either or position in terms of the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of words, but is rather informed by both levels since learner word knowledge is assessed both in contextualised and decontextualised formats.

Syntagmatic aspects of word knowledge differ from paradigmatic aspects essentially on contextualisation (Changhong, 2010). There is recognition that words are fluid in the meanings they convey and so the context provides and fixes their meanings. Knowledge of polysemous words (words with several meanings) is better tested in contextualised ways so that the meaning intended is defined by the context rather than in a decontextualized manner. At the paradigmatic level, word meaning is objective and fixed whereas at the syntagmatic level, word meaning is fluid and dependent on context. Words, in the syntagmatic paradigm, cease to have meaning in and of themselves but become clues to meaning.

It is assumed that decontextualized meanings are stored in long-term memory whereas the contextualised meanings, which are more spontaneous, are from working memory or short term memory. Kintsch and Mangalath (2011, p. 348) posit that “[L]ong-term memory does not store the full meaning of a word, but rather stores a decontextualized record of experiences with a particular word. Meaning needs to be constructed in context...” Context is pivotal as not all information stored about a word is relevant in all circumstances. Context assigns relevance to what is known about a word. In word definitions however, learners may incorporate some syntagmatic contextualized information about an object’s size, shape and so forth to demonstrate knowledge.

Both paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of word meaning provide a fuller revelation of one’s word meaning knowledge. The former affords a “...more abstract, decontextualized

knowledge of a word's core meaning" and the latter "...situational properties of a word's meaning" (Bolger et al., 2008). Although the present study focused more on the measure of vocabulary breadth which is largely decontextualised, it did not disregard the syntagmatic aspects which belong more to the domain of vocabulary depth. The paradigmatic decontextualised teaching of words fixes the meanings of words whereas the syntagmatic or contextualized instruction allows words to be flexible in what they signify depending on the context.

Sound arguments have been advanced for the teaching of word lists as well as for the teaching of words in context. Context involves co-text which relates to the words before or after a target word and the real world context the text makes reference to. Context allows the learning of a word's grammatical and collocational patterns, its diverse senses. To be effective, context should be rich in contextual clues. On the basis of research, Nielsen (2001, p. 6) however, notes that "teachers of beginner-level learners need to include greater amounts of decontextualized vocabulary instruction (e.g. word lists), gradually increasing toward more context-based vocabulary learning (e.g. extensive reading) as the language ability of their learners develop." Contextualisation of word instruction would therefore, need to increase as learners increasingly gained proficiency in the language as it sometimes relies on higher order thinking processes of inference and extrapolation.

Decontextualised instruction helps learners to assign meaning to form but such knowledge is only partial and contextualized teaching broadens it through knowledge of the words a particular word collocates with, its inflected forms, its connotations, its degree of formality, its frequency and limitations on its use. The ideal in the FP classroom would be to introduce new words in a decontextualised way and then complement that with learners reading and hearing the same words in diverse contexts and even practice their use in diverse contexts. Hoadley (2010) presents Clay's argument that most of the written language is in continuous text and so the same format should be used to teach learners.

Because the present study focused on FP learners' reading in an L2 context, I did not expect elaborate and nuanced word knowledge from the learners. It was assumed that the learners in the present study had only recently been exposed to the English language. The study also gained a more elaborate view of word meaning from reference theory, idea theory and use

theory which further extend the notion of contextualised and decontextualised word meanings discussed above.

### **4.3 Theories of Word Meaning**

The three major theories that informed the present study are reference theory, idea theory and use theory. These seek to explain what knowledge of a word's meaning is. In this study, they were seen, not as exclusive one from the other, but as representing degrees or levels of word knowledge. To the three are added other theories namely; feature theory, prototype theory, definitional theory and stimulus-response theory which are given brief attention in this section. The discussion of these theories provides insights which informed how word meanings were tested in the present study.

#### *Reference Theory*

The reference theory of word meaning dates back to Aristotelian times where word meaning was what a word referred to (its referent). A dog is a word and what it means is the animal it makes reference to. A picture of a dog or a real dog would be the meaning of the combination of letters *d.o.g.* What a word or phrase refers to in the world is that word or phrase's meaning (Lyons, 1981). Meaning = Reference. The word 'doll' would refer to all the dolls in the world and this is referred to as the semantic extension of a word. Using a referential theory of meaning, we can point to the things that words denote. We can teach a child the meaning of 'dog' by saying the word and pointing to its referent, the animal. In referential theories of meaning, words and phrases can be defined in terms of the things that they denote be they objects, actions, qualities, relations, and so forth. Nouns designate objects, verbs denote activities or actions, adjectives make reference to properties and so forth. Words are nothing but labels for what exists in the real world and sentences being made up of words merely mirror that reality. Reference is 'aboutness' of a word.

Such a theory of word meaning, while valid, is an inadequate explanation of word meanings and their knowledge. Waxman and Gelman (2009) posit that the view that a word's meaning is its direct association to a portion of sensory/perceptual experience reduces words to nothing more than a feature of the experience(s) with which they are associated. Some words especially those referring to abstract concepts do not have perceptible referents and some word meanings can be understood without knowledge of their referents. First, the reference value is dependent on context not just on the word as in a small dog being bigger than a large

mouse or a warm beer and a cold coffee being the same temperature. The antonym of 'old' could be 'young' or 'new' depending on whether the referent is animate or inanimate and we can talk about the length or height of a pole depending on its positioning. Second, languages have non-referential terms which have meaning and the referential theory is hard-pressed to explain how this is so. Abstract notions like love still encode meaning although they cannot be attached to a perceptible referent. Function words like '*is, was, the, and*' do not have a reference class but they are still words.

There is also the challenge of explaining how co-reference terms come to have different meanings. The most used example of such are the phrases 'morning star' and 'evening star' both referring to Venus used by the philosopher Frege to demonstrate the critical flaw of the referential theory. From this example Frege distinguishes between a word's semantic extension and its semantic intension with the former referring to all that a word denotes and the latter to the concept or meaning it evokes. Words produce meaning through both extension and intension. Extension is all the entities a word makes reference to whereas intension is the inherent sense a word evokes. The semantic extension of the word 'dog' refers to all the dogs in the world but the semantic intension may include things like animal, domestic and related senses.

The fact that the things words refer to are constantly changing adds a further limitation to the theory as an explanation of word meaning. Implicit in the referential theory is the assumption that one would know the differences between two referents once the words are known which, is not always the case. The theory cannot explain how it is possible for us to know that a car which we never saw is a car. It does not explain how we can understand the meaning of a word referent with only a partial experience of the object and its kinds. Why we understand the meaning of some words in the absence of their referents is largely unaccounted for by the referent theory. The theory favours an association between a word (mostly nouns) and the object it represents. Such a theory can only accommodate concrete vocabulary which can be associated to visually perceptible objects. Figure 3 shows the referent theory model and the relations between and among thought or reference, referent, and symbol.

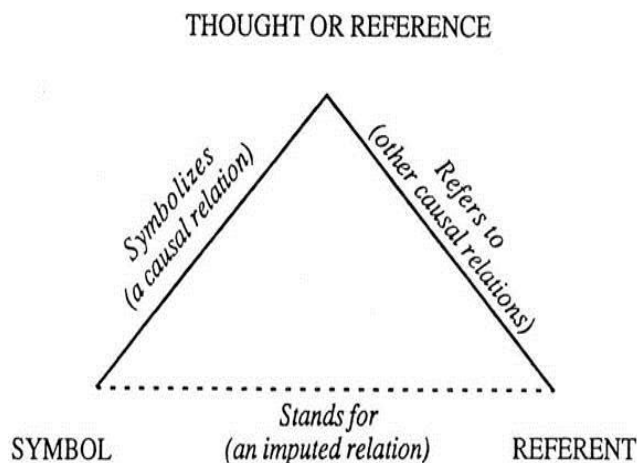


Figure 3: Referent Theory Model

The dotted lines in Figure 3 represent the reference theory of word where symbols or words denote particular referents in an imputed relation. An alternative theory, hinted at in some of the limitations of the referent theory is the idea theory. On Figure 3, this would denote a causal relation where the symbol or word conjures a thought and vice versa.

### *Idea Theory*

Idea theory credited to John Locke links a word to an idea rather than a referent. A word's meaning is the idea the word evokes in the mind rather than the object it signifies. The idea or mental image one associates with a word is the word's meaning. Booth and Waxman (2008) view words as 'quintessentially symbolic'; and embodying meaning that transcends what is perceptible. The idea or ideational theory can also be referred to as the mental image theory where mental images constitute word meanings. The hypothesis is that one utilises one's mental pictures to select word referents. Words merely mark or express that which is in the language user's mind. "Words, in their primary and immediate signification, stand for nothing but the ideas in the mind of him that uses them" (John Locke, 1690, p. 225 in Locke, 1975). A word is nothing but the idea all language users who know it associate with it (Lyons, 1981). Within an idea or a mental image are common features for items related to the word. These common features give us the idea of what constitutes the word's referent. Our idea of a car can embody components like wheels, engine, and body. It can also include functions like to carry, to move and so forth. When anything fits the description of a car we hold in our minds, then we call it a car. The idea then precedes the referent and exists independent of the referent. Holm and Karlgren (1995) see the ideational theory as shifting

focus from the word and object as creators of meaning to the language users themselves. Waxman and Gelman (2009, p. 3) capture the essence of idea theory when they say "...“a dog” refers to an instance of the abstract concept “dog”, a concept that extends beyond the individual dogs that any of us will observe in our lifetimes.” It is this that enables one to recognize dogs one has never seen, as dogs. The theory also explains how words can refer to absent things which are not accessible to the senses.

John Locke (1690) however, acknowledges that despite the idea theory being more accommodative than referent theory, it falls short in accounting for some structural words which do not conjure up any ideas on their own. Such structural words like ‘if’ do not bring up any ideas independent of other words and so cannot be defined. Not every linguistic unit brings up an idea in the hearer’s or reader’s mind. A further challenge to the theory is that sometimes we come across a dog which does not conform to some of the characteristics of a dog we hold in our minds but we still are able to classify it as a dog. Conversely, we may encounter an animal conforming to the characteristics of a dog which we hold but we automatically can tell that it is not a dog. Many non-dogs (e.g. fake dogs) confirm ‘dog’ more than some dogs do (e.g. abnormal dogs). Could it be possible for one to have defining features of a dog which sufficiently fit all the dogs there are and is tight enough to exclude all the non-dogs.

Individuals do not hold uniform ideas about things and sometimes hold conflicting ideas about the same thing. If ideas constituted meaning, and we held ideas diverse one from the other, even as speakers of the same language, one wonders how communication would be possible. People do not agree on the simple properties of things like colour, taste, beauty, smell and so forth. The question one could pose is what then makes it possible for speakers of the same language, holding diverse mental images, to communicate intelligibly through language. Could there be basic acceptance properties of words and if there are, how does one explain the public consensus there is for those properties. The theory seems to suggest that individuals each have their own private languages. One could then only be certain that one’s words mean the same as other people’s words if they refer to things in the world and not just to ideas. Word meanings, it would appear, are more general and of too abstract a nature for any mental image to accommodate. Like the referent theory, the idea theory is untenable on its own as an explanation of words and their meanings. Such limitations in the idea theory also necessitate other alternative explanations to complement it as well as the reference

theory. The use theory is one theory that complements the reference theory and the idea theory by proposing a different locus of word meaning from that of the other two.

### *Use Theory*

Leading luminaries credited with the development of Use theory are Ludwig Wittgenstein and John Austin. The theory transfers the semantic burden from words to sentences by asserting that words only encode definite meanings within particular contexts. The meaning of a word resides in its use. Kintsch and Mangalath (2011, p. 349) assert that “[O]ne way to define the meaning of a word is through its use, that is, the company it keeps with other words in the language.” How words and sentences function in particular contexts is what assigns meaning to communication. Holm and Karlgren (1995) posit that meaning of words should not be sought in some realm as it depends on the whole context of use. The definite meaning of words is that assigned them by the context of a sentence. To use theorists, the fact that one word like ‘bank’ can have several meanings is testimony to the pivotal role of context in encoding the meaning of an utterance.

The challenge with the use theory is whether it is the actual uses of a word by speakers which give it meaning or possible uses of the word. The former would be too narrow to regard as the meaning of a word and the latter would be too broad to capture. Grice (1968) distinguishes between what words mean and what language users use them to mean. This then represents a serious challenge for an attempt to derive meaning from use.

Instead of relying on a single theory to explain how meaning can be extrapolated from words, this study combines aspects of each of the theories. The present study amalgamated these three theories in its three conceptions of word knowledge: word/concept recognition (reference theory), passive word knowledge (idea theory), and active word knowledge (use theory). Booth and Waxman (2008) posit that word learning operates at the perceptual and linguistic level initially and later at the conceptual level. The reference theory in this regard represents a lower level of word meaning knowledge with the idea theory and use theory representing higher levels of word knowledge. Some words also lend themselves to explanations based on one theory and other words are best understood from another theory’s perspective. In this study the theories are not treated as mutually exclusive. Earlier views of word meanings see words as having static meanings regarded as lexical entries which grammatically combine with sentence structures to give sentence meaning whereas the

current conception is that "... word meaning is protean, its semantic contribution sensitive to and dependent on the context which it, in part, gives rise to" (Evans, 2006, p. 492). The earlier conceptions confined word meaning to denotational meanings relating words to a token whereas more current conceptions emphasise functional meanings.

These three dimensions; morphosyntax (form), semantics (meaning) and pragmatics (use) are represented by the three theories above. Further attempts have been made to explain how words encode meaning. What follows is a brief description of the feature theory, prototype theory, definitional theory, and stimulus-response theory; all of which broaden the understanding of words and how meanings are assigned to them.

#### *Feature Theory*

Feature theory posits that particular features which set a word apart from the others represent the meaning of a word. In componential analysis, minimal pairs like boy-girl which have similar features, are contrasted and differences generalized as features or parameters dictating the meaning of the word. Words sharing the same features would be considered different to the extent that they possess contrasting features. It is however, impossible to exhaustively decompose a word's senses. An incomplete account of word senses or features generally suffices to assign meaning. Some features are more defining and central than others. There is the problem, however, that some word meanings are not easy to reduce to features, and that some features are infinite.

#### *Prototype Theory*

The prototype theory can be attributed to Rosch (1973) and Rosch and Mervis (1975). The theory posits that word meanings are described by a whole set of features. Of these, none is sufficient to carry meaning on its own and none is necessary as an individual feature. The meaning is assigned by the total number of features that denote the word. Wittgenstein's (1953) mental image theory has its basis in prototypical images where objects are considered the same to the extent that they have a resemblance to other objects within a family. An apt example is that of the word 'game' which Wittgenstein uses. There are diverse kinds of contests which do not necessarily embody common features which we still recognize and label as games. A game may involve cooperating or competing parties, multiple players or a single player and so forth. Prototypical games would conform to most of what we think of as game features.

Experiments have revealed that the recognition and recall of a category's prototypical members is faster than that of non-prototypical members. The theory only identifies typical members of a category but does not delimit between concepts. The prototype itself is defined using prototypical features which themselves rely on the prototype. This is a chicken and egg challenge. The prediction of how individual words combine to encode phrasal meaning is not possible with the theory. The meaning of some phrases may not be the sum of the two forms of words making it up.

### *Definitional Theory*

Definitional theory sees meanings as essentially definitional. Semantic features include those properties necessary and sufficient for membership of words in a category. Definitions of a fish should include all that every kind of fish is. It should not be possible to see a kind of fish which does not conform to the definition. In fact that would not be a fish. The definition should also exclude properties peculiar to some but not all kinds of fish. From a definition, new members to a category should easily be identified. It would however, appear that some words like 'red' defy definition without complicating them more. In this theory word, learning is based on perceptual experience. The challenge however, is in drawing up all the necessary and sufficient defining features of a word. The example of the word 'game,' made reference to earlier, is an apt one for this case as well.

The theories on word meaning discussed in this section dichotomise word meaning as either a perceptual or conceptual phenomenon, a dichotomy which cannot be sustained. Waxman and Gelman (2009, p. 2) identify four critical points concerning words, concepts, and development that have relevance to the way this study conceives word meaning, thus:

[W]ords do not merely associate; they refer. Words are quintessentially symbolic elements. Words and concepts are more than a collection of sensory/perceptual features. As children build their lexical and conceptual repertoires, they are also guided by abstract conceptual knowledge (e.g., animacy, intention, cause).

Words and concepts are not unitary constructs. There are different kinds of words and different kinds of concepts, and sensitivity to this variety emerges within the first years of life. Words are located within intricate linguistic and social systems. Thus, a word takes its meaning not merely from its history of co-occurrence with entities in the world, but also and importantly, from the linguistic and social systems in which it is embedded.

#### **4.4 Chapter Summary**

The complexity of what word meaning entails is captured in that no single hypothesis can capture the realities of words' encoding of meaning. Rather than using one theory, this study combines aspects of each theory to gain a comprehensive view of how words communicate meaning. Each hypothesis, at best, explains a subset of words whose meanings can be learnt in a particular way, and the learning contexts that are supportive of particular word-learning. The present study has considered the diversity characterising words' encoding of meaning in the testing of learners' word knowledge. The hypotheses have implications for how particular word meaning knowledge can be demonstrated in word knowledge measurements. The construction, form and administration of word knowledge tests, was as much informed by theoretical ideas about word knowledge in Chapter 3 as by those on word meaning in this chapter. Both Chapter 3 which theorises the notion of 'word' and 'word knowledge' as well as Chapter 4 which discusses how words communicate meaning significantly inform the present study's research methodology, particularly the phase of determining the vocabulary knowledge of the learners.

## **5.0 CHAPTER 5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This study set out to examine the Grade 3 learners' knowledge of high frequency vocabulary in Grade 4 content area textbooks'. The Grade 4 textbook high frequency vocabulary constituted the vocabulary demands of the textbooks under consideration. The study further sought to gain insight into the level of Grade 3 learners' preparedness for English second language in general, and requisite vocabulary knowledge in particular. This was established through the investigation of the role of several sources of English language input in the L2 classroom. The study also aimed to establish the extent to which the requisite Grade 4 vocabulary for reading to learn was part of the learners' repertoire by the beginning of Grade 4. The diverse nature of the data such a study required necessitated a combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies. The study, therefore, employed a mixed method methodology to generate data that responded to the foci of the study; a methodology whose deployment in the present study is detailed in this chapter.

### **5.2 Research Design**

What mixed methods research entails is described by Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007), as the employment of a methodology that collects both quantitative and qualitative data. Mixed method research contends that all methods have intrinsic biases, limitations and shortcomings. The undesirable attributes of one method should be compensated for by the strength of another method. Using a mixed method approach, therefore, increases the probability that the data collected in sum, will be richer, more meaningful, and ultimately more useful in answering the research questions (Denzin, 2010; Fielding, 2010) than if a single method had been used. In mixed method research, qualitative and quantitative paradigms converge to provide data for a particular research focus. Validity of data derived from such combination transcends the data that would otherwise be generated in a single method research. In the mix, aspects of quantitative and qualitative research are not obliterated but are still recognisable. They are mixed to complement each other for a fuller response to the research question. In the present study, the quantitative dimension provided numerical data and the qualitative dimension contributed thick description of phenomena.

Creswell (2008) identifies conditions which favour the use of mixed method research. One such prerequisite for the use of the mixed method approach is when both methodologies

provide a fuller understanding of the research problem than either methodology by itself. This was the case with this study where a single method design was inadequate to address the research problem. In the study, elements of qualitative and quantitative research featured in different phases of the study.

The study employed sequential mixed method research where one paradigm dominated a particular phase and the other paradigm dominated a different phase. Determining the vocabulary needs of Grade 4 textbooks, the first phase of the data collection, required quantifying words in the textbooks and generating the HFW from that corpus, which is quantitative. The next phase of determining learners' knowledge of the requisite vocabulary was largely quantitative as it dealt with quantified test scores. This is apparent in the data generation and analysis sections of the study. The third phase of determining the vocabulary exposure of Grade 3 learners was both qualitative and quantitative. Mixed method research's flexibility to numerical and textual data suited the present study which dealt with word frequencies and test scores (quantitative) as well as textual descriptions of classroom learner exposure to English vocabulary. Even the case study method that was used was consonant with the mixture of the qualitative and quantitative methodologies.

### **5.2.1 Case study**

This study adopted the case study method. Yin (1984, p. 23) defines case study research as "...an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used." Gerring's (2004, p. 342) proposed definition is "...an intensive study of a single unit for the purpose of understanding a larger class of (similar) units." From the two definitions, one can extrapolate the characteristics of case studies as, the need:

- to capture the complexity of a single case. The case study should have a "case" which is the object of study or unit of analysis,
- for the "case" to be a complex functioning unit and contemporary,
- for the amalgamation of multiple methods to illuminate the case from diverse angles,
- to investigate the case in its natural context with a multitude of methods.

Although the generalisation of case study findings is not a key defining feature, it is possible to generalise the findings of a case as hinted in Gerring's (2004) definition. Where a case is purposively selected for its intrinsic value, it should be generalizable. Such a case can be

generalised to theory (analytical generalisation) rather than to population (statistical generalisation) as is typical of surveys (Yin, 1993).

The case in the present study was the Grade 3 and 4 isiXhosa speaking learners in eight schools in the Eastern Cape province of South Africa as well as the Grade 3 teachers in the same schools. Investigation on the grade 3 learners focused on their preparedness for the challenge of reading to learn in English in Grade 4. This was followed up by the testing of the vocabulary knowledge of fourth grade learners at the beginning of Grade 4. Being the beginning of the year, the assumption was that the Grade 4 learners would rely on their Grade 3 vocabulary knowledge for their learning.

The Grade 4 learners whose vocabulary knowledge was tested (early 2013) were the same cohort of learners in whose Grade 3 classes the researcher had conducted investigations in 2012 to determine the extent to which the learners were being prepared for the transition to Grade 4. Testing the learners at Grade 4 level instead of at Grade 3 level was necessitated by logistical challenges of testing Grade 3 learners towards the end of the year (2012). The participating schools were reluctant to accommodate the researcher even before the last term was midway. This, because the learners had to participate in the school based and annual based (Annual National Assessment) tests during the last term of the year. Testing learners' knowledge of the words earlier would produce results which would most likely not be reflective of their vocabulary knowledge by end of Grade 3 as some schools would need to be tested some three or four months before year end. The assumption was also that, by the beginning of the year in Grade 4, learners would not have received comprehensive input to significantly change their vocabulary repertoire between Grade 3 and the beginning of Grade 4. The learners would most likely rely on their vocabulary knowledge developed prior to Grade 4 in their demonstration of word meanings.

The learners were studied within their natural learning context using several data sources. The case was purposively sampled (as described in the next section) to better reveal the readiness of isiXhosa speaking learners to meet the linguistic transitional challenges from the Foundation Phase (FP) to the Intermediate Phase (IP) within the South African context. Although only ten Grade 3 and ten Grade 4 classes were used, the study's findings potentially provide insights that may be extrapolated to a larger population, especially those typified by

the case in the province. This is especially so, given the sampling strategy employed by the larger project within which this study is located.

### **5.2.2 Sample and Focus**

This study was situated within the large Cape Consortium FP Research Project comprising Rhodes University, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, University of the Western Cape and Walter Sisulu University. The initial selection of the 60 Eastern Cape schools the project worked with was done by the project prior to the sampling decisions taken for this study. The selection was done by the project with the assistance of Professor Elize Koch (a quantitative researcher) and Dr. Yvonne Nsubuga (a research associate within the project). The selection of schools was largely through quota and purposive sampling. Quota sampling was employed to ensure proportional representation of clusters. Purposive sampling was then done to select districts that more or less represented the cluster in terms of size and quintiles. Some of the criteria used for the purposive sampling were: excluding schools with multi-grade classes, including only isiXhosa medium schools, excluding ex-model C schools, including only functional schools where learning was not hampered. For the bigger consortium study, the following procedure was then followed: determining the number of schools per quintile and according to school size in each cluster, selecting the districts that represent a cluster the best, dividing the number equally in each cell between the selected districts, and selecting schools in terms of the criteria listed above.

For this study, eight schools were selected from four Districts of the Eastern Cape as follows: 2 from Grahamstown Education District, 2 from Butterworth District, 2 from Idutywa District and the other 2 from Libode District. Of these eight schools, two were township schools, two were peri-urban schools and four were rural schools. The diversity was not meant to give a comparative view of the vocabulary knowledge of learners in the different schools or districts, but to reflect the diversity characterising schools offering FP education in the Eastern Cape. The eight schools yielded 10 classes for Grade 3 and 10 classes for Grade 4. Once a school was sampled and participants at the school had granted voluntary informed consent, all the Grade 3 learners (in 2012) and all the Grade 4 learners in (2013) as well as the 2012 Grade 3 teachers became participants in the study.

### **5.2.3. Data Collection Instruments, Procedure and Rationale**

Teacher interviews, classroom observations and vocabulary tests were the instruments used to source data for the present study. Data yielded through these instruments were analysed in relation to the HFW generated from the Grade 4 textbooks as well as from Grade 3 teacher talk, classroom print, and learners' reading materials. These instruments are discussed in detail under the different phases of the research process in which they were used.

### **5.3 Phases of the Research Process**

The data generation process was in three major phases. The first phase sought to determine the vocabulary demands of Grade 4 content area textbooks; the second phase investigated the kind of vocabulary Grade 3 learners were exposed to, with high frequency through teacher talk, classroom print and their reading materials; and the third phase tested the Grade 4 learners for knowledge of a sample of those HFW in Grade 4 textbooks. The instruments that were used in the study are described under the phases in which they were employed.

#### **5.3.1 Phase 1: Determining Grade 4 Subject Textbooks' Vocabulary Demands**

Twelve Grade 4 subject textbooks were used to provide the textbook corpus from which HFW were generated. The textbooks cut across the four content area subject areas offered in Grade 4 namely: Mathematics, Natural and Social Sciences, Life Skills, and Technology. These were textbooks which were in current use as core texts in the sampled schools. The researcher took advantage of his participation in the questionnaire administration for the contextual profiling of the 60 schools the large consortium project worked in to negotiate access to schools which later participated in the study as well as to survey the most commonly used textbooks in each of the subject areas. The researcher just asked the teachers to note down the titles of the books they used in the specific subject areas.

The HFW generated from the textbooks would be indicative of the vocabulary demands of the Grade 4 textbooks which is also the vocabulary required of the Grade 3 learners by end of third grade. Expository or informational texts were used on the understanding that they better represent the concept 'reading to learn', which is the focus of reading in Grade 4, than do narrative texts. Grade 3 should be a preparation of learners for reading such texts through equipping them with the general and academic vocabulary in which content is embedded. An understanding of the general and academic vocabulary in the texts would position learners

better for working out the meanings of specialist or technical vocabulary with the teacher's mediation. The present study's assumption or hypothesis is that currently, these content area textbooks do not get used optimally in the Grade 4 English First Additional Language classrooms because of learners' limited vocabulary base in English.

The textbook corpus from which the HFW were generated needed to be prepared with care for valid claims to be made on the HFW derived from the corpus being representative of the vocabulary demands of the textbooks.

#### 5.3.1.1. Preparation of the textbook corpus for HFW generation

The generation of HFW from the textbook corpus was not achieved by a few clicks on the word frequency count software. Substantial effort went into preparation of the textbook corpus before the generation of HFW. Much of the need for elaborate preparation was the result of the failure of the readiris<sup>3</sup> software programme purchased to convert the pdf-scanned textbook files, which the word frequency counter read as pictures, into readable text. After several futile attempts to get assistance from specialists within the university, as well as from the suppliers' support services, the ultimate decision was to type the textbooks.

The textbooks were typed by four typists who each typed 3 books. The typists proof-read each other's typing before the researcher got the typed files at the end of the day to comb through for any errors that would have escaped the typists' attention. By running the parts of the typed texts through the antconc 3.2.4 word frequency count software<sup>4</sup>, aspects of misspellings were noted. The software program would show words like *together*, *diferent* and *impotant* and the frequency of their occurrence. These would obviously be misspellings of *together*, *different* and *important*. These were corrected in the texts. In some cases as in the

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<sup>3</sup> The software program meant to read the scanned textbooks and generate word frequencies read the files as pictures not as text and so could not perform the word counts. There was therefore need for another software program, readiris, to convert the scanned texts into readable text in order to allow the word frequency counter to generate word frequencies. Readiris is a powerful optical-character-recognition (OCR) software designed to convert all paper documents, images or PDF into editable and searchable digital text.

<sup>4</sup> The Antconc 3.2.4 is a software program or concordance named after Laurence Anthony who developed it. 'Ant' for Antony and 'conc' for concordancer. A concordancer is a computer program that automatically generates a list of words, phrases, or distributed structures along with immediate contexts, from a corpus or other collection of texts assembled for language study. It can search, access and analyse language from a corpus. It allows one to enter a word or phrase and search for multiple examples of how that word or phrase is used in the corpus. The antconc 3.2.4 is a freeware concordance program. Among its several uses is the generation of word lists from a corpus, as well as show all the instances in which a specific word appeared.

word ‘color’, confirmation was made with the textbook concerned whether it used that spelling or whether it used ‘colour’. The frequency of the misspelt words would be an indicator of the number of misspelt words that needed correction.

Although the word frequency count software revealed some of the errors in the typed texts, there were other errors which could only be detected from reading through the typed files. Most such errors involved inaccurate word spacing resulting in confusing *everyone* for *every one*, *all together* for *altogether*, *sometimes* for *some times* as well as *may be* for *maybe*. The context helped the researcher to determine which of the form was correct. The effort and vigilance that the process required testified to the need for combining hardware (computers), software (programs), and wetware (our brains) as Nation (2012) advises. The electronic analysis needed to be complemented by human effort for the generation of a valid HFW list. To ease the identification of such errors, small amounts of text were entered into the software program or concordance at a time so that the researcher could comb through the text for misrepresentation of words. In the process of trying to ensure the accuracy of the typed material, it became apparent that some words needed to be excluded from the textbook corpus on account of them not potentially impacting the comprehension of the texts read in any significant way.

#### *Decisions about exclusion of some words from the textbook corpus*

From one of the trial word frequency list generations meant to reveal anomalies in the typing, the researcher’s attention was drawn to the high frequency of the word ‘south’ which by far outnumbered that of ‘north’. A reading of the script showed that the words ‘South Africa’ and ‘South African’ recurred several times in the text. This had effectively pushed up the frequency of the word ‘south’ when in these occurrences the word ‘south’ did not relate to the cardinal point of the compass. There was therefore, a need to read the typed files with the express purpose of identifying words which would give a misleading picture of word frequencies. That process led to the elimination of all the names of people, places, countries, cities, and so forth. Names of some of the provinces of South Africa like *Free State*, *Eastern Cape*, *Northern Cape*, and *Western Cape*, which appeared quite frequently in some texts, were omitted. These names are made up of two words, each of which has independent meaning. Their inclusion would have needlessly increased the frequency of their individual forms. If the province *Free State* was made constant reference to in a text, one could end up

thinking that the words *free* and *state* comprised the vocabulary needs of learners for reading the text with understanding when in reality they did not.

In the preparation of the corpus, words which were part of the contents page, acknowledgements, glossary and index sections were also excluded. From my experience as a teacher and as a student, these are sections that learners and teachers do not pay specific attention to. Because of that, knowledge or ignorance of the vocabulary these sections of text embody is not critical to the comprehension of the manifest content of a textbook. Also omitted were numerals, symbols, and non-English words. The labels and words on pictures and diagrams were, however, included as they determined the degree to which the learners would comprehend the pictures and diagrams, as well as the text related to them. There were some words which were repeated throughout the textbooks but learners could ignore them without losing much, if anything, from the content. Examples were words like *Unit 1*, *Unit 2*, *Activity 1*, *activity 2*, or *Let's Talk*, *Let's Write* etc. These were excluded as they did not form part of the core content learners were obliged to comprehend. Having eliminated words which were not part of the critical vocabulary learners needed as part of their repertoire, there was a need to deal with the challenge compound words, some possessive forms and the contracted forms posed when the texts were loaded onto the word frequency counter.

#### *Challenges related to the inclusion of some word forms in the textbook corpus*

The challenge of word exclusions was less complex than that of the inclusion of some words. There were words that needed to be included in the corpus as they impacted textual comprehension but whose inclusion in their orthographic forms would produce inaccurate forms in the word frequencies as well as overrepresent some words while at the same time underrepresenting other similar word forms. These included compound forms, possessive forms and contracted forms. The nature of the challenge these posed is discussed and examples cited in this section.

The first challenge presented by compound words was that they were read as two separate words by the frequency counter when they were actually single words. Compounds are word groups comprising two or more parts expressing a single specific concept. Although some compounds like 'ice cream' denote a single object, they were read by the word frequency counter as two separate words. The two words in combination normally did not retain the meanings they have as separate words, which gave a misleading idea of the frequency of the

two words making up the compound form. Ice cream would push the word frequency of ‘ice’ and ‘cream’ up. There was, therefore, need to capture compound words as one word. For both hyphenated and non-hyphenated compound words, the two forms were written as one word by removing the hyphen or the space between them. This was because the software programme ignored all punctuation marks and read hyphenated words as two words. Those words whose combination conjured a single meaning and lost that meaning when they were considered separately were typed as one. Some such examples were *speechbubbles*, *foodweb*, *foodchain*, *selftiming*, *Tshirt*, *overspending*, *fourdigit*, *crosssection*, and *doublestorey*. Short forms like km/hr were written as kmhr. The word counter could then read them as single words. The challenge of single words being read as two separate words was not only confined to compound forms but was manifest wherever the apostrophe was used.

Possessive forms and contracted forms were read as two words by the word counter since it did not recognise the apostrophe. The apostrophe was read by the concordancer as a space showing the part of the word before the apostrophe as one word and the part after the apostrophe as another. While generating a trial word frequency list, the researcher noticed that ‘t’ and ‘s’ appeared as words in their own right, and with high frequency as well. Within the list there were also words like ‘don’. It became apparent that some of the ‘t’ letters which stood as independent forms had come from the word don’t which meant *don’t* was read as *don* and *t*. This was misleading in that a single word was counted as two separate words, and also in that it led to the generation of non-existent words. The apostrophe had to be removed in all the instances it appeared. The word *don’t* was therefore written as *dont*. Although the removal of apostrophes resolved the problem for some words, it introduced a complication for others.

The most notable challenge for instance was how to differentiate between *its* (the pronoun) and *it’s* (the contracted form of ‘it is’). Removing the apostrophe from the contracted form would render the word a pronoun. All the instances of the pronoun and the contracted form would then be counted as apostrophes. This would raise the frequency of *its* erroneously high while denying the contracted form any single occurrence. Such anomalies would affect the validity of the corpus significantly. To circumvent that, the contracted form *it’s* was written as *itis* without spaces between to differentiate it from *it is*. A list of such changes was made so that after the generation of the HFW list, they would be converted to their original correct orthographic forms.

A related but more complex case was that of distinguishing between words like *other's* as in each other's and *others* the plural form of *other*, once the apostrophe is removed. In this case, the researcher abbreviated the word class of the less frequent form next to it in this case 'otherspos' for *others* (possessive form). The choice of the less frequent form was meant to avoid adding letters to more words if the more frequent form was the one on which additions were made. A similar but even greater challenge was distinguishing between three forms of a word as in *boys*, *boy's* and *boys'*. The complication was in the addition of a third form. Although in this example all the three forms qualified to be regarded as one word according to the notion of word adapted for the present study in chapter 3, the word frequency generation was based on the token as a unit of counting. Letting the three forms be counted as one word at this stage would give an erroneous result of the number of tokens in the corpus. For these three word forms, removal of the apostrophes on the two possessive forms would mean the three forms are entered as the same word, *boys*. To address this challenge, *boy's* was entered as *boyspos* and *boys'* as *boyss* as in *boys's*. The same was done for '*friend's/friends/friends*' Again, all such changes were noted down so that the words would be recognisable in the frequency list. The same principle was applied to distinguish the following pairs of words once the punctuation marks were removed:

*coordinates/co-ordinates*, *we're/were*, *side's/sides*, *hour's/hours*, *year's/ years*, among others.

For short forms with dual functions like *st.* which can be used for *saint* or *street*, the word was entered as *st**saint* or *st**street*. The short form for *for example*, e.g., was written without the full stops which would have reduced it to 'e' and 'g' separately.

Much time was invested in the preparation of the textbook corpus before the actual word list generation as the quality of the resultant list would only be as good as the quality of the corpus from which it derived. The word elimination, word combination, and the alteration of the orthographic constitution of some words were meant to ensure that the output from the word list generation process would mirror the corpus. In retrospect, the failure of the readiris software program was a disguised blessing as the typing of the textbooks showed the need for all the eliminations, combinations and reconfigurations of word structures. The highly mechanised process of loading the textbook corpus onto the software program and generating the HFW with a single click, which the researcher had envisaged at the beginning, would

have grossly compromised the resultant word list. The extensive ‘cleaning up’ of the corpus prepared it for the next stage of generation of HFW.

#### 5.3.1.2 Generation of HFW

The files from the twelve textbooks were converted into plain text (txt) format and merged into a single file. All the words were converted to lower case to avoid having the same word beginning with upper case being read as a different word to that beginning with lower case. From this file, a word frequency list was then generated using Antconc 3.2.4 software. For generating the word frequency list, the token was used as a unit of counting seeing that no software was available to measure word frequency according to the unit of word adapted for the present study as discussed in Chapter 4. The frequency list indicated the ranking of the words from the most frequent, to the word tokens occurring only once in the corpus. It also captured the frequency with which each word occurred. The corpus yielded 6 748 Word Types and 141 063 Word Tokens. This was after all the exclusion and merging of some word forms described earlier.

The purpose of the word frequency list was to determine the critical vocabulary needs of Grade 3 learners transitioning to Grade 4 on the basis of the frequency of their occurrence. The first screening measure was the frequency with which words appeared in the corpus with the high frequency words meriting inclusion into the list of learners’ required vocabulary. This necessitated decisions on the appropriate cut off point beyond which some words would be considered infrequent enough not to be considered critical vocabulary.

Several figures have been given as representing the number of times a word should be heard and/or seen for it to be acquired incidentally from context. Khatib & Nourzadeh (2012, p. 4, 5) note that:

[S]ome researchers suggest that 6 encounters to an unknown word would be enough while some other researchers argue in support of 8 encounters (Horst *et al.* 1998). Abundant evidence has been found for 10 (or more) encounters, both in L1 (Jenkins *et al.* 1984) and L2 (Saragi *et al.* 1978; Webb, 2007).

The lack of consensus on the number of word recurrences sufficient for word acquisition is occasioned by the relativity of the acquisition process to individual proficiency levels, to the nature of word exposure, to context and many other confounding variables. Considering the

small size of the present study corpus, thirty occurrences of a word within the corpus was considered frequent enough for a word to occupy high frequency status. All the word forms with less than that cut-off point were considered infrequent to merit inclusion in the HFW list. These were discarded. The 30 word frequency cut-off point yielded a total of 633 types from the 6748 types. The 633 word types were too many to consider as the critical vocabulary needs of the learners which teachers would need to give explicit attention to. The study also tested learners' knowledge of the words identified as representing their critical needs. The 633 types were too many to test on the learners to determine their knowledge of the most useful vocabulary. Although frequency was 'the' screening criterion, there was need to augment it with other criteria.

#### 5.3.1.3 Criteria and process for narrowing the vocabulary needs of the learners

This sub-section describes the different criteria that were used and the screening stages that were followed in order to arrive at what could be regarded as the core vocabulary needs of the learners. The major criteria discussed are; comparing the current list with other available lists and comparing the word rankings in the current list with specific subject area rankings for this study's corpus. There was to corroborate the present study's list with other available lists, hence the comparisons of the current list with other available lists.

##### *Comparison of Present Study's HFW List with other available lists*

The across-lists comparison provided the second level of word screening after the 30 word instances cut off point. The strength and validity of the present study's HFW list needed to be corroborated by other available word frequency lists. A HFW list which would markedly differ from all the other lists would not be novel or exclusive but would be questionable or not be considered rigorous. While the present study corpus was expected to yield a different word ranking from any other list on account of the lists drawing from different corpuses, it was also supposed to have a sufficient degree of commonality with the other lists. The present study's list was also meant to be used to infer the vocabulary needs of South African learners reading different texts from different contexts. This necessitated its conformity to, but not replication of, the other available word lists. Cross-lists comparisons would free the generated HFW list from glaring omissions and errors as Nation (2012) advises. A brief description of each of the word lists against which the current list was compared follows.

The five word lists against which the present list was compared are the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) FP FAL (2011), Word Bank, General Service List (GSL), Fry's HFW and the Longman Communication lists. These were juxtaposed against the present study's HFW list to establish the consistencies or lack thereof. The CAPS list constitutes the vocabulary targets set for the Foundation Phase curriculum in South Africa where the present study is based. The Department of Basic Education (DBE) CAPS however, acknowledges that the list is not entirely responsive to, or based on, an analysis of the vocabulary needs of the South African learner. DBE (2011, p. 113) notes that, "The research which produced this list was done in Britain so words such as "mum" appear, whereas in South Africa some people would say "mom" an anomaly the curriculum document attests to. The words are based on English children's storybooks hence the predominance of verbs in the past tense." The importance of the list, however, is that for most teachers, it represents the only word frequency list they may encounter. It could, therefore, not be ignored despite the anomaly the curriculum document identifies.

The GSL is a 2000 word list published by Michael West in 1953 representing the most frequent words of English from a corpus of written English. Nation and Waring (1997) commend West (1953) for a robust application of other criteria apart from frequency and range to the compilation of the list. They note that the list was designed for practical use by teachers and curriculum planners and for producing simplified readers using this vocabulary. Its target was English language learners and ESL teachers. The Longman Communication list rates the word frequencies differently from the other four. It identifies whether a word is in the first, second or third 1000 words without specifying its actual positioning within that band of a thousand words. The word frequency level of each word entered is given in terms of speech or/and writing. S1 W2 would be indicative of a word being found in the first 1000 word band in terms of speech but in the second 1000 band in terms of writing. The list also identifies the diverse word classes a word form can take and the band of a thousand words in which it falls, within that word class.

The reason why the word lists were used, which doubles as a reason why the cross-lists comparison was done prior to the application of the present study's conceptualisation of word, that all the lists are based on the perspective of word as token. The CAPS, Word Bank and Fry HFW and the GSL lists are limited to 300, 1200, 600 and 2000 words respectively. No cut off point was made for words in these lists. Focus was on the appearance of a word

across at least three of the four lists of comparison without regard to the words' frequency level, be it at the 300<sup>th</sup> level for CAPS list, 1200<sup>th</sup> level for Word bank list, the 600<sup>th</sup> level for the Fry list or the 2000<sup>th</sup> ranking for the GSL. Being the 1000<sup>th</sup> word in a list like the Word Bank based on a corpus of millions of words is to have high frequency status. The across-list comparison provided the first level of word screening. Table 2 gives an example of the consistencies and inconsistencies in the word rankings and appearances across the different lists.

Table 2: Across-Word Lists Comparisons

Rank in this study's List	Frequency in Present study List	Word	Position in CAPS [FP] FAL 300 HFW	Position in Word Bank 1200	Position in General Service List1000	Position in Fry HFW List 600	Level in Longman Communication 3000
1	8904	the	1	1	1	1	the <i>definite article, determiner</i> S1, W1
2	3819	To	4	5	6	5	to S1, W1
3	3608	And	100	3	4	3	to <i>prep</i> S1, W1
4	3570	A	3	4	5	4	and <i>conj</i> S1, W1
12	1177	It	10	10	10	10	<i>indefinite article, determiner</i> S1, W1
13	1080	What	31	32	47	31	it <i>pron</i> S1, W1
18	912	Or	112	26	28	24	what <i>pron, determiner,</i> S1, W1
19	889	On	14	14	18	14	or <i>conj</i> S1, W1
53	377	An	X	39	X	41	on <i>prep</i> S1, W1
							on <i>adj, adv</i> S1, W1
							an <i>indefinite article, determiner</i> S1, W1

The present study's HFW which also had high frequency status in any three of the four lists used for comparison (excluding Longman Communication) were then considered appropriate to include for the next round of words reflective of the vocabulary needs of the learners. Table 2 shows that some words like 'the' and 'it' were consistent in their positioning in the frequency hierarchy of the different lists whereas other words like 'is' did not enjoy that cross-lists consistence. The CAPS list, which is currently used in South Africa had the greatest inconsistencies with the other lists as exemplified by its ranking of the words 'and' and 'or'. The word 'an', ranking 53<sup>rd</sup> in the present study list, was dropped on account of its absence from both the CAPS and GSL lists. The elimination of words like 'an' which did not appear in more than one of the lists reduced the word list to 609 tokens from 633 tokens. (See Appendix 2 for a full cross-list word comparison). From the list, the word construct used in the present study as described in Chapter 4 was then applied.

### *Applying the Study's Word Construct and Reconstituting the HFW list*

Word forms consistent with the present study's definition of word were combined into one. For this step of the process, even the words that had been eliminated on account of having fewer than 30 recurrences were considered only where they could combine with any of the words within the cut-off point. These had to be words which were inflected from the same base form as well as qualifying as one word according to the present study's definition of a word. That combination meant a reorganisation of the frequency list as the base form of the combined words assumed new frequencies and resultantly new rankings. To confirm the word construct adapted for the present study, words sharing the same base and the following inflections: the present progressive (-*ing*) as in *eating*, the plural (-*s*) as in *books*, the possessive (-'s) as in *boy's*, the past regular (-*ed*) as in *talked*, the third person singular (-*s*) as in *walks*, and the long plural (-*es*) as in *mangoes*.

As noted in Chapter 4, these inflected forms were proven from morpheme studies (Burt, 1974; Fathman, 1975; Makino (1980 in Krashen, 1987) to represent a 'natural order' which is predictable and is independent of instruction, learners' age, L1 background, or conditions of exposure which learners follow in acquiring vocabulary and grammatical structures. Base words and these inflected forms were considered one word. As an example, the word form 'use' which initially had a frequency of 706 was combined with that of 'used' [with a frequency of 230] and 'uses' [with a frequency of 54]. This increased its frequency from 706 to 990 and increased its ranking from 26 to 17. The form 'using' with a frequency of 177 was not considered one word with 'use' because it involved more than just adding the inflection '...ing'. The learner would need to remove 'e' from 'use' before adding 'ing'. The learner also would have to recognise that 'using' emanated from the word 'use'. For beginner L2 learners, this would present a challenge. This example is illustrative of the nature of reorganisation that was needed by virtue of the introduction of a unit of counting different from the token which was used for generating the current word list. (See Appendix 3 for application of the current word notion on the present list). The application of the present study's unit of counting led to reorganisation but not loss or addition of word forms. Further loss of words was to result from a cross-disciplinary comparison of the word lists.

### *Across-subject word frequency comparisons*

To promote the validity of the HFW list, the words it comprised were not supposed to be biased towards particular subject textbooks. Baron, Rayson and Archer (2009) observe that some words may enjoy high frequency status in a corpus, not because they are widely used in the language in general, but that they have extensive use in some texts or that their use is densely concentrated in parts of some texts. In this study, such words would not represent the vocabulary needs of learners as their ignorance would constrain the comprehension of a small part of the corpus; the subject areas where their presence abounds. For Baron et al. (2009), a revelation of such cases would be made possible through the calculation of range or dispersion statistics to show word distribution within a corpus. For the present study, this was done by separating the corpora into the respective content areas; Mathematics, Social and Natural Science, Technology, and Life Orientation. Word frequency lists were generated from each discipline specific corpus and compared. This represented application of the criteria of range to complement that of frequency. The rationale was that the words which represent the vocabulary needs of the learners should cut across the subject areas and with high frequency.

By way of example, the word ‘material’ which was ranked 72<sup>nd</sup> in the present study list did not appear at all in the Maths and Life Orientation textbooks and had 110 and 172 recurrences in Social/Natural Sciences and Technology textbooks respectively. (See appendix 4 for cross-subject area word comparisons). Such words were eliminated from the HFW list. Some words cut across subject areas but their high frequency status was evidently accorded them by particular subject areas and not all subject areas. They had gross disproportionate representation across subject areas and so were eliminated. An example is that of the word ‘sun’ whose frequency in Maths texts was 10, in Natural/Social Sciences was 108, in Life Orientation textbooks was 7 and in Technology textbooks was 17. Ignorance of such a word would affect Natural/Social Science textbooks reading more than any of the other subject areas. Of the 869 occurrences of the word ‘water’ across the four subject areas, an overwhelming 526 and 233 occurrences were in Natural/Social Science and Life Orientation textbooks respectively. Such words were also eliminated from the list as they were grossly biased towards particular subject areas and not others. This reduced the resultant list from 291 to 213 words. (See Appendix 4 for the cross-subject word frequency comparisons and Appendix 5 for the 213 HFW). The 213 HFW were regarded as the core vocabulary needs of Grade 3 learners for reading to learn in Grade 4. Testing learners’ knowledge of 213 words was beyond the scope of the present study as was tracking the nature and level of exposure of

all the 213 words in sources of classroom FAL input. There was need for the sampling of words to test on the learners. Several considerations had to be made to ensure that the words tested and the form in which they were tested reflected the demands made of the particular words in the textbooks making up the corpus. These considerations are the subject of discussion.

*Important considerations prior to sampling words from the 213 HFW*

Important considerations discussed in this section relate to how I dealt with homonyms, homographs and homophones as well as the challenge of noun-verb occurrence of words. The decisions I made did not affect word selection for the testing sample but rather how selected words were tested.

Homonyms are words which, although they have the same orthographic make up and sometimes the same pronunciation, they have different meanings. The word ‘bank’ is an apt example which has been used extensively to exemplify homonymy and polysemy. Some homonyms are written in the same way but have different spoken forms (Nation, 2012). An example would be ‘like’ which can mean either *prefer, be fond of, desire* on the one hand, or *to resemble* on the other hand. Knowledge of one meaning of the word does not presuppose that of the other and so these words need to be considered as different words. Such words normally do not recur in texts with similar frequency. Parent, in Nation (2012), notes that in the majority of cases, the frequency of the one word is less than 5% of the total occurrences of the two words in a corpus showing that one word’s use dominates that of the other. In the present study occurrences of the less frequent form were not excluded from the word count. In the construction of the tests, however, a deliberate effort was made to test the most prevalent uses of the word. For some words like the word ‘right’(if it got into the sample) I used my own discretion based on the reading of the corpus files to decide that it would be tested as an adjective meaning free from error, appropriate, truthful, or acceptable and not the location or its other uses in other word classes.

For words like ‘like’ whose frequency of the diverse meaning I could hardly place, I used the Antconc software. I selected a minimum size of four clusters on either the left or right side of the selected word. This meant all the instances of the use of a selected word in the corpus were reflected within the context of four words. That context would help determine the form and use made of the word in each instance. A frequency of 1 was selected which meant the

diverse uses of the selected term would be generated from the most frequent use to a single use. The software indicated the number of the cluster tokens, the frequency with which each particular use of the selected word was made, and the various uses of the word in context. Below is an example from the first five most frequent uses of the word ‘like’

Total No. of Cluster Tokens: 356		
1	6	Draw a table like
2	6	in a table like
3	4	an object shaped like
4	3	method do you like
5	3	what life was like

The highest use of the word ‘like’ was in a phrase ‘Draw a table like’ which had six occurrences. From the five examples above, numbers 1, 2, 3 and 5 use ‘like’ as *similar to* and phrase number 4 uses it as *prefer* or *fond of*. Adding the frequencies would mean from the five phrases exemplified above, the use of ‘like’ meaning *similar to*, occurs  $6+6+4+3=19$  times while that of ‘like’ as *prefer* or *fond of*, occurred 3 times. Following this process, I determined the most frequent use of the word.

Although polysemes have similar orthographic composition and different meaning, their meanings are related. In fact, they are different senses of the same word. The polysemes or senses of ‘big’ could be manifest in *big voice*, *big day*, *big smile*, *big rock* and so forth. To consider these senses of polysemous words as constituting different words would require application of clear foolproof criteria for distinguishing these senses reliably. I did not have such criteria nor could I develop any such. Nation (2012) posits that, with the exception of a few very high frequent polysemes, most are stored as one word within the brain. Crossley, Salsbury and McNamara (2010) observe that HFW tend to be the most polysemous as language users extend the meanings of the commonly used words rather than coin new ones. Capturing all the senses of most of the words on the list and regarding them as separate words would, therefore, have been a real challenge if not an insurmountable one. Hunston (2006) even notes that software that recognise and distinguish word senses are both difficult and not publicly available. Another challenge related to how particular words were supposed to be tested if they made it to the sample had to do with words that, though they are one word, are both nouns and verbs.

Although the words in the corpus belonged to diverse word classes, their occurrence as both verbs and nouns was more prevalent than, say, verb and adjective. The Longman list was

quite useful in identifying the word class in which a particular word was used more or most frequently in written form. The word ‘answer’ for instance, is entered as belonging to the first 1000 words as a noun but being in the second 1000 words as a verb. The word ‘but’ is entered as belonging to three word classes thus; as a *conjunction* S1, W1 as a *preposition* S2, W3 and as an *adverb* S2, W3. As a conjunction it belonged to the first 1000 words in both speech and writing but as the other two word classes it belonged to the third 1000 most frequent words in both speech and writing. The word was, therefore, only considered as a conjunction.

In the present study, each word was tested on the learners in at least six different ways from nine tests. Care was taken to ensure that a word like ‘answer’ would be tested more, if not exclusively, as a noun than as a verb and the word ‘but’ would be tested as a conjunction in accordance with its frequency of use. Where determination of the more or most frequent use of a word could not be established from the Longman list on account of the word belonging to the first, second or third 1000 words in its different word classes, the word frequency counter was used. A word would be entered onto the software and all the instances of its use generated. A determination of the most frequent form of the word was then made which was then used for testing. This was done for words like ‘like’, ‘use’, ‘work’, ‘out’, ‘look’, ‘need’, and so forth. These all belonged to the first 1000 words in both speech and writing according to the Longman list. This then, necessitated the determination of the most frequent word class for each word in the present study textbook corpus using the word frequency counter.

The decisions about what to do with polysemous words and related words as well as noun-verb word occurrences were made on the 213 words which represented the core vocabulary needs of learners for the Grade 3 to 4 transition. The 213 words were however too many to use as benchmark vocabulary against which to measure both the extent to which sources of classroom English language input exposed them to the learners and the extent of learners’ knowledge of the words. There was need for a sampling of the HFW to come up with a more manageable benchmark list.

#### *Selection of benchmark vocabulary for the present study*

In the present study, the 213 were narrowed down to 60 for feasibility of testing and to avoid learner fatigue during testing. Testing all the 213 words would also not have been feasible considering the time away from teaching and learning that would need to be set aside for the

testing. A sample of 60 would also allow for a close investigation of the sampled words' visibility in sources of classroom input. Probability and purposive sampling were combined to select the 60 words from the 213. Because frequency was a key determinant of the vocabulary needs of learners in this study, the most frequent words were, therefore, supposed to have a higher possibility of being selected. The words were placed into five categories according to their frequency and from each category 12 words were selected. This gave some words greater probability of being selected than others. The categories and sampling are reflected in Table 3.

Table 3: Quantitative Sampling of Words from the 213 HFW

No. of words selected	Category	Range of Words	Selection Probability
12	First 22 words	Word 1-22	55%
12	Next 32 words	Word 23-55	38%
12	Next 42 words	Word 56-98	29%
12	Next 52 words	Word 99-151	23%
12	Last 64 words	Word 152-212	19%

From each of the five word categories, 12 words were selected. Purposive sampling was made in each category to ensure diverse word classes were represented in the words selected in each category. The other criteria for selecting words to privilege identified earlier, apart from frequency of occurrence, were employed. These were: their availability according to the researcher's discretion, their learnability (and testability), the ease in their meaning demonstration, their regularity, how well they embodied elements similar to language aspects learners possibly had acquired, and the opportunism, a measure of a word's relevance to the learners' immediate situation. Where a word was selected in one category, a related word was overlooked in that or the other category. As an example, the word '*has*' was excluded from the sample on account of the word '*have*' having been selected. Using the above criteria, 60 words in Table 4 were selected for testing.

Table 4: The 60 HFW List

Word 1-22	Word 23-55	Word 56-98	Word 99-151	Word 152-212
and	have	if	only	every
you	need	own	between	stop
use	like	but	colour	both
can	from	explain	because	understand
do	other	why	example	enough

what	out	some	important	until
are	each	time	together	always
for	different	day	after	again
it	answer	same	piece	before
or	about	also	most	easy
on	not	more	must	once
that	look	school	another	family

This sample of words represented the core vocabulary needs of the Grade 4 textbooks for the present study. These became the benchmark against which learners' vocabulary knowledge, learners' Grade 3 reading materials, teacher talk and classroom print were measured. It then needed to be seen whether sources of Grade 3 language input provided learners with adequate and meaningful exposure to the HFW.

### 5.3.2 Phase 2: Investigating Grade 3 Learners' Current Vocabulary Exposure

This second phase sought to determine the kind of vocabulary that current third graders were exposed with high frequency through some of the most used forms of language input namely; Grade 3 reading material, teacher talk and classroom print. The 60 HFW were used as a benchmark against which the learners' exposure to the requisite vocabulary for transitioning to Grade 4 was measured. In some cases, the 213 words from which the 60 HFW words were sampled were used as well. This was with a view to determining the potential preparedness of third graders to pick up requisite Grade 4 vocabulary from these ubiquitous sources of classroom language input. The same vocabulary was later compared against the demonstrated word knowledge of learners in Grade 4 from the tests results. Both qualitative and quantitative instruments were used to collect and analyse data in this study. These are briefly identified in the next section and elaborated in the subsequent section on the research procedure.

#### 5.3.2.1 Data generation and analysis instruments

For the qualitative component of the present study, teacher interviews and classroom observations were employed. That the interviews and observations were qualitative did not preclude the quantification of some data as in identifying the number of vocabulary episodes noted in the observations or the number of teachers who made particular responses in the interviews.

The classroom observations included teacher practices and teacher talk. Systematic observation was used which targeted certain behaviours to achieve particular purpose,

recording them systematically to promote validity. In documenting the vocabulary episodes (explained later in the research process) for instance, checklists were used to establish the presence or absence of particular episodes. The pre-determination of categories was based on the research questions and initial classroom observations during the piloting stage. Having categories prior to observations helped to keep the observations focused. At least a week of informal observations was made in each class before the systematic observations meant to generate data for the study were undertaken. These preliminary observations helped the teacher and the learners to get used to the researcher and allow them to be themselves during the actual observation process. It also helped the researcher to refine the categories for the observations. Field notes were quite useful in this process of recording classroom dynamics with a view to determining what aspects merited inclusion in the observation categories and how best they could be captured. In this way the informal observations paved the way for the more structured or systematic observations. The observation component on the potential effects of teacher talk on the vocabulary acquisition of learners yielded data with significant quantification.

Semi-structured interviews were used to capture the teachers' beliefs, assumptions and pedagogical choices related to the vocabulary development of the learners. These involved a partial preplanning of the interview questions but leaving room for the emergence of other questions from the context. Although they were less controlled than structured interviews, semi structured interviews allowed for a replication of the interview with all the respondents in this study. This enabled comparisons across different participants. The measure of standardisation of items also enhanced the reliability of the instrument.

The quantitative component of the study was largely in the vocabulary tests which were analysed statistically. A description of the process is given in the next section. There was also the Computer-based text analysis which was applied in teacher talk quantification, in analysing classroom print as well as reading materials.

The analysis of qualitative data was largely thematic. Data was coded to allow for its categorisation so that emerging themes could become apparent (Braun & Clarke, 2006). For interviews, rather than analyse the data for individual participants, cross-case analysis was used in this study. In all the interpretation and drawing of inferences, the quantitative component was manifest even for the largely qualitative methodologies. The use made of the

instruments in the present study is made manifest in the research procedure followed in this phase and the next phase of the study.

### 5.3.2.2 Research Procedure and Analysis

The research process followed in investigating the contribution of the classroom sources of language input to the English vocabulary development of learners in the FAL classroom is discussed in this section. These are the Grade 3 reading material, teacher classroom talk and classroom print. How the data were analysed for each of these is also discussed in this section.

#### *Grade 3 Reading material*

The most prevalent reading material in the classes participating in the present study was the workbook. In South Africa, the Department of Basic Education (DBE) distributes workbooks to all schools at national level and these become a major source of language input. From my participation in the administration of a contextual profiling questionnaire to more than 20 schools within the large research project of which this study was part, two things were apparent. First, that the workbooks were the kind of reading material that one would find in all schools, and second, that teachers relied heavily on them. The Grade 3 workbooks considered were the two English FAL 2012 workbooks covering the four terms. These were converted to txt format for the generation of their HFW. The workbooks were complemented by the Big books in 6 of the 8 classrooms.

Not all the schools had Big books because they were not given to schools by the Department of Education but were purchased by the individual schools. Each of the 6 schools had at least two Big books but all the Big books in all the schools added up to only five different titles. The five Big books used in the 6 participating classrooms were typed out. They were then converted into the plain texts (txt) format for HFW generation. Four readers for group guided reading common to most of the schools under study were also converted to txt format for word frequency generation. The txt format files for the DBE workbooks, Big books, and readers were combined and their HFW generated using the same AntConc 3.2.4 software used for the generation of HFW from Grade 4 textbooks. This yielded an initial 1192 word types and 6467 word tokens. A similar process of elimination of certain words as for the Grade 4 textbooks' word frequency list was followed. Particular inflected forms were also combined with their base forms as one word in accordance with the present study's

conceptualisation of word. Their new frequencies were computed and their new positions on the frequency list determined. The resultant frequency list represented the words that the third grade learners had the greatest exposure to from their reading materials.

The analysis of this data took two forms. First, the two HFW lists (Grade 3 and Grade 4) were compared on the first 300 most frequent words with words in one list but missing in the other list being especially highlighted. Words frequent in the Grade 4 list but not in the Grade 3 list represented vocabulary learners were less likely to pick up. Words which existed in both lists represented greater likelihood of learners picking them up from the reading materials. The second thing done with the list was deliberately focusing on the 60 words tested on the learners to determine both their presence and frequency on the Grade 3 list even beyond the 300 word list. Each word was identified in terms of the level at which it was on the frequency list in 100 word intervals. An example would be saying a word was on the 5<sup>th</sup> second 100 most frequent words bracket. This gave an indication of the likelihood of each word being acquired by end of Grade 3. The words the teacher used in their classroom talk and how they used them would also contribute to the determination of the extent to which learners could be expected to acquire the requisite vocabulary for Grade 4 reading by the end of Grade 3.

### *Teacher-talk*

Teacher talk is an important source of language input and in contexts where reading material and environmental print are scarce or unavailable, it can represent the only source of English language input for some learners. Research indicates that teacher-talk constitutes 70% of classroom time (Cook, 2000) which makes it a vital source of classroom input. The estimate that a word should be heard at least 30 times to be part of a learner's lexicon (Horst, 2010) testifies to teacher-talk being an important source of vocabulary input for learners. Because teacher-talk is directed towards comprehensibility of input, it is deliberate, conscious talk. As such, it is expected that in such talk, basic key lexical and symbolic features must be deliberately and carefully selected and simplified. It is talk where repetition of key ideas and lexical items should abound (Ellis, 1995). Setati and Adler (2000, p. 255) observe that "...in rural schools, where there is very limited English infrastructure in the surrounding community for teachers to build on in school, exposure to English is via the teacher. This puts pressure on teachers to use English as much as possible." This underscores the value of teacher-talk for second language learning which necessitated its analysis in this study.

To capture the teacher talk, permission was granted by the teachers to video-record three lessons. Three samples of teacher talk from three video-recorded lessons constituted teacher-talk data for each of the ten teachers in the study. In most of the classrooms, more than three video-recordings were made per teacher. In such cases, only the last three were used. The observation was that the first videos were more of a distraction to the learners' attention than the subsequent ones. The three selected videos were then transcribed verbatim. Exception was made to teacher-talk which was not directed at the learners, as in a teacher saying something to the researcher or to a colleague who had come into the classroom or any such disturbance. This was because learners were not obliged to listen to such talk as it was not directed towards them. Digressions and informal talk like the teacher cracking a joke with the learners was considered as it was directed towards learners.

Qualitative analysis of teacher talk was made in the identification of factors which enabled or constrained the use of more vocabulary in the teacher talk. Teachers' modeling of the language was also considered. That modeling was considered in relation to the suitability of the teacher's vocabulary level in her talk (all the teachers were female) in relation to learners' capabilities. There was need for balance in providing vocabulary that would extend learners' own without compromising their understanding of what the teacher communicated. The modeling was also in terms of teacher-talk being free from errors and confusing digressions. For the quantitative dimension, the concordance was used to quantify the amount of vocabulary used by the different teachers. The transcribed samples of teacher talk were then divided into 5 minute intervals for each teacher's three lessons. Using the AntConc word frequency counter, the frequency with which the words appeared within the intervals was generated.

Attention was especially placed on the 60 HFW tested on the learners to see how well they were represented in the 5 minute intervals of a teacher's lessons. Because these were HFW, the expectation was that they would recur in samples of teacher talk irrespective of the content of the lesson. The segmenting of text into 5 minute intervals was meant to avoid the misleading impression that some words were sufficiently recycled in the lessons when they were confined to just a 5 minute section of the lesson. A word appearing 20 times in two 5 minute segments of a lesson and not appearing even once thereafter in the three lessons would have less chance of being acquired than one which appears once or twice in every 5

minute interval across the three lessons even with a total frequency of 12. Words appearing at regular intervals would have greater chances of being known than those which appeared infrequently and at irregular intervals. Both frequency and range across the lesson segments were important considerations in determining the kind of vocabulary that learners were most likely to pick up from teacher talk.

After considering the occurrence of the 60 words across the three lessons' 5 minute chunks, words not part of the 60 HFW which found expression generally across all or three quarters of the 5 minute segments of all lessons were noted. These were compared with the list of the 212 HFW from which the 60 were derived. Those which were part of the 213 but not of the 60 would equally be representative of words at the intersection between teacher talk and learner vocabulary needs. Those words prevalent across the generality of lesson segments which were neither part of the 60 or the 213 would be indicative of teacher talk's capacity to develop learner vocabulary beyond just the basic vocabulary requirements of the learners. Where no words were consistently and sufficiently recycled across lesson segments, the teacher's classroom talk was considered as not contributing to meeting learners' vocabulary needs in a significant way. The contribution of classroom print to vocabulary acquisition was also investigated seeing that it was an important source of classroom input.

### *Classroom print*

Classroom print comprised mainly wall charts, mobiles, and learning centres. The print was video recorded and transcribed. With the classroom print the words in the 60 HFW group and the 213 HFW groups were identified and the frequency of their occurrence determined. This would be indicative of the kind of vocabulary that learners were likely to pick up from the print. During the classroom observations, opportunities that the teacher took to draw attention to the classroom print were noted. The presence of classroom print was one thing but the use made of it was another, which the present study was equally concerned with. The relevance of the kinds of classroom print for the Grade 3 learners was also investigated particularly for commercially produced materials. This was in order to determine whether teachers were not displaying print that they had gained access to without due consideration to its relevance to the learners. Even the condition of the print offered insights on whether learners could still be motivated to read the print. Dirty, torn and faded charts would cease to draw learners' attention.

### 5.3.2.2 Lesson observations

Lesson observations also constituted an important source of data for the present study which provided insight into the potential preparedness of Grade 3 learners for Grade 4 vocabulary needs. Observations were made in all the English FAL classes in each of the 10 participating classes for two week periods. The first week was set for informal observations and the second week was meant for the actual observations. The researcher assumed the role of an unobtrusive non-participant observer. The same three lessons video recorded from each class, which constituted teacher talk data, constituted the observation data samples and were archived for substantiating and revisiting findings. Within each of the recorded lessons, vocabulary instruction episodes were captured through field notes whenever they occurred. Wright (2012, p. 353) defines an episode of vocabulary instruction as “...an interaction in which the teacher discussed the meaning of a word with students at any point throughout the observation period.”

For the observation analysis, the instances and nature of the vocabulary instruction episodes were identified. These included word definitions, rephrasings meant to bring word clarity, provision of synonyms or antonyms to clarify word meanings, exemplification to provide word meaning as well as translation into the learner’s L1. The number and kinds of vocabulary instruction episodes were a key concern in the observations.

Strategies used by the teacher to bring about comprehension when learners seemingly did not understand some utterances were also explored. These were explored both by way of observing teachers’ classroom practice as well as by way of asking them through interviews, which were also an important part of the present study.

### 5.3.2.3 Teacher Interviews

Teacher interviews were conducted to determine their beliefs, assumptions and pedagogical choices. Kuzborska (2011, p. 103) acknowledges the profound effect teachers’ theoretical beliefs have on their instructional practices by noting that “[T]eachers’ beliefs influence their goals, procedures, materials, classroom interaction patterns, their roles, their students....” Teacher interviews were, therefore, conducted with the ten Grade 3 teachers whose classes participated in the study.

A semi-structured interview guide was used which allowed for set questions but flexibility in the interview process. The interview guide covered vocabulary related aspects on the nature and period of learners' initial exposure to the English language, their preference between contextualised and decontextualized vocabulary instruction, the source of vocabulary they teach, how they determine word novelty, the aspects of word knowledge they privilege, and the aspects of word knowledge learners struggle with and are at ease with, adequacy of material and time provisions, learner competences, the role of the world outside the classroom in vocabulary development, their perceived learner readiness for transition to Grade 4 by year end, the rate of exposure and acquisition of new vocabulary in the English FAL classroom, strategies employed and attendant challenges, among others. The interviews were video-recorded and transcribed. Classroom observation and interview data were then analysed thematically. The teacher interview data provided the theoretical beliefs and perspectives on assumptions, pedagogical choices and pedagogical practices related to vocabulary development. Classroom observations provided the actual pedagogical decisions and practices made in the classroom setting.

The manifest preparedness or lack of preparedness for the vocabulary demands of Grade 4 texts from the sources of classroom input needed to be compared with the learners' demonstrable knowledge of the HFW employed extensively in the Grade 4 textbooks. The last phase of the research process therefore, focused on the administration of tests to the learners in Grade 4.

### **5.3.3. Phase 3: Testing the Vocabulary Knowledge of Grade 4 Learners**

In this phase of the study, the vocabulary knowledge of the learners now in Grade 4 was tested. The 60 HFW that were generated from the Grade 4 textbooks and isolated for testing were tested on the learners at the beginning of Grade 4 to determine their knowledge of the words. Nine different vocabulary tests were used to assess learners' knowledge of the selected words. Each word was tested in at least 6 different ways. In the design of the vocabulary test instruments, care was taken to use, as much as possible, simple basic testing mechanisms employed by teachers to test word knowledge from day to day. Vocabulary assessment should coincide with, and be reflective of vocabulary instruction for it to be valid. Use of test formats learners were familiar with ensured that they did not have to grapple with both comprehending the intricate nature of the test instrument or format, and demonstrating

their word knowledge. The multifaceted nature of word knowledge meant that no single test could measure the diverse forms of word knowledge. It was imperative therefore, to employ multiple measures to capture the diversity of learners' knowledge of each individual word (Coombe & Hubley, 2003).

Not all the nine vocabulary test instruments were used on all the 60 words as particular words lend themselves to testing using particular test instruments and not others. The first 3 vocabulary tests which tested word recognition and the seventh test which tested active word knowledge tested all the 60 words. The remaining tests did not assess learners' knowledge on all the words. Four tests therefore, compulsorily tested all the words but the other five tests only tested those words which lend themselves to testing through those test formats. Table 5 shows the tests, the dimension of word knowledge they tested and the number of words each test covered.

Table 5: Vocabulary Test Instruments Used and the Dimension of Word they Assessed

Test Instrument	Dimension of word knowledge tested	Number of words tested
Test 1: Word/ non-word test	Word recognition	All 60 words
Test 2: Word reading test	Word recognition	All 60 words
Test 3: Word Spacing test	Word recognition	All 60 words
Test 4: Definition matching	Passive Word Knowledge	Only 12 words
Test 5: Multiple choice test	Passive Word Knowledge	Only 20 words
Test 6: Gap-filling test	Passive Word Knowledge	Only 26 words
Test 7: Dictation test	Active Word Knowledge	All 60 words
Test 8: L1-L2 recall test	Active Word Knowledge	Only 40 words
Test 9: Controlled Productive vocabulary test	Active Word Knowledge	Only 20 words

(See Appendix 1 for the different tests).

Testing each word in at least six different ways allowed more valid conclusions to be drawn about learners' knowledge or lack of knowledge of each word than would be the case if word testing was done in only one way. Using diverse testing formats also gave insight into the ease or difficulty of particular test instruments. The first three tests (Test 1, 2 and 3) tested word recognition, the next three tested passive word knowledge (Test 4, 5 and 6) and the last three tested active word knowledge (Test 7, 8 and 9). Care was taken, however, to ensure that each word was tested on both the passive knowledge and active knowledge dimensions. For

all tests, care was also taken to ensure that the test items measured vocabulary and no other aspects of the language and that they measured knowledge of the particular words selected. The tests had to be doable in terms of both time requirements and complexity of items. Even the scoring of the tests was considered beforehand. What follows is a compendious description of these vocabulary test formats and in some instances, a justification for their use in vocabulary knowledge measurement.

#### *Nature of the tests*

The tests used in the present study cover the three types of lexical access namely; orthographic (reading), phonological (listening) and syntactic/semantic (language production). The orthographic and phonological modalities retrieve words using their visual and auditory features respectively while the syntactic/semantic file retrieve words on the basis of their meaning. The first three tests measured word recognition which should be triggered by the first few letters of the word if the word is known. The next set of three tests used in the study tested learners' passive word knowledge where their task was just to match or select the correct word from ones given. The last three tests measured active word knowledge by requiring learners to write down the correct word under controlled conditions meant to ensure a specific word was written and not related others. Word recognition is prerequisite to accessing the syntactical, morphological and semantic features of a word for further processing. Word recognition tests were, therefore, administered first and are therefore, described first. Word recognition is normally an out-of-context process of demonstrating word knowledge. The first test to be administered was the word/pseudo-word test. (See Appendix 1 for examples of items and the expected response formats for each of the 9 tests.

#### *Test 1: Word/Pseudo-word test*

The purpose of this test was to assess learners' ability to distinguish real words from pseudo-words. In terms of the test format, the word/pseudo-word test was the least familiar among both teachers and learners and so merits a more elaborate description than the others. It tested word recognition among the learners which is at the very basic but core level of word knowledge. Word recognition is contingent upon the quality of three representations: phonology, orthography and semantics (Perfetti & Hart, 2001). The phonological aspect, which was taken care of by the reading test (Test 2), was missing on account of the word/pseudo-word test being administered in written form. I used the test format as an

adaptation of the Recognition Based Vocabulary Test (RBVT). Alderson and Banerjee (2002) describe the RBVT as comprising words and pseudo-words that are randomly paired with the learner's role being that of identifying the real existant word in a pair. The RBVT was itself a development from the Yes/No test where learners would indicate whether a given form was a real word or not. Although one of the improvements of the RBVT from the Yes/No test is correcting for guesswork by giving 60 pairs of words and pseudo-words for discrimination, the present study sought to reduce incidences of guesswork even further. In the study, the 60 words were randomly mixed with 40 pseudo-words. The learners' role was to circle the 60 words from the 100 words. Mixing words and pseudo-words reduced the probability of accurate guesswork significantly.

An understanding of what pseudo-words are and how they were coined is vital for the appreciation of the nature of the test. A pseudo-word is "...an invented word constructed according to the orthographic and morphological rules of the target language" (Pulido, 2007, p. 73). I used the term pseudo-words instead of the commonly used term non-words. According to Coch, Maron, Wolf and Holcomb (2002, p. 375) non-words are "...unpronounceable permutations of orthographically legal letters" whereas pseudo words are "...pronounceable non-words that follow the rules of English orthography and phonology." The phonological and orthographic processing available to pseudo words increases their approximation to real words. Because pseudo-words can be read by the application of "grapheme-phoneme conversion rules" and segmentation skills, they represent the best measure of phonological processing particularly for an orthographic language like English (Siegel in Metsala & Ehri, 1998).

Although the pseudo-words are essentially nonsense words, they conform to predictable spelling patterns. Pseudo-words respect both the phonotactic and orthographic restrictions of words and their formation. The Word/Pseudo-word test has the merits of simplicity of construction, administration and calibration. There are no elaborate instructions which may confound the learners. The test is accommodative of a large number of items. To minimise incidences of guess work from a selection of a real word from a pseudo-word in a given pair, the genuine and pseudo-words were put in the same list with the learners' roles being that of identifying the real words. In the formulation of pseudo-words, several factors were considered to make the pseudo-words as close to the real words as possible. Care was taken to ensure that:

- the letter combinations in pseudo-words are possible or permissible within the English language. Combinations like bcx would clearly mark out a word as strange and obviously a non-word. The pseudo-words had to “respect the phonotactic and morphological rules of the target language” (Eyckmans, 2004, p. 27),
- the pseudo-words have discernible syllables,
- the pseudo-words accommodate, begin and end with, different letters of the alphabet as do real words,
- the pseudo-words are of varying lengths,
- the pseudo-words are not real words in other languages particularly isiXhosa, the participating learners’ home language, and
- the pseudo-words are readable using the decoding process.

Nothing was supposed to unduly draw attention to pseudo-words so that their exclusion by learners would be on the basis of them being known as non-existent.

To ensure legibility of the test format to the learners, the 60+40 (100) words were on five pages in landscape layout with each page containing 15 words and 10 pseudo-words mixed. The fifth page was the cover page with the spaces for school and learner details as well as examples of what was expected of the learners in demonstrating word knowledge. This was done to reduce crowding the page and allow for the use of a large font size to enhance readability.

In terms of the administration of the test, the learners circled all the words which they knew within a row and moved from one row to the next row and from page to page as a class under the direction of the researcher or research assistant. This ensured that learners would not overlook some of the words they knew by scanning all over the page. As an example, below is how the first row of the test looked like and what the learners were expected to do.

and	can	rist	lable	have
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In the scoring of the test, there was a challenge typical of the YES/No test; that of pseudo-word checks (false alarms) which were indicative of learners’ overestimation of word knowledge in the tests. Although the pseudo-words themselves had been introduced to counteract the potential of such overestimations, tests in which they are used, like the vocabulary checklist tests, are still plagued by the same challenge. To deal with the overestimation, there is need for a downward adjustment of scores of learners producing the

false alarms (claiming knowledge of pseudo-words). Four scoring formula have been used from the very simplistic one where the number of false alarms is subtracted from that of hits (correct identification of real words), to the very complex one by Huibregtse et al. (2002). The lack of consensus on the adjustment formula and the fact that some current researchers (e.g. Harrington & Carey, 2009) have reverted to the first simplistic scoring formula attests to the enormity of the challenge of adjusting the scores in a way which better reflects the actual vocabulary known. None of these formulae seems optimal for all related tests without adjustment. The present study's word/pseudo-word test, being an adaptation of related tests and using different number of test items, used a scoring formula different from others.

A recording of 1 was made for every word circled and 0 for a real word which was left uncircled. This was done on a template showing all the 60 words and the learner's performance on each of them. To avoid the bias that would be introduced by consideration of scripts from learners who circled almost every word (real and pseudo), some scripts had to be treated as spoiled for the purpose of this recording. All the scripts where the false alarms (pseudo-word circled) constituted a third or more of the hits (real words circled) were disqualified as the learners were regarded as insincere in their claim to word knowledge.

#### *Test 2: Word Reading test*

The reading test assessed learners' sight word reading ability as a demonstration of word recognition knowledge. The expectation was that for words already known, sight word reading would apply rather than decoding, analogising or prediction. Decoding can be through the sounding out and blending of graphemes or written symbols into phonemes or units of sound (Ehri, 2005). Through decoding, larger chunks of letters or graphemes can be blended with syllabic units to come up with a reading of even the unknown words. In decoding, there is movement from word parts to the whole. It allows the reading of even an unknown word by merely blending parts of a word together. I can read the pseudo-word 'elobotationalism' but I do not know it because it does not exist. Reading by decoding would not be indicative of word knowledge for this study. Where it was evident that the learner was reading a word in parts, the word was therefore, regarded as unknown.

Analogising is explained by Goswami (1986) as the use of some known words to read novel ones. A learner who can read the word *fight* can transfer that reading to the word *sight*. An apt example given by Ehri (2005) is how the reading of the word *bottle* facilitates that of the

word *throttle*. In most cases this kind of reading proceeds by way of hesitations which may be indicative of no knowledge of the word by the learner in the present study. In prediction reading, learners use contextual or letter clues to make intelligent conjectures about how new words should be read. The word 'look' may be remembered by the *oo* in the middle which look like eyeballs. This would be an unreliable way of reading words as most written words do not have easy to remember cues. Relying on this reading would render learners largely non-readers. This then left sight word reading as the acceptable way of reading words in the reading test for the present study.

Sight word reading is reading words by sight or from memory. Because the words concerned have been encountered and read before, "...we can just look at the words and our brain recognises them" (Ehri, 2005, p. 168). Sight word reading, unlike decoding recognises words as a whole, a process called unitisation. The vocalisation of the word therefore, has no pauses between parts of a word. Sight word reading as Ehri (2005) asserts, comes from reading a word sufficiently often until it is automatized and its recognition proceeds fluently and almost unconsciously. This, she attributes to repeated reading of a word potentially securing connections of the word's spelling patterns, pronunciation and meaning in memory.

Automatisation is particularly pertinent when one considers that our short term or working memory only has the capacity to store 7 items for 12 seconds (Abadzi, 2008). This calls us to "...recognise letters and other items within a few milliseconds, otherwise we cannot hold the messages they convey in our minds long enough to interpret them or make decisions; by the end of the sentence we forget the beginning (Abadzi, 2005, p. 585). Abadzi sees automatisisation as a vaccine against illiteracy as a word, once automatized and read from memory, will always be known. Lack of sight word reading leads to letter-by-letter or syllable-by-syllable reading, which overburdens the working memory and compromises comprehension. The working memory capacity of 7 items per 12 seconds translates to 45-60 words per minute. Abadzi (2008) observes that from neurocognitive research, benchmarks and monitoring indicators have been set and from these the expectation is that by end of second grade, reading speeds of 45-60 words per minute should be attained. Although the present study assessed vocabulary knowledge on Grade 4 learners, I was cognisant of the fact that they were second language learners. Using my own discretion, a reading of the 60 HFW list in 2 minutes by each learner was acceptable if they employed sight word reading.

It was not only the speed, but also the accuracy with which words were read that was of concern to the study. Barr, Blachowicz, Katz and Kaufman (2002) note that as little as 5% inaccuracy reading limits comprehension test scores to only 75%. While acknowledging the diverse pronunciations learners may have of certain words, inaccurate reading of some words, which betrayed a lack of knowledge of the word by the reader, was construed as a misreading of the word. In the present study, the reading of words in the reading test was supposed to be fast, as a whole and with a measure of accuracy to give evidence of word knowledge.

The NEEDU National Report (2012) notes that there are no reading norms that have been developed for South Africa. This would help us to know the rate at which learners should be able to read in the FAL LoLT. The report then proposes "...an interim set of norms for South African learners based on the American norms (p. 39). The report concludes that "If learners are not reading independently at around 50 wpm by the end of Grade 1 they are likely to struggle for the remainder of their time at school" (p. 40). Table 6 presents the expected reading speed of the top performing, middle performing and bottom performing learners in each of the three FP grades by the end of the term.

Table 6: Suggested Norms of Reading in LoLT, Grades 1-3

Grade	Level of Learner	Reading a story: Number of words per minute	
		By the end of Term 2	By the end of Term 4
1	Top	N/A	100
	Middle	N/A	50
	Bottom	N/A	15
2	Top	125	140
	Middle	70	90
	Bottom	20	30
3	Top	145	160
	Middle	95	100
	Bottom	35	50

Source: Hasbrouck and Tindal (2006)

Because the word reading test was administered on Grade 4 learners, the average learner should have been reading at 100 words per minute. Allowing a maximum of 2 minutes for the reading of 60 words' was a realistic expectation in the present study considering that each word was flashed and read independent from other words. The administration of the test was according to the word bands with the most frequent words in Band A. These were supposedly the most familiar words to the learners and so were read first. The last of the word recognition tests was the word-spacing test.

### *Test 3: Word-Spacing test*

The word spacing test inferred learners' word knowledge from the way they spaced words in sentences where no spaces between words were left. The rationale was that learners were supposed to see where one word ended and another began if they knew and could recognise the words. An example of an item within the test was '*Donotlookforworkagain,*' where all the six words making up the sentence were part of the 60 HFW on which learners' knowledge was assessed. Because one statement could accommodate several of the target words, all 60 HFW were included in this test format. The researcher or research assistant would read the sentence twice to the learners and they would then separate the words in the sentence. This, they did by putting slashes where each word ended and another began as in 'Do/not/look/for/work/again'. The font and font size (calibri 24) and the spacing between the sentences (2.5) were big enough to ensure that the scripts would not be messy from the slashes. A demonstration of how the word division was supposed to be done was made on the chalkboard over and above the example given on the answer sheet.

Although the researcher knew of no studies which used word spacing as a determinant of vocabulary knowledge, the test format had the potential to provide valuable insights into learners' word knowledge. If one was given a similar task in a language they did not know at all, one would perform terribly. This is because the placement of the slashes as word dividers would depend on one's knowledge of the words in the sentence. The concept of word spacing is one the learners are introduced to as soon as they begin to combine letters to form words. For languages like English, the word divider, called a glyph, is usually a blank space. Young learners are usually asked to put the spaces using their fingers or other objects to get their word spacing right. That the Grade 4 learners on whom the test was administered were aware that each word should be written separate from another was, therefore, assumed.

In terms of scoring, all the words that had been correctly separated from others were considered known words and written next to the sentence. In very few cases, some learners would put slashes in the wrong places but still come up with correct English words as in the last part of one sentence 'butnotrain'. Some learners would divide that part of the sentence as 'but/no/train' instead of 'but/not/rain' which was being tested. The word 'not' would be considered wrong and 'train' would have been considered wrong as well had it been among

those words being tested. The reading of the test items was meant for learners to avoid this, hence the penalisation.

*Test 4: Word definitions matching test*

For words which could be defined, the word definition matching test was used. It assessed learners' knowledge of words from their meanings. Only twelve of the sixty words which lend themselves to word definitions were tested through matching 12 given definitions in section A with 15 words provided in section B. Coombe, Hubley and Folsie's (2007) advice to include more options than premises and making options shorter than premises was considered in this test format. Provision of more options (distractors) would reduce incidences of correct guesses. The definitions were the premises and the words were the options. The next test also utilised the aspect of provision of options which the learners selected.

*Test 5: Multiple Choice test*

The multiple choice test was meant to assess learners' knowledge of words guided by the context. Consistent with the other multiple choice tests, this vocabulary multiple choice test had the basic structure of stem and response options. The response items included the correct answer and two other distractors all of which were part of the 60 words being tested. Care was taken to ensure clarity of the expected response, sufficient context in the stem, and absence of obvious distractors. The response options were placed where the right word was supposed to be within the sentence. Learners could read the sentences and the options on their right positions which gave context to their word choice. They would then circle the appropriate word as in the example R3.00 is not [*different/ enough / important*] to buy bread.

Bolding and italicising the words was meant to draw learners' attention to the three words as representing the words from which one correct option was to be selected. Options belonged to the same word class as determined by the stem and were approximately of equal level of difficulty. Even the length of the options was made similar wherever possible. Nothing was supposed to draw attention to the right word except the learner's knowledge of it. The correct option was also made unambiguous and the right option would feature at the beginning, middle or end of the three options without following any discernible pattern. Any grammatical clues pointing to the correct response were avoided. The gap-filling test had the same rationale for its administration as the multiple choice test.

#### *Test 6: Gap-filling Test*

The gap-filling test also sought to assess word knowledge with the aid of a given context. In this test type, learners were given simple sentences with gaps which they filled in using the list of words supplied. These outnumbered the gaps available. The gaps were checked for the possibility of lending themselves to more than a single answer from the words provided. Sentence completion items encourage students to learn and know the tested word rather than just recognize it (Coombe, Hubley & Folse, 2007).

Whereas the passive word knowledge tests (Test 4-6) required learners to choose a word from those given, the next set of tests, the active word recognition tests (Tests 7-9) required that the learners provide the words themselves. The first of these was the dictation test.

#### *Test 7: Dictation test*

Dictation is one way of assessing knowledge of diverse language aspects simultaneously. For the present study, learners would demonstrate word knowledge by writing the words that were in sentences dictated to them. In this test, the researcher or assistant dictated short sentences to learners, which they wrote. The first two dictations of a sentence were given at normal speaking or conversational speed while learners listened and the third and last dictation was given more slowly as they wrote. In the assessment of learners' scripts for word knowledge, the focus was not so much on the spelling of the words as on the demonstrable evidence of knowing the word and its use. Minor spelling errors like *diferent* or *important* were not penalised as the word could easily be determined. For this test, a minor spelling error was one where there was just one error be it one of omission, addition, or misplacement of a letter. Such an error was not supposed to lead to a different word or to confusion between two words. It was not supposed to lead to word distortion. The spelling errors were, however, penalised for all two or three-letter words no matter how minor. Whereas for test 7 the context from the spoken form aided the identification of known words, for the L1 to L2 recall test, both the context and cues to the right words were provided.

#### *Test 8: The L1 to L2 recall test*

The purpose of this test was to assess learners' knowledge of English equivalents of known isiXhosa words. The test assumed that learners had developed literacy in isiXhosa their Home Language which had been their LoLT in the FP as well as a learning area. In this test, learners

were to use an isiXhosa (L1) cue in the form of a short statement to produce an English (L2) word. Mochizuki (2012) sees the L1 to L2 recall test as a valid and reliable way test of productive vocabulary provided the marking is manually done. Mochizuki (2012) considers Jeffrey Stewart's study 'an epoch-making breakthrough' in which he developed The KSU Active Multiple-Choice Test. The test was based on an L1 definition prompt and the "...second and third letters of the target word as well as a blank for each of the remaining letters are also provided as a hint and to avoid other possibly correct answers" (p. 45). The present L1 to L2 recall test is an adaptation of the KSU Active Multiple-Choice Test since the prompt is no longer confined to an L1 definition but extends to any L1 construction with some context. In the present test the L1 word whose L2 equivalent was supposed to be provided was underlined and written in bold. The rest of the statement provided the context and the second and third letters provided on the English equivalent and the blank spaces provided the clues. The last test provided a variation in the nature of the context and cues provided.

#### *Test 9: Controlled Productive Vocabulary Test*

The purpose of the Controlled Productive Vocabulary Test was to assess learners' ability to provide a word with the aid of context and cues given. Laufer and Nation (1999) are credited with the development of the Controlled Productive Vocabulary Levels Test, a productive version of the vocabulary levels test. The learners completed a word in a sentence with two initial letters of target words provided as a cue or prompt. The provision of the first letters of the target words is meant to ensure non-target words which are correct within the sentence context are not provided. It is therefore, a cued productive vocabulary recall test. That test assessed vocabulary knowledge at five levels namely; 2000, 3000, 5000, 10000 and academic words. Each of the five frequency levels are represented by 18 items.

The selection of the 60 words the present study tested was based on a different corpus and different frequency levels. The choice of words to test from the 60 using a particular test format was influenced by the nature of the words and the test formats that best allowed for a demonstration of word knowledge by the learners rather than by frequency bands. This necessitated an adaptation of the Controlled Productive Vocabulary Levels Test for the present study. Dropping the frequency levels meant dropping the term 'levels' from the name of the test format. Only 20 words were tested using this format and not 18 multiplied by 5 as the Controlled Productive Vocabulary Levels Test requires.

Once the tests were designed they were tested on a pilot sample of 24 learners in one class at a school which was part of the big consortium research project. This was to ascertain the validity of the instruments before they were administered on the actual research participants in the 8 Grade 4 classes.

### Pilot Testing

Only two items were pilot tested namely the vocabulary tests and the teacher interview guide items. Piloting was done with one grade 4 class in Grahamstown District. A video-recording of the researcher administering all the 9 tests and the teacher interview was made. After the administration of the nine tests, a ‘post-mortem’ of the test instruments and the test procedure was undertaken. After the administration of the first two tests, the researcher, the principal supervisor, four colleagues (PhD scholars), and the consortium research assistant watched the video of the two tests’ administration with a view to identifying the limitations in both the procedure and the test instruments that needed to be altered. They gave a critical appraisal of the procedure followed and to the test design. This critical reflection helped the researcher to improve the administration of the remaining 7 tests through effecting the recommendations made.

After every test administration, the researcher used the video of the day to reflect on the research process and noted areas needing improvement. These were noted down. Even some of the comments made by the videographer to the researcher about the tests and test procedure either during or after the testing proved quite useful. An example was when the videographer, who is Xhosa, noted, in test 8 where learners were supposed to supply an English equivalent of an isiXhosa word, that the word ‘kuphela’ I had used was more isiZulu than isiXhosa and that the appropriate one was ‘qha’. Reflection on all the test administration processes resulted in modifications to how some particular words’ meanings were assessed and the design of the tests to make them more user-friendly. Marking of the tests also helped to reveal the ambiguities in some test items which were subsequently eliminated. There was however, no change in the words to be tested or the nature of the tests themselves. The piloting of the test instruments also pointed to several important considerations the researcher had overlooked which needed to be effected in the actual data collection procedure to validate the concomitant findings. The ones generic to all the tests included: not turning the vocabulary tests into reading tests by asking learners to read instructions, having examples of

how the learners were to respond to the test items rather than elaborate instructions which learners scarcely read with understanding, having isiXhosa speaking research assistants who would give instructions in both English and isiXhosa to ensure the learners knew exactly what was expected of them in the tests, training the research assistants and providing them with a set of instructions for each individual test, setting the test venue prior to learners' getting in, and ensuring, where possible, that the learner's response to a test item was provided on the test item and not on a separate part of the test script.

The training of the research assistants was through the observation of the videos and them identifying weaknesses to the administration process. It was easier for them to avoid what they themselves had identified as a weakness. It was also easier for them to apply what they had identified as potentially strengthening the test administration.

The researcher took advantage of schools' visits for the administration of the consortium's contextual profiling questionnaire to all the FP teachers and to pilot the teacher interview schedules on five Grade 3 teachers. The purpose was to ensure that the items communicated and solicited that which the researcher intended. No modification was made to the original items guiding the interviews. In retrospect, I owe much of the validity of the data collection process to the piloting of the instruments and the research process undertaken.

#### **5.4 Validity and Reliability**

The present study's validity can be established at three levels namely; at the level of the sources of the data the study used, at the level of the instruments that were employed, and at the level of the research process that was undertaken.

At the level of the data sources used, the study used primary data sources which gave it a measure of validity. There was minimal, if any, potential of researcher bias in most of the data sources like the Grade 4 textbooks from which HFW were generated and the Grade 3 reading materials from which the amount of learners' exposure to the HFW was determined. The same applied to the samples of teacher-talk, and classroom print on the basis of which learners' exposure to requisite vocabulary was made.

The instruments used could be relied upon as valid measures of intended behaviours or features. The quantification of the words in Grade 3 reading materials, Grade 4 textbooks,

teacher talk, and classroom print was done using a computer generated software program which minimised possibilities of human error in the computation of such voluminous data. Apart from teacher-talk samples, these data allow for replication following similar procedures to those used in the present study. The use of the software program to generate HFW from the Grade 4 textbook corpus also rid the resultant word frequency list of any incidences of error and enhanced both the validity and reliability of the frequency lists. The use of both semi-structured interviews and systematic observations, both of which were informed by the study's research questions, produced focused data addressing particular questions related to the study and reduced chances of researcher bias as data from these sources could be objectively presented. The use of multiple data sources and data instruments allowed for triangulation which ensured that the limitations of one instrument were compensated for by the strength of another.

As for the procedure taken, the study is valid in the attention to detail manifest in the preparation of the Grade 4 textbook corpus for the generation of HFW which became the benchmark vocabulary against which to assess learners' vocabulary knowledge and evaluate sources of Grade 3 language input for their contribution to learners' developing the requisite vocabulary. The pre-testing of the vocabulary measurement instruments on a group of learners with similar characteristics and their subsequent modifications validated the instruments used. The study's contextual validity emanated from its description and reporting on a context in its natural state (Ryan, Scapens & Theobald, 2002). True to case study research, no attempt was made in the study to alter the naturalness of the case.

## **5.5 Ethical Considerations**

Research ethics refers to the moral principles guiding research, from its inception through to completion and publication of results and beyond... (ESRC, p. 20). The study, being part of a larger Foundation Phase research project, benefitted from the granting of permission at Rhodes University and by the Department of Education at Provincial and District levels right up to the principals and teachers in the schools. (See Appendix 6 for letter from the University granting permission to carry out the research).

The ethical clearance that the researcher needed was mainly at the school level. Although the principals in the schools participating in the project had granted informed consent to the project working in their schools, I sought further permission from the principals and teachers

of the participating schools to conduct this particular study. To ensure I would get informed consent, I made the expected research process and duration explicit to the teachers and principals of the schools involved and the consent was granted. As part of the code of ethics I observed during the conduct of the present study, I was transparent about the nature of the study to the participants (even the learners) and spelt out the nature and extent of their involvement. For instance, I made it clear to the learners that they would write 9 tests in 9 days with each test taking up one hour. I guaranteed voluntary participation and withdrawal of participants from the study only requesting that they inform me that they were withdrawing should they choose to. I gave assurance of anonymity of participants and to that end used pseudonyms for the participating teachers and codes for the learners. I also guaranteed confidentiality to the findings and assured participants that the study would not affect them negatively in any way.

I sought permission to use video and audio-recorders for the classroom observations and teacher interviews which was also granted. There was no inducement given to the participants to participate. The code of ethics observed was consistent with Hill's (2005, p. 65) principles underpinning any ethical approach (autonomy/respect for persons, beneficence and non-maleficence and justice/equity/non-discrimination), which can be "developed and expressed as a set of rights: to self-determination, privacy, dignity, anonymity, confidentiality, fair treatment and protection from discomfort or harm."

## **5.6 Chapter Summary**

This chapter has explained the methodological decisions that were taken to generate data that responded to the present study's three key areas of focus as reflected in the research questions and problem statement. It has detailed how the study arrived at the 213 HFW that constituted the core vocabulary needs of learners for reading the textbooks comprising the corpus from which the HFW were derived. The 213 HFW were by extension regarded as the vocabulary needs of the Grade 3 learners for transitioning to Grade 4, not only in the Eastern Cape where the study was based, but also in South Africa. The chapter has discussed how the different sources of Grade 3 classroom input were investigated for their exposure of, particularly the 60 HFW which were sampled from the 213 HFW to the learners. It has described how interviews were also used to capture the teachers' perceptions, beliefs and assumptions about the core English vocabulary needs of their Grade 3 learners. The nature of the use of observations into the vocabulary related teaching practices of the Grade 3 teachers has also

been explained. The chapter has also described the nature of the test instruments and the test process employed in the determination of the learners at the beginning of Grade 4. Having detailed the data collection procedure in this chapter, the next chapter, chapter 6, presents data on the second phase of the data collection process; the determination of the degree of Grade 3 learners' preparedness for the transition to Grade 4.

## **6.0 DATA PRESENTATION: GRADE 3 LEARNER PREPARATION FOR TRANSITION TO GRADE 4**

### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents data that responds to the second phase of the study which sought to understand the extent to which the Grade 3 learners were equipped with the requisite skills and vocabulary facilitative of a smooth transition to Grade 4. The data emanated from multiple sources namely; teacher interviews, classroom observations, samples of classroom teacher-talk, and samples of classroom print. Teacher interviews generated data on the teacher beliefs and perceptions on initial second language learning, the pedagogical choices they made about what to privilege in vocabulary instruction, their own vocabulary instructional practices, and learner competences, among other things. Aspects of this data were then corroborated with classroom observation data which primarily focused on teacher modelling of good language use and their manifest pedagogical practices. This was meant to establish the nexus between Grade 3 teachers' beliefs and perceptions and their pedagogical choices and practices related to vocabulary development. Data from teacher-talk and classroom print samples provided a quantitative dimension of the extent to which the benchmark vocabulary in the present study was recycled. Because teacher-talk data was collected using similar instruments across all the ten classes, it is presented thematically. The data presentation itself was an initial form of analysis.

In this chapter, data is presented within three broad categories namely:

- Teacher beliefs, perceptions, and pedagogical choices related to second language teaching and learning and vocabulary development
- Teachers' perceived and actual pedagogical practices related to vocabulary development; and
- Extent of Grade three learners' exposure to key vocabulary requisite for transition to Grade 4.

Each of these three categories is divided into themes and sub-themes where necessary. The first of these categories, which emanated from teacher interviews, is presented first.

## 6.2 Teacher Beliefs, Perceptions and Pedagogical Choices

Data on the major category of teacher beliefs, perceptions and pedagogical choices is presented for all the teachers within the following themes derived from Appendix 7a:

### *Initial Exposure to the second language*

- Point of L2 introduction.
- Nature of L2 teaching and learning at point of introduction.

### *Teacher pedagogical choices*

- Word lists or words in context
- Source of vocabulary taught
- Determination of word novelty
- Important dimension of word knowledge to privilege

### *Teacher beliefs and perceptions about exposure and acquisition of English vocabulary*

- Perceived rate of exposure to new English words
- Perceived rate of acquisition of new English words
- Perceived role of the outside world in learners' English vocabulary development

### *Teacher beliefs and perceptions about learner competencies*

- Dictionary use and other language related competences
- Perceived learner competence on particular aspects of word
- Perceived learner preparedness for transition to learning in English as LoLT in Gr. 4

### *Teacher perceptions about the supportive nature of the school context*

- Material provision: adequacy and access
- Time allocated to English First Additional Language in Grade 3

See Appendix 7b for a summary of teacher responses to the interview items according to categories the items belonged to. The appendix also shows the nature of the interview items that were used across the teachers.

### 6.2.1 Initial Exposure to the Second Language

#### *Point of L2 introduction*

In terms of the point at which the 2012 cohort of the Grade 3 learners in the selected schools had their initial formal introduction to English, the range was from Grade R in Betty's class (representing the earliest exposure) to Grade 2; term 4 in Dorothy and Florence's classes (representing the latest exposure). By the time they entered Grade 3, the learners in the different schools had had different durations of experience with English in the school setting. Those introduced to the language in Grade R would have had three years of formal exposure to the language while those introduced to the language in the last term of Grade 2 would have had only a term's exposure. These were glaring differences which put second language

learners of English at different points of advantage or disadvantage by virtue of their initial exposure. The differences were also manifest at school level as evident from differences in the points at which the learners in Henrietta and Kate's classes were introduced to English despite being at the same school. According to Henrietta, her learners were introduced to English in Grade 2 whereas Kate noted that her learners were introduced to the language in Grade 1. In the absence of a compelling policy statement within the Revised National Curriculum Statement under whose dispensation the Grade 3 learners started their formal education, schools, and indeed teachers were at liberty to introduce the language at their own discretion. The background of the 2012 Grade 3 learners was also understood in terms of what they did in English FAL at the point of its introduction.

*Nature of L2 teaching and learning at point of introduction.*

There was general consensus among the teachers interviewed that the nature of English teaching and learning at the point of its introduction was different from that in Grade 3. The nature of the differences is what varied from one teacher's knowledge and experience to the other. Eight of the teachers noted that, at the initial point of introduction, English teaching and learning was exclusively oral and that writing was deferred to a later stage. The deferment of writing until learners have had some oral exposure to the language was recognised as characteristic of L2 initial introduction by these teachers. For 7 teachers, Grade 3 heralded the changing nature of second language teaching in terms of the introduction of writing. For Betty, however, the shift started as early as Grade 2. Christine and Florence were the only ones in whose experience writing was introduced at the point of the L2 exposure.

For Christine and Florence, what distinguished the nature of English teaching at the point of initial exposure and at Grade 3 level was not the oral nature of the language. Rather, it lay in the complexity of the material or language use. That at the point of FAL introduction simpler language was used was an observation shared by Alice and Betty as well. Apparently, naming and labelling were identified as two key features of L2 learning privileged by teachers as they tried to build the vocabulary of the learners. Regarding the nature of FAL introduction, Alice stated that “[T]hey were talking about their names, the names of their families...learning about things like my body, the parts of a body;” Betty noted “... only the words desk, window,” Christine intimated that “It’s simple English,” and Florence made the point that “[T]hey are only doing some single vowels, single consonant”.

The pervasive approach to L2 introduction by teachers was through exposing learners to names of objects and labels of their parts. Preponderance of naming and labelling characteristic of instruction at the initial exposure to the FAL indicated the priority given to instruction at the word level at the expense of the level beyond the word. From the teacher quotes above, the simplicity of language was manifest in the careful choice of the words to teach which had to be about familiar objects (which rendered much of the vocabulary of a concrete nature) and had simple orthographic constructions.

Florence's statement showed that her interpretation of simplicity of language was singularity of vowels and consonants in the constitution of words. The measure of a word's complexity was in its form for Florence and in its reference to a familiar object in Alice and Betty's cases.

Esther also introduced the element of assessment as distinguishing pre-Grade 3 and Grade 3 teaching and learning. The major points of diversity in the history of the 2012 cohort of Grade 3 learners in this study was both the point of the FAL's entry into learners' schooling and the point at which the written mode of the language was introduced in different schools.

In a study investigating how 30 FP teachers in 10 South African schools taught English FAL, Lenyai (2011, p.74) found that

Nothing was taught in Grade 1 because teachers were focusing on teaching reading in the home language. In Grade 2 a few English words were sometimes taught, but virtually nothing was done in this Grade as well. In Grade 3 children were required to fill in one missing word in a sentence or matching a picture with the correct word.

These findings confirm the little preparation learners receive in the FAL prior to Grade 3 which is true for the learners in the present study.

This first theme of the teacher interviews established at least four things. First, that the perceived points at which the 2012 cohort of Grade 3 learners were introduced to English as a FAL were quite varied; second, that the nature of instruction in the language at the stage of initial introduction was largely oral; third, that simplicity of both language (in the form of single vowel and single consonants) and familiarity of objects to which words represented were accorded priority in instruction; and fourth, that the bulk of vocabulary exposed to learners was largely of a concrete nature.

With this background about the learners and their initial experiences with the English language established, the interviews also focused on the pedagogical choices made by the teachers in relation to learners' vocabulary development.

### **6.2.2 Teachers' Pedagogical Choices**

Under the pedagogical choices theme were four categories identified earlier as; word lists or words in context, source of vocabulary taught, determination of word novelty, and important word dimension to privilege. These categories represented the vocabulary development related decisions the teacher needed to make in the instructional context. Teachers' responses in each of these categories are discussed in turn.

#### *Word lists or words in context*

Teachers' pedagogical choices were interrogated in terms of their preferences for either teaching vocabulary in isolation through word lists or contextualising the instruction as new words were encountered. Seven teachers (Alice, Betty, Christine, Esther, Florence, Dorothy and Kate) preferred word lists over contextualising vocabulary instruction. The general sentiment of the 7 teachers is encapsulated in Dorothy's response, "*I write list of words and teach them*" and Kate's using "*...the sight words and the phonics words*". Henrietta and Esther preferred teaching words within their context. Henrietta claimed that she taught new English words "*[A]s I meet them in the text.*" Jane indicated the use of both contextualisation of vocabulary instruction and teaching words in isolation. She asserted, "*[I] teach the new words when I encounter them in a text but sometimes I also teach word lists.*" Although use was made of both kinds of vocabulary instruction, the contextualisation of word teaching took priority. Word lists represented decontextualized vocabulary instruction whereas teaching words as they were encountered in text was contextualised instruction.

The nature of the words taught by those teachers who were advocates of use of word lists, differed. Alice identified her word lists as phonic lists, Betty's were "*familiar words like boy or girl*", and Kate's were "*sight words and the phonics words.*" Overall, Grade 3 teachers had a preference for teaching words in isolation rather than in context. The teachers were almost unanimous concerning the source of either the word lists or the vocabulary taught in context.

### *Source of vocabulary taught*

The sources of the vocabulary teachers taught were identified by all teachers, except Florence, as the learners' reading books and workbooks. Readers and workbooks featured as a major source of vocabulary, particularly through the word lists they contain. Henrietta and Kate were more specific about the aspects of learners' books they drew the vocabulary they taught from. They indicated drawing their words from the stories in the learners' books. The difference was that while Henrietta's focus was on the repeated words in the stories, Kate's focus was "*the list of sight words*" on the stories at the end of the books. Henrietta's focus on repeated words was an acknowledgement of frequency of word appearance being a measure of usefulness of a word in a text. It was important to note that even in Dorothy's case where other sources of vocabulary were mentioned, they were additional to the 'book'. Her response to the source of words taught was "*From the book or else such objects in the classroom.*" Classroom objects were the other secondary vocabulary sources in this regard.

Only Florence out of 10 teachers viewed learners as coming to school with some knowledge or experience of L2 and not as empty 'vessels' waiting to be filled by the teacher. She regarded learners as potential knowledge producers. She viewed learners as a source of English vocabulary themselves. She said "*[I] ask them to come with some new words...list anything that is inside the classroom.*" Two assumptions underlie this preferred practice. First; the assumption that learners have potential to determine vocabulary they need to learn. Second; that the role of the literate classroom environment can be an important source of vocabulary. The role of the classroom environment is presented later under the investigation of the role of classroom print in the development of learners' vocabulary. The observation that learners could come up with new words which needed to be given explicit instruction in the classroom also begged the question of the criteria teachers used to determine which words were new and which ones were familiar.

### *Determination of word novelty*

Responses on how teachers determined the novelty of a word in order to give it priority in teaching indicated that this was largely intuitive for most teachers with the difference lying mainly in the form that intuition took. Responses betraying the intuitive nature of teachers' determination of which words were new were themselves varied. According to Alice, "*[Y]ou look at how difficult the word is. You can tell easily that learners don't know this word. I know what is supposed to be taught in grade 2 because I was a grade 2 teacher and a grade*

*R teacher.*” Betty indicated, *“I look at how difficult the word is”* and Gladys claimed *“[S]ometimes as a teacher you know your children and their levels so you can tell.”*

For Alice, the intuition was based on years of experience teaching other FP levels apart from Grade 3. Betty determined the novelty of a word from a look at its orthographic make up. She however, could not explain what it was about a word that showed how likely a word was to be new to the majority of the learners. Teacher intuition was just the feel of what learners would know based on the teacher’s knowledge of their level of proficiency. Gladys’ claim to close familiarity with what learners knew and did not know was accounted for only as an intuitive feel a teacher would have.

Four teachers relegated the decision of which words were novel and needed explicit attention to the reading books. This is reflected in the following quotes from two teachers. In response to how they can tell which words are new to learners and demand attention, Kate identified *“...lists of words in their books”* as comprising words which were new to learners. This observation about reading books’ potential to determine what learners knew or did not know was echoed by Henrietta, Dorothy and Kate who said *“[M]ost of the new words are indicated in their books that these are the new words, so I know,”* *“[T]he books have the words stage by stage so the chapters, the units we have not done, the children do not know the new words listed there,”* and *“[T]here are lists of words in their books”* respectively. According to Dorothy, novelty of words was determined by their listing in the units or chapters not covered. This manifested the teacher’s strict adherence to, and reliance on, the prescribed reading material for pedagogical decisions. However, in the responses of two teachers, the responsibility shifted to the learners themselves.

Florence and Jane devolved the responsibility of determining word novelty to the learners themselves, and expressed it thus; *“I ask them which words they don’t know if we are doing a passage and they tell me”* and *“I ask them to identify some new words”* respectively. Again what came through in these two teachers’ responses was the belief in learners taking an active role rather than a merely reactive role in their learning, predicated on them not being blank slates. It was interesting to note that the same teacher, Florence, who initially professed faith in learners’ potential to be sources of new words consistently professed confidence in her learners as determiners of the novelty of words. Her reasoning was that only the learners

themselves could tell which words were familiar or not to them. Esther's response, however, represented a contrary viewpoint.

Esther rated a word as unknown if she could not remember teaching it to the class. In her words, "[I]f I have not taught it to them then it is, I can say it is a new word." The assumption made here was that only those words that are learnt in the classroom are known by learners. Esther here represented the view that the teacher is the repository of knowledge and the learner waits to be filled with that knowledge. If all the words learners knew emanated from explicit instruction, word knowledge would proceed very slowly.

In this category of the determination of word novelty, three teachers based it on intuitive knowledge borne out of intimate knowledge of the particular learners and learners within the levels; four teachers saw the learners' reading materials as determining the novelty of words; two believed the learners themselves had the potential to make the determination; and one teacher believed that all the words that were not taught were not known. Seeing that word knowledge is multi-dimensional, it was important to explore the dimensions or aspects of word knowledge teachers valued and prioritized.

#### *Important dimension of word knowledge to privilege*

In response to a question on what aspects about a word they deemed critically important for learners to know at Grade 3 level and for teachers to privilege, there were varied responses. The teachers could identify more than just one word dimension. Florence and Kate did not want to commit themselves to particular aspects of word. To Alice it was word meaning; to Betty it was word meaning, reading and spelling; to Christine it was saying a word, reading and spelling a word; to Dorothy it was word writing and word meaning; to Esther and Gladys it was word spelling and word meaning; to Jane it was word meaning, writing and word saying; and to Henrietta it was writing, saying a word and word meaning.

The word dimensions identified in the teachers' responses above were only of five different kinds but they were identified a total of 19 times in the following order of frequency; word meaning (7), word writing (4), word saying (3), word spelling (3), and word reading (2). Generally, word meaning was the greatest indicator of word knowledge according to 8 teachers excluding Christine who did not make mention of word dimensions as well as Kate and Florence who did not respond to the item completely. In the 7 times the word meaning

dimension of word knowledge was mentioned, it was mentioned first in three of the times buttressing the observation that it was teachers' priority and goal in all forms of word teaching.

On the theme of teachers' pedagogical choices and preferences, the majority preferred decontextualised vocabulary to contextualised vocabulary instruction. The source of that vocabulary for the majority of teachers was the reading books and the determination of the novelty of words in the books concerned was largely intuitive on the teachers' part as well as being guided by the word lists those books provided. There was greater preference for word meaning in vocabulary instruction than on any other dimensions. The teachers' perception on how much English vocabulary was exposed to, and acquired by, the learners was the next theme that the teacher interviews explored.

### **6.2.3 Teacher Beliefs and Perceptions about Exposure and Acquisition of English Vocabulary**

The perceptions related to both exposure and acquisition of new English vocabulary comprised three categories namely: perceived rate of exposure to new English words, perceived rate of acquisition of new English words, and perceived role of the outside world in learners' English vocabulary development.

#### *Perceived rate of exposure to new English words*

Word exposure is critical to word acquisition. In MacDonald's Threshold project (1990), a 7 000 word repertoire was required for learners' effective transition from instruction through the medium of a HL to instruction through English. Exposure to English vocabulary should by far surpass the requisite vocabulary seeing that not all words learners encounter become part of their repertoire. With that in mind, teachers were asked to estimate the number of new words their English FAL lessons exposed to the learners on a weekly basis.

Marked diversity characterised the six teachers' perceptions of the rate at which new vocabulary was encountered in the English FAL classroom with four teachers reluctant to commit themselves to an actual word estimate. Christine's excuse was "[I] can't count really" and was similar to Henrietta's "I don't count." This was despite the researcher's insistence on just an estimate rather than an actual figure. Although an estimate figure was in itself an acknowledgement of not knowing the exact figure, Jane's excuse was equally "[I]

*really don't know*" Kate's only identified that *"a lot of words"* were exposed to the learners in the English FAL lessons.

The word estimates from the other six teachers ranged from Dorothy's *"not more than ten"* to Esther's *"50 words"* with Alice and Florence estimating the figure to be at least 20 words and Betty and Gladys both giving a 20 to 30 word range per week. From these estimates, teachers in the study generally perceived the amount of vocabulary exposure per week to be in the twenties region. Considering a range of 20-30 words per week for an average of 10 weeks per term for 4 terms would result in an annual new English word exposure of around 800-1200 words in the Grade 3 English FAL class. Such a figure would still fall way below the figure required to prepare learners for the reading challenges of Grade 4.

In response to a follow-up on the basis on which the teachers made their estimates, Esther attributed the 50 word weekly exposure to her capitalising on teachable or opportunistic moments outside of formal instruction. She said, *"[I] can say 50 words because even if they are talking on their own and I hear something wrong I will come up and deal with the word."* Her response introduced the assumption that in her FAL class, learners use English and have opportunities to incidentally acquire vocabulary from their interactions. Incidental word exposure was also acknowledged by Florence.

Florence gave credit to her reading corner for the +20 new word exposures per week in her English FAL classroom. Two aspects from that response are noteworthy. First, there was an acknowledgement of the role of the literate classroom environment in exposing learners to the English vocabulary they need, a point which is taken up later in the investigation of the role of classroom print in vocabulary exposure of learners. Second, there was acknowledgement of the role of extensive independent reading in incidental vocabulary acquisition.

Although Jane did not commit to a word estimate, she betrayed her reservations about the possibility of significant exposure of learners to new English words from an English class taught by a non-English teacher. She said, *"[I] really don't know...now we have got Mrs Smith (a Rotary club volunteer. Not her real name). I think she will do a good job in teaching English because she is an English speaker. She speaks English right through."* Jane raised two important assumptions. The first was that learners who are taught English by second

language English teachers do not have similar advantages as those taught by English L1 speakers. This was an implicit or veiled acknowledgement of scarce learner exposure to English being more a teacher problem than anything else. She seemed to be saying ‘change the teacher and you remove the problem’. The second, which was an extension of the first was an acknowledgement that greater exposure to English vocabulary is short-changed by the teacher’s reliance on the L1 in the English FAL class, an aspect taken up later in the investigation of the role of teacher talk in English vocabulary exposure. Jane’s observation was confirmed by Dorothy who said that “[W]e are not use English in all subjects. We speak Xhosa. Even when we announce in the lines ‘let us try to speak English’ because kaloku because we are here in this environment they don’t always use it.” The prominence accorded to the L1 was here largely credited with the little exposure of English vocabulary to learners. Where vocabulary exposure was low, one would expect an even lower rate of vocabulary acquisition.

#### *Perceived rate of acquisition of new English words*

The perceived rate of vocabulary acquisition was as varied among the teachers as their perception of learners’ general exposure to vocabulary. In terms of the estimated number of English words average performing learners potentially acquired weekly, the approximations ranged from 5 to 50 words. Fifty was an overly optimistic estimate from Esther who had earlier indicated the same figure for the number of words her learners were exposed to weekly. What she was claiming was that input equaled intake for her average learners as they could possibly master all the new words that they were exposed to. Such was not realistic as the relationship between input, uptake and intake takes the form represented in Figure 4.

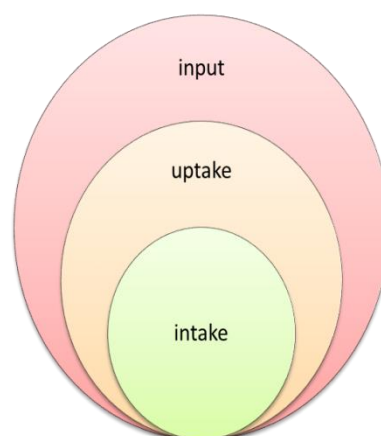


Figure 4: Relationship between Input, Uptake and Intake (*Richards and Gallaway, 1994*)

Intake in this case represented the words that would be acquired and uptake would be the words that would be attended to while input would be all the words that the learner would be exposed to. There is a filtering which happens at each level from input to intake. If her 50 word acquired words estimate was realistic, then her learners were exposed to a lot more new English words than 50.

Florence, who had an estimated exposure of at least 20 words, also thought that all her learners except 5 would master the new English words exposed to them. This implied her learners' performance was almost homogeneous. Alice and Dorothy thought that in their classes, average learners could potentially acquire half the new words they were exposed to. Betty put the proportion at between 60% and 70% of her 20 to 30 words as potentially being acquired by the learners in her class. The general perception seemed to be that well over half the new English words learners were exposed to could be mastered by the average learners in the different classes.

Whether these figures signified an adequate rate of vocabulary acquisition for the important transition to Grade 4 was determined by a comparison with the vocabulary targets set in the CAPS (2011) Curriculum documents. These stipulate the ideal of a learner understanding 700–1 000 words in context by the end of Grade 1, 1 000–2 000 words in context by the end of Grade 2, and 1 500–2 500 words in context by the end of Grade 3. From these vocabulary targets, learners should add at least 1 000 words to their vocabulary repertoire, that is if they came from Grade 1 with 1 000 words. If they had a minimum expected number of 700 known words in Grade 1, they would need at least 1 300 words added to their vocabulary store in Grade 2 to reach the expected maximum. Seeing that some learners in the present study had only one term of learning English prior to getting into Grade 3, they would then need to acquire all the requisite 1 500 to 2 500 words in Grade 3. The range of words estimated by the teachers would not suffice to meet the minimum curriculum requirements.

Jane, Henrietta and Kate refused to commit to any estimate figures or percentage of words average learners are likely to acquire from those they are exposed to with Jane saying “...*not so many new words because we don't focus much on English because we have to focus in isiXhosa.*” The reluctance of some teachers to commit to estimate figures of the number of words average learners are likely to master from the English FAL class was an indication that

there was no deliberate intention by the teachers to quantify their learners' word gains as a way of meeting curriculum vocabulary targets. Whether the 'outside world' contributed in learners' vocabulary gains was also interrogated.

*Perceived role of the outside world in learners' English vocabulary development*

The 'outside world' was explained to the teachers as anything outside the classroom even within the school which contributed to learners' vocabulary gains. On whether learners potentially acquired some English vocabulary outside the classroom environment, the answer was affirmative among all the ten teachers, differing only in the confidence with which the affirmations were made and the basis upon which the confidence or lack of it rested. In some instances the source of that vocabulary acquisition outside the classroom was identified.

Although Gladys, Henrietta and Kate confirmed learner potential for English vocabulary gains outside the classroom, they however, expressed some reservations. Gladys' reservations were expressed in her observation that, "*[T]hey learn a few other words in the school with friends and older kids. At home, I doubt.*" Gladys separated the home and the school environment and noted that modest vocabulary gains were possible within the school environment but highly unlikely within the home environment. The positive role the home could play in learners' English vocabulary development was questioned.

Henrietta's reservations had to do with the extent of the potential for learners to develop their English vocabulary outside the classroom setting and formal instruction. Her response was "*Maybe eh... only a few words.*" Kate had reservations about the potential of parents and guardians to complement development of learners' English vocabulary because of lack of a supportive attitudes as well as irresponsibility on their part. This, according to her, did not outrightly disqualify the home environment as a potential source of vocabulary development of learners seeing that they could develop their English vocabulary from the television. In her words she claimed that, "*Sometimes no one is assisting them. Sometimes their culture at home, they don't value these things. That is our main, big challenge. They (parents) don't care after their children. Most of the parents, they are dealing with drugs and drinking... They (children) see TV. They can know a lot of words in TV in English.*"

Three teachers represented the perceived role of the home environment in vocabulary development. As identified above, Gladys' was skeptical about the supportive nature of the

home environment in English vocabulary development of L2 learners. Dorothy's perception represented a contrasting view when she observed that, "*[S]ome learners have other sources, like they are from different homes like father is a police, mother is a nurse. Even they brought some newspapers for me they can read even now...even two sentences.*" The occupational status (and the implied educational level) of the parents or guardians was seen as determining their potential for contributing to the vocabulary development of their children. Kate's perspective acknowledged both the facilitative and constraining role of the home environment in children's vocabulary gains. It was seen as constraining in terms of lack of parental personal involvement but as enabling in terms of providing access to facilities like televisions from which vocabulary gains could be realised.

In terms of the qualifications made on the potential of the outside world to develop learners' vocabulary, Dorothy saw parental occupation as a significant factor influencing the nature of the support the home can possibly render to learners' vocabulary development. The choice of examples of 'nurse' and 'teacher' which she gave were indicative of the attitudes, resources, literacy levels defining most professionals and indicators of the kinds of support they can give. Esther's qualification of potential vocabulary gains from beyond the classroom was based on learners' use of novel syntactic constructions which she equated with vocabulary development. She said, "*[T]hey can come up with new sentences like if he is angry I can hear him saying "Don't touch me" so I think some of the vocabulary is from outside.*" Florence qualified it in terms of learners coming up with words the class never encountered in their lessons. She noted, "*One of my learner ask me about Miss what is a virgin?*"

While Catherine acknowledged the role of the outside world in engendering learners' vocabulary acquisition, she saw it as merely reinforcing what the classroom did. The outside world was perceived as merely extending the classroom vocabulary rather than generating novel vocabulary unrelated to classroom discourses. She argued that "*[Y]es, they can learn the words outside but I think it's important that when I teach something and then they meet stop signs and they see stop signs so they know that at the class we were taught about the road signs so they know...*" Alice and Jane did not qualify their affirmation of vocabulary gains outside the classroom.

In terms of the sources of outside vocabulary exposure, Betty and Dorothy cited *newspapers*, Betty added *magazines*, Catherine identified *road signs*, Kate noted *televisions*, and Gladys

stated *friends and older kids*. Media, both print and electronic, as well as environmental print were regarded as major sources of English vocabulary input outside of the classroom.

This theme explored teacher's perceptions of the extent of English vocabulary exposure to their Grade 3 learners from within and outside the classroom as well as their perceived rate at which average learners acquired the English vocabulary. Teacher responses pointed to low estimates in the learners' exposure to the English vocabulary in the English FAL lessons which impacted the amount of vocabulary that could be potentially acquired, despite the estimates of 50% + rates of acquisition. Although the role of the outside world in exposing learners to English vocabulary was acknowledged, the resultant gains were perceived to be very modest and the constraining factors that possibly explained these were identified. The teachers' perceptions about learners' competencies were important to consider as they potentially shaped teachers' pedagogical choices and practices.

#### **6.2.4 Teacher Beliefs and Perceptions about Learner Competencies**

The theme on teachers' perceptions about learner competencies was interrogated under three categories namely: dictionary use and other language related competences, perceived learner competence on particular aspects of word, and perceived learner preparedness for transition to learning in English as LoLT in Gr. 4.

##### *Dictionary use and other language related competences*

Dictionary use was considered an important competence for learners to have as it would allow learners to learn some aspects of a word independently. In response to being asked whether learners were competent in basic dictionary use, only Alice and Florence indicated that their learners could use dictionaries. The other 8 teachers indicated that they did not use dictionaries neither were their learners able to use them. Florence noted that "*...there is a dictionary in my corner there that is suitable for the grade threes only, so it's easy for them*" which the researcher also saw.

Kate response was, "*[N]ot at the moment, I think dictionary they will use it at the intermediate phase. At least grade four up.*" Kate perceived dictionary work as not suitable for FP as it was too complex. The assumption was that Grade 3 learners would not be competent to use and profit from dictionary use.

Henrietta's response betrayed the assumption that word explanations were the responsibility of the teacher. She indicated that "[N]o, it's me who explains the word, otherwise there is no dictionary" According to her, learners depended for their L2 word meaning knowledge on the teacher who is the repository of all knowledge. There was also an implicit assumption that dictionaries were meant for word meanings when in fact they could also be used for other purposes like word spelling and word use.

Florence's earlier response about having a dictionary "...that is suitable for the grade threes only, so it's easy for them," underscored the need for relevant dictionaries tailor-made to meet the language and vocabulary needs of the learners at particular levels. Her dictionary was meant for Grade 3 learners and had illustrations which aided word meaning knowledge. It also had examples of how the words defined were used in simple sentences.

Learners' ability to use dictionaries was closely linked to their ability to engage in independent reading. Such independent reading could then lead to vocabulary gains. Such competence on the part of the learners was confirmed by only three teachers; Alice, Betty and Florence. According to Alice "[W]e have book corner there. They go there, take the books, read." Similarly, Betty indicated that "[T]hey go to the library and search for themselves new words." Florence also said "[I]ve got some reading books and if they don't understand the word or they don't know the meaning of the word they quickly take the dictionary." In each of the three classrooms, learners did not rely on the teacher all the time for their vocabulary and language development but independently used the book corner, the library and the dictionary. Other competencies apart from dictionary work and independent reading were also identified in the teacher interviews.

Esther identified her learners' ability to "...form full sentences even in Grade 3" as one of their competences and Kate claimed her learners "...grasp more easily English than isiXhosa." Esther's is an acknowledgement of the ability to use words beyond the word level as a mark of language competence for Grade 3 learners. They could demonstrate word knowledge at the highest level of word knowledge considered in the present study, the active word knowledge level. Not all the teachers were confident about their learners' level of competence in the language though.

Henrietta, had reservations about her learners' comprehension of English. She noted that "[Y]ou must first say it in Xhosa so that they can understand. Otherwise if you just say it in English they won't understand." She believed, from her experience, in getting through to the L2 via the medium of the L1. Henrietta's observation that learners have problems comprehending the English language is shared by Dorothy who also says of her learners, "They don't easily understand English." All the responses to learners' perceived other competencies focused generally on the language and so the teachers were probed on their perception of learner competence concerning particular word aspects or dimensions.

*Perceived learner competence on particular aspects of word*

Kate and Christine were the ones who refrained from identifying particular aspects of the words learners generally did well or poorly on, arguing that the response to the item was relative. Kate argued that "it depends to the learner" whereas Christine argued that "[S]ome words something is easy, some words another thing is easy." The particular aspects of words that learners found difficult depended on the particular learner and the particular word.

Of the other eight, only Alice and Esther did not identify word writing as a challenge for learners. What was evident from the teachers' responses was that writing represented the greatest of learners' challenges. Esther, however, identified writing as an easy dimension of word knowledge for learners together with spelling. This, despite her acknowledgement of the orthographic challenges of writing when she said, "...when I say 'kick' they can write 'keak.'" This challenge, she explained as emanating from the way 'beat' and 'heat' are written, which learners overgeneralise. Again, errors of overgeneralisation would give testimony that learners do not just wait to get input from the teacher but test hypotheses as they generate language. Another orthographic challenge was noted by Florence where, in her case, for learners, "[I]t's difficult to write the word 'book' because in grade three they are not yet ready to do that double o."

Word use was the next most problematic aspect of word as identified by Jane, Gladys and Henrietta. That writing and word use were viewed as particularly problematic aspects demonstrated the complexity of productive (active) aspects of word knowledge over the receptive (passive) aspects. This was apparent in Gladys' observation that, "Sometimes they know the word but they do not know how to write it or use it." This was a case of passive knowledge of oral vocabulary not translating into productive written vocabulary.

Pronunciation was only seen as a challenge by Alice who identified the cause as interference from L1 pronunciation. To her, the role of L1 in L2 vocabulary acquisition was a negative one.

Aspects of word which were seen as presenting no challenges were few. For Dorothy it was word meaning, for Esther it was word spelling, and for Jane it was word reading. Dorothy observed that, “[I]s ...meaning...They know that sleep (mimes sleeping), they know the meaning of sleep but it’s not easy to write correctly.” This observation underscored the challenges of word testing where word knowledge may be one thing and demonstrating that knowledge, quite another. Jane asserted that, “Reading is easy but writing eish – is a problem.” This was the same issue of receptive vocabulary knowledge being easier than producing vocabulary. On the basis of teacher’s perceptions of learner competences and rate of exposure and acquisition of English vocabulary, teachers had to predict whether learners would be ready to transition to Grade 4 by end of year.

*Perceived learner preparedness for transition to learning in English as LoLT in Gr. 4*

Although generally Grade 3 teachers believed their learners would be ready for the transition to Grade 4, only Alice, Betty, Esther, Florence and Kate were confident about their affirmations with the rest expressing reservations. Although Betty’s and Kate’s source of confidence is not given a basis for in their response, they were positive about learner readiness for the transition. Alice’s basis for her confidence was her practice of using both isiXhosa and English in the other learning areas where policy demands that those areas be taught in the L1. She noted that “[E]ven now, I teach Maths, I mix English and Xhosa.” For Esther, the fact that the Grade 4 teachers she feeds with learners every year never complained about learners’ challenges in using English as LoLT was indicative of her current learners’ potential readiness by year end. That, coupled with their ability to form sentences, was the source of her confidence that her learners would be ready to transition to Grade 4.

For Florence, learner attitude towards the language was a basis for her confidence in their readiness for the transition to Grade 4 by the end of the year. Her response was “[Y]es! Yes! Yes! I’m definite. I’m definitely sure. They like English...early in the morning what I do before they start everything they just read. Even if I teach mathematics usually I mix it with English.” She was emphatic and confident about learner readiness for transition owing to positive learner attitude to English, independent reading on their part and her extension of

English's role to other learning areas. The use of English to teach other learning areas which were not English FAL was seen as forward looking by the teacher as Grade 3 was preparation for Grade 4.

Christine, Gladys and Henrietta expressed reservations about learners' readiness for the transition indicating that some would be ready for the transition but others would not be, which was to state the obvious. This was despite the researcher indicating his interest in the readiness of the majority of the learners. Christine noted "*[I] think others it will be difficult to adjust, but others will adjust because learners are not the same.*" Gladys and Henrietta perceived similar challenges when they said "*[S]ome, a few, will be ready but some, it's a problem*" and "*[S]ome, may be a few, others, they will struggle.*"

Although the three noted that not all learners would exhibit readiness for the transition by year end, Gladys and Henrietta saw those likely to be ready for the transition as constituting the minority. Dorothy implied doubt about learners' readiness by saying "*They (learners) don't easily understand English. It's not an easy task for them to learn all learning areas in English... It's a difficult job, because first of all English is not our mother tongue. Here we use English, at home they use Xhosa. They learn English for the whole year but you will understand that in Grade 4, few of them understand English.*" Reservations here stemmed from English not being the learners' L1 and not being sufficiently practiced or modeled in the home. Jane's response was, "*I think so*", which was different from an outright 'yes,' that would signify confidence.

Responses on the theme on learner competencies revealed that in the majority of classes, learners could not use dictionaries and do not have independent reading abilities. In terms of learner competencies on particular word aspects, word writing was seen as most problematic with no aspect nearing consensus among teachers in terms of its ease. There were mixed perceptions about the current Grade 3 learners being ready for transitioning to Grade 4 with some teachers expressing confidence and others reservations. Whether the lack of confidence in learner readiness for the transition was because the school system was not supportive enough was also interrogated in the interviews.

### 6.2.5 Teacher Perceptions about the Supportive Nature of the School Context

Perceptions on the supportive nature of the school context were interrogated in relation to material provision and time availability.

#### *Material provision: adequacy and access*

Teachers also rated the nature of the support the teaching-learning context provided in terms of material and time provisions. Generally, material provisions were either scarce or were unavailable. An example was that of dictionaries which were only present and accessible by learners in Alice's class. The rest of the teachers' classes did not have dictionaries. In Christine's class as in Gladys' the reading books were scarce unlike in Florence's. Only in Betty's class had learners access to the library. Six classes out of the ten (Betty, Florence, Gladys, Jane, Henrietta and Kate) had some big books. Even in the classes with the big books for shared reading, it was only in Kate's class that the attendant small readers which accompany the big books were found. The problem was captured by Betty who said, "[W]e have got these books (big books) we get them from the library but we do not have the small ones. If you are doing shared reading you want to use the small books. The bookshops, if you say I want the small books of this one, it is too expensive." Christine saw lack of reading material provisions as militating against successful L2 learning. She said, "There are not enough readers for them to read because reading is everything." Time provision was however, perceived differently.

#### *Time allocated to English First Additional Language in Grade 3*

In terms of time allocation, there was consensus on the time allocated for English FAL being adequate. Alice and Betty qualified their perception of time being adequate respectively by noting that they could "do a lot" or "cover". Time provision was perceived as adequate on the basis of the amount of work that could be covered within the time allocated. Time adequacy was not defined in terms of raising learners to a certain level of proficiency, but in terms of coverage. Florence said, "I think so (but) it's difficult for us because even in our timetables most of the periods are Xhosa. Mathematics and eh we are doing them in Xhosa, you know." To her, time allocated for English FAL was adequate but she observed the need for an extension of the role of English to other learning areas in the FP.

Gladys' qualification of why she considered time allocated as adequate was rather ironic. She said, "It is enough because English is new so they should be given little time and increase as

*they to understand.*” Her belief was that at the lowest levels of L2 proficiency learners needed less time in its study when one would have expected that that is when the learners needed more exposure to the language.

This section presented data from the teacher interviews from which emerging trends were manifest. Some such trends include the apparent preference for decontextualisation of vocabulary instruction which started from the point of initial introduction of learners to English through the naming of objects and labelling of parts on objects. The nature of the classroom environment emerged as an important resource as most of the naming and labelling was said to be done on familiar objects especially those in the classroom environment.

The role of the learners’ books also came through as key in the English FAL instruction. The learner books were identified as key sources of vocabulary as well as major determinants of the novelty of words to learners. They were seen as determiners of words that needed to be accorded priority in the form of word lists.

Although the role of learners was peripherally acknowledged by two of the teachers as both sources of new words as well as determiners of the novelty of words, they were overshadowed by the role of the teacher in both aspects. The teachers acknowledged being the key players in deciding what words were new to learners, which sources to consult and also acknowledged being the key players for explaining word meanings to learners. As noted earlier, one teacher even said she did for the learners what the dictionary would do and so did not use the dictionary. Word meanings were identified as the top priority dimension by the majority of teachers but it was word writing that was identified as problematic for the learners

The role of the first language in the English FAL was perceived as a hindrance to the quantity of English vocabulary as in the case of the English speaking Rotary volunteer teacher being seen by one teacher as potentially registering greater success with the English teaching on account of using the language all the time. In another instance, the isiXhosa first language was identified as a resource to facilitate comprehensibility. There was manifest reservation on both the potential of the outside world for impacting the vocabulary development of learners and on the readiness of the learners for the transition to Grade 4.

Having looked at the beliefs and perceptions teachers held on various aspects of L2 learning and vocabulary development, as well as the pedagogical choices they make, the next major section explored their professed pedagogical practices in relation to their observed practices. The professed practices emanated from the interviews and the observed practices from the observations. As such, the next section links interview and observation data in trying to understand how much of teachers' professed practices translated into actual classroom practice.

### **6.3 Teachers' Perceived and Observed Pedagogical Practices Related to Vocabulary Development.**

This section of the study continues the effort to contribute to an understanding of the extent to which Grade 3 learners are prepared for the demands of reading in Grade 4. It presents observed teacher practices which were both consonant with, and divergent from, what they professed to be the vocabulary development practices they use and have found effective. The study was more interested in teachers' practices in relation to their own beliefs on best practices rather than in a comparison of their practices in relation to those of other teachers. Their profession, as captured in their interview responses on the strategies they employ, is compared with their practice, as observed in their actual teaching. The study sought to understand the intersection between the two and their implications for English vocabulary exposure. The extent to which there was a match between what teachers professed and what they did was an indicator of the extent to which teachers' are conscious of their own practices. Where there was disjuncture, one could infer that teachers' practices were more intuitive and that their belief remained at a theoretical level. This section presents this data in three categories namely; consistent practices (where the teacher's observed practices reflected their professed practices), partially consistent practices (where some aspects of the professed practices were reflected in the observed practices and others were not), and inconsistent practices (where none of the observed practices mirrored the professed practices). It was important in this section to present each teacher's professed and observed practices before drawing out the emerging patterns. The one teacher who showed consistency in both professed and observed practices is discussed first, followed by the seven who manifested partial consistency and last, by the two teachers whose practices were inconsistent.

NB: For lessons typical of each teacher's practices, see Appendix 8.

*Esther*

Esther represented her typical vocabulary teaching strategies in these words;

*I write the word on the chalkboard then I drill them...then after that, I allow them to spell them. If it is English, they spell other words in Xhosa. It will be easy for them to catch up. For example, if we deal with the letter 'b' for 'bus' I can't say they must spell it using 'ba' in isiXhosa. The word 'bus' they are going to spell it using 'b' unlike the letter 'c' in the word 'car'. They cannot say 'c' 'a' 'r'. They spell the letter 'c' in Xhosa. They say 'ka' so that they can pronounce the word 'car'. We also use flash cards. I start teaching them the word on the chalkboard, then using flashcards, using the chart then they can read any lesson without any help. The only thing I can say is that phonics is of importance to learn English vocabulary because we start about how to pronounce the vowels, how to pronounce the consonants...Writing words for learners to see.*

The response from Esther has assumptions and claims worth noting. To her, words have to be seen first to be known or learnt, that is why her point of departure is writing the words down. She also believes in the power of repeated practice (drill) in leading to word acquisition. The identity of a word in terms of its orthography and its phonology is prioritized hence the focus on spellings and phonics. She also believes words should be spelt in the way that would ease their verbalization be it the 'a, ba,' or *a b c d* way. This, for her entails importing the isiXhosa sound system to the spelling of some English words. She also acknowledges exceptions to the practice. Representation of words in multiple formats (chalkboard, flash cards and charts), she believes, increases learners' encounter with them and makes them proficient in reading. Knowledge of words, taught in isolation, would translate to ability to read any passages.

In her practice, the aspect most consistent with her claims was her having learners spell English words the 'English' or 'isiXhosa' way depending on the nature of the word as she explained in the interviews. In one instance she says, '*spell in English, how to spell swimming.*' Her practice was punctuated with drilling through repetitions of words and statements. She would just say 'one, two!' and the learners would repeat the word or utterance. This was meant to induce overlearning of the particular word, pattern or structure. The writing of words on the chalkboard, on flashcards and on charts was evidently common

practice as she had claimed. (See Fig 7 for some of her writing on the charts). They were meant to give a visual representation of the words and utterances the teacher used.

The consistence between Esther's professed and observed practices was indicative that she was quite aware of her own pedagogical practices and was deliberate in what she did in the classroom. Such consistence was only partial in the practices of Florence, Alice, Dorothy, Betty, Gladys, Jane and Kate.

### *Florence*

In response to the interview question on the strategies she used and had found effective with her class, Florence indicated that,

*I put a picture first so that they must first look at the picture and they understand the picture after that it's easy for them to know what is in the picture...I pick up the key words in the comprehension and I write the key words on the board and I drill them first before we read it."*

From that response, Florence regarded pictorial representation as prominent in her vocabulary development practices. The assumption was that oral picture discussion led to learning other aspects of a word. Because pictures were preferred, concrete vocabulary needed prioritisation since it lent itself to pictorial representation. The response also showed that she preferred taking the most active role from the selection of words, writing them on the board and drilling them in isolation before learners read them in context.

The teacher's practice was consistent with her claims in terms of using pictures but not in the role the learners played in the learning of words. The pattern in one of the lessons where pictures in the textbooks were used was that, a picture was identified, the object was named by a learner, the teacher repeated the word two or more times, a volunteer wrote it on the board, the class spelt the word and read it again. Variations to the pattern were in the order between spelling and reading the words after their writing on the chalkboard. Learners were active in terms of the role they played. The pictures used were only those in the textbooks and not any the teacher sourced. The following is an excerpt from one of the teacher's lessons where pictures were used.

Excerpt 1: Florence's classroom talk

Teacher: *Now first of all we are going to look at the pictures before we fill in the missing words nhe?*

Class: *Yes miss.*

Teacher: *We are going to look at the pictures. There are some pictures there nhe?*

Class: *Yes*

Teacher: *Andithi?*

Class: *Yes*

Teacher: *What do you see in the picture?*

Teacher: *Hands up!*

Teacher: *What do you see in the picture?*

Teacher: *Yes*

Learner: *I see a brush.*

Teacher: *I see a brush.*

Teacher: *I see a brush.*

Teacher: *Yes there is a brush. Is there anyone of us who can go and write the word, word brush, brush on the board.*

Learner: *[writes the word brush on the board]*

Teacher: *Ok. Brush*

Teacher: *Is the word correct class?*

Class: *Brush*

Teacher: *Is the word correct?*

Teacher: *Yes*

Class: *Yes*

Teacher: *Ok.Let us read the word, class.*

Class: *Brush*

Teacher: *Brush. That is brush*

Teacher: *Now let's come to the second picture.*

This part of the lesson was in preparation for a comprehension lesson. The excerpt represents the teacher's attempt to teach the supposed new words prior to encountering them in the comprehension passage. Word teaching preceded comprehension passage reading. Although in the interview Florence gave the impression that she did everything in the classroom from the identification of the words to their drilling. This was, however, inconsistent with the lesson represented by the excerpt above which was typical of her practice where pictures were used. Learners took a part in the lesson, identifying a picture and naming it as well as writing the object's name on the board. Adequate time was allotted to introducing new words. In a few instances learners were asked what a word meant and the teacher explained words more than providing clues to word meanings. It would appear that Florence was cognisant of some of her practices but not all of her practices. This could mean that some practices were

deliberate, hence known, whereas others were intuitive and unknown to her. Alice's practices were equally partially consistent.

*Alice*

Alice's perception of her own practice was captured in her response thus;

*We start with sound. In fact I like to start from the known to the unknown. I always start with their prior work which they were doing in the previous class... then we come up gradually, slowly stage by stage, coming with new words, and words, they are becoming bigger and bigger then, we construct a word from the sounds and then the meaning, the spelling of that sound, and the... how to start a sentence.*

She posited movement from the phonological, orthographic, and then semantic dimensions as characterising her vocabulary instruction practices. Word sound (the phonological component) was perceived as the basis of word learning. There was also acknowledgement of the progressive nature of word learning from stage to stage supposedly in a linear progression. Her words also betrayed the assumption that the length of a word equalled its complexity and progression was supposed to be from smaller words to bigger words. Word formation, word spelling and word use in sentences are key aspects meant to lead to word meaning.

Alice's typical practice as observed was characterised by her writing words on the board and reading each word. The learners would then read the words after her chorally. Thereafter, they spelt the words as a class after the teacher. These typical activities, captured in field notes and on video, were consistent with her claim of privileging the phonological and orthographic aspects of word knowledge. In one of the lessons, she had 28 words on the board which overwhelmed the learners who had to do all the choral chanting and spellings of each word. In all the observed lessons, there was no instance where word formation activities were evident. The level where the words were supposed to be used in sentences to give practice was missing despite the teacher's claims to word use focus in her practice. The semantic level was given for words which had isiXhosa equivalents like *milking*, *holiday*, *visited*, among others. Those that had no one to one correspondence with a Xhosa word were only read and spelt.

### *Dorothy*

Dorothy was quite concise when it came to her description of the strategies for vocabulary development which she employed in her class and has found effective. She captured her own practice thus;

*“I use flash cards, writing on the board or take them to, take that group and even write on the ground using chalk, or close your eyes spell the word ‘sleep’. I write list of words and teach them’*

According to her, her vocabulary development practices revolved around learner word reading, word writing and word spelling. Word meaning, which she had identified earlier in a different category as an aspect of word that needed to be privileged in the classroom, was not reflected in either her perceived or observed pedagogical practices. In the lessons observed, no use of flash cards was noted as claimed. Word cards were used in a lesson on tenses where a learner would place a word card with a verb in the past against the verb in the present on the sentences on the chalkboard. The use here of the word cards was not as flash cards. Neither group tasks nor the writing of words on the ground by the learners was evident in the three lessons observed. What was quite manifest was the preponderance in the use of the ‘*close your eyes spell the word...*’ technique. Word lists were also put on the board for teaching. The disjuncture between the professed and observed practices begged the question of where the teacher derived her practices from, seeing they were not informed by what she believed to be best practices. This disjuncture was also manifest in Betty’s practice.

### *Betty*

Betty saw her vocabulary teaching strategies in the following way:

*The strategy, for instance If we say ‘girl’, we write on the board. So they can see how it is written and also search another words that can be the phonics. I try to use picture...For instance there are some things like aeroplane. I try to search the picture of aeroplane and they understand. The learners are supposed to have the small books so that if I’m talking about the sun, they can see the sun.*

Betty’s perception of her own practices betrayed her assumption that learners were visually oriented and needed to see in order to learn. This explained her supposed use of instructional media and her view of the role of pictures in enhancing understanding of English vocabulary. Her assumptions about how learners learnt a language was largely through the visual channel.

What was quite evident from the observation which also corresponded with her professed practices was her representation of words on the chalkboard for learners to learn their orthographic make up. From her practices however, no instance of the use of pictures was noted in accordance with her claims. Also not evident were any words explained the phonic way as she professed. A key aspect of her practice that she did not mention in her interview response was her predominant reliance on translation to bring about word meaning, be it at the word or sentence level. Most of this translation was done by teacher.

### *Gladys*

Gladys described her vocabulary teaching practices in one statement thus, '*They read the words and learn to spell then...and then talk about their meanings.*' Despite the researcher's probing into any other vocabulary teaching strategies she employed, she said that was the strategy she used. As for why she stuck with one strategy, she claimed that she had seen that it worked for her learners. She assumed a one-size fits all approach where the same strategy suited all the words in all the contexts for all the learners.

Although she did not identify the actual strategies, Gladys' claimed progression from reading to spelling to meaning. From her description of own practice, learners take an active role in their own vocabulary learning as 'they' read, spell and talk about word meanings. Arriving at word meanings is a collaborative enterprise. That the three activities defining Gladys' practices are all oral suggests the prominence given to the oral dimension of word knowledge in relation to the written. This is notwithstanding her stated belief in the word writing component of word knowledge together with meaning and word verbalisation as being the key word knowledge dimensions learners need to develop proficiency in.

From the observations made, word reading and word spelling were quite evident, with learners reading words and sometimes whole utterances after the teacher chorally. The teacher did the writing of the words on the board and then learners would read the words. Sometimes after reading the words several times they would be made to face the other side of the classroom and spell the words as a class together with the teacher. Some learners would wait for the teacher's voice and join the chant. From all the observations made, the learners did not play the crucial role in the word learning process that Gladys claimed, neither was the negotiation of word meanings apparent in any of the three lessons observed. Gladys chose the words, wrote them on the board, spelt them together with the learners and in a few instances

explained the words largely through translation. Consistence was therefore in the activities that were identified but the inconsistency came in the manner in which the activities were executed.

*Jane*

Describing her own vocabulary teaching practices in the interview, Jane said

*I ask them to identify some new words and then we discuss and explain the meaning of words. I write those words on the board and we read those words together with them and I ask If there is anyone who knows their meanings and if no one knows the meaning I tell them myself. You have to do a lot of code switching.*

From her perception of her practice, several aspects of her vocabulary teaching can be drawn. First, is the sense one gets of the active role learners play in their vocabulary development in her classes. Learners are given the initiative to give word meanings and the teacher comes in as a last resort with word explanation. Second, is the collaborative effort that the word learning process involves the negotiation of word meaning rather than the mere exposition of meaning. Word meanings are discussed and explained collaboratively with the learners. Her mention of the need for code switching affirmed her assumptions about the role of L1 as complementary to that of the L2. Word-meaning and word-writing which she had noted earlier as the most important aspects of word learners should master were identified in her perception of her own practices.

Her observed practices confirmed her belief in using the L1 in the L2 classroom as she employed much code switching. The inconsistency was in the initiative that was supposedly given to the learners in the word learning process. In one comprehension lesson, new words' identification was more the responsibility of the teacher than the learners, contrary to Jane's claim that the learners were responsible. In her actual practice, word meanings were evidently not a priority in the classroom and, in the few instances they were manifest, they were not arrived at collaboratively as she implied. Rather the teacher provided them. There was inconsistency at the level of both the vocabulary development strategies identified and the manner in which these were effected.

*Kate*

Kate identified the following as representing her typical practices in learners' English vocabulary development:

*You must have flash cards for sight words...The things that we must stress is the phonics. You must read the word for children, then they must read after you, then must read alone, they must read individually. If you introduce them to phonics you introduce them to books that they didn't do. They manage to read them because of the phonics.*

Although both sight word reading and phonic word reading were recognised as important, phonics was given greater prominence. This meant that reading was largely seen as a matter of decoding words. Flash cards were acknowledged as indispensable to the mediation of sight words. There was recognition of the need for a gradual release of responsibility in word reading where the teacher initially read for learners, then she read together with the learners before ceding full responsibility of word reading to the learners. The teacher initially provided support to allow learners to know the correct thing but moved them to a level of independence. The role of teacher modeling was seen as facilitative of learner reading. The prioritization of the phonic approach stemmed from its enabling learners to tackle any phonic words not encountered before once the phonic sounds were mastered.

There was evidence of the use of the phonic approach in her lessons. Words were read through the decoding process. There was consistency in the stages of word reading identified. In most instances where a word was brought to the learners' attention, the three stages of teacher reading, teacher-learner reading, and learner reading were observed. The release of responsibility was manifest in that regard. Sight word reading, though not identified was also employed in the classroom. In the lessons observed, however, there was no use of flashcards despite several sight words being brought to learners' attention. Another inconsistency was that whenever learners did their own reading without the teacher's assistance, it was almost always choral not individual learner reading as she had claimed. Like the descriptions of the other six preceding teachers, some aspects of Kate's practices were consistent whereas others were not. Christine's professed practice, however, was wholly incongruent with her observed practice.

*Christine*

Christine described her professed vocabulary teaching strategies thus,

*When I teach, I start from the work they have done previous year so that they know how to adjust to the new... I use phonics because the language starts from the phonics so they know the words, the sound of the words and they know how to write the word so that they can form simple sentences. I write the words and put them on the wall so that they read the words. Everyday they must read so that they are familiar with the words. Learners are not the same so I have to put them in groups so that I deal with every group...I want to use newspapers so that they know how to read."*

The phonic approach is given prominence at the expense of sight words despite both being essential. The teacher's assumption about the efficacy of the phonic approach in second language learning is manifest. The teacher acknowledged learner diversity in learning and the need for small group tutoring. Display of words and drawing attention to words was viewed as pivotal and the role of repeated reading in word knowledge and word familiarity was underscored. Authentic materials such as newspapers were seen as having a special role in vocabulary development. Some of the vocabulary instruction activities followed the pattern; from word sound to word writing, from word writing to word use in sentences, and then reading of the words daily, and word reading group activities.

From the lessons observed, only word displays were evident as the teacher claimed. No phonic work was evident in the lessons. Rather most of the words which were taught, particularly the antonyms, were all sight words. Small group teaching was not apparent as the teacher claimed. In the explanation of word opposites, which was done over two lessons, the teacher had to teach word meanings as well. The practices noted in the observations the teacher had not made mention of included the use of real objects and learners as resources to clarify word meanings. There was also whole class reading of words, usually thrice, led by an able learner. The groups were too big to the extent that some learners could hardly see the words being read but just chanted with others. Practice was confined to word reading and no instance was noted when learners were made to practice word use.

Repetition coupled with some measure of rephrasing helped both to enhance comprehension as well as to increase vocabulary exposure. An example was, "[W]ho can come and lift for

*me these books? Who can come forward and lift up these books?"* Consolidation of what was taught was by way of summaries and cumulative review of the words covered in previous lesson as in, "[W]e talked about the opposites and we said what the opposite of...is" The teacher, however, covered too many aspects in one lesson to the point of overwhelming the learners. In one lesson, she says, "[T]oday, we are going to talk about how to make sentences using capital letters full stops commas question marks." Learners' productive language was encouraged when they were asked to provide own sentences which the class would punctuate. She even encouraged variations in the learners' own sentence construction. At one point she says, '[N]o I don't want everybody to say my grandmother, my my my... No. I want something else.' This pushed learners to experiment with language and generate novel sentences which extended both their vocabulary knowledge and vocabulary use. In the following exchange, the teacher probed learners to produce the language and used repetition to ensure learner understanding of what she expected of them:

Excerpt 2: Christine's classroom talk

- Teacher: *What is wrong with my sentence?* [Initial question]  
Learner: *July* [learner one word response]  
Teacher: *July, what must I do with July?* [Affirmation of response and further probing]  
Teacher: *What must I do with July?* [Repetition and further probing]  
Teacher: *He is right but what must I do?* [Affirmation of response and further probing]  
Learner: *You must start with a capital letter.* [Learner response in a full sentence]  
Teacher: *I must start with a capital letter.* [Repetition for consolidation]

Christine is an example of a teacher who downplayed her own practices as most of what she did in the classroom was not reflected in her interview response. This was contrary to Henrietta's inconsistency which was based on an overrating of her own practice.

#### *Henrietta*

Henrietta envisaged her own practice in the following way;

*I write them [words] in the flash cards and then I put it on the wall so that they can read it over and over...I'm reading for them stories sometimes. I think stories can help them. They can take the flash cards and read on their own. Then the other one is helping the other one.*

Several assumptions underlie Henrietta’s professed practices. There is an assumption of the efficacy of repeated word reading in word learning and the value of story reading. There was also a belief in vocabulary development from peer collaboration. Flash cards were also considered a key vocabulary teaching resource. What was unfortunate was that these assumptions and beliefs were not actualized in practice. In the three lessons observed, no flash card was used even once, no stories were read to the learners, no peer collaboration on word learning or any aspect of the language was encouraged. As noted above, the inconsistency in the professed practices and observed practices of Christine and Henrietta were of two kinds. Christine did a lot of things which she did not profess to do whereas Henrietta professed to do many things which she did not actually do.

Table 7 gives a summary of the teachers’ professed and observed practices. The professed practices are identified and a tick [✓] against a practice signifies that it was observed as a practice in the teacher’s teaching and a cross [X] signifies that it was not evident in the observed practices.

Table 7: Teachers' Professed versus Observed Practices

Teacher	Professed or Stated Practices	Manifest or not in observed Practice	Professed versus Observed Practice
<b>Esther</b>	Writing words on the board, on flash cards and on charts	✓	Consistent
	Drilling words especially in pronunciation	✓	
	Spelling English words in English and isiXhosa	✓	
<b>Florence</b>	Use of pictures	✓	Partially consistent
	Selection of key words by the teacher	X	
	Drilling words prior to reading comprehension	✓	
<b>Alice</b>	Word spelling	✓	Partially consistent
	Word writing by the teacher	✓	
	Sentence construction to demonstrate word meaning	X	
<b>Dorothy</b>	Use of flash cards	X	Partially consistent
	Teacher writing words on the chalkboard	✓	
	Group tasks	X	
<b>Betty</b>	Spelling words with eyes closed	✓	Partially consistent
	Teacher writing words on the board	X	
<b>Gladys</b>	Use of pictures	X	Partially consistent
	Learner word reading	✓	
	Learner word spelling	✓	
<b>Jane</b>	Learner discussion on word meanings	X	Partially consistent
	Learner identification of new words	X	
	Collaboration on word meanings	X	
	Teacher writing key words on the board	✓	
	Learners afforded opportunity to give word meanings	X	

	Teacher word explanations	✓	
	Use of the L1	✓	
<b>Kate</b>	Use of flash cards	X	Partially consistent
	Phonic word reading	✓	
	Teacher reading words to learners	✓	
	Learners reading words after the teacher	✓	
	Learners reading words in chorus without the teacher	✓	
	Learners reading words individually	X	
<b>Christine</b>	Phonic word reading	X	inconsistent
	Simple sentence formation	X	
	Writing words and putting them on the wall	X	
	Word learning in groups	X	
<b>Henrietta</b>	Use of flash cards and word display	X	inconsistent
	Story reading	X	
	Group reading	X	

An incongruence or partial congruence between teachers stated beliefs and observed practices was manifest in nine of the ten teachers. Although the researcher did not find any of the stated practices which were not supported by the context of teaching and learning, some inconsistencies could have been due to complexities of classroom dynamics constraining teachers' abilities to align their practice with their theoretical beliefs. The inconsistencies most probably stemmed from teachers not being conscious about their own practices may be indicative of teachers' practices being driven by actions which have become routinised through years of practice to the point of being performed almost automatically. In that case, what teachers know and believe in has less impact on what gets done in the classroom than what has been long ingrained in them through repeated practice. This section linked the interview data with part of the classroom observation data and the next section of this chapter presents other dimensions from classroom lesson observations related to how much deliberate exposure learners had to new English words from the instructional practices of the teacher.

#### **6.4 Extent of the Exposure to New English Words and Meanings from Teachers'**

##### **Pedagogical Practices**

Data related to vocabulary exposure from teachers' practices derived from both the three video-recorded lessons and other lessons that were not videoed. For the quantitative dimensions in this data, only the three transcribed lessons per teacher were used. An example of such quantitative element of data in this section is the numerical computing of the frequency with which particular vocabulary meaning episodes were manifest. Data for this section of the chapter are presented thematically with the practices of only a few teachers which best exemplify a theme used for exemplification. For a broader representation of the particular practices for each teacher, see Appendix 8. The themes which emerged from the

observed data, and in which the data are presented and the nature of the data they represented are:

- Strategies for drawing attention to new or key English words (*both qualitative and quantitative*)
- Vocabulary meaning episodes observed (*both qualitative and quantitative*)
- Teacher's model use of L2 (*largely qualitative*)
- Enablers and constraints to greater exposure and recycling of L2 vocabulary (*both qualitative and quantitative*)
- Actual exposure of Grade 3 learners to Grade 4 textbook high frequency words (*largely quantitative*)

What teachers did to develop learners' English vocabulary is presented under strategies for drawing attention to words (which covered aspects of word recognition) and vocabulary meaning episodes (which covered passive and active word knowledge or word meaning and word use dimensions).

#### **6.4.1 Strategies for Drawing Attention to New or Key English Words**

Nation (2005) identifies the following ways of drawing attention to word forms: showing its spelling in relation to that of other familiar words, providing its stress pattern and pronunciation, showing its affixes and the stem, letting learners repeat its pronunciation, writing it on the board, and identifying its spelling irregularity if any. A review of the field notes and preliminary observations in Grade 3 classes was made with these strategies in mind. The review identified seven strategies which teachers used to draw attention to a word. These were strategies which teachers employed to give some thought to particular words on the basis of either their novelty or importance in the given context. The seven attention drawing strategies, whose manifestations are the subject of this sub-section, were derived from reading through the lesson transcripts and from the video-recordings. These were word spelling, repeated word reading, repeated word saying, breaking polysyllabic words into syllables, putting emphasis or stress on a word, leaving blanks in utterance for learners to fill in using word being highlighted, and using non-linguistic word representations like graphic organizers, pictures or models. The visibility of these strategies in the lessons observed is represented in two ways; being '*quite evident*' and '*partially evident*'. The third option of '*not evident*' is represented by default by having no '*quite evident*' and '*partially evident*' options in a column.

Key to codes used

**QE**-aspect is *quite evident* from observations [used 10+ times in 3 video-recorded lessons]

**PE**-aspect is *partially evident* from observations [used less than 10 times in the 3 lessons]

The codes are applied on class, learner and teacher. Class denotes choral use of a strategy and learner refers to individual learners' use of a strategy. Each of the ten teachers' three transcribed lessons were combed through for these strategies. Every manifestation of each of the strategies was identified and tallied against its description for all the teachers. The total exhibitions of each of the strategies were then added and represented in tabular form as shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Manifestations of Strategies of Drawing Attention to Words in Lessons Observed

Teacher	Word spelling	Repeated word reading	Repeated word saying	Breaking polysyllabic word into syllables	Emphasis/ stress on word	Leaving blank in utterance for learners to fill using word being highlighted	Non-linguistic word representations (graphic organizers, pictures, models)	Percentage of strategies used by the teacher out of the 7
Florence	Class [QE],	Teacher [QE], Class [QE], learner [PE]	Teacher [QE], Class [QE], learner [QE]	Teacher [PE], 3 times only.	Teacher [PE] Class [QE],	Teacher [PE],	Teacher, [PE]	7/7 100%
Alice	Class [QE]	Teacher [QE], Class [QE]	Teacher [PE], Class [QE],		Teacher [PE] four times			4/7 57%
Christine	Class [PE],	Teacher [QE]	Teacher [QE], Class [QE]			Teacher [QE]	Teacher [QE]	5/7 71%
Esther	Class [QE], learner [PE]	Teacher [QE]	Teacher [QE], Class [QE]		Teacher [QE]			4/7 57%
Dorothy	Teacher [PE], Class [QE]	Teacher [QE], Class [QE]	Teacher [QE], Class [QE]			Teacher [PE]		4/7 57%
Betty	Class [QE]	Teacher [QE], Class [QE]	Teacher [QE], Class [QE]		Teacher [PE]			4/7 57%
Gladys	Teacher	Teacher	Teacher			Teacher		4/7

	[PE], Class	[QE], Class	[QE], Class		[PE]		57%
Jane	[QE] Class	[QE] Teacher	[QE] Teacher		Teacher		4/7
	[QE]	[QE], Class	[QE], Class		[PE]		57%
Henrietta	Class	Class	Teacher				3/7
	[PE]	[QE]	[QE], Class				43%
Kate	Teacher	Teacher	Teacher		Teacher	Teacher	5/7
	[PE], Class	[QE], Class	[QE], Class		[QE]	[PE]	71%
% use of strategy	100%	100%	100%	10%	50%	60%	20%

### *The spread of the strategies across the teachers*

Three key strategies manifest in the ten classrooms were word spelling, repeated word reading and repeated word saying all of which were evident in all the ten classes. The spelling of words was more the responsibility of the class (chorally) than it was of teachers and was not evident in learners as individuals. The teacher and the class shared in the repeated word-reading and word-saying as in most cases the learners would repeat the words after the teacher. Individual learners' word repetitions were only partially evident in Florence's class. The three strategies were not only manifest across all the classes, but also quite evident in their manifestation in each teacher's practices. The strategies allowed the learners to access the words through sensory experience. As Rosenthal and Ehri (2008, p. 189) note, "... students need to see, hear, and say unfamiliar words whose meanings are being learned because this strengthens their memory for spellings, pronunciations, and meanings of the new words." The repeated word saying, word spelling, and word readings were precursors to word meanings. Individual readings, spellings and sayings were overshadowed by choral readings. Repeated rehearsal of material while it was still in working memory as discussed in earlier chapters led to word mastery.

Five teachers employed word stress and word emphasis to draw attention to some words. Vocabulary instruction necessitates direct attention to the sound of new words, particularly how they are stressed. Among the five, only Florence had the strategy employed by the class, but for the other four teachers, teachers were responsible for stressing the words. Leaving blanks for learners to complete using a key word was a feature of the practice of 6 of the 10 teachers but was quite evident in only one teacher's practice and partially evident in the

practice of the other 5 teachers. The strategy of using non-linguistic word representations and that of breaking words into their constituent parts were the least employed being used by two and one teacher respectively.

Only Florence used all the seven strategies followed by Christine and Kate who used 5 of the 7 strategies and the rest employed four strategies except Henrietta who exhibited the least strategies, three out of the 7. Although the strategy of leaving blanks in utterances for learners to complete using particular words was used in 6 of the 10 classes, it was only partially evident in the teachers' practices. Florence was also distinct from the other teachers in that it was only in her class that individual learners were accorded the opportunity to exercise these strategies, albeit only two; repeated word-reading and word-saying. What follows is an exemplification of the manifestation of some of these strategies in some classrooms. Appendix 8 has whole lessons on the teachers' verbal practices from which these short snippets are derived.

#### *Manifestation of strategies for drawing attention to words among teachers*

The exhibition of the strategies teachers used to draw attention to novel words in their practices is exemplified under each of the strategies. Only the practice(s) that best illustrated the use of each strategy are used.

##### *Word spelling*

Esther makes her learners spell words quite often in her class. She normally just says 'how to spell...' as in "[H]ow to spell fishes" as an instruction for learners to spell the word. She asks the learners to spell the words in what she calls 'isiXhosa' and 'English' spelling. The English spelling is based on the letters of the alphabet whereas the isiXhosa spelling is in accordance with their phonic representations in isiXhosa. One example was:

- 126 Teacher: *How to spell swimming*  
127 Class: *S W I M M I N G*  
128 Teacher: *Clap your hands.*  
129 Teacher: *How to spell swimming again.*  
130 Learners: *S W I M M I N G*  
131 Teacher: *How to spell swimming in Xhosa one, two*  
132 Learners: *S W I M M I N G*  
133 Teacher: *Sithe kanene ekuqaleni sithe abantu baninzi*

The data capturer could not represent the isiXhosa phonic spelling as captured in the video on line 132. Dorothy also drew her learners' attention to particular words through spelling of words as in instances where she instructed, '*Close your eyes and spell sleep*'.

#### *Repeated Word Reading*

Repetition of word reading was manifest in the practices of all the teachers but Alice's is exemplified here. The following is her exchange with her class:

32. Teacher: *Milking*
33. Class: *Milking*
34. Teacher: *Milking*
35. Class: *Milking*
36. Teacher: *M*
37. Class: *M*
38. Teacher: *I*
39. Class: *I*
40. Teacher: *L*
41. Class: *L*
42. Teacher: *K*
43. Class: *K*
44. Teacher: *I*
45. Class: *I*
46. Teacher: *N*
47. Class: *N*
48. Teacher: *G*
49. Class: *G*
50. Teacher: *Milking*
51. Class: *Milking*

Here, repeated word saying was used in conjunction with word spelling. The word milking was repeated six times, three times by the teacher and three by the learners chorally. The repetition was meant to ensure learners' internalisation of the word.

#### *Repeated Word Saying*

Repeated word saying was also characteristic of the practices of all the teachers but I exemplify the strategy with the exchange in one of Esther's lessons. It went as follows:

- 466 Teacher/Learner: *Lixesha lokuqubeka*
- 467 Teacher: *Present continuous, yintoni leya,*
- 468 Teacher: *Present continuous, vula umlomo*
- 469 Class: *Present continuous*
- 470 Teacher: *Masitsho sithi continuous tense*
- 471 Learners: *Present continuous tense*
- 472 Teacher: *Masithethe*
- 473 Class: *Present continuous tense*

- 474 Teacher: *Heee?*  
 475 Class: *Present continuous tense*  
 476 Teacher/Class: *Present continuous tense*  
 477 Teacher: *Lixesha lokuthini lokuqubeka, lixesha lukothni?*  
 478 Class: *Lokuqubeka*  
 479 Teacher: *Heee*  
 480 Class: *Lokuqubeka*  
 481 Teacher: *Heee*  
 482 Class: *Lokuqubeka*

The words '*present continuous tense*' were drawn attention to by the repeated sayings. The same applied to the word '*lokuqubeka*'. The repetition of the words present continuous seven times in such a short exchange testifies to the extent of the strategy's use. One would expect that learners coming out of the class that day would not have problems remembering that they learnt about the '*present continuous tense*' if they were asked. The repetition was meant to sink the words into the little minds.

#### *Word stress or emphasis*

In terms of placing stress and emphasis on particular words to draw learners' attention to them, Esther's example is illustrative. She places emphasis on the word wearing in the following exchange:

- 33 Teacher: *Unxibe ntoni? What is the baby wearing, wearing?*  
 34 Teacher: *What is the baby wearing?*  
 35 Learners: *The baby is wearing a dress*

Word stress was here used in conjunction with word repetition for emphasis. Betty also modelled the correct pronunciation of words in '*thank, not tank you, not tank you*' stressing the word '*thank*'. Similarly, Kate stressed the word '*vowels*' in '*so we all know these vowels neh?*' The stress enhanced word recognition at the phonological level.

#### *Segmenting polysyllabic words*

Segmentation of words was not a common strategy used to draw learners' attention to words possibly because of the few compound words that were used in the classroom at this level. An example of the breaking of a word into parts to draw attention to it was Florence's "*toothbrush, tooth, tooth, tooth, brush, brush, toothbrush.*" Breaking the polysyllabic words enhanced word knowledge at the orthographic, phonological and morphological levels where learners got a glimpse of the word in terms of its spelling, its pronunciation and the word parts making it up respectively. Even the semantic dimension would be hinted at in the

segmentation of particular types of compound words. The learner who knew the words 'tooth' and 'brush' would then realise that they equally knew how to write and verbalise the word 'toothbrush' as well as what it meant.

#### *Leaving out blanks for learners to complete*

Starting a sentence and leaving a blank where a specific word needed to be used was another strategy used by six of the ten teachers although with low frequency. An example from the exchange in Jane's class is:

- |   |          |                                       |
|---|----------|---------------------------------------|
| 2 | Teacher: | What else is at the cover of my book? |
| 3 | Learner: | I see a dog that is barking           |
| 4 | Teacher: | There is a dog that is barking        |
| 5 | Teacher: | This is a ...                         |
| 6 | Class:   | A dog                                 |
| 7 | Teacher: | This is a dog and the dog is ....     |
| 8 | Class:   | Barking                               |

The words 'dog' and 'barking' were words learners' attention was drawn to and this was through having the learners provide the words themselves. The teacher only gave the stem or frame of the response format. Similarly, Christine left out a part in an utterance where the new word learnt was supposed to be inserted as a way of drawing learners' attention to it in the statement "[T]he opposite of clean is...", to which learners shouted, 'dirty!' Dorothy also would give a statement and then, to draw attention to particular words, she would then reformulate the same statement and leave it unfinished at the point where the word she wanted noticed was supposed to be used.

#### *Non-linguistic word representations*

The last strategy for drawing attention to words which was considered in the observations was the employment of non-verbal, non-linguistic representations of words. Dorothy would mime some words to draw learners' attention to them as in the word 'sleep' where she would push her head to the side and use her hands to support it as a pillow would in the exchange

- |      |          |   |
|------|----------|---|
| 970. | Teacher: | <i>The dog sleep outside</i>            |
| 971. | Teacher: | <i>Err sleep we say sleep is a verb</i> |
| 972. | Teacher: | <i>Past tense of sleep is</i>           |
| 973. | Teacher: | <i>Past tense of sleep is</i>           |
| 974. | Teacher: | <i>Class</i>                            |
| 975. | Class:   | <i>slept</i>                            |

The mime helped also to mediate the meaning of the word sleep as the learners could perfectly understand the sleeping gesture she used. Sometimes when some learners made a

noise she would look at the learner place her index finger on her lips and say, “*quiet*”. The gesture drew attention to the word but also acted as a way of giving the meaning of a word.

This section has presented the strategies which teachers used in their lessons to bring learners’ attention to particular words the teacher considered important in the different contexts. Although the strategies were quite varied, being seven in all, the frequency with which they were employed was minimal as the figures for each manifestation of the strategy in the teachers’ 3 recorded lessons indicate.

The last strategy discussed also doubled as a strategy through which the meaning of words were mediated. It therefore, was both an attention drawing strategy and meaning provision strategy. In this study, I distinguish between strategies for drawing attention to words, which I assume can only lead to word knowledge at the level of word recognition, and those that seek to bring understanding of word meaning. I call the latter strategies vocabulary meaning episodes. Like the former, these vocabulary meaning episodes equally derived from the classroom observation data and are the subject of the next sub-section.

#### **6.4.2 Vocabulary Meaning Episodes**

I define the vocabulary meaning episodes as moments when the teacher drew attention to the meaning of a word in some way not just its form, whether oral or written. Nation (2005) identifies quick ways of drawing attention to word meanings as the use of an L1 translation, use of a known L2 synonym, provision of a simple definition in the L2, provision of an object or picture, giving a demonstration of the word meaning, drawing a simple picture or diagram, segmenting a word and providing meaning of its constituent parts and that of the whole, providing example sentences of word use in context, and commenting on word meaning and other referents. In the initial informal observations, I looked out for these and any possible others in the teachers’ practices. For the formal observations, the following vocabulary meaning episodes were used: Translation to or from L1, word meaning through synonym or antonym, exemplification of word use in sentence, non-verbal demonstrations of word meaning or use of visual or concrete media, direct word explanations, and breaking a word into parts to demonstrate its meaning.

Where a kind of vocabulary episode was used more than once for the same word within the same context, it was recorded once but where it was used for a different word even within the

same context, it was recorded as a different episode as many times as it was used. Table 9 presents manifestations of the vocabulary episodes in the teachers' practices. The figures given in the Table indicate the frequency with which the particular strategy was manifest in the particular teacher's three video-recorded lessons.

Table 9: Vocabulary Meaning Episodes in Lessons Observed

Teacher	Translation	Synonym or antonym	Exemplifying word use in sentence	Non-verbal demonstrations/ use of visual or concrete media	Direct Word explanations	Breaking word to demonstrate its meaning	Number of episode types used
<b>Florence</b>	Learner provides equivalent <b>3/13</b> [23%] Teacher provides equivalent <b>4/13</b> [31%] Teacher translates whole utterance <b>6/13</b> [46%]	L1 L1	Use of Synonyms [2] both by teacher	Instances of word use in sentence [1] by teacher			3/7 Total 16 episodes
<b>Alice</b>	Learner provides equivalent <b>6/17</b> [35%] Teacher provides equivalent <b>7/17</b> [41%] Teacher translates whole utterance <b>4/17</b> [24%]	L1 L1					1/7 Total 17 episodes
<b>Christine</b>	Learner provides equivalent <b>3/14</b> [21%] Teacher provides equivalent <b>7/14</b> [50%] Teacher translates whole utterance <b>4/14</b> [29%]	L1 L1	Antonyms [12]	Instances of word use in sentence [6] all by teacher	Gestures and actions [4]		4/7 Total 32 episodes
<b>Esther</b>	Learner provides equivalent <b>7/19</b> [37%] Teacher provides equivalent <b>4/19</b> [21%] Teacher translates whole utterance <b>8/19</b> [42%]	L1 L1				Word segmentation once done by teacher	2/7 Total 20 episodes
<b>Dorothy</b>	Learner provides equivalent <b>4/13</b> [31%] Teacher provides equivalent <b>4/13</b> [31%] Teacher translates whole utterance <b>5/13</b> [38%]	L1 L1	Use of Synonyms [2] both by teacher	Instances of word use in sentence [2] by teacher	Actions [2] by teacher [1] Learner [1]	Direct explanations in English [3] all by teacher	5/7 Total 22 episodes
<b>Betty</b>	Learner provides equivalent <b>1/6</b> [17%] Teacher provides equivalent <b>2/6</b> [33%] Teacher translates whole utterance <b>3/6</b> [50%]	L1 L1		Instances of word use in sentence [1] by teacher		Direct explanations in isiXhosa [2] both by the teacher	3/7 Total 9 episodes
<b>Gladys</b>	Learner provides equivalent <b>1/5</b> [20%] Teacher provides	L1 L1			Demonstrations [2] by teacher		2/7 Total 7

	equivalent <b>2/5</b> [40%] Teacher translates whole utterance <b>2/5</b> [40%]						episodes
<b>Jane</b>							
<b>Henrietta</b>	Teacher provides L1 equivalent [1]						1/7 Total 1 episode
<b>Kate</b>	Learner provides L1 equivalent <b>3/10</b> [30%] Teacher provides L1 equivalent <b>4/10</b> [40%] Teacher translates whole utterance <b>3/10</b> [30%]				Direct explanations in isiXhosa [2] by teacher		2/7 Total 12 episodes
<b>Total</b>	10 (100%)	3 (30%)	4 (40%)	3 (30%)	3 (30%)	1 (10%)	

### *Spread of the vocabulary meaning episodes across the teachers*

From Table 9, it was apparent that translation of words from English to isiXhosa was the most used vocabulary meaning episode. It was also the prerogative of the teacher in all the classrooms. It is the only strategy for mediating word meaning that cut across the ten teachers' practice and with some measure of frequency. Word segmentation through the processes of affixation was the least used being manifest in Esther's practice only, and only once for that matter. This was possibly because the strategy does not lend itself much to use with many words especially words that are frequent in the FP.

Dorothy had the greatest number of vocabulary episode kinds with 5 of the 6 episodes being manifest in her practice. Henrietta exhibited the least number of episodes as well as kinds of episodes. She only had translation as an episode which was manifest only once. Christine exhibited the greatest number of episodes courtesy of the antonyms which she taught which aided the development of word meanings. To get a clearer picture of the utilization of vocabulary episodes in a teacher's practices, Florence's lessons were sampled randomly from those of the other teachers to illustrate the breakdown in her employment of vocabulary meaning episodes as shown in Table 10. (See Appendix 8 for a full lesson from Florence). The selection and discussion of Florence's use of vocabulary meaning episodes was meant to give a holistic picture of the manifestation of such strategies in teacher's practices before using the strategies themselves as categories for discussion with the teachers' practices providing illustrative examples.

Table 10: Manifestation of Vocabulary Meaning Episodes in Florence's Practice

Episode	Frequency of use in 3 lessons	Nature of use
Translation	13 times	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Teacher asking learners for an IsiXhosa equivalent of English word [3] e.g. Teacher: <i>'What are words in Xhosa, class?'</i> Class: <i>'ngama gama.'</i></li> <li>2. Teacher giving both the English and IsiXhosa equivalent [4] as in, Teacher: <i>'Itenses ngama xesha'</i> or Teacher: <i>'Past idlulile siyevana?'</i></li> <li>3. Teacher translating whole utterances e.g. Teacher: <i>'There are missing words there. Kukhona amagama ashiyelwelweyo phayana andithi?'</i>[6]</li> </ol>
Synonym or antonym	2 times	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Direct giving of a synonym identifying that the two words mean the same e.g. Teacher: <i>'Another name of a dish is a basin nhe.'</i></li> <li>2. Using the synonyms together in a way which shows they mean the same thing e.g. Teacher: <i>'Write some <u>key words</u>, the <u>important words</u> that we...'</i></li> </ol>
Exemplify word use	once	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Using word in a sentence to draw attention to its use Teacher: <i>'Towel , towel, we dry our body using towel nhe'</i></li> </ol>

Translation of English words to isiXhosa was the dominant way in which word meanings were brought to the learners' attention. This could possibly be because of the direct nature of the strategy to bring word meaning. Because the word's L1 equivalent is known, most probably in depth, telling the learners the isiXhosa equivalent of a word would mean learners knowing all they know about the word in isiXhosa for the English word. Translation itself had variations and three of those were manifest in Florence's practice as Table 10 indicates. Sometimes in whole utterance translations, there was no one to one correspondence between L1 and L2 words used, because what was translated was the idea not the individual words.

The use of synonyms was also varied. Use of a direct kind as in the first utterance would be easier for learners to match the words which share similar meaning. Synonyms of an implied kind made the comprehensibility of utterances possible but did not lead the learners to the knowledge of which words corresponded with which. The fact that in the example "[W]rite some key words, the important words that we..." there was no emphasis given to the two words 'key' and 'important' by way of repetition, writing them down, or their pairing in the other segments of the lesson had the potential to present a challenge for learners to understand that they were synonymous.

The use of a word in a sentence made the meaning apparent as in the example given, "[T]owel, towel, we dry our body using towel nhe." The initial repetition of the word towel was meant to draw attention to it so that when the sentence was formed, the learners knew it was meant to illustrate the use of the word. Because active word knowledge, which entails

word use, is the highest level of word knowledge the present study focuses on, ability to understand the use of a word would, in most cases, imply word knowledge at the lower levels of word recognition and word meaning. Exemplifications of the use of the vocabulary meaning episodes from the teachers' practices were made to give a picture of how word meanings were mediated in the classrooms.

### *Translation to or from LI*

As indicated earlier, translation was the most visible strategy for teaching word meanings among all the teachers. This explains the greater exemplification that is given to the episode than to the others. The translation took different forms and was at both the level of the word and beyond the word level (phrase or sentence). The excerpt from Alice's practice illustrates translation at the word levels.

145. Teacher: *Holiday*
146. Teacher: *What is a holiday?*
147. Teacher: *What do we mean when we say holiday?*
148. Teacher: *Sithetha ukuthini?*
149. Teacher: *Iholiday sithetha ukuthini?*
150. Teacher: *Kuthiwani xana kusithiwa?*
151. Teacher: *Holiday ngesi Xhosa*
152. Teacher: *Holiday?*
153. Teacher: *Holiday?*
154. Teacher: *Holiday?*
155. Teacher: *Yes boy*
156. Learner: *Iholide*
157. Teacher: *Iholide*
158. Teacher: *Sizaku tyelela eholidayini*
162. Teacher (points to the word visited on the board) *Sonke!*
163. Class: *Visited*
164. Teacher: *Sonke!*
165. Class: *Visited*
166. Class: V
167. Class: I
168. Class: S
169. Class: I
170. Class: T
171. Class: E
172. Class: D
173. Class: *Visited*
174. Teacher: *Uthetha ukuthini uvisited?*
175. Learner: *Ukuhambela*
176. Teacher: *Ukuhambela thank you girl*
177. Teacher: *Thank you very much Masimqwabele*
178. Class: *Grandmother*
179. Class: *Grandmother*

- 180-190. Class: G. R. A.N.D.M.O.T.H.E.R  
 191. Class: *Grandmother*  
 192. Teacher: *Grandmother*  
 193. Teacher: *Uthetha ukuthini ugrandmother*  
 194. Teacher: *Uthetha ukuthini ugrandmother*  
 195. Learner: *Umakhulu*  
 196. Teacher: *Umakhulu*  
 197. Teacher: *Umakhulu*

The pattern was that a word was read by the learners, repeated chorally, and then learners would give the isiXhosa equivalent of the same. This was direct translation where there was a clear one-to-one correspondence between the English word and its isiXhosa equivalent. The same was the case with Henrietta's verbal practices in the following excerpt:

- 3 Teacher: *Imountain yintaba andithi*  
 4 Class: *Yes*  
 5 Teacher: *Imountain yintoni?*  
 6 Class: *Yintaba*  
 7 Teacher: *Imountain yintoni?*  
 8 Class: *Yintaba*  
 9 Teacher: *Yintaba imountain*  
 10 Teacher: *Yintaba imountain*  
 11 Teacher: *Kuthiwa lamanzi asuka umlambho usuka entabeni*  
 12 Teacher: *Yintaba andithi*  
 13 Class: *Yes*  
 14 Teacher: *Andithi*  
 15 Class: *Yes*  
 16 Teacher: *Andithi*  
 17 Class: *Yes*

There was a clear one-to-one correspondence between the English and isiXhosa words. That was not the case for translations at the sentence or phrasal level where the focus was on the translation of utterance meaning not the individual words making up the English utterance. Indirect translations were good for global understanding but not as good for vocabulary development. Dorothy exemplified such translation in the following excerpt of one of her lessons:

736. Teacher: *We are going to change verbs*  
 737. Teacher: *What is a verb?*  
 738. Teacher: *It is wise to understand the meaning of the word verb*  
 739. Teacher: *What is a verb?*  
 740. Teacher: *Yes Msabeli*  
 741. Learner: *A verb is a doing word*  
 742. Teacher: *A verb*  
 743. Class: *A verb is a doing word*  
 744. Teacher: *A verb is a doing word*

745. Teacher: *Ok we are going to change all the doing words from the sentences on the board*
746. Teacher: *Let us read sentence number one*
747. Class: *My mother cook food*
748. Teacher: *Come again*
749. Class: *My mother cook food*
750. Teacher: *Ok*
751. Teacher: *Which word is going to be changed*
752. Teacher: *Which word are we going to change on the board*
753. Teacher: *Hands up*
754. Teacher: *Hands up*
755. Teacher: *Thabo*
756. Learner: *cooked*
757. Teacher: *Leliphi eligama sizakuli tshintsha apho eboardin*
758. Teacher: *Sotshintsha eliphi igama*
759. Teacher: *Ongeziwe yini nondoda*
760. Teacher: *Sotshintsha eliphi igama*
761. Teacher: *Sotshinstha eliphi igama*
762. Teacher: *From the sentence which word are we going to change?*
763. Teacher: *Mmmm Awonke*
764. Learner: *cook*
765. Teacher: *We are going to change cook*
766. Teacher: *We are going to change cook*
767. Teacher: *We are going to change cook*
768. Teacher: *Why?*
769. Teacher: *Why cook?*
770. Teacher: *Why are we going to change cook?*
771. Teacher: *Why*
772. Teacher: *Kutheni nggani?*
773. Teacher: *Kutheni lento ucook funeka simtshintshile?*
774. Teacher: *Besiyi xelile*
775. Teacher: *Ok we are going to change cook because cook is a verb*
776. Teacher: *Cook is a verb*

Dorothy's lines 752-762 have translations of the whole idea behind the question from English to isiXhosa. It is left to the learner to figure out which English word matches which Xhosa word. This is unlike lines 768-773 where it is apparent that the word 'Why' matches with the word 'kutheni'

#### *Word meaning through synonym or antonym*

In a few cases, word meanings were given through synonyms or antonyms. For antonyms and synonyms to mediate word meaning, the synonymous or opposite word to the one being focused on should be generally known. An example of the use of synonymy to bring about word meaning was in the following exchange in Dorothy's class.

1631. Class: *A verb is a doing word*

1632. Teacher: *Ok let us choose verbs from the story*  
 1633. Teacher: *Hands up*  
 1634. Teacher: *Any verb*  
 1635. Teacher: *Yamkela*  
 1636. Learner: *Pool*  
 1637. Teacher: *No*  
 1638. Teacher: *Let me describe a pool*  
 1639. Teacher: *Let me describe let me tell you what is a pool*  
 1640. Teacher: *A pool is similar to a dam*  
 1641. Teacher: *Yinto engathi li dama*  
 1642. Teacher: *But a pool is a place just a place*  
 1643. Teacher: *We may do it at our homes*  
 1644. Teacher: *It's a place for children to swim*  
 1645. Teacher: *Yindawo esiyenzayo lento kuthiwe uve umtu esithi ndiya epoolin*  
 1646. Teacher: *Ndiya epoolin aniyazi nalo pool*  
 1647. Teacher: *It's a place for children to swim nalapha emakhaya lanto iyenziwa*  
 1648. Teacher: *Kwenziwe nje indawu entle isanyentwe lendawu*  
 1649. Teacher: *Kugalelwe amanzi*  
 1650. Teacher: *Sendisitsho kengoku ba nalamanzi afuna ukumane eklinwa sithiwani*  
 1651. Teacher: *Yi pool leyo*  
 1652. Teacher: *A pool is not a verb*  
 1653. Teacher: *Is not a verb I want verb*  
 1654. Teacher: *Let us choose verbs*

Although the explanation of the word 'pool' was given more by analogue (line 1640) than actually by synonym, analogue belonged more to this category than any other categories used. The assumption was that a dam was known by the learners but the pool was not familiar. Because not all aspects of the analogue applied to both words, the teacher identified the distinguishing features between the two in line 1643 where she says that pools can be made at the homes, the same point made in isiXhosa in line 1647. The swimming function of a pool also added to the knowledge of what a pool is. Another manifestation of synonymy was the following exchange in Dorothy's class:

37. Teacher: *Err today we are going to talk about nouns*  
 38. Teacher: *Today we are going to talk about nouns*  
 39. Teacher: *What is the other name for talk?*  
 40. Teacher: *Talk other name*  
 41. Teacher: *Meaning of the word talk*  
 42. Teacher: *Hehehe meaning of the word talk*  
 43. Teacher: *Igama ilithetha inti enye notalk nguanina*  
 44. Teacher: *Meaning of the other word talk*  
 45. Teacher: *Same as*

46. Learner: *Same as speak*
47. Teacher: *Speak*
48. Teacher: *Talk speak*
49. Teacher: *Talk speak*
50. Teacher: *Talk speak*
51. Teacher: *Talk*
52. Class: *Talk speak*
53. Teacher: *Talk*
54. Class: *Talk speak*

The above exchange not only identified ‘talk’ and ‘speak’ as synonymous but also drilled that in the learners through repetition. Another veiled synonym was in Kate’s statements: “*Ok class, before you sit did you enjoy the break heee? Did you enjoy the interval?*” This was more a strategy not of providing word meaning but that of trying to lead learners to another word which means the same as a familiar one. ‘*Interval*’ was not used to explain ‘*break*’ since it was the less familiar of the two.

#### *Exemplification of word use in sentence*

Instances where words were used in sentences in a way which allowed the context to suggest the meaning were very few. Betty’s example; “*She milked a cow yesterday, milked, milked. Usenge inkomo izolo milked*” combined sentence construction with translation to ensure learners’ access to the meaning of the word ‘*milked*’. This vocabulary meaning episode utilized the contextualised approach to vocabulary instruction.

#### *Non-verbal demonstrations of word meaning or use of visual or concrete media*

Christine used gestures and actions to bring clarity to word meaning as in when she said, ‘*When you walk fast you walk like this but when you walk slow you just walk like this as if you are sick*’ and then demonstrated the slow sickly kind of walk. The other instance in Dorothy’s class was when learners were called to demonstrate knowledge of the word ‘*swim*’ by miming the art of swimming. This was a non-linguistic representation of words to make word meaning apparent. Kate also matched words with drawings when she was teaching words with –oo-letters. Unfortunately some of the drawings did not clarify the meaning of the word they were supposed to capture. She made drawings of sofas, table and chair meant to represent the word ‘*room*’ when ‘*furniture*’ would have been more appropriate. A sun shape

was used to explain the word 'noon' and the word 'zoo' was represented by a picture of bus with passengers and an elephant and rhino nearby. The ambiguities that such representations created detracted from the purpose they were intended to serve.

#### *Direct word explanations*

In direct explanation, an English sentence would normally be given explaining the meaning of a word. The directness of the direct explanations was in the prefacing of the explanation with words like '*The word X means...*' or '*X is...*' which left the learners in no doubt that what was coming was the explanation of the identified word. They did not need to infer the word meaning; it was given to them in an overt way. From Dorothy's class the following exchange was representative of direct word explanations:

722. Teacher: *Past tense is when the thing is already done no matter in the morning*  
723. Teacher: *No matter yesterday*  
724. Teacher: *No matter in two thousand and two yinto eseyenzekile ipast tense*  
725. Teacher: *Noba biyenzeke kusasa seyitheni seyenzekile*

The first three lines explained the term past tense without recourse to translation. In direct translation, the learner did not need to make conjectures as to which word was explained or whether words which were given were meant to clarify the unfamiliar word. The provision of word meaning is direct. This vocabulary meaning episode was used mainly in definition of word classes like nouns, tenses, verbs and others by the teachers.

#### *Breaking word into parts to demonstrate its meaning*

As was evident from the strategies for drawing attention to new words, breaking down words into their constituent parts to mediate their meaning was not prevalent in the practice of the teachers. The strategy is however, quite evident in the following verbal practice by Esther:

- 57 Learners: *Fish*  
58 Teacher: *Masifakele ke ku fish u ing*  
59 Teacher: *Izakuba ngubani kengoku*  
60 Learners: *Fishing*  
61 Teacher: *One, two*  
62 Learner: *Fishing*  
63 Teacher: *One, two*  
64 Learner: *Fishing*  
65 Teacher: *The man is fishing. Kanithethe ninke man*  
66 Learners: *The man is fishing*  
67 Teacher: *Heeee*  
68 Learners: *The man is fishing*

- 69 Teacher: *Ingaba lendoda iloba amasele, inyoka*  
70 Learners: *No*  
71 Teacher: *Iloba ntoni*  
72 Learners: *Fish*  
73 Teacher: *What is he fishing?*

From the excerpt above, the assumption was that the word *'fish'* was fairly familiar to most learners but that the word *'fishing'* was not as familiar. The word *'fishing'* could then be made accessible through the word *'fish'*. Although no detailed explanation was entered into the relationship between the two words, the impression was made well that *'fishing'* derived from *'fish'* and that *'fishing'* was an action done by people.

Although a number of episode types were used, the rarity of their visibility in the teachers' lessons was indicative of not enough being done in the classroom to ensure knowledge of word meanings. That translation was the most prominent vocabulary meaning episode meant that the words that got privileged attention were those that had isiXhosa equivalents. The classroom observations also focused on the nature of the model the teacher provided to her learners as a measure of the extent to which the modelling could expedite their vocabulary acquisition.

### **6.4.3 Teacher's Model Use of English**

The teacher's use of the English language was an important feature of the extent to which learners would be expected to acquire the same. Where the language model had serious limitations, the learners would most likely not comprehend the language and be even less likely to acquire the language from the teacher's use of it. Teacher's modelling of the English language was investigated in terms of its suitability and potential to maximize learners' exposure to the English language. Language suitability was itself investigated in terms of the presence or absence of instances where words I regarded as beyond learners' comprehension level were used without being explained and manifest language errors in the teacher's talk.

Nel and Swanepoel (2010, p. 52) investigated the "... possible transference of language deviations and errors in the language usage of ESL teachers to their learners and the similarities in the language deviations of these two groups." They did an error analysis of the teacher-student portfolios. The study, conducted on 800 final year University of South Africa ACE students, found errors in these qualified practicing L2 teachers teaching L2 learners

quite disconcerting. In their study, the student teachers' errors and those of the learners they taught were identified and analysed. The finding was that teachers' errors mirrored learners' errors. Since part of the present study wanted to understand the extent to which the sources of Grade 3 classroom input prepared learners for the linguistic and lexical transitional challenges of Grade 4 reading, this finding actuated the need to examine whether in teachers' modelling of the English language teachers demonstrated considerable proficiency in the language to enable them to successfully model it to their learners. This was particularly pertinent considering that all the ten teachers were second language speakers of English.

The first aspect under the suitability of the teachers' language use was examining the manifest language proficiency of teachers through the presence or absence of errors. Only glaring errors which had the potential to compromise either language comprehension or language acquisition were noted. This was because the focus in the documentation of errors was meant to lead to conclusions about whether the kind of language use in the Grade 3 classrooms prepared them for the linguistic demands of Grade 4. Next within the teacher modelling of the English language was the aspect of the extent to which the language input was comprehensible in terms of it being pegged at the level of understanding of the learners. In that regard, the researcher used own discretion to determine which words were potentially problematic to the learners and whether they were mediated in a way potentially leading to both their acquisition and the comprehensibility of the utterances in which they were used. Data on these two categories of suitability of teacher language modelling is summarised in Table 11.

Table 11: Teacher Modelling of the English Language in Classroom Talk

<u>Grammatical inaccuracies</u>	<u>Potentially problematic words not explained</u>
Florence [19], Alice [5], Christine [7], Dorothy [20], Betty [9], Gladys [6], Jane [8], Kate [3].	Alice [13], Christine [2], Betty [3], Dorothy [8], Kate [4], Florence [3]

Teachers whose talk did not manifest either of the two limitations are not included in the Table. It was apparent from Table 13 that there were more teachers with challenges with English language proficiency than those that were in the habit of using challenging words which they did not follow up on. The same applied to the instances of the manifestations of these two factors in the teachers in whose talk they were noted. What the researcher

considered inconsequential errors were overlooked in the documentation of teachers' errors from their classroom talk.

The two categories related to the suitability of language use are discussed with the data from the teachers that best illustrates each category used for exemplification purposes. See Appendix 8 for a full typical lesson transcript from each teacher.

#### *Grammatical inaccuracies*

The grammatical inaccuracies were manifest in the talk of eight of the ten teachers with the errors in the ninth teacher potentially being masked by her avoidance of the use of English in English FAL lessons. In asking comprehension questions, she made the following errors:

- 46 Teacher: *We all know the monkey andithi?*
- 47 Class: *Yes*
- 48 Teacher: *Where is the monkey stay?*
- 49 Teacher: *Where is the monkey stay?*
- 50 Teacher: *Hands up*
- 51 Teacher: *Where is the monkey stay?*
- 52 Teacher: *Or where do we get monkeys?*
- 53 Teacher: *Hands up*
- 54 Teacher: *Where do we get monkeys?*
- 55 Teacher: *Sizi fumanaphi imonkeys?*
- 56 Teacher: *Where do we get monkeys?*
- 57 Teacher: *Yes [pointing to a learner]*
- 58 Learner: *In a forest*
- 59 Teacher: *Yes, from the forest andithi?*

The questions that the teacher asked potentially confused the learners. They did not sound like questions. In another instance, she also taught that the past tense is used for things that happened yesterday or earlier and the present tense for things that happened today. The definition led her to errors in her exemplification of the present tense in examples like; "*My mother wake up early today andithi? ....But yesterday he woke up very late andithi.*" In the utterances she also introduced a pronoun and for both the tense and pronoun errors learners responded to her '*andithi?*' confirmation check in the affirmative. While Christine was trying to demonstrate the opposites '*slow*' and '*fast*', she introduced and reinforced error in the following exchange:

- 1252. Teacher: *I want Zanekhaya to come forward*
- 1253. Teacher: *and Sanelise to come forward*
- 1254. Teacher: *So this is Zanekhaya and this is Sanelise*
- 1255. Teacher: *Now Zanekhaya I want you to walk slow*
- 1256. Teacher: *Walk slow*

1257. Teacher: *Walk slow*  
 1258. Teacher: *Walk slow*  
 1259. Teacher: *Zanekhaya is walking slowly*  
 1260. Teacher: *Zanekhaya is walking slowly*  
 1261. Teacher: *He is walking slow*  
 1262. Teacher: *He is slow*  
 1263. Teacher: *He is slow*  
 1264. Teacher: *Zanekhaya is slow*  
 1265. Teacher: *He is slow*  
 1266. Teacher: *Now I want you Sanelise to walk fast*  
 1267. Teacher: *Walk fast*  
 1268. Teacher: *Walk fast*  
 1269. Teacher: *Don't look at me just walk*  
 1270. Teacher: *So do you see that there is a difference*  
 1271. Teacher: *between walking slow and walking fast*  
 1272. Teacher: *When you walk fast you walk like this*  
 1273. Teacher: *but when you walk slow you just walk like this as if you are sick*

Initially she said, '*Zanekhaya is walking slowly*' (correct), then changed to, '*he is walking slow*' (error), and later adjusted it to, '*he is slow.*' For convenience of having the two words as *slow* and *fast*, she however, maintained her error and said, '*So do you see that there is a difference between walking slow and walking fast?*' This, to me was not a case of ignorance on the teacher's part but one of introducing error in order to maintain consistence with the structure of the language being taught. This was the same case with Dorothy in one lesson meant to convert sentences from the present to the past tense, where erroneous sentences were given to learners so that by merely changing the verb to its past form, the sentence would become correct. Examples of the sentences given supposedly in the present tense were; '*The dog sleep outside*', '*my mother cook food*' and '*the girl sing*' as in:

970. Teacher: *The dog sleep outside*  
 971. Teacher: *Err sleep we say sleep is a verb*  
 972. Teacher: *Past tense of sleep is*  
 973. Teacher: *Past tense of sleep is*  
 974. Teacher: *Class*  
 975. Class: *slept*  
 976. Teacher: *Again*  
 977. Class: *slept*  
 978. Teacher: *Close your eyes and spell sleep*  
 979. Teacher: *Lithakazi spell sleep*

Several other examples of errors were noted in the teachers' talk which I just list here. From Dorothy came the following utterances: Let us look to the verb; *This sentence is not properly correct*; *Let's do this quick quick*; *Who is the teacher's name? How many sisters have Ayabonga? Who is school at Greentree nursery school? Let us look carefully to the story.*

*Yes, don't forgotten to say yes. What do we mean about past tense?* From the following exchange in Betty's class, erroneous utterances were manifest:

- 157 Teacher: *Do we know the farm class?*  
158 Teacher: *Siyayazi ifama*  
159 Class: *Yes*  
160 Teacher: *What are we going to do at farm?*  
161 Teacher: *What are we doing at farm?*  
162 Teacher: *Don't concentrate to this teacher concentrate at your book*  
163 Teacher: *Look at your book please look at your book*  
164 Teacher: *What are we doing on the farm?*  
165 Teacher: *Class*  
166 Teacher: *Efama kwenzwani?*  
167 Learner: *Kuyoluswa*  
168 Teacher: *Heee? Heee?*  
169 Teacher: *Kuyoluswa*  
170 Teacher: *Kwenzwani efama bethuna*  
171 Teacher: *Efama efama*  
172 Learner: *Kuyoluswa*  
173 Teacher: *Hee hehe kuyoluswa*

Lines 160, 161 and 164 had three different constructions, not as rephrasings of a single idea but as a sign of ignorance of how to frame the question. In the first place, the context for the question was a comprehension passage on which the teacher was trying to ask question. Just that context did not warrant the use of 'we'. The learners either did not perceive the utterances as questions or they could not place the demands it made on them. The learner's one word isiXhosa response only comes in line 167 after the question was put in isiXhosa. This trialling of ways of putting utterances across was further manifest in line 162 where the word 'concentrate', a potentially problematic word, was accompanied by two different prepositions, both of which were wrong. The teacher, lacking proficiency in the language, provided diverse grammatical constructions for the intended exact same utterance and not same idea. This provided wrong and mixed 'signals' to the learners about how certain grammatical constructions were made which potentially confused them. Some of Kate's errors were; '*That is an ink. Do you know an ink?*' '*Yah, painting are using long long time ago.*' '*Can you give another words?*' Jane's included, '*[T]here is brown huts*' and '*what else is at this cover?*' The barrage of grammatical inaccuracies in teacher talk leading to meaning failure in some instances could only militate against the effective acquisition of the language by the learners exposed to it. The related category of the suitability of the words used by the teachers for the learners' level was also considered.

*Potentially problematic words unexplained*

In determining the extent to which the teacher's model use of the language could facilitate learners' own English language acquisition, the complexity of the vocabulary used was examined. The assumption was that teachers would not only use simple language which Grade 3 learners would understand, but also employ some novel words which would extend the learners' own vocabulary repertoire. Those novel words needed to be followed up on in the contexts in which they were employed if comprehensibility of both the words and the utterances in which they were used was not to be compromised. The following two extracts (lines 29-32 and 368-375) from Alice exemplify the use of words which I considered potentially problematic for learners without any attempt being made to clarify their meaning. The words are underlined in the exchanges below:

29. Teacher: *Lusaya concentrate mani listen*
30. Teacher: *Lusaya look at the board*
31. Teacher: *Kholekile thoba isandla*
32. Teacher: *Milking*
368. Teacher: *Yinkunzi ye nkunkhu*
369. Teacher: *Yintoni*
370. Teacher: *Learning is fun. English is fun. English is fun*
371. Teacher: *Isilungu simandi bantwana bam*
372. Teacher: *Let us enjoy English*
373. Teacher: *Let us engage ourselves in English*
374. Teacher: *In what? In English*
375. Class: *In English*

The words '*concentrate*' and '*engage*' potentially hindered comprehension of the utterances in which they were used and the latter was used several times in Alice's lessons. Nothing within the context mediated the meanings of the words. In any case, the learners were supposed to be crafting their response to an earlier instruction for them to spell the word '*miliking*'. The exchange prefigured two challenges to the greater and comprehensible English language input exposure to learners which are discussed in the next section. These are; teachers not giving learners sufficient wait time to process the teachers' utterances and to craft their own response as well as digressions in the learning context. Alice also used the statement, '*[W]e are going to do it practically*' occasionally but whether learners knew what the word meant was doubtful. In Christine's exchange, some potentially difficult words were followed up on while others were not.

1157. Teacher: *What is the difference between the rulers?*
1158. Teacher: *They are not the same*
1159. Teacher: *What is the difference? Yintoni umahluko phakathi kwezi ruler*
1161. Teacher: *What is the difference?*

1162. Teacher: *Emihle*  
 1163. Learner: *enye inde enye incinci.*  
 1164. Teacher: *Yes*  
 1165. Teacher: *This ruler from my right hand side is long. It is long*  
 1167. Teacher: *Now when we talk about a ruler or a pencil we use the word long*  
 1169. Teacher: *Remember, when we talk about a person we say a person is tall*  
 1171. Teacher: *You can't say a person is long when*  
 1172. Teacher: *referring to a person a girl or a boy or when you*  
 1173. Teacher: *are talking to a girl or a boy we use the word tall*  
 1174. Teacher: *Someone is tall we can't say to a person she or he is long*  
 1176. Teacher: *But when we are referring to a ruler, we switch.*  
 1177. Teacher: *We use the word long*  
 1178. Teacher: *So we are using the word long*

In the utterances above, the words 'referring' and 'switch' add to the difficulty of the utterance in which they appear as they are likely unfamiliar to the learners. That the word 'referring' is repeated does not enhance the comprehensibility of the utterance and the word itself. If anything, it potentially hindered the comprehension of both utterances in which it was used. The words 'difference between' which could have been challenging to the learners were explained through the translation given in line 1159. The word 'remember' (line.1169) is not given follow-up which ensures learners understand its meaning and use. From Dorothy, the following utterances were noted as the teacher wanted learners to expand on what a noun is after learners identified it as a name of a person:

92. Teacher: *Ok thank you*  
 93. Teacher: *Second description about a noun*  
 94. Teacher: *Second description about a noun*  
 95. Teacher: *Hayi kalok inoun ayilo gama lomtu kuphela*  
 96. Teacher: *Second description about a noun*

The likelihood of the word description being known was minimal and its repetition three times within the context verbatim did not ensure that it would be understood nor the utterances in which it appeared. Other potentially challenging words she used without following them up were: "Let me describe a pool; Let us describe a noun; No howling x 2; According to your level I want to say you are right according to this level".

An anomaly that manifested itself in some of the teachers' practices, which related to the non-explanation of potentially problematic words, was the explanation of words learners most likely knew. Known words were explained at the expense of the potentially novel ones. An example from Dorothy's practice was:

226. Class: Cows

- 227. Class: Cows
- 228-231. Class: C.O.W.S
- 232. Teacher: Sonke!
- 233-236. Class: C.O.W.S
- 237. Teacher: Sonke!
- 238-241. Class: C.O.W.S
- 242. Teacher: what do we mean when we say cows?
- 243. Teacher: Cows?
- 244. Teacher: Cows?
- 245. Teacher: Cows?
- 246. Teacher: Inkomo

The teacher went to great lengths in following up on the word cow which most probably was known to learners. She had the word repeated, spelt and at the end she gave its isiXhosa equivalent. The habit of explaining easy words was most evident for words that had isiXhosa translations.

Both the linguistic errors in teachers' own language and their lack of attention to potentially problematic words reflected negatively on the quality of input that the learners were exposed to and from which they were expected to develop their own language. The extent of the manifestation of grammatical inaccuracies exceeded that of the use of potentially problematic words without following up on them. The challenge of lack of sound English language proficiency begged the question of the extent to which learners in these classes could develop proficiency in the language to enable them to learn effectively through it. It was a question of the extent to which one can give that which they don't quite possess. The investigation of teacher talk's potential to lead to Grade 3 learners' English language acquisition in general, and the English language vocabulary in particular was extended through an interrogation of the manifest enablers and constraints to quantitative exposure to the language. Whereas the suitability of teachers' language model focused on the quality of input that teacher talk provided, the categories under which constraining and enabling factors are discussed next focused mainly on the quantity of the language input the learners had access to versus that they potentially could access.

#### **6.4.4 Enablers and Constraints to Greater Exposure and Recycling of L2 Vocabulary**

The enabling and constraining factors used as categories in this study were identified from the initial or preliminary observations the researcher made in the Grade 3 classes observed

during the first week reserved for such observations. These were refined with each new observation of a factor the researcher considered as enabling or constraining the amount of vocabulary learners were exposed to. These were then applied to the three video-recorded and transcribed lessons for each teacher. The enabling factors are considered first and these were in the minority compared to the constraining factors.

*Factors enabling greater vocabulary exposure and recycling within teacher-talk*

From the classroom observations, only five different kinds of enabling factors were noted. These were: utilisation of some teachable moments, translation of L1 learner responses into English, encouraging full English sentences by learners, rephrasing instructions and confirmation checks, as well as writing instructions on the board. These are discussed as categories with their manifestations in particular teachers' classroom talk used to illustrate how the factor was enabling. The enabling factors and their manifestation in some teachers' talk are presented in Table 12.

Table 12: Enablers to Greater Vocabulary Exposure and Recycling

Teacher	Enablers
Florence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• utilisation of some teachable moments</li> </ul>
Christine	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• translation of L1 learner responses into English</li> <li>• utilisation of some teachable moments</li> </ul>
Esther	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• encouraging full sentence learner responses in English</li> <li>• rephrasing instructions and confirmation checks</li> <li>• writing instructions on the board</li> </ul>
Dorothy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• utilisation of some teachable moments</li> </ul>
Betty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• utilisation of some teachable moments</li> </ul>
Gladys	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• utilisation of some teachable moments</li> </ul>
Jane	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• repetitions and rephrasing</li> </ul>

The enabling factors were manifest in 7 of the 10 teachers and the utilisation of teachable moments was the most prevalent cutting across 5 of the 7 teachers. The dearth of enabling factors was evident from the fact that only Esther manifested three of the five factors and Christine exhibited two of the factors. The other four teachers demonstrated only one enabling factor each. Some of the enabling factors were manifest once in one teacher's talk. The utilisation of teachable moments was the most common and is discussed first.

Utilisation of some teachable moments

Enabling factors were largely in the form of teachable moments which several teachers used. These were a positive form of digression where the teacher would pursue a language structure

or form as it emerged despite it not having been planned for. Only Alice, Henrietta and Kate out of the 7 teachers did not manifest these in their talk. A similar teachable moment was captured in Kate's and Christine teaching in the following excerpts respectively.

Kate

- 22 Teacher: This is an apple, what is this class?  
23 Class: This is an....  
24 Teacher: No no no no no! Look at me. I've said this is an apple because I can point it I can touch the apple neh? I've said 'this' neh? You are going to say...  
25 Class: That  
26 Teacher: That is an apple. This is an apple, what is this class?  
27 Class: That is an apple  
28 Teacher: This is an apple. What is this class?  
29 Class: That is an apple  
30 Teacher: Very good, can you see this picture, what is it? Noluvuyo

Christine

221. Teacher: What is this?  
222. Teacher: This is a mop  
223. Teacher: What is this?  
224. Class: This is a mop  
225. Teacher: That is a mop because I am lifting it so you  
226. say that because its not nearer you its near me  
227. Teacher: So we say 'that' is a mop  
228. Class: That is a mop  
229. Teacher: Because I am holding it I say this is a mop  
230. Teacher: This is a mop  
231. Teacher: What is this class?  
232. Class: That is ...  
233. Teacher: That  
234. Class: That is a mop  
235. Teacher: What is....  
236. Teacher: This is a mop  
237. Teacher: What is this class?  
238. Class: That is a mop  
239. Teacher: Yes, because it is not near you it is near me  
240. Teacher: so I use 'this' because I'm holding it and the mop  
241. Teacher: is far away from you  
242. Teacher: That is why you... we use the word that  
243. Teacher: That is ah you use and you must point  
244. Teacher: That is a mop point at the mop  
245. Class: That is a mop  
246. Teacher: What is this class?  
247. Class: That is a mop

In both instances, the teacher's focus was not on the teaching of the use of *'this'* and *'that'* but at the end several other words had to be used to clarify the distinction between the two.

For instance, Christine's lesson was on opposites and she had taken a dirty mop and a new one to demonstrate the opposites 'clean' and 'dirty'. The explanation in both cases was the same but the language used was different. In both cases some measure of repetition, question and answer and exposition was done which helped to present and recycle a lot of words. The last utterances by the learners in Christine's class were done pointing to the mop. Apart from learners gaining the knowledge of the use of the two forms, they benefitted from the extra language use necessitated by the teachable moment. A less manifest enabling factor to the exposure of learners to greater English vocabulary and its recycling was the translation of learners' responses from isiXhosa to English by the teacher.

*Translation of L1 learner responses into English*

Where learners had severe challenges with crafting their responses in English, Christine made provision for them to use isiXhosa which, in some instances, she translated to English. This is manifest in the following exchange:

113. Teacher: *Who can come forward and lift up these books*
114. Teacher: *Who can come? Thandokazi come forward*
115. Teacher: *Come forward Thandokazi*
116. Teacher: *Lift these books put them down again*
117. *and take these books* (Learner lifts the books)
118. Teacher: *So what is the difference between*
119. *these books Thandokazi?*
120. Teacher: *In your own language what can you tell me?*
121. Teacher: *In your own language in your home language Xhosa*
122. Teacher: *Ngesi Xhosa ungathi zitheni ezincwadi?*
123. Teacher: *Speak up when you speak you must speak up*
124. Teacher: *Yintoni umahluko phakathi kwezincwadi*
125. *nazi incwadi ubusi phakamisile?*
126. Teacher: *What is the difference yintoni umahluko?*
127. Teacher: *Zohluke kanjani?*
128. Learner: *Utsho ba zincinci*
129. Teacher: *And these are ...*
130. Class: *Small*
131. Teacher: *No they are not small*
132. Learner: *Ezi zinintsi ezi zincinci*
133. Teacher: *These are many and these are few*

In the exchange, lines 120-122 allowed the learner to respond in isiXhosa; line 124 repackages the question in isiXhosa; line 132 has the full response from the learner in isiXhosa which the teacher translates to English in the last line. The probing by the teacher meant greater use of the language through repetition and translation. Repetition and rephrasing of utterances was considered as a factor enabling greater exposure to language.

### *Rephrasing and repetitions*

#### Repetition

Repetition was a key strategy use by most teachers and is exemplified here by the exchange that was captured in one of Betty's lessons

1. Teacher: *Let us turn to page three*  
Teacher: *Err no six ezantsi*
2. Teacher: *What we did on the farm*
3. Class: *What we did on the farm*
4. Teacher: *What we did on the farm*
5. Class: *What we did on the farm*
6. Teacher: *What we did on the farm*
7. Class: *What we did on the farm*

The six words repeated 6 times by both the teacher and the learners (line 2-6) had a total of 36 words which were nothing more than the six words. In terms of exposure to words as operationalised in this study, the 36 words were actually only six words. This was similar to a statement '*what else do you see at the picture?*' in Jane's lesson on object and picture identification, which was recycled over a dozen times but only exposing learners to 8 words, most of which were possibly already part of the oral vocabulary of the majority of learners.

The strategy of rephrasing instructions, questions or confirmation checks was peripherally manifest in teachers' talk. This despite the immense potential rephrasing has for giving learners opportunity to hear the same idea expressed in different ways and hear a more varied vocabulary used in diverse contexts. Repetition, which was used more by most teachers, did not accord learners exposure to greater vocabulary in terms of the present study's definition of word. The balance between rephrasings and repetitions needed to be established. A case of rephrasing was manifest in the following excerpt from one of Esther's lessons:

- 455 Teacher: *Do you hear me?*
- 456 Class: *Yes we hear you*
- 457 Teacher: *Do you understand?*
- 458 Class: *Yes we understand*
- 459 Teacher: *Do you get me?*
- 460 Class: *Yes we get you*

In the exchange above, Esther used a different word for each of her three confirmation checks and in each instance the learners responded accordingly and in full sentences. It was evident from the learners' responses that the three forms of confirmation checks were used in the class often. The rephrasings broadened the English vocabulary of her learners. In another lesson, she used rephrasing to good effect in: '*Write your own sentence in the present continuous tense. Write it down, your own sentence. Form your own sentence in the present continuous tense yakha esakho isivakalisi.*' There was the initial instruction, followed by a rephrasing and breaking down of the same utterance into parts, then a rephrasing of the whole utterance which culminated in a translated version of the same utterance. The learners in such utterances were exposed to different ways of saying the same thing and ultimately to broader vocabulary. The encouragement of learners to communicate in full sentences which was the instruction rephrased by Esther above was also examined in teacher talk.

#### *Encouraging full English sentences by learners*

Although the focus of this section of the study is on vocabulary made available to learners, the vocabulary they used helped in their development of greater vocabulary and also became input for the other learners. This is the basis of Swain's (2005) output hypothesis which sees the compulsion of learners to produce output as playing a crucial role in the acquisition of a language.

Esther's practice again exemplified the strategy of encouraging full sentence construction by the learners. She encouraged learners' encoding of output beyond the word level. A strategy she employed was that of asking learners a question and then giving the clue to how the answer should begin as in, '*What is the man holding? The man....*' The learners knew they did not have the option of a single word response. This use of language at the sentence level meant more use of words by both the teacher and the learners.

This was not without its own drawbacks. While the clue also served to guide the learners into how to craft their responses, it limited the options they had of phrasing their responses to one which the teacher would have privileged and provided. It also in a way put learners under pressure to respond as it gave the indication that there was no wait time for them to craft their response as part of the answer was already out there. This could potentially interfere with their processing of the question and their response. However, the strategy resulted in learners who were able to respond to questions in complete sentences which were grammatical as in:

Teacher: *'What is the man holding?'*  
Learners: *'The man is holding an umbrella.'*

The same principle of encouraging full sentence responses was employed by Jane in the following utterances:

9 Teacher: *What is the colour of my dog? What is the colour of my dog?*  
10 Learner: *Black*  
11 Teacher: *The colour of the dog is black*  
12 Teacher: *Let's all say the colour of the dog is black*  
13 Learner: *The colour of the dog is black*

The strategy was however, different from Esther's. Here the teacher would give the whole utterance for learners to repeat whereas Esther just gave the beginning part of the response. In both, however, the purpose was to have responses in full sentences. Writing instructions on the board which is discussed next as another strategy observed as enabling greater vocabulary exposure also modelled the use of full sentences to the learners.

#### *Writing instructions on the board*

Diversifying ways of putting across the same idea enriches learners' word knowledge. The writing of vital instructions on the chalkboard helped to expose the vocabulary in the instructions in multimodal forms. An example was Esther's *'[W]rite three sentences in the present continuous tense'* which learners could read and make constant reference to. Learners could have heard the words *'sentences'*, *'present'*, *'continuous'* and *'tense'* several times but without recognizing their written form. Their representation in written form therefore did not only expose learners to more vocabulary, but it also exposed learners to language used orally in a written form.

None of the factors that were noted as facilitating greater language exposure were manifest extensively across teachers or used extensively by a particular teacher. The constraining factors were however, more widespread among the teachers. These factors constraining the amount of vocabulary that learners could potentially get from the teacher are the subject of the next discussion.

#### *Factors constraining greater English vocabulary exposure and recycling*

Factors that were observed as militating against the use of more language in the classroom and its recycling were: use of a single word, short phrase or non-word utterances, habitual

reliance on L1, activities not extending language skills or content acquisition, frequent and long digressions, teacher responding to own questions, teacher not following-up on incorrect responses, incomplete utterances, and incoherent presentations. Table 14 presents manifestations of these factors in teachers' classroom talk for the three lessons video-recorded.

Table 13: Constraints to Greater Vocabulary Exposure and Recycling

Teacher	Constraints
Florence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• use of single word, short phrase or non-word utterances</li> <li>• activities not extending language skills or content acquisition</li> <li>• incomplete utterances</li> </ul>
Alice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• frequent and long digressions,</li> <li>• use of single word, short phrase or non-word utterances</li> <li>• teacher responding to own questions</li> </ul>
Christine	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• teacher not following-up on incorrect responses</li> <li>• use of single word, short phrase or non-word utterances</li> </ul>
Esther	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• habitual reliance on L1</li> <li>• use of single word, short phrase or non-word utterances</li> </ul>
Dorothy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• habitual reliance on L1</li> <li>• incoherent presentations</li> <li>• use of single word, short phrase or non-word utterances</li> <li>• incomplete utterances</li> </ul>
Betty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• habitual reliance on L1</li> <li>• use of single word, short phrase or non-word utterances</li> </ul>
Gladys	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• habitual reliance on L1</li> <li>• use of single word, short phrase or non-word utterances</li> </ul>
Jane	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• answering own questions</li> <li>• incomplete utterances</li> <li>• single word, short phrase or non-word utterances</li> </ul>
Henrietta	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• habitual reliance on L1</li> </ul>
Kate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• use of single word, short phrase or non-word utterances</li> <li>• habitual reliance on L1</li> </ul>

The use of single word, short phrase or non-word utterances was exhibited by all the ten teachers and to a large extent making it the most prevalent factor constraining the language learners had potential to be exposed to in the classroom. The second most widespread constraint was the use of isiXhosa in a habitual manner and not as a way of trying to enhance clarity of communication. It was manifest in six of the ten teachers' classroom talk. The other constraining factors were apparent in fewer teachers' talk. Because the use of single word, short phrase or non-word utterances was widespread among teachers, it is discussed first, is given greater space and more exemplification than the subsequent factors.

*Use of single word, short phrase or non-word utterances*

Using single words, non-words or short phrases where full sentences could be used denied learners the opportunity of encountering the other words that were left unsaid. If the words, which could have been said but were not said were unknown to the learners, their omission reduced the chances of them being acquired by the learners.

In some exemplifications of the economy with which words are used and to demonstrate the amount of language the learners were denied, what was said was juxtaposed against what could have been said. Gladys' talk with her class exemplified the use of one word, short phrase and non-word utterances as indicated in the excerpt below:

- 83 Teacher: *What else do you see in the picture?*  
84 Teacher: *What else do you see in the picture?*  
85 Class: *A boy*  
86 Teacher: *A what?*  
87 Class: *A boy*  
88 Teacher: *How many boys do you see?*  
89 Class: *One*  
90 Teacher: *One...?*  
91 Class: *One boy*  
92 Teacher: *One boy*  
93 Teacher: *The boy. How many boys now?*  
94 Class: *Two boys*  
95 Class: *Two boys*  
96 Teacher: *Hhe?*  
97 Class: *Two boys*  
98 Teacher: *What did we say at first?*  
99 Class: *One boy*  
100 Teacher: *One boy*  
101 Teacher: *Then?*  
102 Class: *Two boys*  
103 Teacher: *Two boys. Very good. Very good*  
104 Teacher: *That's it. Where are we? (Points to the word)*  
105 Class: *Foot (Teacher points to the word again)*  
106 Class: *Foot*  
107 Teacher: *Hhe?*  
108 Class: *Foot*  
109 Teacher: *What is this?*  
110 Class: *Foot*  
111 Teacher: *A what?*  
112 Class: *Foot*  
113 Teacher: *Foot*  
114 Class: *Foot*  
115 Teacher: *Foot nhe?*  
116 Class: *Yes teacher*  
117 Teacher: *Then?*

The above exchange does not use much vocabulary because of the single word utterances, the non-words and the short phrase utterances. In the first instance, all the learners' responses were either one word utterances or two word phrases. This did not push them to generate language and acquire more language from their own and other learners' output. The teacher employed one word utterances like her question 'One...?' on line 90 and the question 'Then?' on lines 101 and 117. The same was true for the question 'Hhe?' on lines 96 and 117. The 'Hhe?' and the 'nhe?' on line 115 are both non-words which took the place of real words and full utterances that could have been used. For the 'Hhe?' words like 'What did you say?' 'I did not quite get you', 'say that again', 'say that one more time' among other possible constructions. In place of the word 'nhe?' the teacher could have said, 'is that not so' to which learners would say, 'it is'. The teacher's questioning is characterised by great economy of words to the detriment of amount of vocabulary exposure. Even the phrasing of the full sentence questions utterances could be rephrased to ask exactly what they intended to and in a manner which employed more vocabulary. On line 104, Gladys said, '[W]here are we?' when what she actually meant was 'Which word are we going to look at next?' or '[W]hich word are we reading next?' Either of these options or any other would have captured the essence of the question and have exposed learners to greater vocabulary. As it was, it was the pointing to the word 'foot' that gave the meaning the teacher intended and not the words themselves. For line 93, adding the words 'are there' to the utterance '[H]ow many boys now?' would have enhanced its grammaticality as well as added more vocabulary. The addition of 'there' could clarify to the learners the distinction between the pronunciation of the words 'there', 'their' and 'they'.

The next excerpt from one of Esther's lessons further illustrates the economy of language use in the classroom. The exchange went as follows:

- 375 Teacher: *Kutheni lento eno are?*  
 376 Learners: *Kuba baninzi*  
 377 Teacher: *Hhe?*  
 378 Learners: *Ngabantwana baninzi*  
 379 Teacher: *Many...*  
 380 Learners: *Many children*  
 381 Teacher: *One, two*  
 382 Learners: *Many children*  
 383 Teacher: *Yilo lento sisebenzisa u 'are' ubani?*  
 384 Learners: *U are*

- 385 Teacher: *So nethi umsebenzise u are dont forget*  
 386 *to add ing to the verb don't Forget ukufakela u ing*  
 387 *kwi verb uAkhona use are, masibhudeni man awuzobetwa*  
 388 Learners: *Milile and Zukhanye are shouting*  
 402 Teacher: *For the last time use are, for the last time*  
 403 *use are, Spiwokuhle*  
 404 Learner: *Inga and ...*  
 405 Teacher: *Use they, use they, masibahloniphe kengoku ababantu*  
 406 Learner: *They are...*  
 407 Teacher: *Benzani mntanam?*  
 408 Learner: *Hamba*  
 409 Teacher: *Uhamba ngubani kanene?*  
 410 Learners: *Walking*  
 411 Teacher: *One, two, one, two*  
 412 Learners: *Walking*

In the exchange, Esther used her words sparingly and used words in novel ways where the words 'one two!' were used by the teacher and understood by the learners to mean 'say that once again', 'repeat the word', 'say it one more time' among many other possible constructions. The words 'that, once, again, it, more, time' in these possible utterances were all part of the 60 HFW which were tested on the same learners the following year and their use would have made them really familiar to the learners. Esther used the words 'one two!' extensively to incite choral repetition. She relied on these words and non-words so much that the learners knew what was expected of them whenever each kind was used. Such words had become part of classroom discourse. They did not compromise comprehensibility of input but they reduced the amount of input used.

The same excerpt manifested Esther's considerable use of the L1 which reduced the amount of English language that could potentially have been used in the classroom, which was the next most prevalent constraining factor to much language exposure among teachers.

#### *Habitual reliance on the L1*

Habitual reliance on isiXhosa was manifest where the teacher had options to express herself in English words simple enough for learners to comprehend. Such was manifest in Henrietta's language use in the following excerpt:

- 68 Learner: *Foot*  
 69 Teacher: *Nyanisile. Omnye*  
 70 Learner: *Good*  
 71 Teacher: *Good umiss naye abhale pha encwadini yakhe abhale bani*  
 72 Class: *Good*

- 73 Teacher: *Elandelayo*
- 74 Learner: *Goose*
- 75 Teacher: *Yabona naye phaya solathisele Thozama, heke yabona ba kukho o oo ababini*
- 76 Class: *Yes miss*
- 77 Teacher: *Kwafuneka ujonge kum ke andiyazi ujonge ntoni apho*
- 78 Learner: *Zoo*
- 79 Teacher: *Zoo sawuya e zoo, phi?*
- 80 Class: *E zoo*
- 81 Teacher: *Ndakubetha Siphosethu, zoo ewe*
- 82 Learner: *Door*
- 83 Teacher: *Door unyanisile, Thandokazi*
- 84 Learner: *Doll*
- 85 Teacher: *Uthandokazi uthi doll*
- 86 Class: *No maam*
- 87 Teacher: *Yava bathi no ke*
- 88 Learner: *Foot*
- 89 Teacher: *Uthi foot, ndisekhona Thanduxolo*
- 90 Learner: *Floor*
- 91 Teacher: *Floor ok, khona elinye funeka abemayi ten, basiwabale mangaphi*
- 92 Class: *One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight*
- 93 Teacher: *Heke*
- 94 Learner: *Food*
- 95 Teacher: *Food, unyanisile food, Ayabonga*
- 96 Learner: *School*
- 97 Teacher: *Unyanisile*
- 98 Class: *Yes miss*
- 99 Teacher: *Unyanisile, school*
- 100 Class: *Khona elinye maam*
- 101 Teacher: *Isithuba siphelile ngoku*
- 102 Learner: *Tooth*
- 103 Teacher: *Unyanisile, khannenze isivakalisi, kanenze isivakalisi ngalamagama. I went to the zoo*
- 104 Class: *I went to the zoo*
- 105 Teacher: *Esakho isivakalisi*
- 106 Learner: *The book is on the chair, the book is on the chair*
- 107 Teacher: *Unyanisile heke right esinye isivakalisi, isentence, the book is on the chair unyanisile. Enye I sentence, ithini enye? Sithini esinye isivakalisi?*
- 108 Learner: *I go to school*
- 109 Teacher: *Ok unyanisile ke go to school ewe, ithini enye Aphiwe, kwaza Aphiwe,*
- 110 Learner: *The door is open*
- 111 Teacher: *Uthini u Aphiwe*
- 112 Class: *The door is open*
- 113 Teacher: *Unyanisile okay esinye isivakalisi, usebenzise eli igama uAphiwe ne, heke usebenzise udoor*
- 114 Learner: *I look the hippo*

In the exchange above where learners were identifying words with ‘oo’ letters and later using them in sentences, learners used more English than the teacher which meant the teacher’s use

of isiXhosa was not meant to make the learners understand the teacher's communication. The word '*unyanisile*' which the teacher used frequently in the classroom for almost every correct response from a learner replaced potential constructions like '*you are right*', '*that is correct*', '*that is true*', among others. For line 69 for instance, the words '*Nyanisile. Omnye*' could have been two possible English utterances like '*That is correct. Let's have another sentence from someone else*' or '*Can someone give us his or her own word.*' Few limitations in the language modelling identified in other teachers' language use were manifest in Henrietta's class because there was very little use of the English language on her part.

Reliance on isiXhosa was also quite manifest in Alice's practice as the following excerpt shows:

- 214. Class: *We get milk from cows*
- 215. Teacher: *Silufumanaphi ubisi?*
- 216. Class: *Ezinkomeni*
- 217. Teacher: *Silufumana ubisi ezinkomeni*
- 218. Teacher: *Jongani epicturen ubona ntoni epicturen*
- 219. Learner: *Unomsa esenga inkomo*
- 220. Teacher: *What do you see in the picture?*
- 221. Teacher: *Unomsa wenza ntoni?*
- 222. Class: *Usenga inkomo*
- 223. Teacher: *Nomsa is milking the cows*
- 224. Teacher: *Nomsa is milking the cows*
- 225. Teacher: *Unomsa usenga inkomo*
- 276. Class: *Butter*
- 277. Teacher: *Sonke*
- 278. Class: *Butter*
- 279. Teacher: *Thetha ukuthini uthetha ukuthini ubutter?*
- 280. Teacher: *Nzakhe ndini bone xana ibutter ningayazi*
- 281. Teacher: *Ibutter xana ningayazi*
- 282. Teacher: *Sikhosikho*
- 283. Teacher: *Hhi?*
- 284. Learner: *Kukombhatha*
- 285. Teacher: *Unyanisile?*
- 286. Learner: *No maam*
- 287. Teacher: *Ithini ibutter kwathini?*
- 288. Teacher: *What do I mean by butter?*
- 289. Learner: *Butternut*
- 290. Teacher: *Butternut*
- 291. Teacher: *Yes. Yes*
- 292. Teacher: *Nantsika yolokazi*
- 293. Learner: *Kukutya kwenyosi*
- 294. Teacher: *Kukutya kwenyosi butter*
- 295. Teacher: *Butter*
- 296. Learner: *Ibhabhathane*

The instruction and question ‘*[J]ongani epicturen ubona ntoni epicturen?*’ on line 218 could easily have been represented thus; ‘*Look at the picture and tell me what you can see on it.*’ ‘*What does the word butter mean?*’ could also have been used in place of ‘*[T]hetha ukuthini uthetha ukuthini ubutter?*’ The same applied for most of the isiXhosa constructions that the teacher used.

The following were some of the IsiXhosa words which were extensively used by most of the teachers vis-a vis their possible English equivalents learners could understand: *handithi?* (Is that not so?), *kwakhona* (again), *uyandivha* (Do you hear me?), *pakama* (stand up), *nonke!* (All of you together!), *sonke* (all of us together!), *neh?* (Is it not so?), *uqibile?* (Are you through?), *mamela* (listen), *siyevana?* (Do we hear each other well), *sithethu thini?* (What do we mean?), *sisonke?* (Are we together?), and many more. It was interesting to note that in these twelve English translations of the isiXhosa words which were used by the teachers, there were seventeen words which the present study tested on the learners which learners were denied access to by the use of the twelve isiXhosa words. The thirteen isiXhosa words above had English translations amounting to 27 words; slightly above twice as much. The economy of word use that was accorded by the isiXhosa words used could have been the initial motivating factor for the use of the isiXhosa words, until for most teachers it becomes habitual. That most of the isiXhosa words identified above were confirmation checks spoke to the preponderance in the use of the L1 to confirm learner understanding. Confirmation checks were quite frequent in teacher classroom talk and so giving them in isiXhosa deprived learners of valuable English vocabulary that could be recycled with greater frequency. Equally working against the adequate exposure of learners to the English language was the use of activities that extended neither the language nor content knowledge of the learners.

#### *Activities not extending language skills or content acquisition*

Activities in the classroom should extend both the language and the content knowledge of the learners at best, or either at the least. Florence’s introductory activity in her first of the three video-recorded lessons exemplified a lesson’s lack of relevance to both the linguistic and content dimensions. The lesson went thus;

- 1      Teacher: *Today first of all we are going to introduce ourselves nhe?*
- 2      Class: *Yes*
- 3      Teacher: *We are going to introduce ourselves nhe?*
- 4      Class: *Yes*
- 5      Teacher: *What is your name?*

- 6 Learner: *My name is Azola*  
 7 Teacher: *What is your name?*  
 8 Learner: *My name is Sibabalwe*  
 9 Teacher: *What is your name?*  
 10 Learner: *My name is Mawethu*  
 11 Teacher: *What is your name?*  
 12 Learner: *My name is Mpumelelo*  
 13 Teacher: *What is your name?*  
 14 Learner: *My name is Sanelise*  
 15 Teacher: *What is your name?*  
 16 Learner: *My name is Khanyisa*  
 17 Teacher: *What is your name?*  
 18 Learner: *My name is Delese*  
 19 Teacher: *What is your name?*  
 20 Learner: *My name is siph*  
 21 Teacher: *What is your name?*  
[Pattern went like that for all the 13 learners in the class]  
 39 Teacher: *Thank you my class, thank you thank you*  
 40 Teacher: *Now we are going to read a story*

In the exchange above, no genuine communication took place as the teacher knew the learners' names and they also knew each other's names. Not much language was used either, as the teacher's main question used the same four words and the learners' response to it used the same three words and their own name. Effectively, only the words 'What, is, your, name, my' were used in the '[W]hat is your name? My name is...' construction. Digressions in teacher talk also potentially compromised acquisition of both the language and the content.

#### *Frequent and long digressions*

Sometimes digressions were as a result of the teacher's impatience leading to her not granting the learners sufficient time to comprehend the question or instruction as well as time to craft their response. Dorothy did not give learners adequate silent opportunity to process whatever question she would have given. She kept talking and her talk became distracting. The exchange below is illustrative of this idiosyncratic practice on Dorothy's part.

60. Teacher: *What is a noun?*  
 61. Teacher: *This side*  
 62. Teacher: *This side*  
 63. Teacher: *Be there for your group*  
 64. Teacher: *Be there for your group*  
 65. Teacher: *What is a noun?*  
 140. Teacher: *Give any example of a thing*  
 141. Teacher: *Any example of a thing*  
 142. Teacher: *This row. Stand in for your row*  
 143. Teacher: *Stand for your row*

144. Teacher: *Stand for your row*  
145. Teacher: *Any example of a thing*

The question was possibly lost sight of and frequent exposure of learners to such digressions would hinder both the language acquisition and comprehension as a barrage of input would be coming without the mind being allowed to process any of it. The effect of digressions on the learners' exposure to the target language was manifest in Betty's practice as shown below.

- 157 Teacher: *Do we know the farm class?*  
158 Teacher: *Siyayazi ifama?*  
159 Class: *Yes*  
160 Teacher: *What are we going to do at farm?*  
161 Teacher: *What are we doing at farm?*  
162 Teacher: *Don't concentrate to this teacher concentrate at your book*  
163 *Look at your book please look at your book*  
164 Teacher: *What are we doing on the farm?*  
175 Teacher: *On the farm there are some cows there are some errr*  
176 Teacher: *Take out your chappies please*  
177 Teacher: *Take out your chappies*  
178 Teacher: *Read this book. Which book is this?*  
179 Learner: *Thina*  
180 Teacher: *Hhe? Thina*  
181 Teacher: *Ok take this book turn to page 6*  
182 Teacher: *At farm on the farm there are some cows nhe?*  
183 Teacher: *On the farm there are some...Look at the picture*  
184 Teacher: *Look at the picture. Everybody look at the picture*  
185 Teacher: *Do you want a book? A book?*  
186 Jabulani: *Hayi no*  
187 Teacher: *There are some tractors on the farm there are some peas*  
188 Teacher: *There are some some some some herbs nhe*  
189 Class: *Yes*

Lines 162 and 163, introduced a digression and the one from line 176 to 181 the track of the lesson was potentially lost and the teacher tried to revert back to her original intent of identifying pictures of things on the farm from line 182 but before line 183 ended another digression was introduced. The digressions were addressed to particular learners which meant that the rest of the class was not obliged to attend to that input. Where the digressions were long and frequent and not meant to clarify some aspect related to what was learnt, as was the case with teachable moments, they possibly confused the learners to the extent that they ceased to attend to the teacher's input. That then compromised the likelihood of learners acquiring the language from the teacher talk.

In one of her longest digression, which is not included in the appendix, Jane remonstrated with a late comer on and on and lost both her track and the learners in the process. Although in that particular incident she used English, the other learners were not obliged to be attentive as the communication was not addressed to them. The excerpt above, from Betty's practice, also indicated her habit of doing for learners what they had potential to do for themselves. She initially wanted learners to identify things at a farm from the pictures in the book but ended up doing the task herself. That practice was similar to the constraint of teachers' responding to their own questions.

#### *Teacher responding to own questions*

An example of the teacher responding to her own questions is manifested in the following talk by Dorothy:

- 559. Teacher: *Kalok udrank uyintoni?*
- 560. Teacher: *Uyintoni? Uyi past tense. Ka bani? Ka drink*
- 561. Teacher: *Uyi past tense. Ka bani? Ka drink*

The teacher gave a question and did not allow sufficient wait time for learners to craft their responses but went ahead to answer her own questions. Giving clues and allowing learners to come up with their responses however wrong, would have excited dialogue and led to more language input. Translated the excerpt would be '[w]hat is drank?' A rephrasing of the question could have led to the crafting of two sentences like '[F]rom which word does the word drank come?' 'What tense is the word 'drank' then?' If they still failed the teacher could have gone ahead and said between 'drink' and 'drank' one was the past tense of the other or even have given the analogy of 'sing' and 'sang' if learners were familiar with them. This would have recycled much vocabulary and would have been a good teachable moment. As it was, the teacher went on to say, 'uyintoni? Uyi past tense ka bani? Ka drink. [What is it? It is the past tense. Of which word? Of drink]. A related constraint in terms of the teachers failing to take advantage of teachable moments was in not following-up on incorrect responses.

#### *Teacher not following-up on incorrect responses*

The failure to follow up when learners gave incorrect responses deprived the learners of the language they could have been exposed to had the follow-up been made. In Betty's class this lack of follow-up was exhibited when after a learner identified the past tense of 'give' as 'gived', the teacher only noted that the response was incorrect but did not take the

opportunity to explain the overgeneralisation accounting for the commission of the systematic error. The explanation could have pointed out how the learner's response would have been true had the word in question been, for example 'live', but how it did not apply to this and other words. In the process, much language input would have been used and even recycled. Incomplete sentences also militated against the amount of language exposure the learners gained from the teacher talk.

#### *Incomplete utterances*

Esther had learners spelling words quite often even where the focus of the lesson was not word spelling. The excerpts that were used from her talk in the preceding categories testify to the extensive role the spelling of words had in her lessons. In instructing learners to spell particular words, Esther almost always used the phrase, 'how to spell...' without variation. This potentially restricted learners to the three words which themselves, did not capture the demand that they make in a grammatically correct way.

Dorothy used incomplete sentences extensively, especially for questioning and giving instructions. Although learners had no problems understanding what was expected of them, the effect was depriving the learners of the greater amount of vocabulary that came with the full grammatical constructions of the utterances. Because the sentences had missing words, it meant learners' lack of exposure to the words that they could have had exposure to. The command 'Piece of chalk please. Coloured chalk, coloured chalk' limited the vocabulary that the learners potentially stood to benefit from had the teacher said, 'Can someone please bring me a piece of chalk. I want coloured chalk not white chalk.' From eight words, there was potential for seventeen words being used. In the expansion of the phrases given by the teacher above, a clue to the meaning of the word coloured is given in the process. Apart from increasing the quantity of vocabulary input learners are exposed to, the rephrased statement gave a clue to word meaning, socialised learners to the right language register for making requests and gave sufficient context from which word meanings could be guessed. An example from the rephrased requests is how the word 'bring' could potentially be understood from the way it was used in the first sentence. The coherence of presentations had potential to affect the acquisition of language, particularly the recycling of particular words.

### *Incoherent presentations*

Incoherent presentations were most manifest in Dorothy's lessons. All her three lessons lacked coordination in the activities. One lesson was on nouns but it digressed into days of the week, into tenses [which belongs to the realm of verbs] then to punctuation marks. Because there was no link in the activities, there was no particular kind of vocabulary that got used and recycled. Another lesson progressed as a question and answer session with the teacher asking pupils their names, where they live and repeating the answers. Because no authentic communication was taking place, not much vocabulary was generated in the talk. Where several learners' names were asked their responses was just the same wording with the differences only being the names. There was much repetition of such utterances which did not communicate information and so not much new vocabulary got used. The series of questions were unrelated. Sentences were then presented, not from the question and answer, and from these learners would pick up verbs. Where no link between lesson activities was evident, the recycling of words to ensure learners' exposure to each one with some measure of frequency was hindered. This pattern characterised all the three lessons to the extent that sometimes one would not be able to identify what a particular lesson was actually about.

Factors constraining the exposure of more vocabulary to learners were more varied than those facilitating it. They were also more manifest in teachers' practices where they were more evident than enabling factors. Exposure of learners to more vocabulary was also examined through a quantification of the vocabulary that was actually used in the teacher talk.

#### **6.4.5 Extent of English Vocabulary Exposure in Classroom Teacher Talk**

This section presents in quantified form, the extent to which the English language featured in teacher talk in the English FAL classroom. The figures presented in this section emanated from a word count of the words in each teacher's three video-recorded and transcribed lessons. The word count was done by the AntConc software. Because the focus was to establish the amount of vocabulary in teacher talk to get a picture of the extent to which teacher talk potentially impacted L2 acquisition, learners' responses were removed from the teacher talk samples. The AntConc program generated the words in terms of the token and type word constructs. As discussed in Chapter 3 of the study, when one counts word tokens, one counts each single word used, no matter which word it is and no matter how many repetitions of the same word there are. Where the word 'and' appeared ten times, the token construct counted it as ten words. The word as type count on the contrary, only counted a

word once no matter the number of times it appeared in the text. Too much variation between the token and the type would indicate that many different words were used without being repeated. Where the variation was small, it would mean fewer words were used but they were repeated quite often.

The greater the variability between the type and the token, the greater was the repetition of the same words in the teacher talk. Where the variability was lower, it signified less repetition of the same words and use of different words. The relationship between the number of types and the number of tokens is known as the type-token ratio (TTR). The ideal or normal TTR should be approximately 51.1% and is calculated as follows: type-token ratio = (number of types/number of tokens) \* 100. The TTR was used just to give a picture of the frequency and variation in teacher talk. This notwithstanding the acknowledgement that measures of lexical diversity are sensitive to the length of the text (Koizumi, 2012, p. 60). Longer texts had greater likelihood of using more varied words than shorter texts. The higher the TTR, the greater the lexical variation; and the lower the TTR, the less the lexical variation. Table 14 and Figure 4 present the amount of words that were used by each of the teachers in the three lessons in terms of the number of word tokens and word types.

Table 14: The Type-Token Ratio of Teachers' Classroom Talk

Teacher	Types	Tokens	Type Token Ratio (%)
Dorothy	870	6833	12.7
Henrietta	546	1477	37.0
Kate	821	4036	20.3
Christine	590	8002	7.4
Jane	312	1847	16.9
Gladys	639	3460	18.5
Betty	479	2014	23.8
Esther	916	3843	23.8
Alice	504	1178	42.8
Florence	612	4089	15.0

The quantity of input that teacher talk exposed learners to in each teacher's three lessons combined is shown for each teacher. This is the amount of input that teacher talk provided to contribute to the target of 2500 English word repertoire learners should be in possession of by the end of Grade 3 (CAPS, 2011). The highest quantity of teacher talk was 8002 tokens for three lessons (Christine's teacher talk) and the least was 1178 tokens for three lessons. The

highest and lowest amounts of teacher talk averaged 2667 and 393 word tokens per lesson. Figure 5 presents the same data in graphic form.

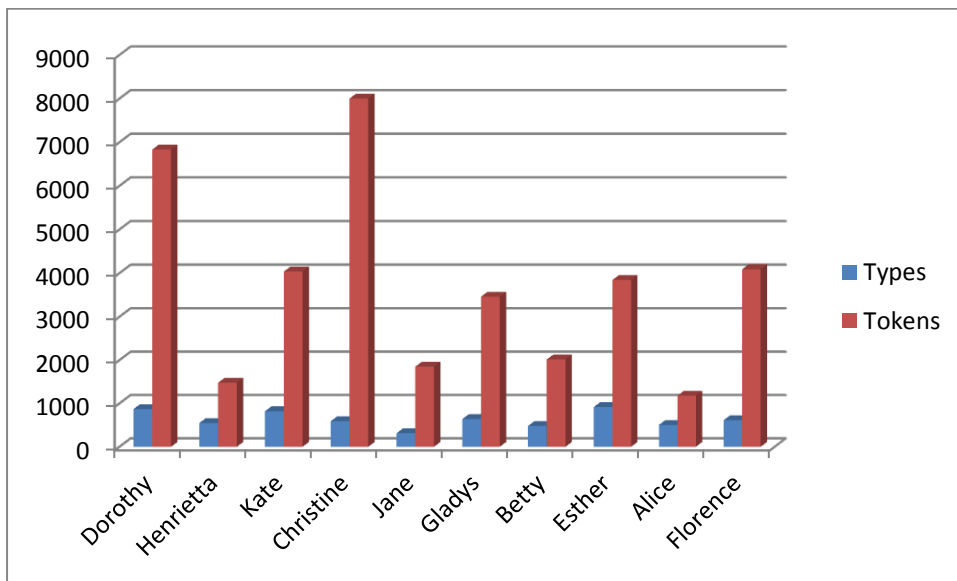


Figure 5: The Type-Token Ratio of Teachers' Classroom Talk

Table 14 and Figure 5 indicate the ratio of types to tokens in each teacher's classroom talk. The greater the variability between the types and tokens, the less was the recycling of the same words within the teacher talk. None of the teacher talk reached 50%+ in terms of the TTR which meant that the teachers apparently used many words (tokens) but recycled very few of the words that they used (types). Both the amount of vocabulary exposure and extent of word recycling are necessary for the development of learner vocabulary. Alice and Henrietta, who had the highest TTR of 42.8% and 37%, had the least amount of vocabulary used and Christine and Dorothy who had the highest and third highest amount of word tokens, had the least and second least TTR respectively.

The vocabulary exposure reflected in Table 14 and Figure 5 included English words, isiXhosa words and words where a part was English and another was isiXhosa; words I refer to here as mixed words. An example of a mixed word used by one teacher is '*readani*' for '*read*'. The '*read*' is English and the inflection '*-ani*' is isiXhosa for '*do*' so the coined form would literally translate to '*do read*'. Because the present study was concerned with the Grade 3 learners' exposure to English, it was important to establish each teacher's word distribution per language. Table 15 and Figure 6 present that distribution per teacher.

Table 15: Distribution of Teachers' Words by Language

Teacher	Tokens	English	% Eng. use	Mixed	isiXhosa
Dorothy	6833	5847	86	24	962
Henrietta	1477	745	50	12	720
Kate	4036	3034	75	18	984
Christine	8002	6874	86	20	1108
Jane	1847	1332	72	19	496
Gladys	3460	2700	78	18	742
Betty	2014	1455	72	22	537
Esther	3843	3085	80	28	730
Alice	1178	669	57	13	496
Florence	4089	3399	83	46	644

The word distribution according to language was calculated on the AntConc results of each of the teachers' combined three lessons. The frequencies of all isiXhosa words were added as were those of all the mixed words. The total words and frequencies from the two groups were added and subtracted from the total word tokens to get the number of words which were English. The figures in Table 15 indicate dominant usage of English by most teachers with the majority of teachers' use of English being above 70% of the total language used. Figure 6 presents the same information on a column graph.

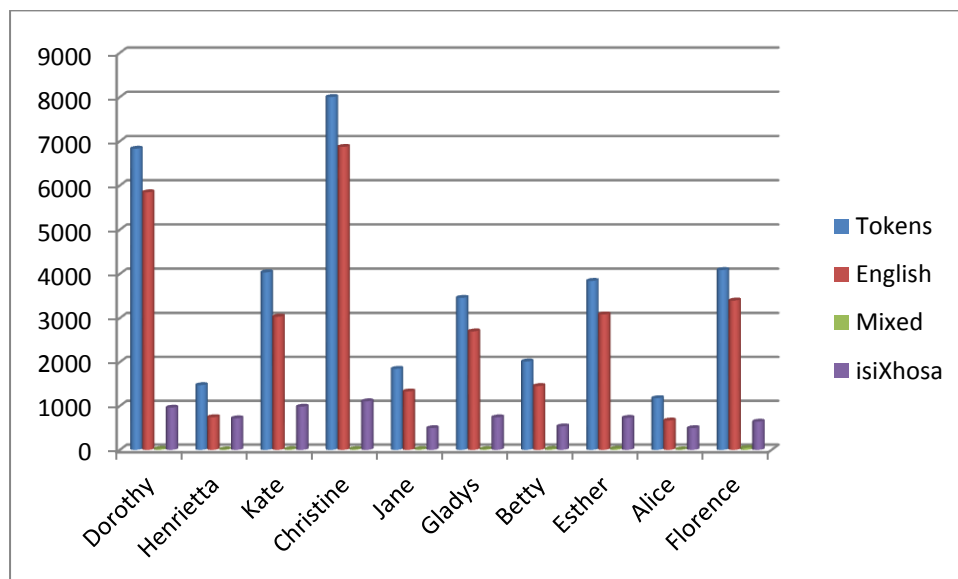


Figure 6: Distribution of Teachers' Words by Language

The use of English dominated that of IsiXhosa in all the teachers' classroom talk. It took up at least three quarters of the total number of tokens in all the teachers' talk except in Henrietta's and Alice's talk where English constituted 57% and 50% respectively. Henrietta's English usage almost equalled that of IsiXhosa and Alice's isiXhosa usage was over two

thirds her English usage. Both teachers had the least amount of classroom talk in general as reflected by the number of tokens they used. The use of mixed words, while manifest among all the teachers, was of negligible proportions compared to that of the English and IsiXhosa words as well as compared to the number of tokens used by each teacher. Documenting word exposure alone was not sufficient to determine the likelihood of learners acquiring the requisite vocabulary incidentally from teacher talk. There was need to determine the frequency with which requisite vocabulary was used in each teacher's three lessons. While the preceding sub-sections presented language exposure in general, the frequency of vocabulary use in teacher talk, which is considered in the next section, was investigated in relation to the benchmark vocabulary; the 60 HFW.

#### 6.4.6 Extent to which the HFW are Recycled in Teacher Talk

The verbatim lesson transcripts from the three video-recorded lessons for each of the ten teachers were used to determine the spread of the HFW in each teacher's talk. Only teacher talk was considered and learner talk was excluded. The AntConc word frequency counter used in the generation of HFW from the Grade 4 textbooks was used following the same procedure. Table 16 shows the frequency of the 60 words appearance in the teacher talk.

Table 16: Frequency of 60 HFW Use in Teacher-Talk

The 60 HFW	Florence	Alice	Esther	Betty	Gladys	Jane	Christine	Kate	Henrietta	Dorothy	Total % occurrence of word
	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency	
and	37	67	24	22	32	27	164	24	4	29	100
you	42	46	27	15	161	78	211	174	11	72	100
use	1	1	12	0	3	0	49	0	0	11	60
can	9	1	19	10	33	5	45	43	0	0	80
do	13	26	5	4	59	19	21	87	1	49	100
what	45	22	32	41	102	26	127	121	9	56	100
is	77	17	140	34	76	70	587	75	36	346	100
for	2	6	2	9	23	2	6	8	1	12	100
it	7	1	17	0	26	8	80	18	7	38	90
or	0	1	1	0	3	0	15	4	0	17	60
on	20	12	9	40	12	6	27	13	6	9	100
that	26	13	2	8	36	24	68	17	7	6	100
have	0	5	1	0	27	7	49	8	0	48	70
need	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

like	15	0	0	0	0	3	6	4	0	0	40
from	0	25	0	32	0	3	3	0	7	21	60
other	31	0	0	2	6	0	11	4	0	5	60
out	3	0	2	6	3	3	1	2	4	1	90
each	1	2	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	40
different	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	10
answer	4	0	0	0	1	23	2	0	0	0	40
work	1	1	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	43	50
not	14	5	1	11	21	17	41	33	0	21	90
look	20	12	0	14	11	9	52	44	4	15	90
if	2	0	0	0	3	6	6	0	0	3	50
own	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	20
but	4	1	0	0	1	2	12	0	0	0	50
explain	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
why	8	0	0	0	2	0	4	0	0	9	40
some	5	7	6	20	1	2	0	0	3	0	70
time	2	2	0	0	4	2	1	4	0	0	60
day	0	0	0	0	1	0	14	0	2	21	40
same	0	0	0	0	4	3	1	2	0	9	50
also	4	0	0	0	0	0	4	1	0	5	40
more	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
school	2	2	0	0	7	0	10	8	7	28	70
only	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	10
between	0	7	0	0	0	1	15	0	0	0	30
colour	3	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	8	30
because	1	2	0	2	8	3	25	5	1	0	80
example	0	0	0	0	1	0	4	0	0	3	30
important	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
together	0	1	0	0	0	0	13	0	0	0	20
after	4	6	0	3	3	0	1	1	0	0	60
piece	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
most	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
must	6	0	0	0	8	6	0	6	1	0	50
another	5	0	3	0	2	3	9	2	0	0	60
every	1	2	0	0	1	0	7	0	0	0	40
stop	0	0	0	0	3	1	23	3	0	0	40
both	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
understand	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	20
enough	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
until	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	10
always	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
again	35	13	7	2	6	0	11	7	4	64	90
before	4	10	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	40
easy	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
once	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
family	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	29	10
TOTAL	33/60	25/60	20/60	18/60	35/60	22/60	40/60	28/60	17/60	30/60	
	55%	42%	33%	30%	58%	37%	67%	47%	28%	50%	

Table 16 presents the actual number of times (not percentage) a word appeared in the individual teacher's classroom talk. Percentages would have given a misleading picture of the classes in which learners would potentially acquire particular words incidentally. A word appearing 12 times in a 1200 word text would be perceived as being more prevalent and therefore, more likely to be acquired than the same word appearing 75 times in an 8000 word text if percentages were used. While the word appearance in the former would be 1%, it would be 0.9% in the latter. This would not be a realistic conclusion to arrive at since a word encountered 75 times had greater probability of being acquired than one encountered 12 times.

The last row on totals shows that it was only in the talk of 4 of the 10 teachers that 50%+ of the 60 HFW were manifest with Christine's talk manifesting the highest number of words (67%). The other three, Florence, Gladys and Dorothy who had at least half of the 60 words used at least once in their three lessons had 55%, 58% and 50% word coverage. In no teacher's lessons were all the 60 HFW used. Some words did not appear in any of the teachers' talk. The least manifestation of the 60 HFW was in Henrietta's talk where only 28% of the 60 HFW were employed.

The last column indicates the percentage occurrence of each particular word across the teachers. The percentages show that there were more words which did not appear in any one teacher's talk than those that appeared in all teachers' talk. Only 8 words cut across all teachers' talk whereas 10 words did not appear in any of the teachers' talk. Even those words that cut across the classroom talk of 10 or 9 teachers had as low as one word occurrence among several of the teachers. The word 'out' is a case in point where 6 was the highest frequency followed by 4. Table 17 makes a further breakdown of the data in Table 16 by showing the words which were used by all teachers, by nine teachers until those that were not used by any teacher and their numbers. Half the words were used by five or more of the ten teachers and the other half were used by less than half the teachers.

Table 17: Teacher-Talk Word Distribution across the Teachers

No of teachers in which word appears	No of words appearing	The 60 HFW
10	8 (13%)	and, you, do, what, is, for, on, that
9	5 (8%)	again, look, not, out, it
8	2 (3%)	can, because
7	3 (5%)	some, have, school
6	7 (12%)	use, or, from, other, time, after, another
5	5 (8%)	must, same, but, if, work
4	9 (15%)	like, each, answer, why, day, also, every, stop, before
3	3 (5%)	example, colour, between
2	5 (8%)	own, together, understand
1	5 (8%)	until, only, more, different, family
0	10 (17%)	need, explain, important, piece, most, both, enough, always, easy, once

As noted before, the words that were employed by all teachers (13%) were outnumbered by those that were not used by any of the teachers (17%). There were also more words used by the 0-5 teachers than those that were used by the 6-10 teachers. Most of the words that were used by half the teachers (6-10) were mainly structural words with the content words being used by fewer teachers. The majority of the words that cut across 50%+ of the teachers' classroom talk also belonged to the Band A and B words with those that were not used by many teachers belonged to the lowest word Bands D and E. These are bands which were determined from the 213 words representing the vocabulary needs of learners according to word frequencies. Word Band A had the highest frequency words and word Band E had the lowest frequency Band in the 60 HFW.

From Table 16, the percentage of the 60 HFW each teacher exhibited in her own classroom talk gave a picture of the extent to which each teacher's talk potentially contributed to the acquisition of some of the requisite vocabulary for transitioning to Grade 4 reading. Figure 7 presents that data.

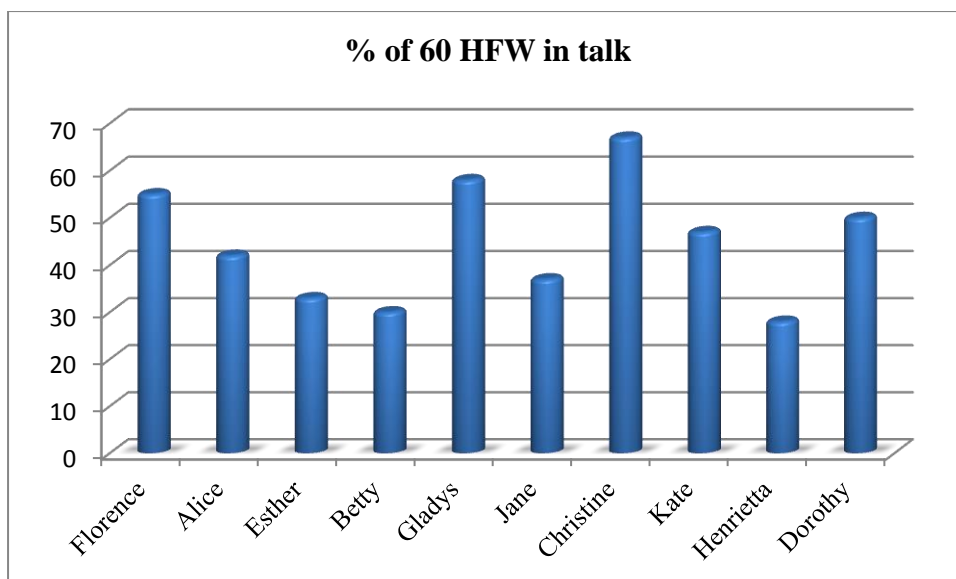


Figure 7: Percentage of the 60 HFW in each Teacher's Talk

Only four teachers had at least a single mention of half of the 60 HFW or more in their 3 English FAL lessons. These were Florence, Gladys, Christine and Dorothy. The other six teachers used less than half of the 60 HFW in three lessons with the least use of the 60 HFW being manifested in Henrietta's talk. Only 30 words were used by half the teachers.

What was more an indicator of the extent to which a word could potentially be acquired from the degree of its exposure was the frequency with which a word appeared within intervals in the teacher talk. A word which appears 20 times in a small segment of the lesson but is absent in the rest of the lesson would have less likelihood of being acquired than one which appears 15 times at regular intervals throughout the lesson. In the former case, a momentarily inattentive learner would miss out on the word. High frequency words which were confined to one section of the texts would have less likelihood of being acquired than those found all over the text. For this study, the more the word was recycled, the greater was the opportunity of encountering it in different contexts and correspondingly the greater the chances of it being acquired. Knowing how many, and which words appeared in teacher talk was therefore, not enough. How often a word was heard throughout a lesson was critical to its acquisition. The spread of the HFW was therefore, a key determinant of the potential for their acquisition. There was therefore, need for considering word occurrences within given lesson segments.

To this end, I segmented the lessons into 5 minute intervals to establish how often the words which were part of the 60 HFW would be recycled within the intervals. I generated the word frequencies within the intervals using the AntConc software program. I counted the number

of intervals a word appeared within the 5 minute intervals of the three lessons and expressed it as a percentage of the total number of the 5 minute segments for the particular teacher's talk. This yielded the percentage appearance of a word for each teacher within the 5 minute intervals. If for example there were 24 five minute segments for a teacher's three lessons and the word 'some' appeared in 9 of the 5 minute intervals, the percentage appearance of the word was calculated as  $9/24*100=37.5\%$ . The percentage would not consider the frequency with which the word appeared in each of the lesson segments. It is the percentage of intervals in which the word features that would be referred to. Table 18 presents the percentage of intervals in which particular words appeared.

Table 18: Percentage of 5 Minute Intervals in which Words Appeared in each Teacher's Talk

	Florence	Alice	Esther	Betty	Gladys	Jane	Christine	Kate	Henrietta	Dorothy	Trs in which words appear [%]
HFW	% appearance	% appearance	% appearance	% appearance	% appearance	% appearance	% appearance	% appearance	% appearance	% appearance	
and	72	89	58	60	40	50	93	88	22	40	100
you	72	67	58	53	93	67	93	88	44	80	100
use	9	11	42	0	13	0	60	83	0	27	70
can	36	11	50	40	40	17	53	50	0	0	80
do	54	56	33	27	47	42	40	44	11	60	100
what	63	56	67	80	80	50	87	78	44	67	100
is	90	56	83	67	53	67	100	94	67	100	100
for	18	22	17	33	33	17	20	20	11	33	100
it	18	11	50	0	33	25	80	72	44	53	90
or	0	11	8	0	13	0	33	28	0	33	60
on	72	44	42	80	27	25	40	33	33	20	100
that	63	44	0	33	40	50	67	44	33	20	90
have	0	33	8	0	40	25	60	50	0	60	70
need	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
like	18	0	0	0	0	17	20	22	0	0	40
from	0	56	0	67	0	17	13	17	44	40	70
other	27	0	0	13	20	0	27	27	0	13	60
out	18	0	8	27	13	17	7	11	22	7	90
each	9	22	0	0	7	8	0	0	0	0	40
different	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	10
answer	18	0	0	0	7	42	7	6	0	0	50
work	9	11	0	0	13	17	0	0	0	60	50
not	18	22	8	40	33	42	53	50	0	40	90
look	54	44	0	40	20	25	60	61	22	33	90
if	18	0	0	0	13	25	20	22	0	13	60
own	0	0	33	0	0	17	13	11	0	0	40
but	27	11	0	0	7	17	27	22	0	0	60

explain	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
why	18	0	8	0	13	0	13	11	0	20	60
some	36	33	33	60	7	17	0	0	22	0	70
time	18	11	25	0	13	8	7	7	0	0	70
day	0	0	8	0	7	0	33	28	22	33	60
same	0	0	0	0	13	17	7	6	0	20	50
also	9	0	0	0	0	0	13	11	0	13	40
more	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
school	9	22	0	0	20	0	27	28	33	40	70
only	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	10
between	0	33	0	0	0	8	27	28	0	0	40
colour	18	0	0	0	0	0	7	6	0	20	40
because	9	22	0	7	20	17	40	39	11	0	80
example	0	0	0	0	7	0	13	11	0	13	40
important	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
together	0	11	0	0	0	0	27	28	0	0	30
after	18	33	0	27	13	0	7	11	0	0	60
piece	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
most	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
must	36	0	0	0	20	25	0	0	11	0	40
another	27	0	17	0	13	17	20	22	0	0	60
every	9	22	0	0	7	0	20	28	0	0	50
stop	0	0	0	0	13	8	40	44	0	0	40
both	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
understand	0	0	17	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	20
enough	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
until	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	10
always	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
again	54	44	42	13	20	0	27	22	2	73	90
before	36	56	0	0	0	0	7	6	0	0	40
easy	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
once	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
family	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	10

A quick scan of the figures represented in Table 18 would show the number 0 as the most prevalent of all the figures particularly as one went down to the words in Band E (The 60 HFW are arranged in the table and elsewhere in their order within their Bands with the word ‘and’ being the first word in Band A and the word ‘family’ being the last word in Band E). Seven words appeared across all the teachers’ 5 minute intervals whereas ten did not appear in any one of the teachers’ lesson or 5 minute interval. What was of particular significance from Table 18 data was identifying those words which were used in 50% of the 5 minute

intervals of each teacher's classroom talk. These would represent words sufficiently recycled to at least allow for rudimentary acquisition. These are presented for each teacher in Figure 8. Table 19, which derives from Table 18, presents the number of words which were recycled in 50%+ intervals in a given number of teachers' classroom talk.

Table 19: Words Recycled in 50%+ Intervals

No of words	% of Teachers in which word appeared	The words
10	0	need, explain, important, piece, most, easy, both, enough, always, once
5	10	different, more, only, until, family
1	20	understand
1	30	together
10	40	like, each, own, also, between, colour, example, must, stop, before
4	50	answer, work, same, every
8	60	or, other, if, but, why, day, after, another
6	70	use, have, from, some, time, school
2	80	can, because
6	90	it, that, out, not, look, again
7	100	and, you, do, what, is for on

From Table 19 the bulk of the words appeared in the talk of less than half the teachers and there were many words which were not recycled in 50%+ of the intervals. Again, the function words were more manifest among the majority of the learners than the content words. Figure 8 shows the number of words and the actual words which appeared in at least half of the lesson segments.

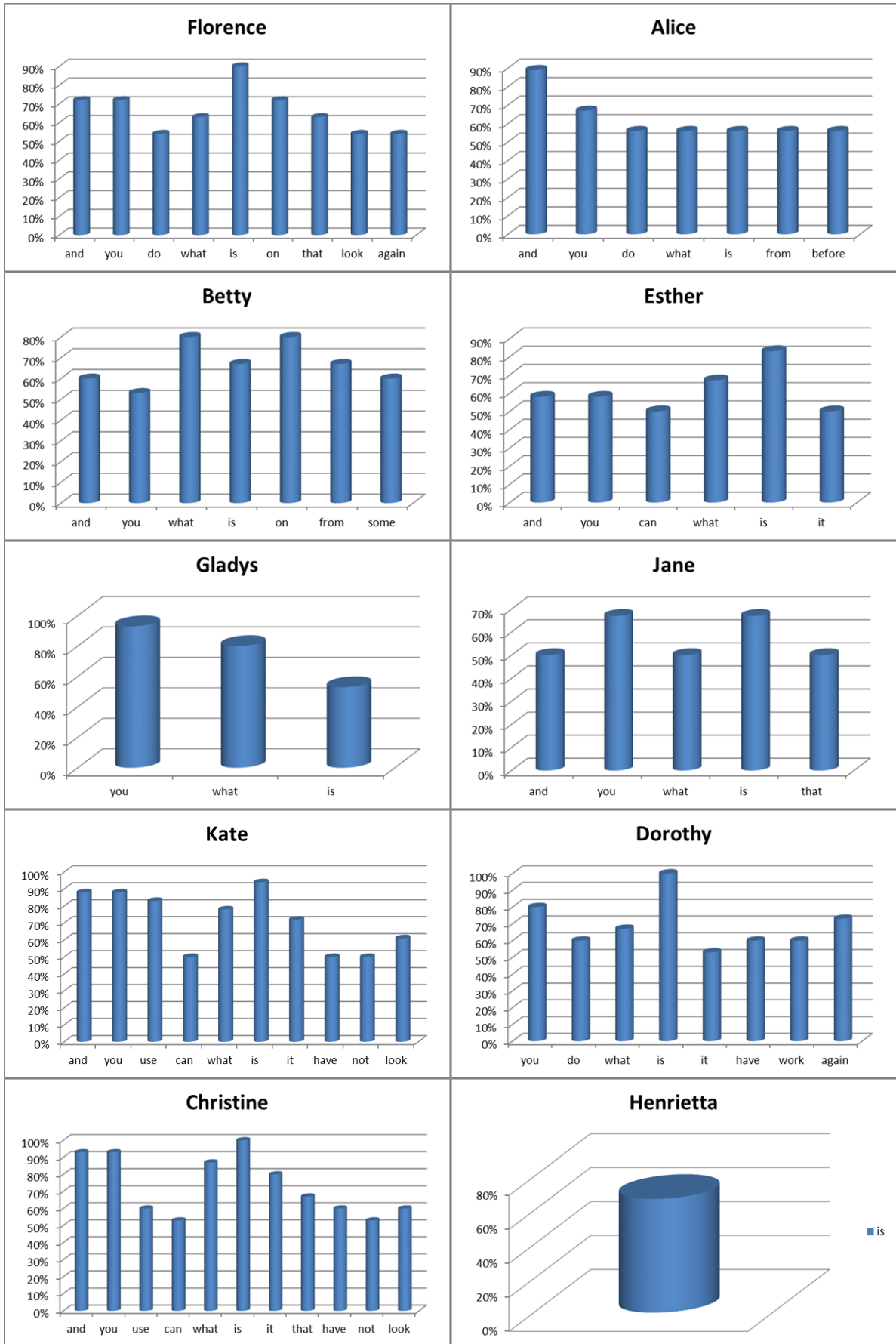


Figure 8 : Words in 50%+ 5 Minute Intervals

Figure 8 shows the HFW which appeared in 50% of the 5 minute intervals for each teacher's three lessons. Where the three lessons had 24 five minute intervals, a word appearing in 12 of the intervals on Table 18 was considered as appearing with high frequency in the teacher's talk. It meant that a word would be considered as high frequency across the lesson if it appeared at least once after every ten minutes.

Christine's 11 out of 60 words were the highest number of words recycled in at least half of the 5 minute intervals by the teachers. That translated to 18% of the total number of words. The least number of words recycled over at least half the 5 minute intervals was a single word in Henrietta's talk. The single word constituted 1.7% of the 60 HFW.

In the present study, it was also important to establish the extent of the coverage, not only of the 60 HFW, but also of the 213 words from which the 60 were sampled. The words derived from the AntConc results of teacher talk excluding learners' responses. For the 60 HFW, all the words which appeared in each teacher's talk were identified. For the 213 and beyond the 213 word categories, only those words which appeared within half (50%) of the teacher talk intervals were identified. These were more likely to be acquired by the learners than those appearing in less than half the 5 minute intervals. The words which appeared across 50%+ of the 5 minute intervals which were beyond the 213 words were also identified. These would indicate whether teacher talk had HFW which the textbook corpus did not have as high frequency words. The words in the three categories were identified for each teacher and their percentage occurrence within the 5 minute intervals. For the 60 word and 213 word categories, the number of words appearing in each teacher's talk was calculated as a percentage of the total. For the 213 words category, the total number of words was 153 since the 60 HFW, being part of the 213, were excluded. The percentage for the beyond 213 word categories could not be computed because there was no total. Table 20 shows the word coverage in teacher talk within the three categories.

Table 20: Word Coverage in Teacher Classroom Talk

Teacher	Words within the 60 HFW appearing in 50% of the 5 minute interval	Words outside the 60 HFW but within the 213 appearing in 50% of the 5 minute intervals	Words outside the 213 HFW appearing in 50% of the 5 minute intervals
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Florence	is [90%], and, you, on [72%], what, that [63%], again, look, do [54%], can, some, must, before [36%], other, but, another [27%], for, it, like, out, not, colour, after, if, why, time [18%], use, also each, work, because, every [9%]. $32/60=53\%$	the, a, I [100%], in, at [90], we, my, to [81], now, he [63%] $10/153=6.5\%$	Yes [63%]
Alice	and [89%], you [67%], do, from, what, is, before, now [56%], between, some, after, have [33%], for, not, because, each, every, time [22%], and school, but, can, it, or, together, use, work [11%]. $27/60=45\%$	in, the [78%], a, to, get [56%] $5/152=3\%$	
Esther	is [83%], what [67], you [58], can, it [50], use, on, again [42%], own, some, do [33%], time [25], another, for, that, understand [17%], out, day, have, more, not, or, why [8%]. $23/60=38\%$	are [83%], the [83%], no [75%], I [67%], we [58%], am, they [50%] $7/153=4.6\%$	tense [58%]
Betty	what, on [80%], is, from [67], and, some [60], you [53], look, not, can [40%], for, that [33%], out, do, after [27], only [20%], again, work, other [13%], because, explain [7%]. $21/60=35\%$	the [100%], are, we [60%], she, at [53%] $5/153=3\%$	tense, farm [60%]
Gladys	you [93%], what [80], is [53], do [47%], and, have, that, can [40%], for, it, not [33%], on [27%], look, because, must, school, again, other [20%], like, same, time, after, if, or, out, stop, another, use, why, work [13%], answer, but, day, each, every, example, some [7%]. $37/60=61.7\%$	the [93%], I [80%], to, a, see [53%] $5/153=3\%$	Yes, [53%]
Jane	you, is [67%], and, what, that [50%], answer, do, not [42%], colour, you [33%], look, it, have, must, if, on [25%], can, work, another, from, because, like, out, own, same, but, for, some, [17%], time, between, each, other, stop, understand, until, use [8%]. $36/60=60\%$	the [83%], are [75%], of, a, there [58%], I, to, at, write [50%] $9/153=5.9\%$	
Christine	is [100%], and, you [93%], what [87%], it [80%], that [67%], look, have, must, use [60%], can, not [53%], on, because, stop, do [40%], or, day [33%], together, again, school, other, but [27%], another, every, for, each, like [20%], also, example, why, from, own [13%], answer, before, colour, after, out, same, time [7%]. $40/60=66.7\%$	the [100%], a, of, we [93%], this, to, are, I, when, so [87%], up, my [80%], these, at [73%], me, say, your [60%], in [53%]. $18/153=11.8\%$	opposite [60%], capital, sentence, word [53%].
Kate	you, what [92%], do, is [83%], can, look [58%], and, not [42%], it, that, on, for [33%], have, school, again [25%], must, because, like, or, other, time, stop, another, out, same [17%], after, also, before [7%]. $28/60=46.7\%$	the [100%], a, good, see [83%], I [75%], in, to [67%], this, at [58%] $9/153=5.9\%$	Number, very, okay [58%]
Henrietta	is [67%], you, what, from, it [44%], school, that, on [33%], and, again, look, out, some, day [22%], because, do, for, must [11%]. $18/60=30\%$	the [78%], to [67%], a, book [56%] $4/153=2.6\%$	yes [56%].
Dorothy	is [100%], you [80%], again [73%], what [67%], work have, do [60%], and, family, school, from, not [40%], look, for, or, day [33%], use [27%], on, same, why, colour, only, that [20%], also, example, other, if [13%], different, out [7%]. $29/60=48\%$	the, a [93%], are, of, in, read [87%], we [80%], to, I, us [73%], my, class [67%], good, no, they [53%]. $15/153=9.8\%$	yes, ok [80%], let [67%], sentence, [53%].

For the 60 HFW, all the words that were manifest in the teacher talk are included but for the 213 and beyond 213 categories, only words appearing in at least 50% of the 5 minute

intervals for each teacher's talk were included. Key words in the 213 HFW list featuring in the five or more teachers' talk were 'the' (10 teachers), 'a, to' (8 teachers), 'I' (6 teachers) and 'in, at, are' (5 teachers). For words beyond the 213, the word used by most teachers (4 teachers) was 'yes.' There was, therefore, very little use of words within the 213 HFW list among the teachers.

From Table 20, Florence, Gladys, Jane and Christine had at least half the 60 HFW in their talk and the other six had less than half of the 60 HFW in their talk. For the 213 word categories excluding the 60 HFW, Christine had 11.8% which was the highest percentage of words which appeared in at least half the 5 minute intervals. Henrietta had the least word coverage for the 213 HFW in half the 5 minute intervals at 2.6%. Christine's four words were the highest number of words appearing in 50%+ of the 5 minute intervals.

The investigation on teacher talk's contribution to English language acquisition in general and to the development of both general and HFW in particular, was done through a qualitative examination of both the quality and quantity of input as well quantitatively through the amount of vocabulary exposure and recycling that it allowed. The quality of input would determine the extent to which the input would be understood and lead to acquisition. The quantity of input would determine what and how much was encountered and consequently how much would be learnt. The extent to which the vocabulary input was recycled would determine how often particular words would be encountered and the extent to which word appearance was sustained throughout the lesson would enhance the chances of the words eventually being acquired. How teacher talk fared in these three aspects of quality of input, quantity of input, and recycling was the focus of the preceding sections.

Key findings from the teacher talk data were manifest in the presentation. From the practices of teachers, several strategies were used to draw learners' attention to words but only the repeated word saying, repeated word reading and word spelling were manifest across all teachers with the other strategies being characteristic of a few teachers' practices as well as being used peripherally by the teachers who employed them. The same applied to word meaning episodes where the most prevalent form of clarifying word meaning across all teachers was the translation of words from isiXhosa to English.

In terms of the quality of language input, two compromising factors were manifest. The first was the lack of language proficiency on the part of the majority of teachers as evidenced by the language errors they made, most of which were of a gross magnitude. Such errors possibly interfered with the comprehensibility of teacher talk in some instances and taught error in other instances. The second was the use of language likely to be beyond the learners' level of comprehension without explaining the potentially problematic words.

In terms of the quantity of the English language input, both enabling and constraining factors were examined. The positive factors were the dominance of English over isiXhosa in the teacher talk, the utilization of teachable moments which made the use of more language than would have been used had those moments not been taken advantage of. Manifest in few teachers were strategies like encouraging full sentence responses from learners, rephrasing and repetitions among other strategies. These were however, used by few teachers. Constraints were more varied, were manifest in more teachers' talk and were more extensively used by the teachers in whose talk they were noted than the enabling factors. The chief constraints were the use of single word, short phrase or non-word utterances which deprived learners of the words they could have encountered had full utterances been used.

The computation of the amount of vocabulary used in the teacher talk courtesy of the AntConc software pointed to under representation of the HFW in the teacher talk in terms of the frequency of their occurrence and the range of their recurrence throughout the lessons' 5 minute intervals. The function words were more visible than the content words in the teacher talk. There was also a manifest under representation of words beyond the 60 HFW but within the 213 HFW.

As was noted earlier, teacher talk was just one of the sources of classroom input investigated in the present study. The quantitative aspects of quantity of word exposure and recycling of words used was also taken up with one of the sources of classroom input; the reading materials. The study also sought to establish the extent to which learners' Grade 3 reading materials contributed to meeting their vocabulary needs which were represented by the 60 HFW the study used as benchmark. It is that exposure that the next section of this chapter presents.

## **6.5 Extent to which Grade 3 Reading Materials meet Grade 4 Textbook Vocabulary Needs of Learners**

As part of the determination of the extent of Grade 3 learners' preparedness for the transition to reading to learn in Grade 4, a comparison was made between the vocabulary frequently recycled in Grade 3 reading materials and that which had high frequency in Grade 4 textbooks. The Workbooks, Readers, and Big books constituted the reading materials that were examined. The Big books corpus was presented separately from the other reading materials seeing that some schools (where Alice, Christine, Dorothy, Esther and Betty taught) did not have the Big books. The Grade 3 learners' vocabulary exposure at those schools would therefore, exclude the Big books corpus. The comparison was done on the basis of the 60 HFW derived from Grade 4 textbooks which were tested on the Grade 4 learners. The Grade 3 reading materials comprised six Big Books for shared reading found in the schools, Department of Education English FAL workbooks for 2012 (Terms 1 & 2 and Terms 3 & 4) and four guided readers commonly used in the eight participating schools.

The word generation process that was used to generate the HFW from the Grade 4 textbooks as described in chapter 5 was followed for the Grade 3 reading materials as well. This would ensure comparability between the Grade 3 reading materials and the Grade 4 subject textbooks. The AntConc software program was used for the word frequency generation. The Big books yielded a total of 1 777 word types and 11 657 word tokens. The workbooks and readers yielded 3 267 word types and 48 755 word tokens. The ranking at which a particular word was entered in the corpuses being compared was entered. The same definition of word adopted for the Grade 4 textbooks was applied for the Grade 3 reading materials as well. As such, in the present study, the words '*answer*,' '*answers*' and '*answered*' were considered as one word.

All the 60 HFW tested on the learners in the present study recurred with high frequency in the Grade 4 textbooks because they were derived from that corpus as discussed in chapter 5. The 60 words are presented here in terms of their frequency bands segmented into 100 word band as the 1<sup>st</sup> 100 most frequent words, the 2<sup>nd</sup> most frequent 100 until the 10<sup>th</sup> most frequent 100 words. The tenth band translates to a cut-off point of 1000 words. Because the 60 words were considered key for the successful reading of Grade 4 texts with understanding, the expectation was that they would all be found in the Grade 3 reading materials and with

high frequency. This would justify conclusions about the Grade 3 reading materials sufficiently recycling the requisite vocabulary for reading in Grade 4.

Table 21 juxtaposes the ranking and frequency of the 60 words in the Grade 3 Big Books, Grade 3 Readers and workbooks, and Grade 4 textbooks, to establish the contribution of Grade 3 reading materials to the vocabulary needs of learners in Grade 4.

Table 21: Contribution of Grade 3 Reading Materials to the 60 HFW

Present Study	From Big books			From Gr. 3 Readers and workbooks			From Gr. 4 textbooks		
	Ranking	Frequency	Word	Ranking	Frequency	Word	Ranking	Frequency	Word
<b>60 words</b>									
<b>and</b>	2	368	and	3	1156	and	3	3605	and
<b>you</b>	8	153	you	5	1022	you	7	2545	you
<b>use</b>	<b>140</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>use</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>202</b>	<b>use</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>706</b>	<b>use</b>
<b>can</b>	25	63	can	19	330	can	15	1020	can
<b>do</b>	28	61	do	17	362	do	17	942	do
<b>what</b>	24	64	what	10	646	what	13	1080	what
<b>is</b>	6	168	is	9	702	is	8	2035	is
<b>for</b>	18	84	for	25	298	for	16	1008	for
<b>it</b>	12	98	it	15	386	it	12	1177	it
<b>or</b>	74	26	or	61	144	or	18	912	or
<b>on</b>	13	97	on	16	375	on	19	889	on
<b>that</b>	33	56	that	20	320	that	11	1201	that
<b>have</b>	27	62	have	32	239	have	23	760	have
<b>need</b>	74	26	need	188	40	need	52	380	need
<b>like</b>	41	46	like	30	247	like	56	358	like
<b>from</b>	35	55	from	52	162	from	27	681	from
<b>other</b>	301	7	other	116	72	other	66	314	other
<b>out</b>	89	24	out	58	145	out	49	385	out
<b>each</b>	477	4	each	40	202	each	32	605	each
<b>different</b>	240	8	different	73	118	different	42	460	different
<b>answer</b>	749	2	answer	132	62	answer	80	247	answer
<b>work</b>	115	18	work	76	110	work	38	506	work
<b>not</b>	37	47	not	65	134	not	44	446	not
<b>look</b>	36	48	look	33	230	look	51	381	look
<b>if</b>	154	13	if	103	79	if	60	326	if
<b>own</b>	351	6	own	145	58	own	93	217	own
<b>but</b>	38	46	but	152	55	but	116	177	but
<b>explain</b>	XXX	XXX	XXX	659	9	explain	130	156	explain
<b>why</b>	213	10	why	75	113	why	68	303	why
<b>some</b>	54	36	some	69	129	some	69	298	some
<b>time</b>	139	15	time	81	106	time	78	260	time
<b>day</b>	47	44	day	68	129	day	128	163	day

<b>same</b>	672	3	same	174	45	same	114	181	same
<b>also</b>	170	11	also	215	34	also	115	179	also
<b>more</b>	225	10	more	213	35	more	99	204	more
<b>school</b>	69	28	school	42	192	school	106	189	school
<b>only</b>	262	8	only	321	20	only	145	137	only
<b>between</b>	XXX	XXX	XXX	410	15	between	150	133	between
<b>colour</b>	263	8	colour	374	17	colour	246	80	colour
<b>because</b>	109	19	because	136	61	because	129	159	because
<b>example</b>	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	177	115	example
<b>important</b>	853	2	important	XXX	XXX	XXX	133	150	important
<b>together</b>	209	10	together	354	19	together	169	122	together
<b>after</b>	114	18	after	119	67	after	153	131	after
<b>piece</b>	909	2	pieces	538	12	piece	228	89	piece
<b>most</b>	201	10	most	206	36	most	141	141	most
<b>must</b>	185	11	must	106	78	must	142	141	must
<b>another</b>	235	8	another	335	19	another	163	124	another
<b>every</b>	195	10	every	199	37	every	218	92	every
<b>stop</b>	300	7	stop	384	17	stop	569	34	stop
<b>both</b>	XXX	XXX	both	595	10	both	459	41	both
<b>understand</b>	717	3	understand	783	8	understand	393	49	understand
<b>enough</b>	593	3	enough	658	9	enough	386	49	enough
<b>until</b>	718	3	until	470	14	until	385	50	until
<b>always</b>	557	3	always	388	16	always	313	62	always
<b>again</b>	78	25	again	229	31	again	338	58	again
<b>before</b>	174	11	before	301	21	before	230	87	before
<b>easy</b>	XXX	XXX	easy	XXX	XXX	easy	414	46	easy
<b>once</b>	895	2	once	676	9	once	425	45	once
<b>family</b>	111	19	family	150	56	family	319	61	family

Table 21 juxtaposes the present study's 60 HFW from the Grade 4 textbooks corpus against the Grade 3 readers and workbooks, and the Big books found in the participating schools. There was an extensive coverage of the 60 HFW in learners' reading materials with 55 of the 60 words (92%) appearing in both the Big book and Readers/Workbooks list. In terms of the mere appearance of the words in the two lists, one would expect that by the time learners would get to Grade 4, they would have encountered the 92% of the 60 HFW from these Grade 3 reading materials. Word encounter would only potentially translate to word acquisition to the extent that the encounter is repeated frequently enough to make impressions on the memory. The frequency of word appearances across the three lists (Grade 3 Big books, Readers/workbooks, and Grade 4 textbooks) differed markedly. These frequencies are reflected in the rankings. The word 'use' which had a ranking of 26 in the Grade 4 textbooks,

had a ranking of 41 in the Grade 3 readers/workbooks and as low a ranking as 140 in the Big books. The same could be said of words like 'or', 'need', 'other', 'more' among others. This implies that, although knowledge of the word 'use' was critical to the understanding of the Grade 4 textbooks, it was not given due prominence, particularly in the Big books corpus. Despite the prominence of the word 'each' in the Grade 4 textbooks (ranked 32<sup>nd</sup>) and the Grade 3 readers/workbooks (ranked 40<sup>th</sup>), it was ranked 477<sup>th</sup> in the Big books corpus where it appeared only four times. This is not to deny the amazing consistence that the ranking of some words like 'is,' 'and,' 'you' among others. There were few instances where the Grade 3 reading materials accorded greater prominence to some words than the Grade 4 corpus from which they derived. One such example was the word 'family', which was ranked 319 in the Grade 4 corpus but 150 in the Grade 3 readers/workbooks and 111 in the Big books. The same applied for words like 'again' and 'school'.

The words 'both, explain, between, example, easy' were missing in the Big books list and the words 'example, easy, important' were missing in the Grade 3 readers/workbooks. The words 'example' and 'easy' were therefore, missing in both of the Grade 3 lists. The assumption then would be that learners would get to Grade 4 without having encountered the words *example* and *easy* from their reading materials. The word 'easy' did not appear in any teacher's classroom talk and the word 'example' appeared marginally in only three teachers' talk as reflected in Table 18. *Both* and *explain* which were absent in the Big books and 'important' which was absent in the readers/workbooks, were also absent in all teachers' talk. These words were not common in either teachers' talk or reading materials. They would, therefore, most likely cause challenges for learners in Grade 4 where these were used much.

Where the rankings were quite diverse, it showed the differences in the vocabulary requirements of different kinds of texts. Big books which are largely in story form recycled particular words with a frequency different from that of readers and workbooks which have exercises and other features not characteristic of Big books. Both Big books and Grade 3 readers and workbooks, which are of a largely narrative nature, differed from Grade 4 textbooks, which are largely expository or informational, in the frequency with which they recycled particular words.

To appreciate the extent to which the recycling of words in the Grade 3 reading materials was extensive enough to give the requisite exposure to the learners adequate for the words'

acquisition, the words in the Grade 3 reading materials were grouped into 100 word frequency bands from the 1<sup>st</sup> to the 10<sup>th</sup> word band. Table 22 presents the word bands.

Table 22: Categorisation of HFW in Grade 3 Reading Material into 100 Word Frequency Bands

Word Band	Big Books HFW list		Readers and workbooks HFW list	
	Word	Ranking	Word	Ranking
<b>1<sup>st</sup> 100 words</b>	and	2	and	3
	is	6	you	5
	you	8	is	9
	on	13	what	10
	it	12	it	15
	have	27	on	16
	for	18	do	17
	do	28	can	19
	can	25	that	20
	what	24	for	25
	that	33	like	30
	but	38	have	32
	like	41	look	33
	day	47	each	40
	not	37	use	41
	some	54	school	42
	from	35	from	52
	look	36	out	58
	out	89	or	61
	school	69	not	65
or	74	day	68	
need	74	some	69	
again	78	different	73	
<i>Big books 23/60 words in 1<sup>st</sup> 100 words [38 %]</i>		why	75	
<i>Readers &amp; workbooks 26/60 words in 1<sup>st</sup> 100 words [43 %]</i>		work	76	
		time	81	
<b>2<sup>nd</sup> 100 words</b>	Word	Ranking	Word	Ranking
	because	109	if	103
	family	111	must	106
	after	114	other	116
	work	115	after	119
	time	139	answer	132
	use	140	because	136
	if	154	own	145
	also	170	family	150
	before	174	but	152
	must	185	same	174
	every	195	need	188
	why	213	every	199
	<i>Big books 12/60 words in 2<sup>nd</sup> 100 words [20 %]</i>			
	<i>Readers &amp; workbooks 12/60 words in 2<sup>nd</sup> 100 words [20 %]</i>			
<b>3<sup>rd</sup> 100 words</b>	Word	Ranking	Word	Ranking
	another	235	most	206
	stop	300	more	213
	different	240	also	215
	only	262	again	229
colour	263	<i>Big books 8/60 words in 3<sup>rd</sup> 100 words</i>		

	together	209	<i>[13 %]</i>	
	more	225	<i>Readers &amp; workbooks 4/60 words in 3<sup>rd</sup></i>	
	most	201	<i>100 words [7 %]</i>	
<b>4<sup>th</sup> 100 words</b>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Ranking</i>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Ranking</i>
	other	301	before	301
	<i>Big books 1/60 words in 4<sup>th</sup> 100 words [2 %]</i>		only	321
	<i>Readers &amp; workbooks 7/60 words in 4<sup>th</sup> 100 words [12 %]</i>		another	335
			together	354
			colour	374
			stop	384
			always	388
<b>5<sup>th</sup> 100 words</b>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Ranking</i>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Ranking</i>
	each	477	between	410
			until	470
	<i>Big books 1/60 words in 5<sup>th</sup> 100 words [2 %]</i>			
	<i>Readers &amp; workbooks 2/60 words in 5<sup>th</sup> 100 words [3 %]</i>			
<b>6<sup>th</sup> 100 words</b>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Ranking</i>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Ranking</i>
	enough	593	piece	538
	always	557	both	595
	<i>Big books 2/60 words in 6<sup>th</sup> 100 words [3 %]</i>			
	<i>Readers &amp; workbooks 2/60 words in 6<sup>th</sup> 100 words [3 %]</i>			
<b>7<sup>th</sup> 100 words</b>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Ranking</i>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Ranking</i>
	same	672	enough	658
	<i>Big books 1/60 words in 7<sup>th</sup> 100 words [2 %]</i>		explain	659
	<i>Readers &amp; workbooks 3/60 words in 7<sup>th</sup> 100 words [5 %]</i>		once	676
<b>8<sup>th</sup> 100 words</b>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Ranking</i>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Ranking</i>
	important	736	understand	783
	understand	717	<i>Big books 4/60 words in 8<sup>th</sup> 100 words [7 %]</i>	
	answer	749	<i>Readers &amp; workbooks 1/60 words in 8<sup>th</sup> 100 words [2 %]</i>	
	until	718		
<b>9<sup>th</sup> 100 words</b>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Ranking</i>		
	once	895		
	<i>Big books 1/60 words in 9<sup>th</sup> 100 words [2 %]</i>			
<b>10<sup>th</sup> 100 words</b>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Ranking</i>		
	piece	909		
	<i>Big books 1/60 words in 10<sup>th</sup> 100 words [2 %]</i>			

Data in Table 22 is important in as far as it shows the words that belonged to the 100 word bands from the first to the tenth as manifest in Big books and in Readers and Workbooks. The percentage of words which belonged to each of the ten 100-word bands highlighted the extent to which HFW were used in the texts. Table 23 follows up on Table 22 by giving a summary

of the appearances of words from the two categories of Grade 3 reading material. It presents the contribution of Big books to the exposure of learners to the 60 HFW in relation to that of workbooks and readers.

Table 23: Distribution of the 60 HFW in 100 Word Bands

Word Band	Big Books	Workbooks and Readers
1 <sup>st</sup> 100 words	38 %	43 %
2 <sup>nd</sup> 100 words	20 %	20 %
3 <sup>rd</sup> 100 words	13 %	7 %
Total 1 <sup>st</sup> 300 words	<b>71 %</b>	<b>70 %</b>
4 <sup>th</sup> 100 words	2 %	12 %
5 <sup>th</sup> 100 words	2 %	3 %
6 <sup>th</sup> 100 words	3 %	3 %
Total 2 <sup>nd</sup> 300 words	<b>7 %</b>	<b>18 %</b>
7 <sup>th</sup> 100 words	2 %	5 %
8 <sup>th</sup> 100 words	7 %	2 %
9 <sup>th</sup> 100 words	2 %	0 %
10 <sup>th</sup> 100 words	2 %	0 %
Total of the last 400 words	<b>13%</b>	<b>7 %</b>
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>91 %</b>	<b>95 %</b>

The bulk of the 60 HFW belonged to the first and second 100 word bands in both lists (Big book list and Readers and Workbooks list). This saw the total number of words in the first 300 words in Big book list and Readers and Workbooks list totalling 71% and 70% respectively. The Big book list had a total of 91% of the 60 HFW covered and the readers and workbooks had 95% coverage. The remaining percentages were of those words which were part of the 60 HFW which did not appear in the lists. Figure 10 presents similar data.

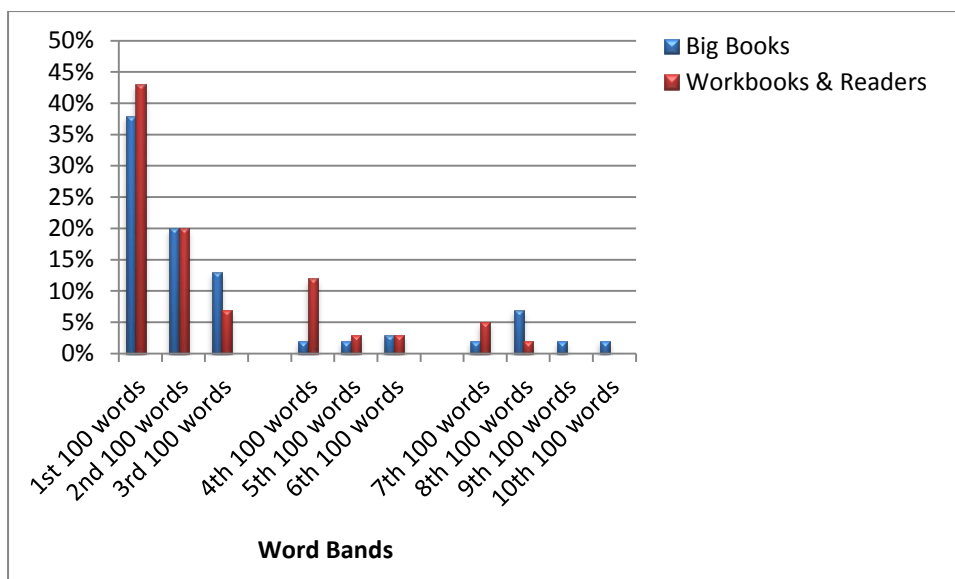


Figure 9: Distribution of 60 HFW within 100 Word Bands

Again the first 300 words transcend in number the last 700 words in the 1000 word cut-off lists. It was important to establish the words within the first 300 word band which featured in both lists. Confinement of the words to the first 300 was made on the assumption that because the 60 HFW had been selected, largely on the basis of frequency, they should find expression within the first 300 words in the Grade 3 reading material. Table 24 presents words in the first three 100-word bands in both Big Books and Readers and workbooks lists.

Table 24: Words in Grade 3 Reading Material According to the 100 Word Bands

Word Band	Words in both the Big Books and Readers/workbooks										
1 <sup>st</sup> 100 words 33%	and	is	you	on	it	have	for	do	can	what	that
2 <sup>nd</sup> 100 words 50%	like	day	not	some	from	look	out	school	or	family	
3 <sup>rd</sup> 100 words 55%	and	is	you	on	it	have	for	do	can	what	that
	like	day	not	some	from	look	out	school	or	family	need
	time	work	because	if	must	use	every	why	after		
	different	more	most	also							

The last line of words in the 1<sup>st</sup> 200 and 1<sup>st</sup> 300 word lists has words which were not in the previous word band above it. A word like ‘work’, which was in the 1<sup>st</sup> 100 words in the readers and workbooks list but in the 2<sup>nd</sup> 100 in the Big books list, was placed in the 2<sup>nd</sup> 100 list of words appearing in both lists. The other words for which the same was done were ‘need, why, different, also’. The 55% words which were in the first 300 HFW in both lists

were sufficiently recycled in Big books and Readers and Workbooks to be facilitative of their acquisition.

The Grade 3 reading materials in the form of Big books on the one hand and Readers/ Workbooks on the other hand generally proved a reliable source of classroom input potentially leading learners to the acquisition of a high number of the 60 HFW. Only 5 words (*both, explain, example, easy*) out of the 60 (8%) were missing in the Big book word list. From Readers/ Workbooks 3 words (*example, easy important*) were missing. This meant that from both reading materials list, only two words (*example, easy*) were missing. In the categorisation of words within 100-word word frequency bands, an overwhelming majority of the words were in the first 300-word band for both lists, out of the 1000-word band to which all the words belonged. The extensive coverage of the 60 HFW in the reading materials however, was not met with commensurate and sufficient recycling of all the words covered to allow for their acquisition by the learners. The reading material discussed in this section did not represent the only form of print the learners encountered in the classroom. The learners had the potential to incidentally acquire vocabulary from labels, charts, mobiles in the classroom which were a source of print. As such classroom print was investigated for its potential to lead to vocabulary acquisition.

#### **6.6 Extent to which Classroom Print Met the Grade 4 Vocabulary Needs of Learners**

The print richness of a classroom encourages learners to read and write by virtue of the abundant print displays surrounding them. The array of opportunities to interact with print is especially invaluable for learners hailing from print deprived environments. In examining the classroom print, the researcher looked out for teacher and learners' displays, classroom labels, lists, poems and song charts, wall charts, mobiles and labelled objects and learning centres.

In this study, the print that was observed was video recorded and some snapshots from the recordings taken for exemplification. The rest of the print was transcribed. The nature of the classroom print is presented in this section. Focus was on the extent of the coverage of the 60 and 213 HFW in the print observed. This would be indicative of the kind of vocabulary that learners were likely to acquire from the print. For this, the AntConc software program was used to generate word lists from the combined classroom print corpus for each teacher. For classroom print, unlike for teacher talk and reading materials, focus was more on just the

appearance of a HFW. The assumption was that because classroom print was on display in the classroom, the frequency of word encounter would also come from the frequency with which the learners could read the print on display. One sometimes gets into a room where they have been so many times and one sometimes cannot help but read the same print that they read many times over just by virtue of it being there.

Also important to investigate was the relevance of the classroom print to the Grade 3 learners. The classroom print could only potentially impact the vocabulary acquisition of the learners to the extent that it was relevant. Here relevant is not used to mean overly simplistic. Very simple language would not extend the learners' word knowledge as much as very difficult language would curtail comprehension and affect the possibility of learners acquiring the language. The need to examine the relevance of classroom print to the Grade 3 level was also necessitated particularly by the realisation that most of the print was commercially produced and did not identify the particular learner group for which it was produced. In some instances, the quality of the print was also examined in terms of its design features. The print condition that potentially repelled learners' attention was noted, as classroom print that did not attract learners' attention would hardly be read and what could potentially be gained from it would be lost. The quality of the print was content analysed.

The data on the classroom print and its potential to lead to language acquisition was presented per teacher. Betty's classroom was devoid of any print. The partial reason could be in the nature of her classroom which had no window panes and had peeling walls. The other kinds of print that could still be used like labels were also not used. In most instances, the composition of the classroom print for the teachers is saved as Appendix 9. The print which was faded or did not come out well from the video-recording was typed and used for exemplification.

### *Florence*

Figure 11 shows some of the classroom print in Florence's class

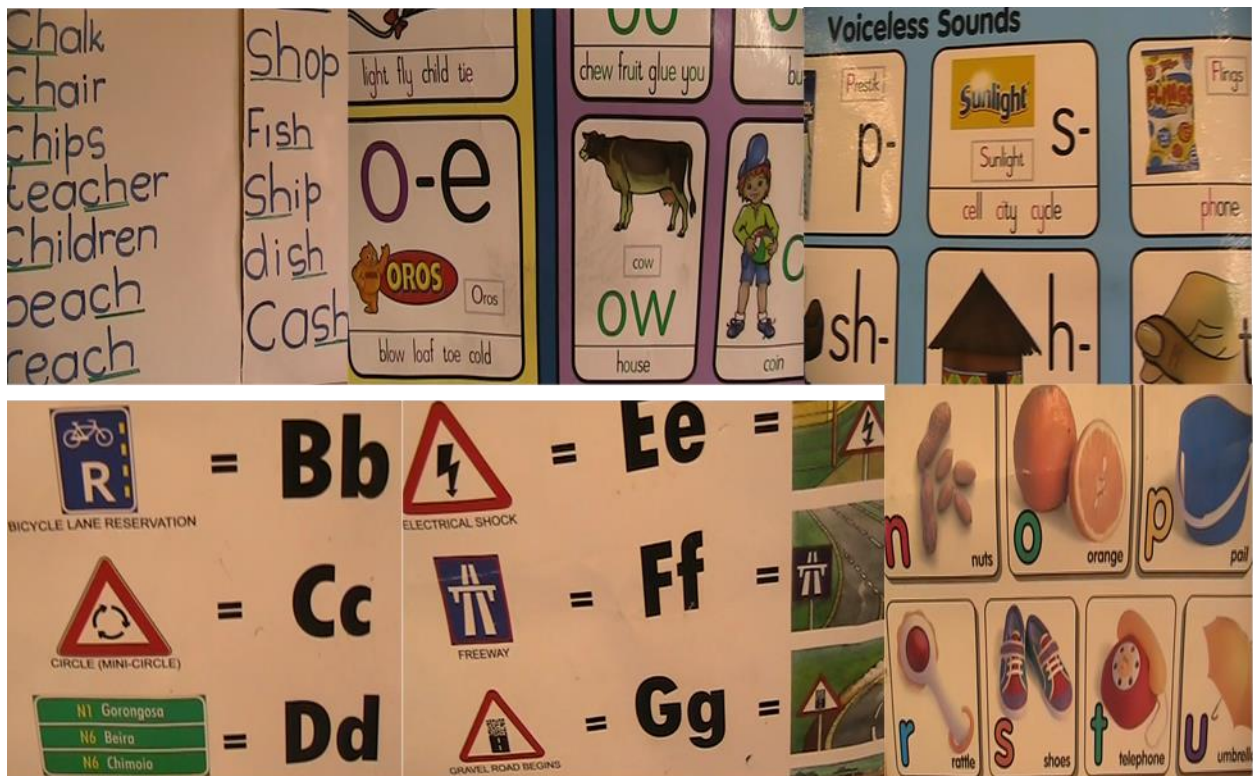


Figure 10: Florence's Classroom Print

Most of the charts in Florence's classroom illustrated words using pictures like the ABC chart of road safety which attempted to represent each letter of the alphabet using a road safety warning, instruction or piece of information as in 'Arrive Alive' for the letter A. In the process however, language possibly beyond the learners' level was used. Examples of such are: 'bicycle lane reservation, no entry, one way pedestrian crossing, jetty edge keep left, T-junction, uneven roadway, visibility reduced, yield sign'. In the other chart displays, words which one would say lacked relevance for the learners in terms of the criteria defining the usefulness of words as identified by Nation and Waring in the previous chapter, were used much. The words included 'jelly kite and rattle shoes, enterprise, scene, due, flings, illusion, social, electrical shock,' among others. The criteria of the ease in their meaning demonstration, their regularity, how well they embodied elements similar to language aspects learners possibly had acquired, and the opportunism which is a measure of a word's relevance to the learners' immediate situation were particularly not met by such words.

Producers of the commercially produced materials did not indicate the level at which the material were supposed to be used, with what kinds of learners, who have had what kinds of

exposure to the language. They gave the impression that their materials were generic and usable in all settings, by all learners at whatever level.

Although the design features of the charts were good and the charts themselves were in good condition, there were indications that they had been positioned where they were for a very long time suggesting the lack or absence of change or rotation of the charts. This was buttressed by the observation that none of the charts on display was related to the lessons observed which meant the teacher did not display charts in accordance with the content she was teaching. Having only two teacher-made print in English was indicative of lack of improvisation and resourcefulness on the teacher's part. Nine of the charts were at the level of word and only two were at the phrase or isolated sentences level. The rest promoted the decontextualized learning of words. (See Appendix 9 for the composition of the classroom print).

#### Alice

In Alice's class most of the print was in the form of short charts. Examples of the short charts illustrating words beginning with a particular letter characterising 23/25 of the charts are given below

M m	P p	E e	L l	Y y
Mother	Pen	Empty	Love	Yesterday
Money	Pin	Elephant	Look	Yolk
Minutes	People	Enemy	Lucky	Yes
Make	Purple	Energy	Lake	Yellow
Market		Eggs		

These were all commercially produced and so the design features were standard. There was no attempt on the charts to match some of the words with pictures. These were just words for reading. Learners were expected to merely read the words (*quest, rainbow, energy, understand, furniture, vinegar, jingle, yolk, x-ray, lake, market, phonics*) on these word lists. There was need to complement these lists with teacher's own instructions and activities to bring learners to the knowledge of the words. One chart whose print was faded was typed and is represented below.

DUTYWA MEDICAL CENTRE  
General Practitioner- Optometrist-Dental  
Ugqirha wabagulayo- owamehlo-wamazinyo  
Mon-Fri 08:00 -18:00 Tel: 047 489 2222  
Sat 08:00 -13:00 Fax: 047 489 2222

Most, if not all, the words on the charts were beyond the learners' level and were hardly part of learners' current vocabulary needs. The other chart beyond the word level hardly fared any better than the one above in terms of vocabulary complexity.

---

Nation School Nutrition Programme  
EAT WELL AND KEEP MOVING  
Way to Promote Healthy Life Among Children  
Start your day with breakfast. Further to that breakfast, choose healthy food and snacks from different food groups to refill your stomach!  
Healthy snacks  
Drink lots of clean water  
Make physical activities fun!

---

The chart needed the teacher's mediation; almost translation, for it to make sense to learners who have not had much exposure to the language. The word 'moving' assumed a new meaning from the one learners were likely to be familiar with. Learners' knowledge of the words *healthy*, *among*, *breakfast*, *snacks*, *refill* could not just be assumed. Because the commercially produced materials were not meant for a particular grade and could be found in any classroom, their language was not targeted on a particular readership.

### *Esther*

The distribution of Esther's charts is given in Appendix 9. The following were some of Esther's classroom charts.

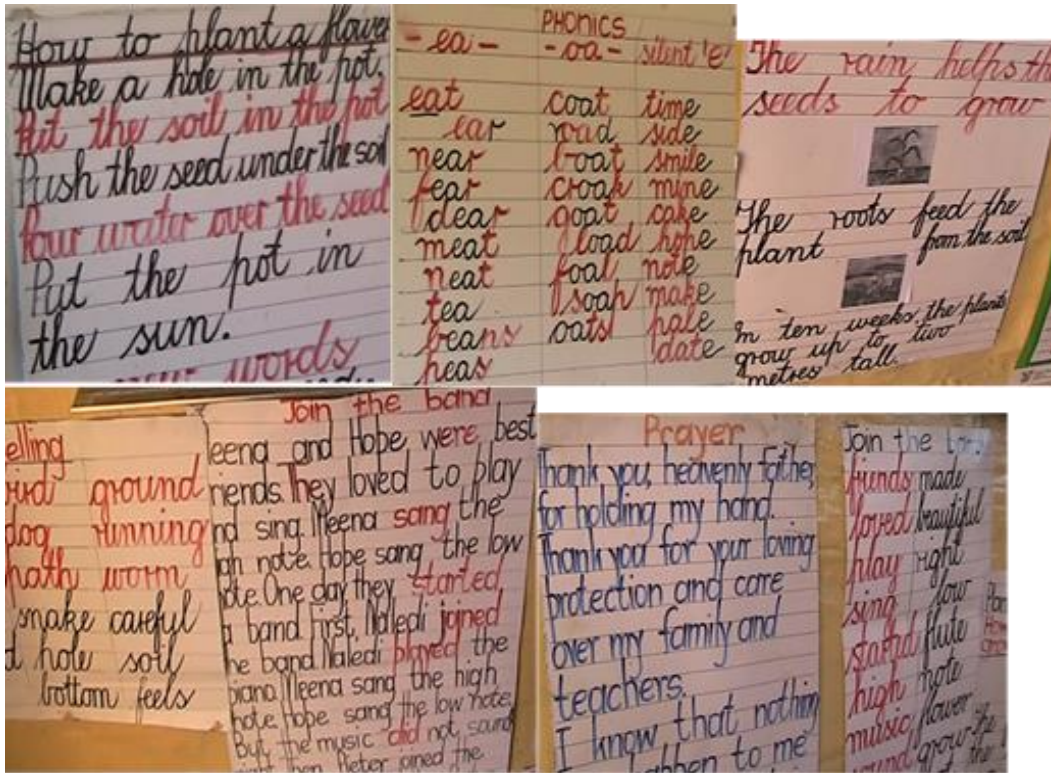


Figure 11: Esther's Classroom Print

That 14 of the 16 English charts were teacher-produced testified to the resourcefulness of the teacher in the face of resource limitations. The writing and colour contrasts were done well but for comprehension charts, there was high print density on the chart which made sustained reading a challenge particularly for the young learners. That detracted from the compelling force of the material for the young readers.

Print displays evidenced a balance between decontextualized and contextualised word exposure. Of the 8 charts that were confined to the level of word, only the word 'time' from the 60 HFW was included. The words given priority were; *wrong*, *television*, *pocket*, *croak*, *dear*, *load*, *foal*, *tear*, *pale*, *oats*, *note*, *fear*, *hole*, *beautiful*, *sound*, *flute*, among others whose usefulness for learners at the level is limited. These words were not just absent from the 60 HFW list, but were also beyond the 213 word list from which the 60 HFW are derived.

*Christine*

Figure 12 shows some of the charts that were in Christine's class.

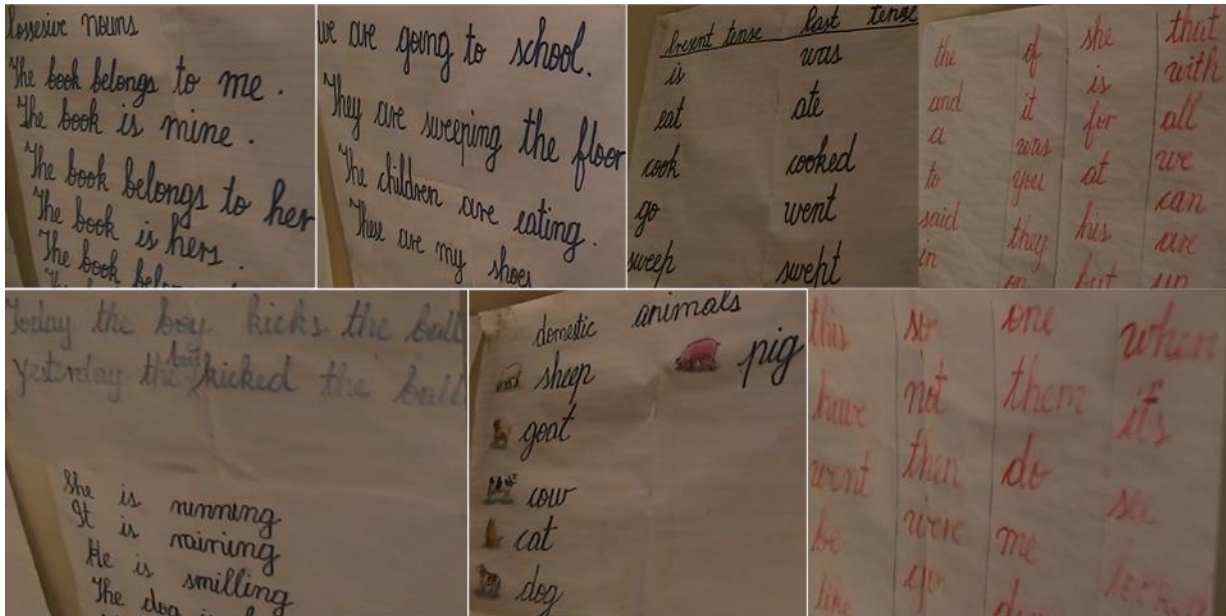
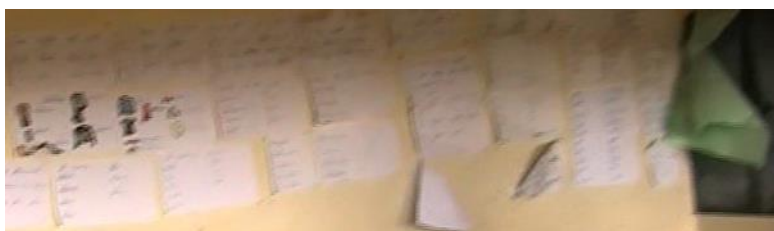


Figure 12: Christine's Classroom Print

The majority of the charts (14/16 or 87, 5%) were teacher produced. Of the 16 charts, 13 (81%) were at the level of word, decontextualizing vocabulary exposure. Only three charts were beyond the word level but they too were restricted to the sentence level. Most charts were old and some faded. Their design features offered very little attraction to young learners. The chart on opposites was torn. The teacher taught a lesson on opposites and never at any time referred to the chart on opposites. Below is a snapshot of the kinds of charts Christine had.



Apart from the opposites, word lists displayed predominantly verbs and nouns. One chart had a spelling error 'smilling' and another had a grammatical error 'Today, I go; yesterday I went, Today the boy kicks the ball, Yesterday the boy kicked the ball.'

Except for the commercially produced charts where words were matched with the pictures they represented, there was no attempt to draw learners' attention to word meanings. The chart on opposites mediated knowledge of word meanings provided one of the opposite pairs was known. There was no time during the observation period when the researcher saw any of

the learners taking particular interest in any of the charts on display. This could be an indicator of the learners being so used to having the same charts for a long time to the extent that the charts ceased to have any appeal to them.

Not much was exposed to learners in terms of the HFW. Rather use was made of words like *barking, steel, stove, wool, stitch, sting, cast, mist, sunglasses, bracelet, earrings, necklace, elbow, sandwich* were words learners would rarely use or encounter in their learning often.

Kate

Some of Kate's classroom print is presented in Figure 13

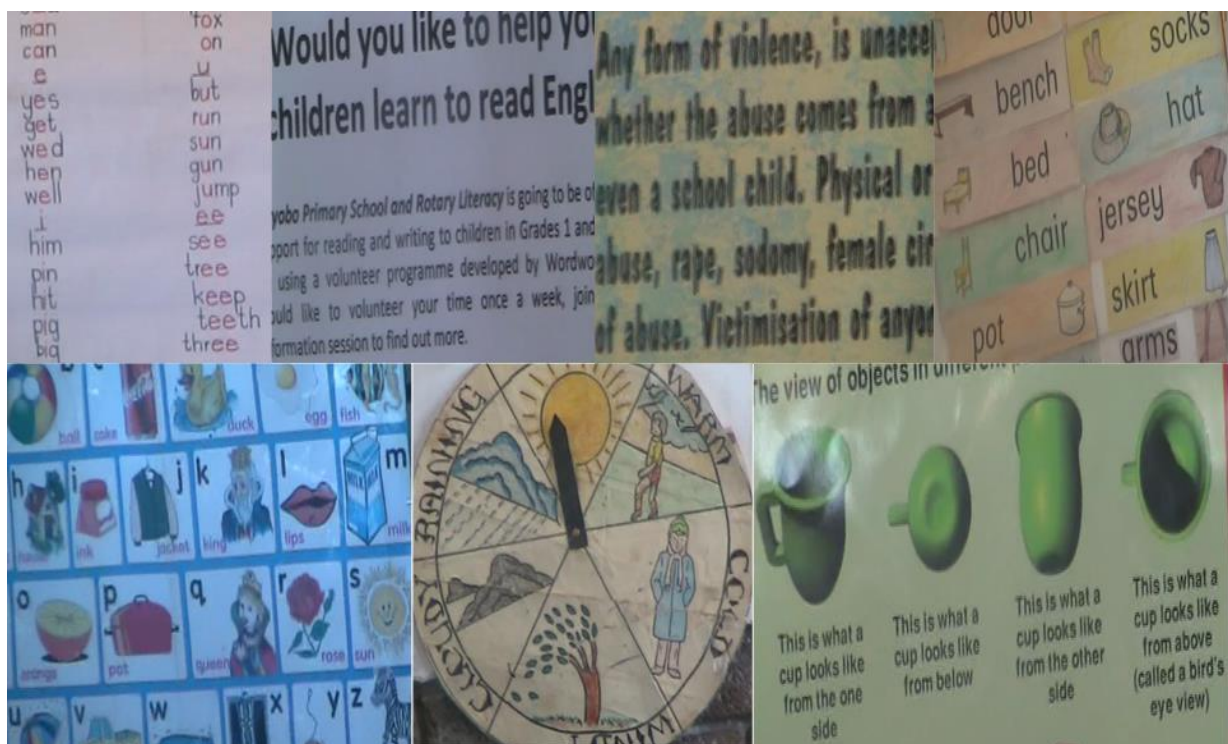


Figure 13: Kate's Classroom Print

The distribution of Kate's classroom print is found in Appendix 9. Most of her charts were commercially produced as can be seen in Figure 13. Another chart in Kate's classroom is shown below. I have underlined and put in italics those words and phrases I view as problematic to learners.

---

Would you like to help young children learn to read English?

X Primary School and Rotary Literacy is going to be *offering extra support* for reading and writing to children in grade 1 and 2. We will be using a *volunteer programme developed* by *word works*. If you would like to *volunteer* your time once a week, join us for any *information* to find out more.

Date: 20 February 2013

Time: 1.30 pm for 2. 00pm

Venue: Kenton Primary School

(Transport will leave X Primary at 1.30 *sharp*)

If you wish to join as a *volunteer*, please would you *inform* your child's teacher *by not later* than Friday, 15 February.

Queries: We would love to have you on our team, to share in the joy of helping children learn to read and write.

"It's been one of the most *wonderful* things I have done in my life so far. Giving back is great!"

Desiree, volunteer.

---

Of the 14 charts, 10 were at the word level, 1 combined the word and sentence level, 1 was at the sentence level, and 2 were beyond the sentence level. This showed the preponderance of print exposure at the level of word. All the 14 charts were commercially produced and so the design and aesthetic features were good. What was a challenge was the language use which was not always at the learners' level and had some words which were not part of their immediate vocabulary needs. This was because the charts were not created specifically for the learners' level and to suit their proficiency levels.

A case illustrative of the disjuncture between the commercially produced materials and the learners' level of proficiency and language/ vocabulary needs was the chart on girls' and women's rights. Below is just a part of the chart. I have underlined and put in italics the words I considered beyond the level of the Grade 3 L2 users of the language who have had very little exposure to the language. The word '*right*' itself is used with a different meaning to one learners are likely to know.

---

It is important that all people believe in themselves, respect themselves and respect the rights of others. Disabled people have the same rights as everybody else. They have the right to career opportunities and employment. Women do not have to obey men even if they are much older. Girls or women have the right to say no to sex or any activities which they do not want to participate in. When couples freely engage in sexual activities both sexes are equally responsible for the prevention of unplanned pregnancies, sexually transmitted disease and HIV /AIDS. All careers are now open to all sexes and races. Certain careers are no longer solely the domain of either men or women. Women can now even become engineers, truck drivers and occupy top management positions. The constitution grants equal rights to all citizens irrespective of race, gender, creed or any disabilities. The inequalities of the past can only be rectified if all people accept their responsibilities and are prepared to accept the challenges that go with these rights. From childhood we were placed in certain ways in society. Men had to be strong and had to play the leading role in both the home and in the workplace. Women on the other hand had to be subservient and had to obey men. These stereotype roles were accepted down the centuries. This situation has now changed. Any form of violence, is unacceptable and illegal.

---

If my intuitive sense of what learners would know and not know is correct, then, in the 235 word passage (I considered the phrase ‘*on the other hand*’ as one word because I underlined it as a word), ignorance of 90 words translated to  $90/235 * 100 = 38\%$  unknown words. This is a massive figure considering that the maximum acceptable amount of vocabulary which may be unknown without compromising comprehension is 2-5% depending on which threshold estimates one is using. The 38% assumes that the other words that I did not highlight like ‘*else, people, same, even, any*’ were known. It also assumes that even the potentially known words which are used in unusual ways would not interfere with comprehension. Examples are, ‘*Men had to...play the role....*’ While the word ‘play’ may be known, its use in this context may be a source of confusion. Another such example is the phrase ‘*challenges that go with these rights*’ where the word ‘go’ assumed a new meaning. If these two assumptions are faulty then the percentage of unknown words would be higher.

Because the relevance of print materials seemed to be the most critical factor in their potential to lead to language and vocabulary acquisition, I was interested in finding out the readability of this part of the chart. I pasted the text onto a reading level calculator found on <http://www.readability-score.com/> and the results were as follows:

Reading Ease

A higher score indicates easier readability; scores usually range between 0 and 100.

Readability Formula	Score
<u>Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease</u>	57.5

#### Grade Levels

A grade level (based on the USA education system) is equivalent to the number of years of education a person has had. Scores over 22 should generally be taken to mean graduate level text.

Readability Formula	Grade
<u>Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level</u>	8.7
<u>Gunning-Fog Score</u>	11.7
<u>Coleman-Liau Index</u>	12.4
<u>SMOG Index</u>	8.5
<u>Automated Readability Index</u>	8.2
Average Grade Level	9.9

#### Text Statistics

Character Count	1,141
Syllable Count	380
Word Count	238
Sentence Count	17
Characters per Word	4.8
Syllables per Word	1.6
Words per Sentence	14.0

According to the grade average of the text from the five readability formulae, Grade 3 L2 learners were expected to cope with material suitable for Grade 10 [9.9] L1 learners. The chart was therefore, well beyond the learners' level. The point of the lack of relevance of some classroom print is belaboured here because it was characteristic of the majority of commercially produced charts that were in the classrooms observed.

#### *Dorothy*

The only chart in English Dorothy had was the commercially produced ABC of road safety. The chart has already been discussed in terms of its use of difficult terms as well as its use of vocabulary not aligned to learners' immediate vocabulary needs.

## Henrietta

Henrietta had several charts in English most of which were on numeracy. All were commercially produced. See Appendix 9 for a composition of her charts. Most of these charts were produced by Solidarity Publications. Some of these are represented in Figure 14.

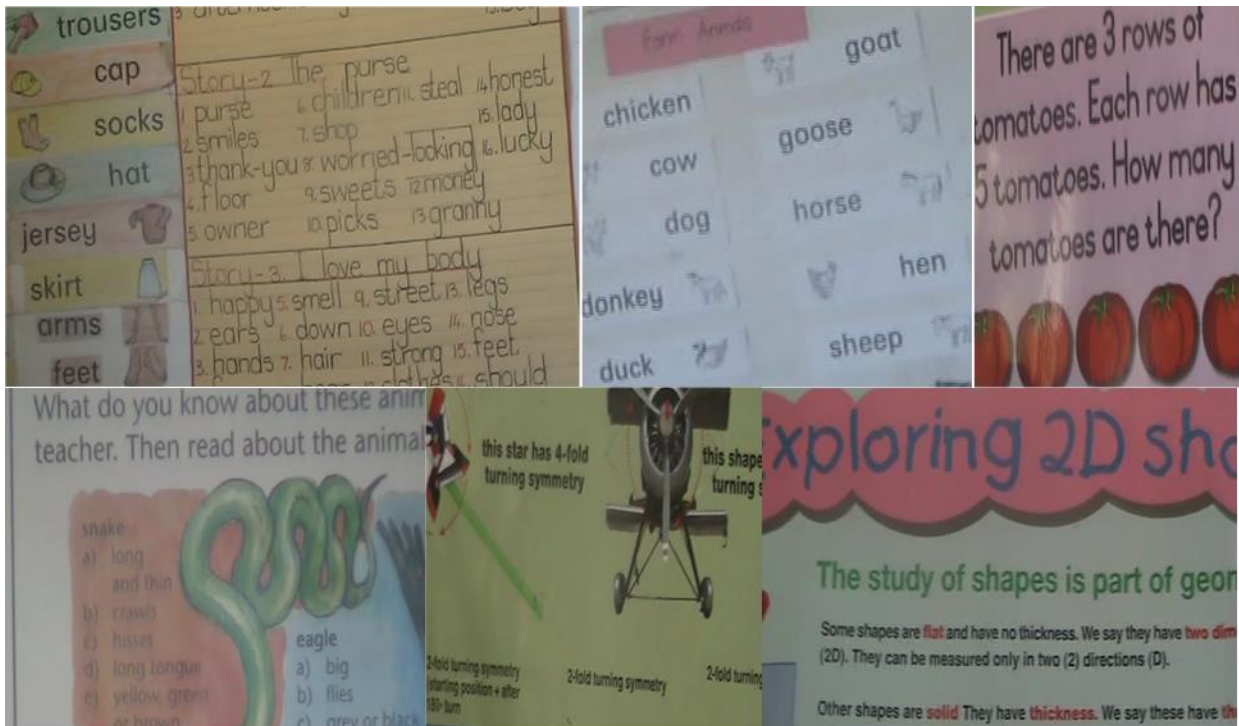


Figure 14: Henrietta's Classroom Print

As was characteristic with most commercially produced charts, they did not recycle the kind of language suitable and necessary for the grade level. The following words or sentences either represented language that was beyond the learners' level or language that was not within their vocabulary needs.

The word 'manicure' in the chart on staying healthy.

A cone is a pyramid with a circle for its base. A cone is made from a sector of a circle.

Many natural crystals are cubes.

This shape has 3-fold turning symmetry.

Exploring 3D shapes.

Perfectly symmetrical, rotational symmetry.

Henrietta was the only one who had classroom objects labelled. This reinforced the oral word knowledge the learners had about the labelled objects.

In terms of the quality of input, the language in most of the commercially produced print was beyond that which the learners at the level could access. This then potentially hindered their acquisition of the same. The mere display of words without any instructions or activities to point to their meaning or use meant that they could only be learnt at the level of word recognition. The representation of the HFW was the next key dimension of the classroom print investigation. As noted earlier, the word lists were generated for each teacher's combined print using the AntConc program. Table 25 shows the amount of vocabulary that emanated from the print and manifestations of the 60 HFW in the classroom print of the teachers.

Table 25: Classroom Print Vocabulary Quantity and Representation of the HFW

Teacher	Tokens	Types	Words within the 60 HFW and frequency of each word's occurrence	Words beyond the 60 HFW but within the 213 HFW
Alice	152	141	and, day (2), different, look, on, stop, together, understand, until (1) <b>9/60=15%</b>	make, to (2), east, no, now, of, sit, teacher, with, hand, any, so (1) <b>12/153=7.8%</b>
Christine	373	277	is (9), and, it, on (3), look (2), stop, but, can, day, do, for, from, have, not, what, you <b>16/60=27%</b>	the (19), book (9), to (5), are, go (4), my, of, up (3), big, I, me, she, with, a, about, all, we, eat, get, when, old, will, then, in, so (1) <b>25/153=16.3%</b>
Dorothy	99	80	stop (2) <b>1/60=2%</b>	no, road (3), of, one, the, way, left, house, keep (1) <b>9/153=5.9%</b>
Esther	390	220	and, (7), is (6), you (4), can, day, for, that, time (2), but, it on (1) <b>11/60=18%</b>	the, a (12), in, I (7), to (6), my (4), are, from, make (3), around, help, put, them (2), all, big, teacher, hand, first, eat, under, new, old, wound, one, there (1) <b>25/153=16.3%</b>
Florence	406	224	stop (2), more, you (1) <b>3/60=5%</b>	One (14), the (4), no, road (3), book, house, of, there, way (2), all, class, keep, left, long, read, teacher, they, their, think, this (1) <b>20/153=13.1%</b>
Gladys	287	247	stop, like (2), after, because, before, day, is, on, that (1) <b>9/60=15%</b>	the (5), no, road (3), left, of, one, see, way (2), a, big, down, eat, good, in, much, long, new, old, small, up (1) <b>20/153=13.1%</b>
Henrietta	845	319	is (27), have, and (12), like (9), can, each, from (8), it (7), you (6), look, same, what (5), do, for, only, or, other, some (3), different, if, more, school, on (2), after, again, every, most, together, out, time, (1) <b>30/60=50%</b>	of (36), a (29), the (23), are, this (23), in, one (9), we, group (7), be, these (6), all, has, there, to (5), they, up, with (4), by, at (3), how, no, any, so (2), say, see, way (2), few, house, new, than, which, over, study (2) around,(1) <b>34/153=22.2%</b>
Jane	410	324	after (7), and, or, school, stop (3) is (2), always, colour, day, different, from, on, use (1) <b>13/153=8.5%</b>	the (7), of (6), road (4), no, one, with, way (3), down, eat, house, keep, left, this (1). <b>13/153=8.5%</b>

<b>Kate</b>	699	374	<b>13/60=22%</b> and (16), is (10), have, not, you (6), on (5), can, for, if, or (4), do, school (3), both, but, it, like, look, more, same, that, time, what (2), day, from, most, once, only, out, work (1) <b>29/60=48%</b>	the (36), to (24), in (18), a (13), of (8), all, be (6), we, I, are (5), any, would (4), at, by, even, no, now, they, will (3), by, down, go, good, has, my, read, these, this (2), with, one, change, eat, get, keep, our, put, see, saw, teacher, than, us, want, which, when, well, write (1). <b>46/153=30.1%</b>
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In terms of the general exposure to the English vocabulary, Henrietta’s classroom print had the highest number of words at 845 tokens. In terms of the word types however, Kate’s 374 and Jane’s 324 types exceeded Henrietta’s 319 word types. Kate and Jane’s classroom print therefore, had greater word variation whereas Henrietta’s had greater word frequency.

Table 25 also indicates that in only one teacher’s class (Henrietta) were there a 50% word use of the 60 HFW and none had a 50%+ word use within the 213 HFW. This is indicative of the unde-representation of both the 60 HFW and the 213 HFW. Dorothy and Florence had as low as 2% and 5% representation of the 60 HFW in their classroom print. Fig 15 below summarises the percentage of words within the 60 HFW list and the 213 HFW list.

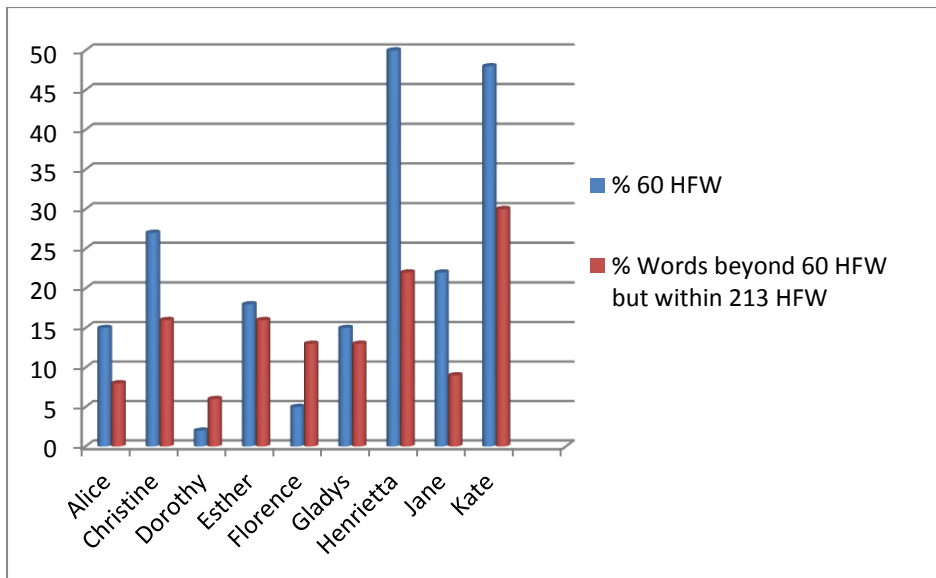


Figure 15: Percentage Words within the 60 HFW and 213 HFW in Classroom Print

Words within the 60 high frequency list dominated those beyond the 60 but within the 213 high frequency list for all teachers’ classroom print except for Dorothy and Florence’s classroom print. In terms of representation of the 60 HFW in classroom print, only Henrietta

had 50% coverage of the 60 HFW and the other eight had below 50% coverage. It was also instructive to identify the 60 HFW which were manifest in the teachers' classroom print seeing they were the benchmark against which the potential of classroom print to lead to language and vocabulary acquisition was measured. This gave a clearer picture of the words that were generally likely to be learnt from classroom print across different schools. Table 26 presents the 60 HFW in the teachers' classroom print and the number of teachers whose classrooms had each of the words.

Table 26: HFW in Teachers' Classroom Print

classes appeared in classroom print	word	Words from the 60 HFW list
7 classes	on	
6 classes	you	
5 classes	and day stop is	
4 classes	look it can for	
3 classes	together do from have but what that time more like	
2 classes	different not same only school after again most out once	
1 class	understand until after because before each other some if every both work	

The frequency of HFW occurrence in classroom print was severely limited as was the coverage of words among the teachers.

In terms of classroom print, there is reliance by teachers on commercially produced material which are not produced with the Grade 3 learners in mind by their producers. These materials lack relevance to the vocabulary needs of the learners. The lack of relevance is manifest mainly in the use of words beyond the learners' level of comprehension. An example of a chart whose readability level is grade 10 which was in Kate's classroom is a case in point. The other lack of relevance stems from the material presenting words which are not of learners' immediate need in terms of communication or learning.

Most of the charts were at the level of word and very little classroom print was at sentential or discourse level. Such classroom print could only help learners with word recognition in the absence of teacher mediation. Wasik and Iannone-Campbell (2012, p. 324) note that "children learn vocabulary best when words are presented in a meaningful context or theme" (Harris, Golinkoff, & Hirsh-Pasek, 2011; Neuman & Dywer, 2009). They further argue that the observation is corroborated by memory research demonstrating that learning is expedited when words are contextualized rather than when they are isolated. Classroom print which was

at the sentence level where sentences were not related one to the other also did not provide the context that was needed for learning word meaning and modeling word use. Classroom print at the discourse level, which had the potential to lead to word recognition, word meaning and word use, was minimally used.

In the lesson observations the researcher made, there was no single reference by any teacher to any print in the classroom during instruction. In most classrooms there was evidence of the charts (which were the predominant form of classroom print) having been in the positions they were in for a very long time. To both the teacher and learners, the classroom print no longer excited any attention and had outlived its usefulness. Labeling of classroom objects was evident in Henrietta's classroom and not in the other classrooms.

There was a manifest lack of HFW visibility in the classroom print in all the classes. Betty did not even have any classroom print. The highest percentage of the 60 HFW was in Henrietta's classroom where half the words were visible. The number of the HFW in the other classrooms' print was as low as a single word (stop in Dorothy's class), 3 words in Florence's class. Table 25 and Figure 15 depict the lack of visibility of the 60 HFW. What was the focus here was just the presence of a word and not the frequency of its occurrence. The words that are considered visible include those which had even a single appearance in the classroom print. Table 26 presents a gloomy picture in terms of the potential of classroom print to lead to the acquisition of key vocabulary for the Grade 3 to 4 transition. Only the word 'on' cut across 7 classes' classroom print, only 'you' cuts across 6 teachers' classroom print. The function words, which were more manifest in the other sources of classroom print, were not as manifest in classroom print. This could be because of the confinement of most of the classroom print to the word level when in fact function words are meant to glue content words together in a context.

## **6.7 Chapter Summary**

The focus of this chapter has been to present data which responded to the second research question relating to the determination of the extent to which Grade 3 learners are prepared for the vocabulary related challenges of reading to learn in Grade 4. The chapter has presented data on the five major aspects. The first aspect was teacher perceptions on various aspects related to vocabulary acquisition and vocabulary related practices, elicited through interviews. The second aspect that was explored was the extent to which the

teachers' perceptions of their own practices translated to their real practices in terms of vocabulary instruction. The other three aspects related to the extent to which the different sources of classroom input contributed to language acquisition and vocabulary development in general and to the acquisition of the 60 HFW in particular. These were teacher talk, Grade 3 reading materials, and classroom print.

The major findings included the intuitive nature of some of the choices teachers make in the development of the English vocabulary of their learners, the nature of which is reflected in the manifest disjuncture between their professed practices and their observed practices. Although strategies for drawing learners' attention to words and word meaning were identified, they were largely characteristic of a few and not all teachers. Notwithstanding the aspects enabling language acquisition from teacher talk, both its quality and quantity were compromised by myriad factors. The use of language beyond learners' level which was also riddled with grammatical errors affected the quality of the input from most teachers. The economy with which the English language was used in its different manifestations affected the quantity of language exposure in the lessons. The frequency of word occurrences in teacher talk and their sustained use in all the segments of the lessons was evidently very limited for almost all the teachers. Reading materials used in Grade 3 however, modelled the use of the majority of the 60 HFW. Classroom print's contribution to the vocabulary development of learners was compromised by the irrelevance of some of the print to the learners' level as well as the low visibility of the 60 HFW in the print.

Having presented data related to the extent of learners' preparation for the Grade 4 vocabulary demands, the learners' knowledge of the requisite vocabulary was tested when they started Grade 4. Chapter 7 presents data on how the learners fared in the tests at Grade 4 level.

## **7.0 CHAPTER 7 DATA PRESENTATION: GRADE 4 LEARNERS' PERFORMANCE IN VOCABULARY TESTS**

### **7.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents data which responds to the present study's third research question: the determination of learners' vocabulary knowledge of the 60 HFW. It presents data of a quantitative nature on the learners' knowledge of the requisite HFW. The data presented in the chapter sought to show the extent to which the same cohort of 2012 Grade 3 learners, now 2013 Grade 4 learners, possessed the HFW which indicate the core vocabulary needed to cope with the transition from Grade 3 to 4.

Data for this chapter derives from the 9 tests that were administered to 297 learners in 8 schools, 10 classes and 4 Districts of the Eastern Cape. Two schools had two classes each hence the reference to 8 schools but to 10 teachers in the present study. Each of the 60 HFW was tested on the learners in at least 6 different ways. These 9 tests evaluated three dimensions of word knowledge namely: word recognition knowledge (Test 1-3 tests), passive word knowledge (Test 4-6) and active word knowledge (Test 7-9). Each word was tested in all the three dimensions as well as in all the three word recognition tests. The 60 words belonged to five word bands A-E with each band having 12 words. Band A represented the most frequent words on the 213 word list representative of the vocabulary needs of the learners. Because they were the most frequent, the expectation was that the learners would have encountered them and they would be known more than those which were less frequent. Band E represented the words which were least frequent and so could potentially present difficulties to learners.

Through the use of the 9 tests, this chapter highlights what learners knew about particular words. The data is presented according to different permutations aimed at building up a clearer picture of Grade 4 learners' word knowledge. The learners' performance is presented in accordance with the permutations that were relevant for the purposes of the present study. These were word knowledge in relation to performance in individual tests, on individual words, on word dimensions in relation to Districts as well as per school. The learners' performance according to individual tests is presented first.

## **7.2 Learner Performance in Individual Tests**

After the administration and marking of the 9 tests, the scores were entered by the data capturers on the template prepared by the statistician. As indicated in chapter 5, for every known word a score of 1 was entered against the learner's code and against the known word. A score of 0 was entered for an unknown word. After the data capturing and cross-checking for accuracy, the results were analysed by the statistician (a professor in the Department of Statistics) using Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) package.

From the statistical output, I summarised the test scores in the format given in Table 27 in a bid to offer a global overview of the performance of learners on particular tests and across all the tests. The variables which were of interest to the study were the mean scores and the standard deviations. The mean gave an indication of the average of all the scores of all the learners in the test which represented their test performance. The standard deviation gave an idea of how close the entire set of data was to the mean value. The smaller the standard deviation, the more tightly grouped and precise the learners' performance was; and the larger the standard deviations, the greater the spread of the scores was over a wide range of values within the test.

The total possible number of learners who sat for the tests was 297 but the actual number of learners who sat for each test varied from test to test. This was because some learners were absent for some tests. Test 1 had the lowest number of learners who sat for the test because, in addition to the learners who were absent, some learners' scripts were regarded as spoilt and disqualified because these learners merely circled all the words in the word/pseudo-word test which required them to circle only the English words they knew. With the nature of the scoring described above, such learners would have been regarded as knowing all the words had their scripts not been disqualified. The details about the disqualification of such were discussed in Chapter 5.

In the presentation of the individual test results, the test types are used as the organising framework. The test types are in accordance with the dimension of word they tested. The three dimensions as indicated earlier are word recognition (Test 1-3), passive word knowledge (Test 4-6) and active word knowledge (Test 7-9). Table 26 presents the data from word recognition tests.

Table 27: Learner Performance on Word Recognition Tests

TEST	1[Word/Pseudo-Word Test]			TEST 2 [Word Reading Test]				TEST 3 [Word Spacing Test]			
<b>Test &amp; Bands</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std Dev</b>	<b>Test &amp; Bands</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std Dev</b>	<b>Test &amp; Bands</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std Dev</b>
1a	201	81.3	29.5	2a	204	71.2	31.5	3a	283	47.0	32.9
1b	201	72.6	29.6	2b	204	60.7	33.4	3b	283	37.2	29.7
1c	201	69.8	30.0	2c	204	61.0	32.8	3c	283	45.4	34.8
1d	201	55.2	30.9	2d	204	47.6	37.2	3d	283	38.3	35.3
1e	201	58.0	28.6	2e	204	45.8	32.4	3e	283	34.7	32.8
<b>Test 1 Overall</b>	201	<b>67.3</b>	<b>26.6</b>	<b>Test 2 Overall</b>	204	<b>57.3</b>	<b>30.8</b>	<b>Test 3 Overall</b>	283	<b>40.4</b>	<b>31.3</b>

The overall test performance in the three tests shows that Test 1 was done well with an overall mean of 67.3%, Test 2 was not as well as done with learners' mean score being 57.3% and Test 3 had the lowest performance of 40.4%. Test 1 was about the identification of English words from among non-words by circling the real words. Test 2 was about reading the words on flash cards. Test 3 tested learners' ability to recognise words and separate them one from the other prompted by the reading of the sentences in which they were used with no spaces between them. In all instances, learners were supposed to demonstrate that they could recognise the words. It was therefore apparent that seeing a word and recognising it as a word was an easier aspect of word knowledge to demonstrate than reading the word that one recognised as a known word. Had the two demands been the same, one would have expected the results of test 1 and 2 to converge. Learners performed best in Test 1 despite its distractors than in Test 2 with none or Test 3 where, what learners needed was to listen to the reading of a sentence by the researcher and separate one word from the other. Lack of mastery of the concept of word spacing, or what a word is, possibly accounts for the low performance in Test 3.

In terms of learners' performance in the different word bands, word bands for Test 1 all had percentage means of more than 50%, Test 2 had 50%+ percentage means for three of the five word bands and for Test 3 none of the word bands had a percentage mean of 50%+. Apart from Band D words whose mean score was lower than that of Band E words, Test 1 almost confirmed the present study's assumption that word difficulty got progressively higher as one moved from Band A to E. In Test 2, the order is reversed between Band B and C and for Test 3, only Band A and E maintained their assumed positions of highest and lowest mean scores. The average mean score for the three word recognition tests was 55%.

The standard deviation was quite high for all the three tests showing that the learners' performance varied much. This was particularly so for Test 2 and Test 3. Table 28 presents the tests which tested learners' passive word knowledge.

Table 28: Learners' Performance on Tests of Passive Word Knowledge

TEST 4 [Word Definition Test]				TEST 5 [Multiple Choice Test]				TEST 6 [Gap-Filling Test]			
Test & Bands	N	Mean	Std Dev	Test & Bands	N	Mean	Std Dev	Test & Bands	N	Mean	Std Dev
4a				5a	277	52.0	24.2	6a	279	34.1	30.1
4b	252	26.1	35.0	5b	277	65.8	47.6	6b	279	29.7	21.5
4c	252	35.8	24.6	5c	277	48.2	22.8	6c	279	22.0	26.9
4d	252	34.5	32.3	5d	277	48.0	35.9	6d	279	23.5	19.5
4e	252	26.5	25.1	5e	277	47.4	23.5	6e	279	43.4	37.9
<b>Test 4 Overall</b>	<b>252</b>	<b>30.7</b>	<b>21.2</b>	<b>Test 5 Overall</b>	<b>277</b>	<b>49.9</b>	<b>19.0</b>	<b>Test 6 Overall</b>	<b>279</b>	<b>28.7</b>	<b>19.6</b>

Test 4, 5 and 6 tested passive word knowledge where the correct word was provided together with other words and the learner's task was to choose the correct word from the ones given. Test 4 provided definitions and the words matching those definitions and the learner had to match the words with the definitions. Tests 5 and 6 were filling in exercises where learners selected the right word to use to complete the sentences. The formats and demands made on the learners differed.

All the passive word knowledge tests had percentage mean scores less than 50% although Test 5 was quite close to 50%. This was possibly because for Test 5, each sentence had only three words to choose from compared to the other two. Although the standard deviations of the three tests were lower than those of the word recognition tests, they were still high, evidence that the learners' performance was not homogeneous for any of the tests.

In terms of learners' performance in the different word bands, it is important to note that Test 4 did not test any word in Band A and that Band B and C words had the highest percentage means. Test 6 even had Band E words with the highest percentage mean. Only Band B words in Test 5 had a mean percentage above 50%. The assumption that Band A words would be the most known and Band E words would be least known, and that there would be a progressive decline in word knowledge from Band A to Band E, was not supported by the learners' performance in the different word bands across the three tests. The three passive

word knowledge tests had an average percentage mean of 36.4%. The last three tests tested the active word knowledge dimension. The performance of the learners is presented in Table 29.

Table 29: Learners' Performance on Active Word Knowledge Tests

TEST 7 [Word Dictation Test]				TEST 8 [L1 to L2 Recall Test]				TEST 9 [Controlled Productive Vocabulary Test]			
Test & Bands	N	Mean	Std Dev	Test & Bands	N	Mean	Std Dev	Test & Bands	N	Mean	Std Dev
7a	243	50.7	31.5	8a	281	48.3	25.4	9a	269	48.7	26.3
7b	243	37.9	29.0	8b	281	27.7	29.0	9b	269	38.3	28.0
7c	243	32.6	26.7	8c	281	40.1	26.4	9c	269	23.7	25.3
7d	243	23.2	27.3	8d	281	23.1	26.2	9d	269	17.0	29.3
7e	243	24.8	25.8	8e	281	17.7	21.8	9e	269	47.2	50.0
<b>Test 7 Overall</b>	243	<b>33.8</b>	<b>26.1</b>	<b>Test 8 Overall</b>	281	<b>29.1</b>	<b>22.4</b>	<b>Test 9 Overall</b>	269	<b>37.4</b>	<b>21.6</b>

Test 7 tested the learners' ability to write short sentences with the 60 HFW dictated to them by the researcher. Test 8 tested learners' knowledge of the English equivalents of isiXhosa words given in sentences with the aid of clues in form of the number of spaces equivalent to the English word size and the second and third letters of the word provided. Test 9 items provided a sentence with a missing word and clues to the right word to complete the sentence, in the form of the first two letters of the word but without any indication of its length.

All the three tests' mean scores were below 50%. In fact the highest was Test 9 with an overall mean of 37.4%. Surprisingly, the worst performance was in the test that required learners to provide the English equivalent of an isiXhosa word. This was despite the clues being given in the form of the second and third letter of the word and in the spaces indicating the word length. The surprise comes when one considers that the vocabulary meaning episode that was dominant in all teachers' talk when the same learners were in Grade 3 was translation of words from English to isiXhosa. One wonders whether teachers' translation of words from English to isiXhosa did not translate to learners' knowledge of the same words when the direction of translation reversed, that is from isiXhosa to English.

Word writing, which the majority of teachers had identified the previous year in the interview as being the problematic word dimension among the learners, was confirmed as such by the

low performance of learners in these tests which tested learners' knowledge of the written form of word meaning.

In terms of learners' performance in the different word bands, Test 7 results were almost consistent with the assumption of the progressive decline of word knowledge from the first to the last word band. For all tests in general, the present study does not confirm the assumption. Only Band A in Test 7 had a mean score above 50%. The overall percentage mean for the three tests of productive word knowledge was 33.4. Table 30 gives a summary of the learners' performance per test in terms of the mean score and standard deviation for each test. This allows ease of comparison of the learners' performance across all the 9 tests.

Table 30: Summary of Learners' Performance in Individual Tests

Test	Mean	Std Dev	Test	Mean	Std Dev.	Test	Mean	Std Dev.
1	67.3	26.6	4	30.7	21.2	7	33.8	26.1
2	57.3	30.8	5	49.9	19.0	8	29.1	22.4
3	40.4	31.3	6	28.7	19.6	9	37.4	21.6
Word Recognition Knowledge Overall Mean 55.0			Passive Word Knowledge Overall Mean 36.4			Active Word Knowledge Overall Mean 33.4		

The overall mean scores for each of the tests indicate that performance in tests of word recognition was higher than that in other tests. The lowest performance was exhibited in Active word knowledge tests. In terms of learners' performance in individual tests, performance was highest in Test 1 and lowest in Test 8. There was a great spread of scores in all tests and within all the bands with the standard deviation from the mean with the lowest standard deviation being 19.0. The study was interested in understanding which of the 60 HFW were known and which were not.

### 7.3 Learner Performance According to Individual Words

Table 31 presents a summary of the learners' performance on each of the 60 HFW across the 9 tests. The blanks in the table indicate that a particular word was not tested through that specific test. The figures under each test denote the overall mean score of all the learners on the particular word. The 'Tests above 50%' column indicates the percentage of tests in which learners' performance on a test was 50% or above. The last column, 'Overall mean score,' averages all the means for a particular word in all the tests. The table presents multi kinds of

information which necessitates that it be followed up on by other tables making sense of the data that it presents.

Table 31: Learners' Performance on Individual Words

Word	T1%	T2%	T3%	T4%	T5%	T6%	T7%	T8%	T9%	Tests above 50%	Overall mean score
<b>and</b>	86.1	80.6	40.5		52.0		45.1	81.9	42.8	3	61.3
<b>you</b>	84.6	77.2	65.8			57.0	76.6		66.8	6	71.3
<b>use</b>	69.7	35.9	60.9			26.2	16.8	44.5		2	42.3
<b>can</b>	80.6	70.2	70.4		35.0		38.5		52.0	4	57.8
<b>do</b>	80.1	56.6	48.2		34.3		68.9	21.4		3	51.6
<b>what</b>	80.1	66.5	63.0		80.1		53.7	25.6		5	61.5
<b>is</b>	87.1	86.8	27.8		66.8		67.6	36.3		4	62.1
<b>for</b>	78.6	69.9	38.7			22.6	31.1		58.3	3	49.9
<b>it</b>	81.6	79.5	35.6		52.3		64.8		37.3	4	43.4
<b>or</b>	83.1	81.5	25.7		54.9		49.6	80.4		4	62.5
<b>on</b>	85.1	82.0	41.2		40.4		51.6		63.1	4	60.6
<b>that</b>	79.1	64.4	46.5			30.8	44.3		20.3	2	47.6
<b>have</b>	83.6	78.0	52.1			26.2	41.8	16.4		3	49.6
<b>need</b>	71.1	63.4	57.7	32.0			35.2		30.0	3	48.2
<b>like</b>	81.1	65.4	23.9			37.6	50.0	51.6		4	51.6
<b>from</b>	85.6	78.4	45.8			24.0	63.5		53.9	4	58.5
<b>other</b>	70.1	37.7	56.3			14.7	13.1		17.4	2	34.9
<b>out</b>	76.1	52.2	14.8			40.5	25.8		62.0	3	45.2
<b>each</b>	65.2	42.2	27.5			25.4	33.6		11.9	1	34.3
<b>different</b>	43.3	50.2	19.7	20.2			16.8	11.0		1	26.9
<b>answer</b>	45.8	37.3	22.5			26.5	23.4	24.6		0	30.0
<b>work</b>	80.1	61.8	39.1		65.7		36.9	22.1		3	51.0
<b>not</b>	83.1	80.4	34.5			26.2	70.1		54.8	4	58.2
<b>look</b>	86.6	80.4	54.8			46.2	44.7	40.6		3	58.9
<b>if</b>	78.1	80.5	31.7		57.8	21.1	64.3			4	55.6
<b>own</b>	46.3	53.2	32.7		36.5		23.4		51.7	2	40.6
<b>but</b>	78.6	65.4	46.8		54.2		13.5	21.7		3	46.7
<b>explain</b>	52.7	51.1	38.7		39.7		11.9	10.3		2	34.1
<b>why</b>	60.7	54.4	56.7		48.0		29.1	58.7		4	51.3
<b>some</b>	75.6	55.1	47.2			18.3	22.5		19.9	2	36.5
<b>time</b>	80.1	57.4	37.0		63.5		41.4	51.2		2	55.1
<b>day</b>	81.6	77.1	60.2			26.5	50.8	42.7		4	56.5
<b>same</b>	68.7	57.4	50.0	22.9			19.7	20.3		3	39.8
<b>also</b>	68.7	41.7	34.9	7.9			29.1		6.3	1	31.4
<b>more</b>	58.2	52.9	45.1		37.5		23.0		17.0	2	39.0
<b>school</b>	86.6	83.8	63.4	76.7			62.7	75.8		6	74.8
<b>only</b>	75.6	52.7	42.6			12.2	30.7	40.2		2	42.3
<b>between</b>	64.2	54.1	31.0			29.4	32.4	26.0		2	39.5
<b>colour</b>	58.2	46.8	32.4			52.7	24.6	17.1		2	38.6
<b>because</b>	51.2	47.1	31.7		53.4		13.2		7.8	2	34.1
<b>example</b>	62.7	44.6	44.4			22.9	16.0	29.9		1	36.8
<b>important</b>	37.3	38.0	31.7			29.0	12.8	9.6		0	26.4
<b>together</b>	48.8	51.0	18.3	24.5			30.5	26.3		1	33.2
<b>after</b>	63.7	47.8	45.1	29.2	42.6		28.4	36.7		1	42.0
<b>piece</b>	30.8	35.8	36.6	49.8			7.8	20.3		0	30.2
<b>most</b>	57.2	54.9	57.0			11.1	38.5	11.4		3	38.4
<b>must</b>	58.2	52.0	63.4			12.9	21.8	13.5		3	37.0
<b>another</b>	52.7	44.6	25.0			17.9	23.5		26.3	1	31.7
<b>every</b>	76.1	48.3	41.9			35.8	35.2		47.2	1	47.4
<b>stop</b>	84.1	77.1	33.8			50.9	66.4	37.7		4	58.3

<b>both</b>	53.2	43.9	31.7	13.1	23.1		45.1	10.7	1	31.6
<b>understand</b>	46.8	35.3	30.3	41.1			13.5	10.1	0	29.6
<b>enough</b>	35.3	29.4	28.2		44.4		7.4	4.6	0	24.9
<b>until</b>	46.8	25.9	36.3				9.8	8.5	0	25.5
<b>always</b>	72.6	51.0	38.4	22.1			27.9	19.6	2	38.6
<b>again</b>	54.7	48.3	35.9		51.3		16.8	19.9	2	37.8
<b>before</b>	48.3	55.9	36.3		66.8		13.1	12.5	2	28.7
<b>easy</b>	44.3	29.4	25.0		46.2		10.2	9.6	0	27.5
<b>once</b>	65.2	31.4	35.9	29.8			32.4	35.2	1	38.3
<b>family</b>	68.7	72.5	43.0		58.1		20.1	26.0	3	48.1
<b>Proportion of words over 50% means</b>	81.7	66.7	23.3	8.3	56	11.5	21.7	15	40	

From Table 31, much interest was in the last row and last column of the table. The last row identified the proportion of words with overall means which were over 50% in each of the 9 tests. The last column identified the overall percentage mean performance of learners on each word across the 9 tests. The last row totalled and averaged all the mean scores for words within each test whereas the last column totalled and averaged all the mean scores for words across all the 9 tests. Also instructive was the second last column which identified the total number of tests in which a word had a 50%+ mean score.

In terms of the proportion of words that had overall means of 50% and above in relation to the number of words tested, only tests 1, 2 and 5 had half or more than half the words with mean scores of 50% or above. Test 4 with a percentage mean score of 8.3% and Test 6 with a percentage mean score of 11.6% had the lowest number of words where learners' word knowledge had a mean score of 50% or above. It meant that, for learners, word knowledge was easier to demonstrate in the identifying words from pseudo-words, in word reading and in choosing the correct word from three given words to complete a sentence than in the other test formats. It also meant that word definitions and gap-filling exercises were most problematic.

To make sense of the performance of learners in the individual words, a percentage of the number of mean scores which had 50% and above percentage means was calculated. For the word 'and' for instance, the word was tested on all the learners in seven different tests yielding the following mean scores:

Word	T1%	T2%	T3%	T4%	T5%	T6%	T7%	T8%	T9%	Tests above 50%	Overall mean score
<b>and</b>	86.1	80.6	40.5		52.0		45.1	81.9	42.8	4	61.3

The assumption the present study made was that where word knowledge was demonstrated to 50% level (be it 50% words known, 50% learners knowing or 50% mean scores) it represented fair knowledge of a word. The number of tests that had 50% and above were counted and represented in the 'Tests above 50%' column. This gave an indication of the extent of coverage of fairly well known words. The higher the number of tests in which the mean score for a word was 50% +, the greater the word knowledge by the learners was.

To make sense of the data on the 'Tests above 50%' column of Table 31, I added up all the words which had 50%+ mean scores in one test, all the words where a test had 50%+ mean scores in two tests up to the one with 50% mean scores in all the tests.

It was also important to highlight the exact words which did not have any 50%+ mean score in any test, those that had only one test in which the mean score was at 50% or beyond and so on. Table 32 identifies the exact words and the number of tests in which they had 50%+ performance.

Table 32: Tests with 50%+ Percentage Mean and Proportion of Words Covered

No. of Tests in which mean performance was 50%+	Proportion of the words in relation to the 60 HFW	The words
0	11.7%	answer, important, piece, understand, enough, until, easy
1	16.7%	each, different, also, example, together, after, another, every, both, once
2	25%	use, that, other, own, explain, some, time, more, only, between, colour, because, always, again, before
3	21.7%	and, do, for, have, need, out, work, look, but, same, most, must, family
4	20%	can, is, it, or, on, like, from, not, if, why, day, stop
5	1.7%	what
6	3.3%	you, school

The distribution above shows that 7 words (11.7%) had no test in which they had a mean score of 50%+, 10 words (16.7%) only had a 50%+ mean score in one test and so forth. For words tested in six different ways, the bulk of the words i.e. 45 (75%) had mean scores of 50% or above in 0-3 tests with the remainder having 50% or above mean scores in 4-6 tests. Of the 25% words which had mean scores of 50% or above in 4-6 tests, 11.7% were Band A

words, 5% were Band B words, 6.7% were Band C words and 1.7% were Band E words. None of the words in Band D had 50% or above mean scores in more than three tests. This implied that Band D words were the most problematic for learners to demonstrate word knowledge on.

The words which only had a 50%+ mean score in 0, 1, 2 or 3 tests out of the 6 tests in which they were tested were mostly content words. In the words which had 50% + percentage mean in 4-6 tests, only the word 'school', 'day', and 'stop' were content words with the other 12 being function words. Content words were therefore, more challenging for learners than function words.

The performance of learners on individual words was also manifest in the overall mean score for each word across all the tests in which it was tested. The overall mean scores are represented in Table 31 in the last column. The overall means were calculated by averaging all the mean scores for a word across all the tests in which it appeared. Table 34 draws from Table 31 and shows the number of words falling into the different overall mean performance categories.

Table 33: Overall Mean Performance Categories and the Proportion of Words Covered

Mean Performance categories	Proportion of words	The words
21-29%	11.7%	different, important, understand, enough, until, before, easy
30-39%	35.0%	answer, other, explain, some, same, also, more, between, colour, because, example, together, most, must, another, both, always, again, once, piece, each
40-49%	21.7%	use, for, it, that, have, need, out, own, but, only, after, every, family
50-59%	20%	can, do, like, from, work, not, look, if, time, day, stop, why
60-69%	8.3%	and, what, is, or, on
70-79%	3.3%	you, school

Table 33 shows that the bulk of the words (68.3%) fell within the below 50% mean categories. Of the 31.7% words which had overall mean scores of 50% and above, 13.3% were Band A words, 8.3% were Band B words, another 8.3% were Band C words and 1.7% were Band E words. Again all the Band D words were in the below 50% performance categories. Equally recurring was the pattern where learners' performance on the function words was better than that in the content words.

In terms of learners' performance in the individual words, more words were not even fairly well known taking a 50% level of word knowledge as determining fair word knowledge. This was evident in that, for the majority of the 60 HFW, the number of tests in which they had a mean score of 50% and above was less than those in which they did not have a 50% or above mean score. It was further buttressed by the observation that the overall mean score for the majority of words across the tests was below 50%. The next level of analysis was to establish the performance of learners per school.

#### 7.4 Learners' Performance per Test per School

As was indicated in Chapter 5, the eight schools which participated in the study were distributed thus: 4 rural schools, 2 peri-urban schools and 2 township schools. The diversity in the school settings was not so much to give a comparative dimension of learner performances, but to represent the diversity characterising the school system. In this section, the learners' performance per school is analysed in the three categories of peri-urban schools, township schools and rural schools. Table 34 presents the results of the school based learners' performance for the two peri-urban schools.

Table 34: Learners' Performance (Peri-urban Schools)

School	Test	Mean	Std. dev.	Std. error	School	Test	Mean	Std. dev.	Std. error
<b>A</b>	1	66.6	23.2	5.8	<b>F</b>	1	75.5	19.2	5.8
	2	43.3	20.9	4.2		2	73.8	26.3	9.3
	3	37.8	19.0	3.8		3	56.2	19.7	5.5
	4	39.8	3.2	0.7		4	39.0	1.8	0.5
	5	56.9	6.2	1.2		5	70.5	4.2	1.2
	6	32.0	5.8	1.1		6	57.4	4.0	1.1
	7	26.0	17.3	3.4		7	51.5	16.7	4.7
	8	26.2	7.1	1.4		8	43.1	8.3	2.3
	9	33.7	2.1	0.4		9	52.5	4.2	1.2
<b>Overall</b>	<b>Test 1-9</b>	<b>40.3</b>	<b>11.6</b>	<b>2.4</b>	<b>Overall</b>	<b>Test 1-9</b>	<b>57.8</b>	<b>11.6</b>	<b>3.5</b>

For the 9 tests, school A learners had a mean of 50%+ in only 2 tests, Test 1 and Test 5, with Test 1 having the highest percentage mean of  $66.6 \pm 5.8$ . Despite the earlier observation on overall test performance for all the schools having indicated that learners did well in tests of word recognition, school A did not fare well in the other two tests of word recognition; the reading tests and the word spacing test. This was unlike school F learners' performance where the mean of 50%+ was attained in 7 of the 9 tests including all the three word recognition tests. In school F, only Tests 4 and Test 8 had below 50% mean scores with Test

4 registering the least performance of  $39,0 \pm 0.5$ . For school A, the overall percentage mean was  $40.3 \pm 2.4$  whereas that for school F was  $57.8 \pm 3.5$ . An average of the two overall means was 49.1%

In terms of the variance in learner performance for both schools, there was less variation in 5 tests (Test 4, 5, 6, 8, and 9) where these had a single whole digit for their standard deviation compared to the other where there were two whole digit numbers.

What the results of the two peri-urban schools indicate is that the performance of learners was not dependent on their location as the two schools, both of which were near small towns, had different performances. The next set of schools was the two township schools whose performance is presented in Table 35.

Table 35: Learners' Performance (Township Schools)

School	Test	Mean	Std. dev.	Std. error	School	Test	Mean	Std. dev.	Std. error
<b>G</b>	1	66.0	22.7	3.0	<b>H</b>	1	57.0	23.5	3.2
	2	57.6	22.1	3.5		2	54.4	18.8	2.1
	3	35.5	18.2	2.0		3	26.3	16.7	1.9
	4	33.3	2.5	0.3		4	29.5	3.0	0.4
	5	46.1	5.1	0.6		5	45.3	5.7	0.6
	6	24.8	4.7	0.5		6	23.7	4.9	0.5
	7	35.3	17.0	2.0		7	19.4	10.9	1.5
	8	32.2	10.3	1.2		8	20.2	7.2	0.8
	9	36.0	4.7	0.5		9	29.6	4.1	0.5
<b>Overall</b>	<b>Test 1-9</b>	<b>40.8</b>	<b>12.0</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>Overall</b>	<b>Test 1-9</b>	<b>34.0</b>	<b>10.5</b>	<b>1.3</b>

In school G, only 2/9 tests (Test 1 and 2) had mean scores of 50%+ with Test 1 having the highest percentage mean of  $66.0 \pm 3.0$ . The other 7 tests had below 50% mean scores with Test 4 having the lowest mean of  $33.3 \pm 0.3$ . All the 9 tests combined yielded an overall mean of  $40.8 \pm 1.5$ .

The other township school, school H had even lower test performance as reflected in the mean scores for each test and overall for all the 9 tests. Like school G, only two tests (Test 1 and 2) had 50%+ percentage mean scores. Test 1 had the highest score of  $57.0 \pm 3.2$  and Test 7 had the least mean of  $19.4 \pm 1.5$ . The overall mean score was  $34.0 \pm 1.3$ .

The performance of learners in both township schools, which shared a similar location within the same town, was low. The overall mean of the lowest peri-urban school equalled that of the highest township school. The average of the overall means of the two township schools was 37.4%. There was greater homogeneity of performance between the two township schools, with both registering low performance.

There was less variance in learners' performance particularly for the tests which had fewer items and greater variance for the tests with more items. To that end, for all schools regardless of location, tests of word recognition (Tests 1, 2 and 3) as well as the dictation test (Test 7), which tested all the 60 words, had two whole digit standard deviations. For school G even Test 8 had two-digit standard deviation possibly on account of the 40 items it tested. The pattern is consistent even for the rural schools and so the point is not belaboured in the interpretation of the results for the rural schools. Table 36 presents the data from the four rural schools, all of which were in locations far removed from the urban settings and had similar material conditions.

Table 36: Learners' Performance (Rural Schools)

School	Test	Mean	Std. dev.	Std. error	School	Test	Mean	Std. dev.	Std. error
<b>B</b>	1	80.9	22.1	5.2	<b>C</b>	1	72.3	23.3	5.8
	2	69.2	18.2	4.1		2	57.6	24.4	4.7
	3	59.4	19.6	4.3		3	52.9	17.1	3.5
	4	39.2	2.1	0.5		4	30.8	2.6	0.5
	5	50.1	3.7	0.8		5	44.3	0.5	0.1
	6	18.3	2.5	0.5		6	47.4	5.2	1.1
	7	36.4	11.1	2.4		7	38.1	17.0	3.5
	8	33.6	8.3	1.8		8	28.2	8.7	1.8
	9	47.1	4.0	0.9		9	30.6	3.8	0.8
<b>Overall</b>	<b>Test 1-9</b>	<b>48.2</b>	<b>10.2</b>	<b>2.3</b>	<b>Overall</b>	<b>Test 1-9</b>	<b>44.7</b>	<b>11.4</b>	<b>2.4</b>
<b>D</b>	1	72.4	22.9	5.5	<b>E</b>	1	86.5	20.8	6.6
	2	86.3	27.5	8.0		2	74.8	21.2	6.4
	3	68.7	17.8	4.0		3	60.8	18.2	5.5
	4	18.8	2.3	0.5		4	23.3	1.4	0.5
	5	64.4	0	0		5	56.0	6.7	2.1
	6	53.0	6.2	1.4		6	16.3	3.0	0.9
	7	58.6	19.3	4.4		7	46.1	17.1	5.0
	8	47.5	10.9	2.5		8	50.6	11.3	3.3
	9	59.2	5.7	1.3		9	56.2	5.4	1.6
<b>Overall</b>	<b>Test 1-9</b>	<b>58.8</b>	<b>12.5</b>	<b>3.1</b>	<b>Overall</b>	<b>Test 1-9</b>	<b>52.3</b>	<b>11.7</b>	<b>3.5</b>

Test results for school B show that 4/9 tests (Test 1, 2, 3, and 5) had 50%+ percentage means with Test 1 having the highest mean of  $80.9 \pm 5.2$ . The lowest performance was in Test 6

with a mean of  $18.3 \pm 2.5$ . The school had an overall mean of  $48.2 \pm 2.3$ . The greatest variance was in Test 1 where the standard deviation was 22.1 and the least variance was in Test 5 with a 0.5 standard deviation.

In school C, 3/9 tests (Test 1, 2, 3), all of which were the word recognition tests, had 50%+ percentage means with the rest of the tests falling below the 50% mean. Test 1 had the highest mean of  $72.3 \pm 5.8$  and Test 8 had the lowest mean of  $28.2 \pm 1.8$ . The school registered a  $44.7 \pm 2.4$  overall percentage mean. The highest standard deviation was in Test 2 (24.4) and the lowest was in Test 5 (0.5).

Learners in school D registered 50%+ percentage mean in 7/9 tests with only Test 4 and 8 having  $18.8 \pm 0.5$  and  $47.5 \pm 2.5$  respectively. For a change, Test 2 (Word reading test) had the highest mean of  $86.3 \pm 8.0$ . It also had the highest variance of 27.5. The tests with high percentage means also tended to have the highest variance. The school had an overall percentage mean of 58.8.

In school E, 5/9 tests (1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 9) had means above 50%. Test 1 had  $86.5 \pm 6.6$  and the lowest mean of  $16.3 \pm 0.9$ . The overall mean for all the tests was  $52.3 \pm 3.5$ . Again the tests with the highest number of items had the greatest variance in performance. Averaging the means of the four rural schools in the study yielded a percentage mean of 51.

A quick comparison of the schools according to the three localities shows that rural schools outperformed both peri-urban and township schools. The average means for the rural, peri-urban and township schools were 51.0, 49.1 and 37.4 respectively.

In terms of the overall percentage means, the ranking of the individual schools from the highest performing to the lowest performing school, was school D, F, E, B, C, G, H, A. Only schools D, F, E had more than 50% overall means. It is also in the three schools that more than half the tests had over 50% means. The first and third highest performing schools were both rural schools and the lowest performing school was a peri-urban school. That only three of the eight schools had 50%+ means and that all the three overall means were in the fifties range shows that the learners' knowledge of the 60 HFW in the schools was quite low. In the preceding discussions on the overall test performance for all the learners, the performance of learners according to the different word dimensions tested emerged. The next section further

interrogates the relationship between learners' performance and the dimensions of words tested, but this time in relation to the four districts in which the eight schools were situated. The four Districts were Butterworth, Grahamstown, Idutywa and Libode.

### 7.5 Learners' Performance according to Dimensions of Word Tested and Districts

Table 37 presents learners' performance in the three dimensions of word (word recognition-Tests 1-3; passive word knowledge-Tests 4-6, and active word knowledge-Tests 7-9) in relation to the four Districts in which the study was conducted.

Table 37: Learners' Performance on Word Dimensions per District

Dimension of word	District	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Word Recognition %	Butterworth	63.0	27.8	19
	Grahamstown	52.4	27.6	43
	Idutywa	72.3	21.2	20
	Libode	65.4	25.4	11
	<b>Overall</b>	<b>63.3</b>	<b>25.5</b>	<b>93</b>
Passive Knowledge %	Butterworth	43.4	20.2	19
	Grahamstown	40.3	15.5	43
	Idutywa	44.8	15.1	20
	Libode	45.2	12.1	11
	<b>Overall</b>	<b>43.4</b>	<b>15.7</b>	<b>93</b>
Active Knowledge %	Butterworth	43.4	30.8	19
	Grahamstown	35.9	27.4	43
	Idutywa	43.9	18.5	20
	Libode	34.8	19.7	11
	<b>Overall</b>	<b>39.5</b>	<b>24.1</b>	<b>93</b>

The overall means for the four Districts on each dimension showed a decline in scores from word recognition to passive word knowledge and from passive word knowledge to active word knowledge. There was however, less variability in the passive word knowledge scores than in the active word knowledge scores and word recognition scores.

In terms of the performance of learners at the level of District, the mean scores show that Idutywa District had the highest performance on all the three word knowledge dimensions whereas Grahamstown District registered the lowest performance on all the three dimensions. Libode District outperformed Butterworth District in the word recognition and passive word knowledge dimensions but that was reversed in the active word knowledge dimension. Table 38 takes the District-word dimension comparisons a little further.

Table 38: District-Dimension Comparison

District	Dimension	Mean	Std. Error
Butterworth	Word recognition	63.0	6.0
	Passive knowledge	43.4	3.7
	Active knowledge	43.4	5.9
Grahamstown	Word recognition	52.4	4.0
	Passive knowledge	40.3	2.5
	Active knowledge	35.9	3.9
Idutywa	Word recognition	72.3	5.8
	Passive knowledge	44.8	3.6
	Active knowledge	43.9	5.8
Libode	Word recognition	65.4	7.9
	Passive knowledge	45.2	4.9
	Active knowledge	34.8	7.8

Overall, Idutywa district outperformed the other districts with a highest mean score in word recognition ( $72.3 \pm 5.8$ ) and active word knowledge ( $43.9 \pm 5.8$ ) and only coming second to Libode district in passive word knowledge ( $44.8 \pm 3.6$ ). The lowest performing district was Grahamstown with the least performance in word recognitions tests ( $52.4 \pm 4.0$ ) and passive word knowledge ( $40.3 \pm 2.5$ ) and being third of four districts in active word knowledge ( $35.9 \pm 3.9$ ). Table 39 makes pairwise comparison of the districts.

Table 39: Pairwise District Performance Comparisons

(I) District	(J) District	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. <sup>a</sup>
Butterworth	Grahamstown	7.1	5.4	1.00
	Idutywa	-3.8	6.3	1.00
	Libode	1.5	7.4	1.00
Grahamstown	Butterworth	-7.1	5.4	1.00
	Idutywa	-10.8	5.3	0.27
	Libode	-5.6	6.6	1.00
Idutywa	Butterworth	3.7	6.3	1.00
	Grahamstown	10.8	5.3	0.27
	Libode	5.2	7.4	1.00
Libode	Butterworth	-1.5	7.4	1.00
	Grahamstown	5.6	6.6	1.00
	Idutywa	-5.2	7.4	1.00

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni. Value significant at  $P < 0.05$

The *Sig.* (2-tailed)  $> .05$  indicates that there is no statistically significant difference in the performance among districts. This is despite the presence of mean differences between districts as shown in Table 38. Although not statistically different, the greatest mean difference between districts was between Idutywa and Grahamstown, the two districts which had the overall highest and lowest mean scores. Libode and Butterworth exhibited the least

mean difference as their performance was close to each other. Despite the wide mean differences between particular districts, the differences between all pairs of the four districts were not statistically significant. Table 40 makes pairwise comparisons of word dimensions.

Table 40: Pairwise Comparisons of Word Dimensions

(I) Dimension	(J) Dimension	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. <sup>b</sup>
Recognition	Passive	19.9*	2.5	0.0
	Active	23.8*	2.5	0.0
Passive	Active	3.9	2.5	0.4

Based on estimated marginal means

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0 .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Performance was significantly high in word recognition compared to both passive ( $19.9 \pm 2.5$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) and active ( $23.8 \pm 2.5$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) word knowledge. Performance however, did not differ significantly for passive and active word knowledge ( $3.9 \pm 2.4$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ).

## 7.6 Chapter Summary

The Chapter set out to understand the vocabulary knowledge of the learners from the tests administered to the learners. Through the interpretation of data from several permutations, it was apparent that the 60 HFW were little known by the majority of the learners. The extent of Grade 4 learners' vocabulary knowledge was generally low. Their overall performance in individual tests as reflected by the overall percentage means of each test was quite low. Only test 1 and 2 had overall mean scores above 50% (67.3 and 57.3 respectively) [Table 27]. Test 3 and 5 had mean scores in the 40s (40.4 and 49.9), test 4, 7, and 9 in the 30s (30.7, 33.8, and 37.4), with test 6 and 8 in the 20s (28.7 and 29.1) [Table 27]. From Table 28, tests 1, 2 and 5 had more words with means above 50% than those below 50%. The opposite was, however, true for the other 6 tests. The words 'you' and 'school' were the most known on account of having 50% or above mean score in all the tests. Conversely, the words 'answer, important, piece, understand, enough, until, easy' were least known as learner overall mean performance in the words was never at 50% in any of the tests in which they were tested. Most of the words out of the 60 HFW had 50%+ only in 3 tests.

Band D words proved the most problematic of all the 5 bands for the learners. None of the band D words had 50% overall mean in more than three tests [Table 29] and all the band D

words were in the below 50% mean ranges [Table 30]. Performance in Band A words, which were largely structural words was highest compared to that in other bands. Some words which belonged to lower bands in terms of frequency were well known. Examples are words like ‘school’ (Band C) and ‘stop’ (Band E). The word school featured prominently in school print like the signpost and learners encounter it every day they come to school. The word ‘stop’ could have been known from environmental print on stop signs.

In terms of performance according to dimensions of word knowledge, word recognition had the overall highest performance followed by passive word knowledge and then by active word knowledge. The overall percentage mean scores were 63.3, 43.4 and 39.5 respectively [Table 31]. The differences in word recognition knowledge in relation to both passive and active word knowledge was statistically significant. The mean difference between passive and active word knowledge was, however, not statistically different.

Grahamstown district with two township schools had the lowest performance of the four districts whereas Idutywa district which had two rural schools had the highest performance. In terms of the schools’ performance, only three of the eight registered an overall percentage mean score above 50. The three schools (school D, E and F) were all rural schools. This shows that performance was better in rural schools than in township schools.

This is confirmed by the three schools out of the eight where the overall mean was only in the 50s with the rest being in below 50%. The same applied for tests where overall, only three of the 9 tests registered a 50%+ percentage mean out of the 9 tests. The low vocabulary knowledge among the learners was made further manifest by the fact that only the rural schools had a combined mean of 51% with the peri-urban and township schools having below 50% combined means. In terms of the learners’ knowledge of individual words, results pointed to the majority of the 60 HFW being little known as their percentage overall means fell below 50%. Content words were even less known than the function words. In terms of the three dimensions of word knowledge, word recognition dimension was done better than the passive and active word knowledge dimensions. There was no significant difference in the performance of the learners according to the Districts.

Although this chapter and the preceding chapter's presentation of data included the preliminary interpretation of the data presented, further analysis of the data is made in the next chapter.

## **8.0 CHAPTER 8: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA**

### **8.1: Introduction**

In this chapter, data presented in chapter 6 and chapter 7 are analysed and discussed in relation to the second and third research questions of the study. The second research question sought to understand the level of Grade 3 learners' preparedness for Grade 4 reading to learn. The third research question focused on the extent to which the same learners prepared for the Grade 4 reading challenges in Grade 3 met the vocabulary needs of Grade 4 reading in terms of their knowledge of the HFW. Data for the present study were collected in a variety of forms and ways. This necessitated its presentation in varied formats as well. Interview data were presented thematically; teacher talk data accessed through a combination of content analysis and computer-based text analysis were also presented thematically. Content analysis of classroom observation data was also presented thematically. Grade 3 reading materials data which were computer corpus-based analyzed using the AntConc software program were largely presented in tabular form and the content analysis of teachers' classroom print was presented as vignettes.

The framework for organising the analysis is informed by the issues that emerged from the presentation of data. Data are analysed in accordance with the following framework:

- The interface between vocabulary-related teacher beliefs and practices
- The role of the L1 in the L2 vocabulary development
- Interplay between teacher input and learner output
- Curriculum expectations versus classroom realities
- Learners' word knowledge

Each of these is discussed in turn in relation to the study's findings and implications for vocabulary development and learner readiness for the vocabulary demands of reading to learn in Grade 4.

### **8.2 The interface between vocabulary-related teacher beliefs and practices**

The importance of teacher beliefs in influencing their own practice is underscored by Kuzborska's (2011) observation that "[T]eachers' beliefs influence their goals, procedures, materials, classroom interaction patterns, their roles, their students, and the schools they work

in.” In short teachers’ beliefs profoundly impact their classroom practices. In the present study, teachers’ beliefs were interrogated in terms of their perceptions on learners in relation to vocabulary knowledge and learning, their own practices, the supportive nature of the school and the home, the nature of vocabulary, and vocabulary acquisition.

Teachers’ beliefs of their own practices covered a wide spectrum as interview items soliciting these were varied. Generally, and at a theoretical level, teachers prioritised word lists over contextualising vocabulary instruction. The identification of word lists in learners’ books as a major source of vocabulary that they gave explicit attention to testified to their assumption that vocabulary instruction proceeded through decontextualised word lists. In Chapter 4, the protean nature of word meaning and its sensitivity to context as well its dependence on context was identified as a key consideration in trying to mediate word meaning knowledge (Evans, 2006). The prioritisation of decontextualised word meaning instruction missed the crucial role of context in determining what a word means. This is not to ignore the pivotal role out of context vocabulary instruction plays to general word knowledge. The variable nature of word meaning does not deny their possession of core meanings which context sometimes manipulates to come up with novel meanings. A balance between the decontextualised and contextualised instructional practices is likely to be beneficial for vocabulary development.

#### *Contextualisation of instruction*

DeCarrico’s (2001) observation reported in Chapter 4, that decontextualised word instruction through word lists has registered success with learners’ learning and retention of words especially at the beginning levels, is instructive. Because vocabulary instruction is explicit where word lists are taught, there is greater concentration on the dimension of the word being learnt which enhances chances of its acquisition. In the same earlier discussion on whether to contextualise or decontextualise word instruction, a counter argument was given by Unaldi et al. (2013) who saw contextualising vocabulary instruction as enabling word meaning on multiple rather than single dimensions. Nelson and Stage (2007) also saw contextualising instruction as pivotal for the teaching of words with multiple meanings. Teachers evidently preferred the decontextualisation of word meaning which the literature had identified as resonating with the nature of word learning at the beginner levels in a language.

A look at the vocabulary instruction practices did not establish a match between the preferences and the actual practices. In the first instance, of the minimum 2 weeks (10 days) observations in ten classes, none of the decontextualised word instruction techniques discussed in the literature sections of this study, which include wordlists, flashcards and dictionaries, were observed. This, despite many teachers professing to use particularly the word lists and flash cards. The presence of contextualised instructional strategies was also not noted. In contextualized vocabulary instruction, one would have expected word meanings to be derived from how the words were used in the context. There was no identification of contextual clues which were the index to word meanings.

That both contextualised and decontextualised instructional strategies were not manifest should not be taken to imply that no vocabulary instruction was evident at all. What the teachers employed much was some kind of semi decontextualised instructional strategies where a word would just be picked from the context at the teacher's discretion and, in the majority of cases, given an isiXhosa equivalent. That the teaching of the word was ad hoc and almost a spur of the moment thing did not quite make it a decontextualised strategy. Focus was not on word meaning or any other dimension of the word. The failure to appeal to context in bringing out the meaning of the word also meant the strategy was not contextualised. Such strategies failed to benefit from the advantages of either the contextualised or decontextualised approach to word instruction. The ideal would have been a combination of the two approaches where the decontextualised instruction would cater for the breadth of vocabulary development and the contextualised instruction would develop depth of vocabulary knowledge. This is because, according to Stahl and Fairbanks' (1986) observations in Nelson and Stage (2007, p. 3), "... approaches providing only definitional information did not significantly affect students' reading comprehension. In contrast, methods that provided both definitional and contextual information did significantly improve comprehension."

#### *Privileged word knowledge dimension*

The earlier chapter which conceptualized key constructs for the present study identified thirteen word knowledge dimensions from Duppenthaler (2004) and from Folse (2004) which I merely list here as polysemy, denotation and connotation, spelling and pronunciation, part of speech, frequency, usage, collocation, boundaries between conceptual meaning, homonymy, homophony, synonymy, style, register, and dialect, translation. The thirteen are

not meant to be exhaustive, but illustrative of the great diversity in what can be known about a word. That only five dimensions, some of which are not part of the thirteen, were identified could either signal teachers' ignorance of other dimensions of word knowledge there are or could be indicative of teachers prioritising the most basic dimensions of word knowledge for the Grade 3.

In the responses, word meaning was identified as the key word dimension to be prioritised in the classroom. It was not just mentioned by the majority of the teachers but in the seven teachers who mentioned it, in most cases it was mentioned first where the teacher identified more than one dimension of word. From the classroom observations vocabulary meaning episodes which represent the teachers' explicit attention to word meanings, were however, quite scarce in teachers' practice. The few vocabulary meaning episodes were through translation from or into the first language. The other dimensions of word knowledge that were identified by the teachers belong to what, in this study, I called strategies for drawing attention to words. Strategies such as word spelling, repeated word reading and repeated word saying were used quite generously in the classrooms. Word writing was the teacher's responsibility and only in Florence's classroom was it done by the learners.

There was also incongruence between the dimension of word knowledge which the teachers believed merited greatest attention and that which was privileged in their practice. The majority of the teachers identified word meaning as representing what it means to know a word at Grade 3 level but the bulk of their strategies were on learners' knowing the form of the word. These were evident in all the strategies identified as meant to draw attention to a word. There was much more word saying, word spelling and word reading than there was mediation of word meaning. Focus on the form of the word in the teacher practices meant learners had more exposure to words at the level of word recognition than at the level of passive and active word knowledge.

Word knowledge at the word recognition level is the most basic and for learners faced with the mammoth task of comprehending more advanced text in a new language of learning and teaching, confinement of word knowledge to word recognition would not allow the learners to meet their vocabulary needs. The fact that focus was placed disproportionately on word recognition compared to other word knowledge dimensions by the Grade 3 teachers found expression in the test results of the same learners in their early weeks of Grade 4 where they

did better in word recognition tests than in the passive and active word knowledge tests. Pairwise comparisons of word dimension knowledge shown in Table 41 where there was a statistically significant difference in learners' performance was in word recognition tests compared to both passive and active word knowledge tests. Performance in the active and passive word knowledge tests was, however, not significantly different.

The teachers' attempt at word meaning instruction was largely through provision of isiXhosa equivalents of the English words. As such, only the words which had direct equivalents in the two languages were privileged. The use of other strategies which I referred to as vocabulary meaning episodes was more of exceptions and exclusive to some teachers and not reflective of practices of the generality of the teachers. In terms of the three major theories of word meaning which informed the present study namely; reference theory, idea theory and use theory as discussed in Chapter 4, only idea theory seemed to have been influential in the teacher practices where word meanings are the mental images they evoked. With the reference theory, not much was observed in terms of teachers trying to match words with the objects they represented in form of pictures, diagrams or realia. The use theory was also not quite visible in teachers' practices as the use of words represented an isolated technique by just two teachers.

While one would have thought that the high visibility of translation manifest in teachers' practices would enable them to fare well in the L1-L2 recall test where they would give the English equivalent to an isiXhosa word highlighted within an isiXhosa sentence, it was not so. In the tests the learners wrote in Grade 4, Test 8 had the second lowest overall percentage mean score of 29.1 after Test 6 with an overall percentage mean of 28.7 [Table 30]. This possibly emanated from the spontaneous nature in which isiXhosa equivalents of English words were given. In all the cases, the isiXhosa word was not written down, there were no paired lists of the words in the two languages, and there was no systematic focus on the vocabulary. There were no extension activities to ensure that the matching of the words in the two languages was practiced to mastery.

#### *The phonic versus the sight word approach*

There was a general identification of phonic word reading as 'the' way to teach vocabulary in Grade 3 as well as a claim by the teachers to using the approach extensively in their classrooms. This was consonant with findings in Lenyai's (2011) study investigating how 30

FP teachers in 10 schools taught English FAL which found that only 2 teachers indicated using the whole word method and all 30 indicated using the phonic method. The absence of word lists as stated earlier and the picking out of words from a passage or context and giving its isiXhosa equivalent meant the invisibility of the phonic approach. In repeated word saying and repeated word reading which dominated the classrooms, there were only far too isolated instances of the teacher segmenting a word and reading first its parts and then the whole. Words were read and said as whole words. The observation made earlier in Chapter 5 of this study that a great number of English words could not be read phonetically also explains in part, the limitations to the use of the phonic reading approach in the classrooms. A judicious combination of the phonic and the sight word reading strategies would have enhanced the learners] vocabulary acquisition and development. As identified by one teacher, knowledge of the phonetic system would enable learners to read even those words they never encountered. As it was, theoretically it was the phonic word reading but practically it was sight word reading. Even where words were extracted from a book and written on the chalkboard for learners to read, they were almost always read as sight words.

There were various other respects where teacher beliefs were not consonant with their practices. In Table 9, teachers' professed and observed practices were seen to be congruent in only 1 teacher, partially consistent in 6 of the teachers and wholly inconsistent in 2 teachers. The incongruity between teachers' beliefs and their practices raises the question where they derive their practices from and the extent to which teacher education impacts on teacher pedagogical improvement. It would appear that much of what goes on in the classroom is little planned for by the teacher. Planning means making deliberate choices and because during the planning stage the teacher has adequate time to draw from their own beliefs, the beliefs would stand a better chance of being actualised in practice.

#### *Beliefs about learners, their abilities and involvement*

There was a general underestimation of what Grade 3 learners were capable of. This was manifest in the roles that the learners were accorded or not accorded in the learning situation as well as in what teachers expressly identified as beyond their abilities. In deciding the novelty of a word so as to determine whether it merited explicit attention or not, the majority of teachers professed using their intuitive judgements borne out of long years of teaching experience and the teacher's knowledge of the particular learners. Learners were not trusted enough to know which words they knew and which they did not. In the activities for drawing

learners' attention to words and in the vocabulary meaning episodes, it was the teacher's prerogative to select the words that would be given attention and in the majority of cases to give the word meanings. The most pronounced role of the learner was that of saying the words after the teacher or spelling the words. Choral responses overshadowed individual responses. Such an observation is consistent with findings from Chick's (1996) study discussed in Chapter 2 as reported by Hoadley (2010) where chorusing and rhythmic chanting defined learner participation at the expense of individual, evaluated performances.

The four teachers who suggested that they employed group tasks in word-work believed in word-meaning as a collaborative enterprise between and among learners. This was an acknowledgement that learners could learn from each other and that contrary to behaviorist views; learners were not blank slates after all. This belief however, however did not translate to the realm of practice as the same teachers had no group activities where the learners engaged with each other or with text to come up with word meanings. The only semblance of collaboration on word meaning was when learners would make repeated readings of words assigned to them led by an able learner. In the few instances these were used, the groups were so big that the individual was lost in the group. Because most of the reading was choral, some children could even join the chants without paying attention to the words. Word meaning was not a negotiated enterprise as some teachers' beliefs indicated; it was something learners 'received' from the teacher.

The underestimation of the roles learners could potentially handle so most of the tasks given to the learners being receptive in nature rather than productive vocabulary. For instance, there was not much writing that was done despite the teachers identifying word writing as the most challenging aspect of word for the majority of learners. One would have thought that the most problematic aspect of word knowledge would be given greater attention and practice than the less problematic aspects. The writing that was noted was the completion of words whose other letters were given which referred to particular objects. Such activities were in the workbook and not the teacher's initiative. The lack of practice in the productive aspects of the language are reflected in the test results of the same learners in Grade 4 where they registered the worst performance in the active word knowledge tests attaining an overall percentage mean of 34.4 for the three tests of active word knowledge (Test 7, 8, 9).

Although the unavailability of dictionaries was also identified as a reason for not using them, for most teachers, Grade 3 learners were incapable of dictionary work. Dictionaries were not seen in use even in the two classrooms where they were available. Dictionary work would have allowed for independent development of learner vocabulary in an active way and heightened learners' levels of engagement in the learning setting. Although dictionaries are generally associated with providing word meanings, they are also an important source of knowledge for several dimensions of word knowledge. They are a reference source for word spelling, their pronunciation, their different word classes, examples of their use, among other word knowledge dimensions. To keep learners ignorant of the uses of dictionaries was to deprive them of an important word learning resource.

There was no consensus on the nature of learners' capacity for independent learning. A few individual teachers acknowledged the independent competence of learners as manifest in their independent learning in the library, independent reading of books in the book corner, and formulation of English sentences. The other teachers however, viewed learners' competency differently. One teacher believed learners' level of competence was so low that she needed to say something in isiXhosa first for learners to understand. She followed her own advice in her own teaching where the use of isiXhosa was plethoric. In the majority of cases, she did not use isiXhosa and then the English version of the same, which would still have been problematic, but rather, she went for all isiXhosa teaching. It was not certain whether she could not expose the learners to English because they could not comprehend it, or that the learners could not comprehend English because it was not exposed to them. That the learners made reference to would answer to the teacher's isiXhosa questions in English could be construed to imply that her (Henrietta) reliance on isiXhosa was not meant for the benefit of the learners, but rather to mask the teacher's own lack of proficiency in the language.

Mixed feelings characterised teachers' perceptions of learners' preparedness for transitioning to Grade 4 in terms of their linguistic competence. There were more reservations than confident affirmations of learners' readiness for the transition to learning all subject areas in English in Grade 4. The basis of confidence in learners' preparedness was the fusion of English and IsiXhosa in the other areas of the curriculum apart from the English FAL area. This was based on the assumption that increased English input would ready the learners for the transitional challenges ahead. That the learners were able to write full English sentences

and that Grade 4 teachers had never raised learners' inability to cope with the transitional demands were bases for confidence in the learners' preparedness for the transition. The justification for confidence in learner preparedness was not given in terms of their possession of sound vocabulary repertoire, their ability to read with understanding or any such needs for the transition.

The reservations about learner preparedness for the transition included learners not comprehending English because it is not their L1 and learners not having sufficient practice of the language at home. The first of these implied that the teacher could not expect any past, current or future groups of Grade 3 learners to be sufficiently prepared for the vocabulary demands of Grade 4 since they were, are and will be second language speakers of English. One then wonders whether the teacher would put all her effort into trying to prepare learners for the transition when she had no faith in their potential to ever be ready.

When it came to the actual performance of learners in the tests, the overall performance of the Grade 4 classes had only three of the eight schools attaining an overall percentage mean of 58.8 (school D), 52.3 (school E) and 57.8 (school F). That was demonstrative of a general lack of preparedness of learners for the transition. The three schools with an overall mean score above 50% were all in the fifties range. Esther and Florence who expressed confidence about their learners' preparedness for the transition had the Grade 4 learners they had taught in Grade 3 achieve overall means of 52.3 and 57.8 [schools E and F in Table 36 and 34 respectively]. Alice's confidence was not matched by the 40.3% overall mean performance exhibited by the Grade 4 class at her school, school A. The same was true for Betty (school B) and Kate (school H) who, despite an expression of confidence in the preparedness of their learners for the transition to Grade 4, the overall percentage mean of their learners in Grade 4 was 48.2 and 34.0 [Table 36 and 36 respectively]. Despite her reservations about the current Grade 3 learners' preparedness for the transition to Grade 4, the Grade 4 learners Dorothy had taught in Grade 3 (school D) exhibited the highest mean score of 58.8 [Table 36]. Where there was a disjuncture in the performance of the learners in Grade 4 and the confidence expressed by the teacher, it could well be a question of the Grade 3 teacher underestimating if not being modest about the claims she made about her learners or overrating her learners' potentials. Effort was made to test the learners just at the beginning of the year in Grade 4 so that the results could be more reflective of what word knowledge they brought with them from Grade 3 than that they acquired in Grade 4.

In terms of the implications of the teachers' beliefs on learners' capabilities, underestimation of what learners could do meant that the teachers would not stretch their language by challenging them. It also meant where there was a perceived lack of understanding, the teacher would quickly gravitate towards the first language and learners would miss out on the language that could have been employed in trying to make communication clearer. This is a point which is taken up further in the discussion on the observed input and output dynamics of the classrooms.

*Beliefs on the supporting role of the school and the home*

Teachers had mixed feelings about the supportive nature of the school and home contexts. In the school context there was adequate provision of time in terms of what it meant to the teacher rather than the learners. Everything seemed to rotate around the teacher in the majority of teachers' perceptions. The time was adequate in as far as it allowed for the teacher's content coverage and not the learners' mastery of language aspects or development of proficiency in the language. One teacher even ironically observed that at the beginning levels the learners did not need much time in the language and that they would only need much time as their proficiency developed. One would have expected that it was at the beginning levels that the learners needed sustained and more opportunities of exposure and experimentation with language. The school was however, seen as not meeting the material requirements of the learning situation particularly in relation to the reading resources.

The home was also seen as playing a similarly ambivalent role in the vocabulary development of learners. Generally, the potential of the home to make meaningful a significant contribution to the English vocabulary development was doubted on account of the low occupational status and irresponsible nature of the parents. The potential of the home as a source for vocabulary development was perceived as lying in the televisions that it provided, from which the learners could incidentally acquire some vocabulary. The role of the home was therefore implicit through the rich sources of linguistic input that it provided but not explicitly through parental modelling or instruction. Not much credit was given to the wider environment apart from a lone identification of road signs as representing the environmental print from which some vocabulary could be acquired. The teachers' responses confirm Setati and Adler's (2001, p. 243) observation cited in the introductory chapter that

“English as target language and LOLT is only heard, spoken and written in the formal school context”, an observation endorsed by the DBE National Reading Strategy (2008).

A rejection of the meaningful role of other sources of language input meant that the teachers saw themselves as the sole determinants of what vocabulary learners ultimately and potentially got to acquire. Such an assumption could have either positive or negative ramifications.

Where the teacher thought they were the only source of vocabulary knowledge for their learners, they could be spurred to do all they can, knowing that the readiness of the learners for the next stage lay squarely and solely on them. The problem with the assumption that the home and the wider environment had no capacity to meaningfully contribute to the vocabulary growth of learners would mean that the teacher would cease to ensure she collaborated with these other potential sources of input. The latter effect seemed to be more at work from my observations in the ten classes for the two weeks in each class. There was no time when a teacher gave learners homework in the English FAL, be it vocabulary related or not to be completed even with the assistance of family. There were no times when, say after learning about words with ‘oo’ the learners were asked to go and find more words be it on the food packages, in the shops, in newspapers and even ask what they meant. Such project work, even if it was for five words and conducted in one week, it would have been a good way of ensuring the world outside the classroom is made to bear on the classroom. This would have instilled in learners both independent learning and sensitivity to print. Teachers generally perceived themselves as repositories and fountains of knowledge and that perceived monopoly over knowledge was not good for the advancement of learners’ vocabulary. The other aspects of teachers’ beliefs are manifest in the subsequent sections. The role the L1 played as presented in the data presentation chapters was also key to the determination of the extent to which the learners were well prepared for the transition to Grade 4.

The disjuncture between professed and observed teacher practices possibly signals that what is believed in is not always what is practiced. Teacher cognition and teacher belief does not always translate to practice. In the case of the present study, the professed practices were ones whose implementation could not be hampered by any contextual constraints. Group activities which were observed as key strategies by the teachers were not manifest in any of the lessons when the large class sizes characteristic of most of the schools needed such

strategies. The lack of fit could also be indicative of teachers' lack of reflection on their practice to the extent of not knowing the nature of their own practice. It could also be reflective of lack of explicit attention to vocabulary instruction to the point that the teachers do not consciously determine the strategies they will use and evaluate their effectiveness.

### **8.3 The role of the L1 in the L2 vocabulary development**

The present study's findings were contrary to Liu's (2008, p. 65) observation that,

During the L2 vocabulary teaching and learning process, there seems to be a preference, explicitly stated or not, for intralingual strategies, which involve the use of linguistic means of the target language such as synonyms, definitions, or linguistic contexts, over interlingual strategies, which utilize the L1 in the form of a bilingual dictionary, cognates, or L1 translation equivalents, often associated with word lists, among many teachers and researchers.

For the present study, findings pointed to the opposite being true. IsiXhosa featured extensively in the English FAL lessons both as a means of bringing clarity to the communication in general and word meanings in particular and also as an idiosyncratic practice by teachers. The latter use of the L1 was the more dominant of the two. The use of isiXhosa utterances without exhausting attempts to engender comprehensibility through rephrasings, elaborations or simplifications in the target isiXhosa testifies to that. Habitual use of isiXhosa was most manifest in the confirmation checks which were strewn all through the lessons. This meant a denial of learners' exposure to the alternative forms of expression. The peripheral employment of intralingual strategies meant failure to apply the principles underpinning comprehensible input.

According to Morata and Coyle (2012, p. 134) "...teachers are encouraged to use the L2 as much as possible to create optimum conditions for language learning." They also report on Polio & Duff's (1994) study which analyzed the use of the L1 in an L2 setting. The findings showed greater use of the L1 for

... classroom administrative vocabulary, grammar instruction, classroom management, showing empathy/solidarity, unknown vocabulary/translation, practicing English (students helping teachers improve their nonnative English), lack of comprehension by the students, and an interactive effect involving students' use of English" (Morata & Coyle, 2012, p. 135).

In the present study, isiXhosa was prominent in classroom management and administration as in Polio and Duff's study but did not serve the other purposes above.

The role of the L1 in the L2 classroom has always been a contentious one right from the days of the Grammar Translation approach where the L2 was learnt via the L1 and the Direct method where the L1 was avoided like a plague in the L2 classroom. The present study however, took the view that there is a place for the L1 in L2 instruction provided the use of the L1 was judicious. Cook (2001) identifies four factors that should justify the use of the L1 in L2 learning namely; *efficiency* (where L1 use would lead to better comprehension), *learning* (where L1 use facilitates L2 learning), *naturalness* (where L1 use would make learners more comfortable and confident), and external *relevance* (where L1 use has relevance to what is learnt and cannot be ignored). In my observations, there was no thought as to what the use of the L1 in the English FAL was meant to achieve. There was no conscious decision on the part of the teacher to use the L1 to achieve a desired purpose. It was therefore, used more for the teacher's comfort than for the learners' benefit.

Where isiXhosa was used when clear and simple English alternatives were plentiful, it was regarded as a displacement of the target language and would be negative. Where it was used to bring clarity to meaning already expressed in the target language without being comprehended, its use was regarded as complementary to the target language. Although the word quantity ratio in teacher talk was predominantly in favour of the English words, the bulk of the use made of isiXhosa served to displace rather than complement the English language. Rather than being a resource, it was more of a distraction to the acquisition of the English language and its vocabulary. A mere isiXhosa word count without considering the purposes it served would have missed the negative effect it had in the acquisition of English. Quantity and quality of language input as these emerged from the study's findings are discussed separately.

#### **8.4 Interplay between teacher input and learner output**

According to Morata and Coyle (2012, p. 134)

In a foreign language learning context, where there is little opportunity beyond the classroom to receive input in the L2, the quantity and quality of input the learners are exposed to are thought to be necessary, if insufficient, conditions for language learning.

The role of input in English language acquisition and its vocabulary development was determined by both the quantity and quality of the input. Input quantity was grossly limited as

manifest in a highest teacher-talk word quantity of 8002 word tokens for three lessons [Table 14]. Classroom print quantity contributed even less input where the highest word quantity was 845 word tokens.

Krashen's (1985) assertion that input adequacy was one of the conditions requisite for input to facilitate language acquisition was not met in the input learners were exposed to in the present study. This had negative repercussions for the potential they had to acquire the English language and its vocabulary from the exposure to it. Learners could not be expected to acquire the language they did not encounter and so in terms of quantity of input, the classroom failed the learners. Another aspect of input which could be placed between quantity and quality of input which compromised the potential of teacher talk to significantly impact language acquisition was the lack of recycling of the HFW that were used consistently throughout the lessons [Tables 18, 19].

The quantity of the 60 HFW was however, manifest in the Grade 3 reading materials where 92% of the 60 HFW were represented in the material. The differential representation of the 60 HFW in teacher talk, classroom print and reading material was a measure of the quantity of input that was exposed. Input quantity was too scarce to make a real contribution to acquisition. Quantity of input determined availability of the input to the learners and quality of input impacted their access to the input.

The quality of input depended, to a large extent, on the modeling of the language by the teacher. The feature that compromised the language model of most teachers was the presence of language errors in their classroom talk and their failure to match the language use to learners' level of comprehension. The language challenge was accentuated by the observation that the manifestation of the errors in the teachers was not just incidental and peripheral, but quite frequent and gross in some instances where error was drilled into the learners. Teachers' language errors in the present study were reminiscent of Nel and Swanepoel's (2010, p. 47) finding, from their study of University of South Africa (Unisa) student teachers' errors and the errors made by learners they taught for teaching practice, that "...qualified practicing ESL teachers are not necessarily proficient in English and that this may have an effect on the ESL learner's ability to acquire English proficiency." Errors made by the Unisa ESL student teachers corresponded with those made by their ESL primary learners. A barrage

of language errors from the teacher impacted negatively on the learners' own linguistic competence.

The fact that there were more factors militating against the exposure of learners to more and more of the language than those that were facilitative of that exposure reduced the opportunities available for learners to acquire the input from the teachers' talk. The limited input quantity should have been compensated for by the meaningful learner output from which they would learn the language. Learner centeredness is a buzzword in the education field and learner centredness calls for teachers to exercise restraint in classroom roles and allow learners to take centre stage. One would have thought in classrooms where teacher input was so scarce, learner production would be high.

In her Output Hypothesis, Swain (2005) advocates negotiated interaction to produce comprehensible output. As was identified in Chapter 6, in terms of vocabulary development techniques, the learners' role was restricted to parroting the words after the teacher. Where there was language production on the part of the learners it was almost always in response to the teacher's questioning, given in choral form and in single word or short phrase answers. Absence of a meaningful role for the learner in the classroom restricted the production of input that could have pushed them to attend to the teachers' input more closely knowing they would be called upon to produce their own language. Swain's (2005) argument of the lack of compulsion on the part of the learners to produce the language through writing or speaking deprives them of the chance to hypothesize what the language they hear looks like (in writing) or sounds like (in speech) which would spur them to test the hypotheses through the actual production of language. As discussed in the discussion of second language acquisition and learning chapter, the role of pushed learner output has the greater impact in the area of vocabulary development than in most areas.

The role of input in influencing the vocabulary knowledge of learners is made apparent from Table 41 and 42 which present the performance of learners in the Grade 4 tests on words which were absent from Grade 3 reading materials and those that had low frequency respectively.

Table 41: Grade 4 Learner Performance on Words Absent from Grade 3 Reading Materials

Word	Tests in which word had mean performance of 50%+	Mean performance of word across tests
both	1/7 (14.3%)	31.6%
explain	2/6 (33.3%)	34.1%
between	2/6 (33.3 %)	39.5%
example	1/6 (16.7%)	36.8%
easy	0/6 (0%)	27.5%
important	0/6 (0%)	26.4%

The words which did not appear in the Grade 3 reading materials had low overall percentage means and had 50%+ mean scores in between 0-2 tests out of the 9 tests. Similar low performance applied to the words which had low frequencies in the Grade 3 reading materials as represented in Table 42.

Table 42: Grade 4 Learners' Performance on Words with Low Frequency in Grade 3 Reading Materials

Word	Tests in which word had mean performance of 50%+	Mean performance of word across tests
same	3/6 (50%)	39.8%
enough	0/6 (0%)	24.9%
explain	2/6 (33.3%)	34.1%
once	1/6 (16.7%)	38.3%
understand	0/6 (0%)	29.6%
important	0/6 (0%)	26.4%
answer	0/6 (0%)	30%
until	0/5 (0%)	25.5%
once	1/6 (16.7%)	38.3%
piece	0/6 (0%)	30.2%

That none of the words among those which had low frequencies and those which were absent in Grade 3 reading materials had a 50 %+ even a 40% + percentage mean score testified to quantity of input impacting acquisition. Of the ten words, only the word *same* had mean scores of 50%+ for half the tests in which it was tested. The comparison between reading materials vocabulary exposure and vocabulary knowledge is illustrative of the influence of input quantity on vocabulary acquisition. The same could have been done for teacher talk input. The extent of the preparedness of learners for the Grade 4 vocabulary needs could also be appreciated from the extent to which classroom practices met the curriculum requirements.

### 8.5 Curriculum expectations viz the classroom realities

In terms of the nature of English at the point of introduction, the overwhelming observation was that it was largely oral. Such deferment of writing was not consonant with policy as

enshrined in CAPS (2011) which stipulates that for FAL writing shall be allocated 15 minutes (Grade 1), 30 minutes (Grade 2), 1 hour (Grade 3) per week. The other breakdown is given thus, Listening & speaking: 1 hour 30 minutes (Grade 1), 1 hour (Grade 2), 1 hour (Grade 3), Reading & Phonics: 1 hour 15 minutes (Grade 1), 1 hour 30 minutes (Grade 2), 1 hour 30 minutes (Grade 3), and Language Use 30 minutes Grade 3. According to the Curriculum policy, time allocation for the oral component of listening and speaking should gradually decrease as learners move from Grade 1 to the other grades of the FP while that of Writing and Reading & Phonics should gradually increase. There is no room for the deferment of writing at any grade level of the FP. The predominant focus on the oral skills was in keeping with Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis which contends that what learners need in order to acquire a language is input. The disregard of the productive aspects of writing and speaking is what Swain (2005) challenged. Williams (2012) notes the distinction between learning to write (the traditional view) and writing to learn. In the traditional perspective of learning to write, writing is the last language art to be taught. She identifies a contrasting perspective of writing to learn where writing is a vehicle for bringing about learning. She notes that the concept 'writing to learn' can be conceived of as writing in order to learn content or writing in order to learn a language. She contends that writing transcends the mere indirect role that the output hypothesis assigns to it. The NEEDU Report (2012, p. 44) stipulates that:

At least once a week they [*learners*] should undertake extended writing. The latter should consist predominantly of sentences in Grade 1, paragraphs in Grade 2, and extended passages (2 or more linked paragraphs) in Grade 3. Learners should be asked to describe experiences, express their feelings, and analyse events. These are exercises that develop higher cognitive capacity. From the second half of Grade 1 learners should be led to write stories about themselves, their families and friends.

The reality of the classroom as observed in the present study was that there was very little language production even in oral form. Writing was not visible in the classrooms and the little writing that one would see infrequently was the filling in of blanks in workbooks. The development of higher cognitive skills that would spur language acquisition and vocabulary development was absent in the classrooms observed. Little wonder then that the learners' worst performance was in the tests assessing active word meaning knowledge compared to those assessing other dimensions of word knowledge. Not much attempt was made to extend learners' capacity to allow them to reach their potentials. This could be because of the underestimation of their capabilities referred to earlier.

Some of the recommended activities from the curriculum documents did not find expression in the teachers' practice. One recommendation from CAPS (2011, p. 10), whose visibility was not evident in the teacher practices, was for the teacher to:

choose a story with a simple, repetitive structure, which allows for vocabulary and grammar to be recycled (e.g. The Three Little Pigs) keep her language very simple, speaking slowly but naturally use gestures, pictures and real objects to support understanding of the story tell the story several times gradually involving the children more and more, for example by joining in the refrains (e.g. He huffs and he puffs and he blows the house down)

Use of stories, pictures and realia were identified as key even by the teachers themselves but they were missing in practice. Overall, the range of vocabulary strategies observed in the classrooms was very limited and limiting. This despite CAPS' (2011, p. 17) identification of some important strategies for vocabulary development like: "...word walls and labels in the classroom, vocabulary games, e.g. word quizzes, independent reading, keeping personal dictionaries (vocabulary books), and using children's illustrated dictionaries (both monolingual and bilingual)." Apart from the classroom labels in one teacher's classroom, all the recommended strategies were not observed in teachers' practices.

Based on the extreme estimates of 5 to 50 words average learners would acquire per week, and calculating the estimate of words that they would acquire per year using 10 weeks for each of the 4 terms would give estimates of 200 to 2000 words. Whether these figures signified adequate rate of vocabulary acquisition for the important transition to Grade 4 was determined by a comparison with the vocabulary targets set in the CAPS (2011) Curriculum documents. These stipulate that the ideal is a learner who understands 700–1 000 words in context by the end of Grade 1, 1 000–2 000 words in context by the end of Grade 2, and 1 500–2 500 words in context by the end of Grade 3. From these vocabulary targets, learners should add at least 1 000 words to their vocabulary repertoire, that is if they came from Grade 1 with 1 000 words. If they had a minimum expected number of 700 known words in Grade 1, they would need at least 1 300 words added to their vocabulary store in Grade 2 to get to the expected maximum. Seeing that some learners in the present study had only a term of learning English prior to getting into Grade 3, they would then need to acquire all the requisite 1 500 to 2 500 words in Grade 3. The range of 200 words to 2 000 words estimated by the teachers would not suffice seeing that the 2 000 word estimate is computed from the response of one teacher which is not even half that of any other teacher.

The curriculum documents do not seem to have any influence in what gets done in the classroom. The HFW lists which the CAPS (2011) document identifies as the critical vocabulary Grade 3 learners should know were not on display in any of the classrooms neither were they identified as sources of words which teachers use in their teaching. One wonders the extent to which the teachers were conversant about the curriculum requirements and the extent of their commitment to them.

### **8.6 Classroom Print and Vocabulary Modelling**

The classroom print that was most manifest was the chart with the exception of one class where classroom objects were labelled over and above the charts that were on display. The potential of charts to lead to the acquisition of the English vocabulary was compromised on several fronts. First, they were mostly at the word level so there was no context to allow the learners to independently learn anything about them apart from how they are written. Second, there were also no activities that were attached to the charts which in the process of completing learners could learn more about the words on their own. Third, most of the classroom print was not relevant to the Grade 3 learners. These were commercially produced and they were not targeted at particular grade levels. You could find the same chart in the all the grades at the school. Because they were not produced with particular learners in mind, the language they used was beyond the learners' level and so would not impact their vocabulary growth as the learners would not understand the charts. Because the language would be beyond the learners' level, learners would be frustrated by failing to access the text and give up, not only on the particular material, but also on all the classroom print. Fourth, the representation of the HFW be they the 213 or the 60 was quite limited. With all these limitations, there was very little likelihood of learners acquiring the HFW from their exposure to classroom print.

### **8.7 Learners' Knowledge of the 60 HFW**

By the time learners got to Grade 4, they demonstrated a low vocabulary knowledge as indicated by the low percentage mean scores for the different permutations presented in Chapter 7, be they performance at the level of the schools, at the level of individual words, at the level of word dimensions assessed and at the combined schools levels. What the tests unequivocally pointed out was that by the beginning of Grade 4, learners did not possess the basic HFW repertoire to meet the demands of reading to learn at the level. The word knowledge lack was most manifest in the content words.

## **8.8 Chapter Summary**

This analysis and discussion chapter has focused on themes emerging from the data the preceding chapters presented. For each theme, an attempt was made to relate what it meant to the learners' preparedness for the vocabulary needs of Grade 4 reading to learn. Teachers' beliefs had no basis in sound theoretical principles and were largely intuitive. Pedagogical decisions were therefore, most likely taken on the spur of the moment and this explained the disjuncture between teachers' theoretical perspectives and what was actualised in the classroom. That incongruity was taken to imply that teachers' pedagogical practices were not the product of deliberate planning. The role of the L1 in the L2 classroom was found to be displacing the L2 rather than complementing it leading to the reduction in the amount of input that could potentially have been exposed to the learners. The study's findings were contrary to the researcher's assumption that in the classroom situation, the more the teacher's input was through teacher talk, the less the learners' output was, as the teacher dominated the classroom proceedings. In the present study, both teacher input and learner output were scarce in the classroom and so L2 acquisition and its vocabulary development were compromised. The curriculum expectations were not reflected in the teachers' beliefs nor in their practices casting doubt on the teachers' knowledge of, and commitment to, the curriculum ideals. All these cast doubt on the efficacy of the preparedness of the learners for meeting the vocabulary demands of Grade 4. The skepticism was confirmed by learners' lack of knowledge of the 60 HFW they were assessed on at the beginning of Grade 4. On the basis of the presentation of data made in Chapter 6 and 7 and its subsequent discussion and analysis in this chapter, the next and last chapter concludes the study and proffers recommendations to the diverse stakeholders.

## **9.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FROM THE STUDY**

### **9.1 Introduction**

This final chapter of the study draws conclusions on the basis of the data presented and analysed in relation to the three major foci of the study. It is important to reiterate the present study's research questions here and draw conclusions from the data which responded to each of them. The focus of the present study was encapsulated in the following three main research questions:

- What are the High Frequency English words in the Grade 4 subject textbooks which represent the vocabulary needs of Grade 3 learners for fourth grade reading?
- To what extent are isiXhosa speaking learners prepared in Grade 3 to meet the vocabulary demands of reading to learn in English in Grade 4?
- What High Frequency Grade 4 subject textbook vocabulary do Grade 4 learners know at the beginning of the year?

The subsequent sections consider each of the questions in light of the data presented and analysed.

### **9.2 What are the High Frequency English Words in the Grade 4 Subject Textbooks which represent the Vocabulary Needs of Grade 3 Learners for Fourth Grade Reading?**

The present study tested Grade 4 learners on the 60 HFW and investigated the potential of sources of classroom language input to meet the vocabulary needs on the basis of the 60 HFW list. The 213 HFW, however, represented the immediate vocabulary needs of South African learners transitioning from learning to read in the Foundation Phase, to reading to learn in the Intermediate Phase. The 60 HFW list, which was used as the benchmark vocabulary in the present study, derived from the 213 HFW.

The 213 HFW were words which cut across the Grade 4 subject areas with high frequency, and were not specific to subject areas. Their knowledge would therefore, enhance comprehension across the different subject areas while their ignorance would compromise textual understanding across all the subject areas. These are words the FP learner needed to have as part of their repertoire at the word recognition, word meaning and/or word use level. The 213 words were also confirmed by five other word lists as ‘must-know’ words owing to their high frequency in the different corpuses each list was based on. Although the textbook corpus for the present study was small, such confirmation of the high frequency status of the 213 words in other word lists was indicative of the generalizability of the word list to a larger corpus in the South African school system.

### **9.3 To what extent are isiXhosa speaking learners prepared in Grade 3 to meet the vocabulary demands of reading to learn in English in Grade 4?**

The extent to which Grade 3 learners were readied to meet the vocabulary needs of the Grade 4 subject textbooks was discussed in relation to the extent of their exposure to the 60 HFW from the major sources of classroom language input. The sources were; teachers’ pedagogical practices, teachers’ classroom talk, Grade 3 reading materials, and classroom print. Conclusions about the contribution of each of these sources to equipping the Grade 3 learners with the 60 HFW are drawn. Teachers’ pedagogical practices were themselves a product of their beliefs, perceptions and choices as presented in the interview data. Conclusions from interview data are therefore, identified first.

#### *Teachers’ beliefs, perceptions and pedagogical choices*

From interviews with teachers, it was apparent that learner preparedness for the acquisition of the vocabulary requisite for a seamless transition to Grade 4 was compromised by a variety of factors. The late introduction of English as FAL to the cohort of the 2012 Grade 3 learners denied them many hours of instruction in the language which could have developed in them hundreds of English words. In some cases English as FAL was introduced as late as the fourth term in Grade 2 giving learners only a term’s experience with English prior to Grade 3. The delayed language output through deferment of writing at the initial introduction of English FAL removed compulsion to attend to language forms with the view to using them to produce language. For learners who were introduced to English late, the deferment of writing meant almost getting to Grade 3 with no exposure to writing.

Resource constraints like the lack of reading materials featured as a constraining factor to the realisation of the vocabulary targets among the learners. Dictionaries in particular were absent in the English FAL classrooms and so by end of Grade 3 learners would still be illiterate in terms of dictionary work. This was a drawback considering the several dimensions of word a dictionary presents.

In terms of teachers' beliefs and perceptions, there was a general preference among teachers for decontextualized word teaching through word lists in theory which was not reflected in practice. Even the contextualised vocabulary teaching was quite minimal evincing that vocabulary instruction was not high priority in the English FAL classroom. What was consistent in both theory and practice was that the textbook was regarded as the main (if not sole) source of vocabulary input. Teachers were oblivious to other important sources of vocabulary for the learners and were not resourceful about identifying some sources of words for their learners. No mention was made of the CAPS (2011) Grade 3 HFW list as an important source of vocabulary. Some teachers could possibly not even have been aware of its existence, which would raise questions about the effect of curriculum documents in determining teacher practice. The textbook seemed to make all the necessary pedagogical decisions for the teachers.

Determination of word novelty was the teacher's responsibility or the textbook's. The textbook would highlight the words that needed to be taught and learnt. Where teachers determined which words were new for learners, the decision was largely intuitive. Teachers' claimed possession of an intuitive sense which was a culmination of their long years of experience in teaching learners in the Foundation Phase to determine which words to privilege. This led to an ad hoc approach to the teaching of new words.

In theory, word meaning was accorded priority as interview responses attested but in practice, word recognition was privileged. There was not much diversity in the dimensions of word which were identified as meriting privileged status in the classroom possibly out of ignorance of the diverse dimensions of word knowledge there are. In terms of teachers' perception of the dimension of words which were easy and/or problematic to learners, word meaning was regarded as easy but word writing as problematic. From the observations, not much was seen

about word writing on the part of the learners, and word meaning was evidently not the easy component for learners as teachers indicated.

Teachers also manifested a low regard for the potential contribution their English FAL lessons made to the English vocabulary development of the learners as evidenced by their low estimates of the number of new English vocabulary these lessons exposed to learners and the low estimate number of words average learners could potentially acquire from such lessons. These figures were too low to satisfy the curriculum expectations and the reading demands in Grade 4.

There was a general reservation among the teachers about the potential of the home and the outside world to contribute in a significant way to the English vocabulary development of learners. The contribution of the home was mainly indirect in the form of learners' exposure to the televisions and that of the wider community was mainly in the form of environmental print. Direct parental involvement was denied by the teachers who saw the school system as almost fighting a lone battle in terms of modelling English language use. It was not illiteracy that was identified as militating against meaningful parental contribution, but irresponsibility.

Despite a few reservations, the general perception among teachers was that by the end of the year, the learners would be ready to transition to Grade 4. The basis for the confidence in learners' readiness for the transition betrayed a lack of appreciation of the nature of the transitional challenges. The teachers in the study assumed that by being able to follow a few English instructions and write a few English sentences, the learners would cope with the transitional challenges.

#### *Teachers' pedagogical practices*

The lack of consistence between what teachers defined as their vocabulary teaching strategies in the interview and what was observed in their practices suggested teacher ignorance of own teaching practices as well as lack of well thought out deliberate practice in terms of vocabulary instruction on the part of the teachers. For teachers who were supposed to be planning and evaluating their practices, the gulf between professed and observed practices was unexpected.

In terms of the observed vocabulary instruction related practices, strategies which were meant to draw attention to words exceeded those that were actually meant to develop word meaning. Teachers' practices privileged word recognition more than the other word knowledge dimensions. Unfortunately, word recognition was grossly insufficient to allow learners to realise success in reading to learn in Grade 4. Vocabulary meaning strategies were particularly infrequent within the teachers' practices when they were more important for preparing learners for the FP to IP transition in terms of their vocabulary knowledge. Only translation featured prominently at the expense of other strategies. In some cases, potentially problematic words without isiXhosa equivalents were ignored as teachers were apparently comfortable with just giving the isiXhosa equivalent of the English words that were new to learners.

Another thing that came out strongly in teachers' practices, particularly in the strategies of drawing learners' attention to words, was the choral and repetitious nature of learners' responses. Drilling was a major feature of the Grade 3 classroom and the individual was hardly recognised. Some learners took advantage of the choral nature of the responses to join others in the chants even when they were not looking at the words being read or paying attention. The class was drilled and the individual was not attended to.

Generally, in the Grade 3 classrooms, the teacher was quite dominant. Typically, the teacher identified what words would be taught/ learnt, read the words and asked the learners to chorally repeat after her, explained words which needed to be explained, gave isiXhosa equivalents of the given words, and in a few cases exemplified their use. There was no independent learning and word practice, very little group and peer learning (in only one classroom) and manifestly no opportunities to develop word knowledge beyond the classroom.

There were also few cases, among few teachers, where moments which availed themselves for the teaching of a dimension of word knowledge (teachable moments) were capitalised on. Generally, these slipped by without being noticed.

The potential of teachers' classroom talk to prepare learners for the learning to read to reading to learn transition was militated against by several factors. Chief among these was the poor model use of the language by the teacher which took three forms namely: grammatical

inaccuracies, use of complex words without explaining them, and the use of one word, non-word and short phrase instructions, questions and utterances. The ungrammaticality of teacher utterances potentially led learners into picking up erroneous words and utterances and potentially compromised comprehensibility of utterances. Difficult unexplained words would not just be misunderstood, but would negatively affect the other words within the context. Single word, short phrase and non-word utterances deprived learners of the many and broad range of words that could have been used to express the ideas or commands that the teachers expressed. Lessons where coherence was lacking and where the lesson did not pursue a particular theme or language structure had a confusing effect on the learners and did not sufficiently recycle the same vocabulary. The lack of recycling of the same words within the lessons compromised the potential to acquire the words used.

There was also unwarranted use of the first language in the English FAL lesson where the use of English would equally be understood. This was most common in the words used for checking learners' understanding. The teachers also did not give learners opportunities to use the language other than in the form of responding to questions in one word or short phrase responses. Full sentences were not encouraged from the learners and this limited opportunities to experiment with language.

The picture was not all gloom as there were isolated cases where the teacher would allow learners to express themselves in isiXhosa where they could not use English and then she would translate the utterances to English. There were also isolated instances where the teacher rephrased the same utterance in different ways to aid comprehension. In the rephrases, diverse words expressing the same meaning would be used and one would be an index to the meaning of the other.

In terms of the actual exposure of the 60 HFW in teacher talk, the teacher with the highest word coverage only had 67% of the words manifest in her class and the one with the least word coverage had 28%. There was very limited visibility of the 60 HFW in the teacher classroom talk. There were fewer words manifest in all ten teachers' classroom talk (8) than those which were absent among all the ten teachers' classroom talk (13). The situation was even worse when the extent to which the words in the teacher talk were recycled within the 5 minute lesson segments. The highest number of words that were recycled within 50% of the 5 minute intervals by any teacher was 11 and the lowest was 2. Not much acquisition of the 60

HFW could be expected from teacher talk lacking in both exposure to, and recycling of, the HFW. The lack of word exposure and recycling was also manifest in the words beyond the 60 but within the 213 HFW.

What was positive about teacher talk was the dominance of English words in the English FAL over isiXhosa words and what I referred to as mixed words. English words' dominance was in the 70% and 80% ranges in most teachers' talk.

Charts were the sole form of classroom print in the participating teachers' classrooms except for one classroom where they were complemented by the labelling of classroom objects. The bulk of the charts were commercially produced with some of them lacking relevance to the Grade 3 class. The presence of such charts served more a decorative than instructive function. Most of the charts were at the word level and so were more useful for word recognition than for inculcating contextual word meaning knowledge. Both the 60 and 213 HFW were scarcely visible in the classroom print to the extent that only one word 'on' was found across all the 7 teachers who had classroom print in their classrooms and one word 'you' cut across 6 teachers.

#### **9.4 What High Frequency Grade 4 subject textbook vocabulary do Grade 4 learners know at the beginning of the year?**

Of the 60 HFW whose knowledge was assessed, the bulk of them were either little known or unknown by the majority of learners as evident from the low percentage mean scores in whatever permutations of learners' performance was assessed. Least known were content words which were the greatest determinant of success in reading to learn among the learners. The dimension of word knowledge learners demonstrated most knowledge in was word recognition and their performance was least in the active word knowledge dimension. The dimension of word they demonstrated facility in was the most basic and would not assure them success in reading to learn in Grade 4. Being able to read or identify a word would not translate to reading comprehension. That considered, the learners' knowledge of core vocabulary for transitioning to Grade 4 was grossly limited.

#### **9.5 Recommendations**

On the basis of the conclusions drawn above, the present study proffers recommendations to the various stakeholders. In this study, I recognize the limitation in terms of the size of the

textbook corpus that I used to determine the vocabulary needs of learners for the FP to IP transition. There is, therefore, need for a replication of a similar procedure of generating the HFW on a large scale which would represent the vocabulary needs of learners in South Africa.

The fact that this study cast doubt on the efficacy of the current four conceptualizations of ‘word’ for word frequency counts in the present study necessitates rethinking the applicability of current notions about what a word is. The reconsideration of the notion of ‘word’ should lead to the development of word categories which are reflective of the psychological processes of children’s word acquisition. These can only be based on large-scale robust studies into the actual learning burdens of some words once particular words are known.

The development of word lists can only impact classroom teaching and learning to the extent to which these are accessible to learners and teachers and the extent to which their importance is appreciated by the teachers. The onus then would be on the Department of Basic Education to ensure that vocabulary lists reflective of the South African learners’ vocabulary needs at each Grade of the school system are infused into the curriculum documents.

The manifest reliance on the workbooks and readers by the teachers for their teaching needs should be exploited by ensuring textbooks deliberately recycle the words which are part of the learners’ vocabulary needs for their Grade level and the subsequent level. The concept of Graded readers provided ideal conditions for the sufficient recycling of vocabulary requisite for the needs of subsequent grades and should be a key guiding principle in the development of workbooks, readers and textbooks.

The DBE should also ensure schools are supplied with relevant grade specific dictionaries. Such a project would not be costly as dictionaries would not need to be changed annually or regularly as workbooks, readers, and textbooks would. The same applies to workbooks seeing that they had an extensive coverage of the 60 HFW as did the workbooks and readers.

Teachers need sensitization on the importance of vocabulary knowledge for successful learning if they are to accord deliberate attention to its development. They need to be

resourceful in terms of searching for sources of important words, and in terms of developing classroom print that is tailor-made to address the needs of their particular learners and which can be rotated to keep it relevant. They also need assistance in carrying out action research and become reflective practitioners who make deliberate choices in their instructional practices.

There is need for teachers to track how their learners fare when they get to the next Grade particularly where the transitional challenges are so pronounced as in the Grade 3 to 4 transition. They also need to teach the individual alone, the individual in a class and not just the class alone. Their classroom talk should be geared towards providing adequate comprehensible input from which the learners' language growth in general, and their vocabulary development in particular, is realized.

With the stakeholders doing their part to develop learners' vocabulary repertoire, transitional challenges would be eased considerably and a new crop of South African learners who are a force to reckon with in international benchmark rankings can become a reality.

## **9.6 Chapter Summary**

The foregoing drew conclusions which respond directly to the research questions for the present study. This conclusion gives a concluding statement on the findings of the study. Teachers' perceptions about vocabulary issues are largely intuitive and have little, if any, relationship to their own teaching practices. There is very little deliberate attention to the development of the English vocabulary in the English FAL classes by the teachers. Despite teachers' claims for learners' preparedness for the transition to Grade 4 by the end of the year, there were more constraints to their acquisition of the requisite vocabulary for that transition than there were enablers. Teachers' pedagogical choices and practices did not have the potential to significantly bring about word acquisition particularly beyond the word recognition dimension of word knowledge. There were few vocabulary development strategies employed in the English FAL classes and these were also too infrequent to make a meaningful contribution to learners' vocabulary acquisition.

Teacher talk in the majority of the classrooms had few words, exposed learners to very few of the 60 HFW and 213 HFW, and recycled the few words it presented even less. Not much vocabulary gains could be expected from teacher classroom talk. It was not purposed to

develop English vocabulary. Reading materials had the widest coverage of the 60 HFW among all the sources of classroom input with the Readers and Workbooks providing slightly more word coverage than the Big books. Classroom print represented the least reliable source of language input that potentially could impact the acquisition of the 60 and 213 HFW.

In terms of learner preparation for the vocabulary needs of IP reading; teachers' pedagogical practices, teacher talk, and classroom print have little potential to help learners meet the vocabulary needs for the transition. The textbooks, however, were the only source of classroom input which exposed learners to the bulk of the 60 HFW. Without the teacher's mediation, the textbook on its own could hardly impact the vocabulary development of learners who have not developed independent extensive reading competencies. What this then implies was that there was a gross under-preparedness of the Grade 3 learners for the vocabulary needs for reading to learn in Grade 4.

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## Appendices

### Appendix 1: The 8 tests administered to the Grade 4 learners.

Note that the test samples are just examples of how the test tested learners and that some test items in some tests do not appear. Test 2 was a flash card reading test.

SCHOOL \_\_\_\_\_

NAME OF CHILD: \_\_\_\_\_

TEST 1

the	hoid	rey	lop	she
and	can	broing	lable	have
you	refontage	is	or	twebs
refed	do	fost	that	need
use	rist	for	on	joils
heters	what	it	priod	like
and	can	broing	lable	have
you	refontage	is	or	twebs
refed	do	fost	that	need
use	rist	for	on	joils
heters	what	it	priod	like
and	can	broing	lable	have
you	refontage	is	or	twebs
refed	do	fost	that	need
use	rist	for	on	joils
heters	what	it	priod	like
and	can	broing	lable	have
you	refontage	is	or	twebs

refed	do	fost	that	need
use	rist	for	on	joils
heters	what	it	priod	like

SCHOOL: \_\_\_\_\_

CLASS: \_\_\_\_\_

LEARNER: \_\_\_\_\_

Test 3

The cat is eating meat

The /cat/is/eating/meat

1. Can you use the other book also?
2. It is a different day.
3. Do not look for work there again.
4. What important thing do you need most?
5. It is enough for both of us.
6. Explain if they do not understand that example.
7. Always stop and look before you cross.
8. Why must you get a different answer each time?
9. Some have more time after school.
10. Put it together with another one like it.
11. I see my own family only once a week.
12. I like the same colour because it is easy to see.
13. It will be hot or cold but not raining.
14. We go out to play every day until we are tired.
15. Use some more examples from that book also.
16. It is on the table between the books.
17. Take that piece from the box.

CLASS: \_\_\_\_\_

LEARNER: \_\_\_\_\_

**Test 4: Instructions**

1. For each word meaning in A, find the correct word in B.

Word Meaning

Word

**A**

1. Know something well \_\_\_\_\_
2. All the time \_\_\_\_\_
3. Want \_\_\_\_\_
4. A part of a whole thing \_\_\_\_\_
5. Not like the other \_\_\_\_\_
6. Only for one time \_\_\_\_\_
7. all in the same place \_\_\_\_\_
8. Place where children learn \_\_\_\_\_
9. Like the other \_\_\_\_\_
10. Two things or two people together \_\_\_\_\_
11. At a later time \_\_\_\_\_
12. Too or as well as \_\_\_\_\_
13. One who teaches \_\_\_\_\_ teacher \_\_\_\_\_

**B**

- school
- both
- always
- need
- teacher once
- also
- together
- different
- after
- piece
- understand
- same

SCHOOL: \_\_\_\_\_

CLASS: \_\_\_\_\_

LEARNER: \_\_\_\_\_

**Test 5: Instruction**

Circle the correct word to complete the sentence given

26. It is 10cm [*small/big/long*]

1. R3.00 is not [**different** / **enough** / **important**] to buy bread
2. Black and white are [**each**/ **both** / **every**] colours.
3. Sleep [**until** / **but** / **and**] I wake you up.
4. Thabo [**are** / **were** / **is**] in Grade 3.
5. I [**can** / **was** / **have**] write my name.
6. [**Who** / **What** / **Why**] is your name?
7. [**Who** / **What** / **Why**] are you crying?
8. It is not clear. Please [**report**/ **discuss** / **explain**] it to me.
9. You will fail [**when** / **if** / **where**] you don't work hard.
10. The [**time** / **day** / **same**] is 8 O'clock.
11. Adding 1 + 1 is very [**easy** / **same** / **different**]
12. If you fail, try [**together** / **another** / **again**].
13. The number 3 comes [**until** / **after** / **before**] the number 2.
14. I am tall [**and** / **but** / **or**] Peter is short.
15. Please [**do** / **have** / **use**] your work on time.
16. They [**use** / **work** / **do**] on the farm.
17. Are you in Grade 3 [**and** / **but** / **or**] Grade 4?
18. We come to school [**but** / **because** / **until**] we want to learn.
19. The picture is [**in** / **on** / **for**] the wall.

SCHOOL: \_\_\_\_\_

CLASS: \_\_\_\_\_

LEARNER: \_\_\_\_\_

TEST 6

Complete each sentence in **A** using a word in **B**.

**A**

1. I saw her talking to \_\_\_\_\_.
2. What is it used \_\_\_\_\_?
3. Take 2 from 5 and tell me the \_\_\_\_\_.
4. Where did you get this \_\_\_\_\_?
5. Do not throw it away. It is very \_\_\_\_\_.
6. They are not in the house.  
They all went \_\_\_\_\_.
7. To get it right copy my \_\_\_\_\_.
8. Do not paint using the red \_\_\_\_\_.

**B**

answer

important

colour

about

out

from

example

you

enough for

A

9. May I \_\_\_\_\_ some money please.
10. It looks \_\_\_\_\_ a dog.
11. Who is the \_\_\_\_\_ person you are going with?
12. You should \_\_\_\_\_ fight with others.
13. In this class \_\_\_\_\_ of us can not speak isiZulu.
14. On what \_\_\_\_\_ are we writing the test?
15. Please come back on \_\_\_\_\_ day.
16. Wash your body \_\_\_\_\_ morning.
17. To pass the test, you \_\_\_\_\_ work hard.
18. Eat \_\_\_\_\_ you are hungry.

B

like                      have                      not                      need  
most    must                      if                      on                      also  
                    every                      other                      day                      another

**A**

Each

Stop

Both

Only

Between

Look

That

Once

Use

Some

**B**

19. \_\_\_\_\_ these two, which one do you like?

20. \_\_\_\_\_ at this picture. It is big.

21. \_\_\_\_\_ have passed, others have not.

22. \_\_\_\_\_ making noise please.

23. \_\_\_\_\_ boys should use boys' toilet not girls.

24. \_\_\_\_\_ child should bring a pen to school.

25. \_\_\_\_\_ a pencil if you want to draw.

26. \_\_\_\_\_ car over there is new.

## Instruction

1. Listen carefully as I read these sentences.
2. I will read a sentence once while you listen and then read it in parts while you write it.

1. You do not need it more than me.
2. What if they both stop together?
3. Each day is different from another.
4. Have you only one colour to work with?
5. Can you answer both of them once again?
6. It is important to understand every example.
7. Do you like a different piece?
8. Some must go out until we call you in.
9. Because it looks the same before and after you use it.
10. You have enough time together each day at school.
11. Look at the picture of my own family.
12. This is easy but different from that one.
13. Explain for both of us to understand also.
14. Look for it in or on the box not between the books.
15. Why must you have most colours always?

SCHOOL: \_\_\_\_\_

CLASS: \_\_\_\_\_

LEARNER \_\_\_\_\_

TEST 8

IsiXhosa statement

English Word

Ndifuna amanzi

	a	t		
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Ndifuna amanzi

w	a	t	e	r
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1. Ndifuna amanzi qha. □ n l □
2. Indlu iphakhati kwemiti emibini. □ e t □ □ □ □
3. UJohn no Peter bayadlala. □ n d
4. Bahambe kunye. □ o g □ □ □ □ □
5. Ndinike umzekelo. □ x a □ □ □ □
6. Kubalulekile ukufunda incwadi. □ m p □ □ □ □ □ □
7. Yenza umsebenzi wesikolo kakuhle qho. □ o
8. Uyapheka. □ s
9. Uninzi lwethu luphumelele. □ o s □
10. Yenza umsebenzi wesikolo kakuhle qho. □ o r □
11. Kufuneka siyeke ukubhala ngoku. □ u s □
12. Ndithanda umnyazi kodwa andiwudlali. □ i k □
13. Yenza umsebenzi wessikolo kakuhle qho. □ c h □ □ □
14. Jonga pambi kwokuba uwele umgaqo. □ o o □
15. Kutheni kubalulekile ukuba sihlale sonke? □ h y □
16. Hlamba izandla pambi nasemva kokutya. □ e f □ □ □
17. Sobabini sine mali esaneleyo. □ o t □



1. She saw a snake ___ ran away.	an_____
2. I ___ count from 1 to 100.	ca_____
3. We use a spoon ___ eating.	fo_____
4. He put the book ___ the table.	o_____
5. ___ is hot today.	i_____
6. I ate a sweet and gave the ___ one to my friend.	ot_____
7. This is the dog ___ ate my food.	th_____
8. You ___ to see a doctor if you are sick.	ne_____
9. Take the pen ___ your pocket.	fr_____
10. It is ___ not in.	ou_____
11. The teacher gave ___ of us a fruit.	ea_____
12. Do ___ make noise in class.	no_____
13. This is my ___ picture which I drew.	ow_____
14. ___ people are tall others are short.	so_____
15. You saw them and I saw them	al_____
16. A bus has ___ space than a car.	mo_____
17. I ate the food ___ I was hungry.	be_____
18. Please come on ___ day.	ano_____
19. We go home early ___ Friday.	ev_____
20. ___ should do your homework everyday.	yo_____
21. What are you talking ___?	ab_____

## Appendix 2: Word frequency comparisons across different word lists

Rank in Present study List	Frequency in Present study List	Word	Position in CAPS [FP] 300	Position in FAL HFW	Position in Word Bank 1200	Position in General Service List1000	Position in Fry HFW List 600	Level in Longman Communication 3000
1	8904	the	1	1	1	1	<i>definite article, determiner S1, W1</i>	
2	3819	to	4	5	5	5	<i>S1, W1; prep S1, W1</i>	
3	3608	and	100	3	4	3	<i>conj S1, W1</i>	
4	3570	a	3	4	5	4	<i>indefinite article, determiner S1, W1</i>	
5	3532	of	9	2	3	2	<i>prep S1, W1</i>	
6	2940	in	6	6	7	6	<i>adv S1, W1; prep S1, W1</i>	
7	2543	you	12	8	24	8	<i>pron S1, W1</i>	
8	2035	is	16	7	X	7	X	
9	1805	your	80	X	X	36	<i>your determiner S1, W1</i>	
10	1402	are	26	15	X	15	X	
11	1199	that	21	9	11	9	<i>adv S1, W2, determiner, pron</i>	

							S1, W1	conj S1, W1
12	1177	it	10	10	10	10	it	pron S1, W1
13	1080	what	31	32	47	31	pron, determiner,	S1, W1
14	1049	how	106	49	107	46	adv, conj	S1, W1
15	1019	can	25	38	39	37	modal	S1, W1, n S2
16	1008	for	17	12	12	13	prep	S1, W1
17	943	do	51	45	25	45	auxiliary	S1, W1; v S1, W1
18	912	or	112	26	28	24	conj	S1, W1
19	889	on	14	14	18	14	prep	S1, W1
							adj, adv	S1, W1
20	869	water	101	90	208	78	water	n S1, W1
21	856	this	34	22	22	23	determiner, pron	S1, W1
22	819	with	22	17	15	17	prep	S1, W1
23	760	have	35	25	9	93	v	S1, W1; v S1, W3
24	760	make	99	72	37	60	v	S1, W1
25	756	we	24	36	23	34	pron	S1, W1
26	706	use	35	25	9	93	n	S1, W1; v S1, W1
27	681	from	67	23	27	94	prep	S1, W1
28	673	they	13	19	13	19	pron	S1, W1
29	658	will	64	46	33	47	modal	S1, W1; n S2, W2
30	646	at	18	20	20	21	prep	S1, W1
31	610	about	76	48	51	50	prep	S1, W1; adv S1, W1
32	605	each	231	47	103	42	determiner, pron, adv	S1, W1
33	560	these	X	58	62	55	X	
34	550	one	48	28	30	25	number	S1, W1; pron S1, W1
							determiner	S1, W1
35	534	write	X	108	120	69	v	S1, W1
36	518	people	79	79	95	74	n	S1, W1
37	515	be	37	21	2	22	auxiliary	S1, W1; v S1, W1
38	507	work	168	124	71	107	n	S1, W1; v S1, W1
39	490	as	46	16	16	16	prep, adv	S1, W1
40	488	many	199	55	85	52	determiner, pron, adj	S1, W1
41	484	I	8	24	14	20	pron	S1, W1
42	460	different	235	139	X	172	adj	S1, W1
43	460	when	56	35	38	35	adv, conj, pron	S1, W1
44	446	not	41	30	17	30	not	adv S1, W1
45	413	all	23	33	32	32	determiner, pron	adv S1, W1
46	412	which	X	41	29	43	determiner, pron	S1, W1
47	398	number	X	145	143	70	n	S1, W1
48	385	by	86	27	21	27	adv	S1, W1, prep S1, W1
49	385	out	33	51	44	51	adv	S1, W1, prep S1, W1
50	382	look	61	117	87	66	n	S1, W1, v S1, W1
51	380	group	X	295	192	248	n	S1, W1
52	380	need	170	221	X	170	n	S1, W1; v S1, W1
53	377	an	X	39	X	41	indefinite article, determiner	S1, W1
54	369	paper	X	241	526	245	n	S1, W1
55	365	find	141	87	80	85	v	S1, W1
56	358	like	38	66	67	61	prep	S1, W1 v S1, W1
							adv	S1; conj S1 n W3
57	348	into	65	61	53	63	prep	S1, W1
58	339	food	150	198	555	205	n	S1, W1
59	336	did	107	83	X	89	X	
60	326	if	91	44	41	96	conj	S1, W1
61	324	down	53	84	98	87	adv, prep, adj	S1, W1
62	324	things	126	X	X	118	X	
63	323	their	78	42	X	95	determiner	S1, W1
64	320	there	32	37	34	39	adv	S1, W1; pron S1, W1
65	318	two	13	65	X	67	X	
66	312	other	149	60	45	49	determiner, adj, pron	S1, W1
67	308	them	50	52	X	54	pron	S1, W1
68	303	why	207	136	268	165	adv, conj	S1, W1
69	298	some	39	56	61	57	determiner	S1, W1 pron S1, W1; adv S1, W1

70	295	has	134	62	X	65	X
71	283	our	132	109	X	119	<i>determiner</i> S1, W1
72	282	numbers	X	X	X	X	X
73	282	think	115	118	77	125	<i>v</i> S1, W1
74	272	help	92	137	199	129	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S1, W1
75	271	animals	164	418	X	187	<i>n</i> S1, W1
76	269	made	88	81	X	92	X
77	263	draw	X	338	435	378	<i>n</i> S3; <i>v</i> S1, W1
78	260	time	X	69	48	64	<i>n</i> S1, W1
79	250	plants	295	300	X	210	X
80	248	answer	X	265	412	193	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S1, W2
81	245	does	X	128	X	154	X
82	245	following	X	X	X	142	<i>adj</i> S3, W1
83	243	he	7	11	8	11	<i>pron</i> S1, W1
84	239	so	40	57	46	56	<i>adv</i> S1, W1 <i>conj</i> S1, W3
85	236	was	11	13	X	12	X
86	234	up	27	50	49	48	<i>adv, prep, adj</i> S1, W1
87	230	used	X	X	X	X	<i>adj</i> S1, W2, <i>modal</i> S1, W2
88	228	get	71	101	66	90	<i>v</i> S1, W1
89	224	my	29	80	X	75	<i>determiner</i> S1, W1
90	222	energy	X	511	X	517	<i>n</i> S2, W1
91	221	questions	X	X	X	306	X
92	220	know	120	100	63	108	<i>v</i> S1, W1
93	217	own	X	163	99	207	<i>adj, pron</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S2, W2
94	213	picture	X	232	476	179	<i>n</i> S1, W1
95	213	where	110	98	93	128	<i>adv, conj, pron</i> S1, W1
96	209	materials	X	X	X	X	X
97	207	called	94	96	X	80	X
98	204	earth	X	220	589	219	<i>n</i> S2, W2
99	204	more	X	63	40	68	<i>adv</i> S1, W1; <i>determiner, pron</i> S1, W1
100	201	way	153	86	84	72	<i>n</i> S1, W1 <i>adv</i> S2
101	199	table	X	314	464	371	<i>n</i> S1, W1
102	197	copy	X	612	X	X	<i>v</i> S2
103	195	complete	X	365	272	X	<i>adj</i> S2, W1; <i>v</i> S2, W1
104	191	she	15	54	19	44	<i>she pron</i> S1, W1
105	189	answers	X	X	X	X	X
106	189	school	114	194	137	212	<i>n</i> S1, W1
107	188	name	X	X	225	121	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S2, W2
108	188	see	58	68	64	98	<i>v</i> S1, W1
109	186	very	60	93	113	116	<i>adv</i> S1, W1; <i>adj</i> S2, W1
110	184	show	X	184	123	145	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S1, W1
111	183	soil	X	574	X	X	<i>n</i> W2
112	183	three	189	X	X	149	<i>number</i> S1
113	183	were	X	34	X	33	X
114	181	same	X	115	139	139	<i>adv</i> S1, W1 <i>adj</i> S1, W1 <i>pron</i> S1, W1
115	179	also	X	119	82	146	<i>adv</i> S1, W1
116	177	but	20	31	26	29	<i>conj</i> S1, W1 <i>prep</i> S2, W3; <i>adv</i> S2, W3
117	177	using	X	X	X	X	X
118	176	information	X	549	X	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
119	176	place	X	131	110	109	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S2, W1
120	175	groups	X	X	X	X	X
121	175	then	42	53	68	53	<i>adv</i> S1, W1
122	174	air	X	X	429	185	<i>n</i> S1, W1
123	173	her	X	64	X	58	<i>determiner</i> S1, W1 <i>pron</i> S1, W1
124	171	class	X	391	380	433	<i>class n</i> S1, W1
125	166	shapes	X	X	X	X	X
126	165	us	148	168	X	174	<i>pron</i> S1, W1
127	164	would	111	59	31	59	<i>modal</i> S1, W1
128	163	day	87	114	81	88	<i>n</i> S1, W1
129	159	because	213	127	101	162	<i>conj</i> S1, W1 <i>prep</i> S1, W1
130	156	explain	X	513	470	464	<i>v</i> S1, W1

131	151	around	194	120	174	147	<i>adv, prep</i> S1, W1
132	150	any	241	113	70	138	<i>determiner, pron</i> S1,W1 <i>adv</i> S2
133	150	important	X	195	284	251	<i>adj</i> S1, W1
134	148	calculate	X	X	X	X	<i>v</i> S2, W3
135	148	now	73	78	72	84	<i>adv</i> S1, W1; <i>conj</i> S1, W3
136	147	discuss	X	1118	X	X	<i>v</i> S2, W1
137	145	read	X	165	256	169	<i>v</i> S1, W1
138	142	hair	X	528	652	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
139	142	sun	263	257	801	305	<i>n</i> S2, W1
140	141	long	125	91	92	86	<i>adj</i> S1, W1; <i>adv</i> S1, W1
141	141	most	278	99	78	115	<i>adv</i> S1, W1 <i>determiner, pron</i> S1, W1
142	141	must	156	126	86	158	<i>modal</i> S1, W1
143	138	below	X	X	737	208	<i>below adv, prep</i> S2, W2
144	138	pictures	X	X	X	X	X
145	137	book	232	307	373	270	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S2
146	137	only	198	85	56	105	<i>adj</i> S1, W1; <i>adv</i> S1, W1
147	135	list	X	372	508	295	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S2, W3
148	135	right	X	116	133	134	<i>adj</i> S1, W1; <i>adv</i> S1, W1 <i>n</i> S1, W1
149	134	eat	130	303	817	279	<i>v</i> S1, W1
150	133	between	X	154	126	206	<i>adv, prep</i> S1, W1
151	132	give	X	159	75	114	<i>v</i> S1, W1
152	132	who	117	77	36	81	<i>pron</i> S1, W1
153	131	after	128	94	83	117	<i>prep, conj, adv</i> S1, W1
154	129	good	103	106	102	122	<i>adj</i> S1, W1
155	129	his	19	18	X	18	<i>determiner, pron</i> S1, W1
156	129	much	X	104	94	131	<i>adv</i> S1, W1 <i>determiner, pron</i> S1, W1
157	129	should	X	156	95	198	<i>modal</i> S1, W1
158	128	no	X	71	42	71	<i>adv</i> S1, W1 <i>determiner</i> S1, W1
159	125	pairs	X	X	X	X	X
160	125	partner	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W2
161	124	activity	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W1
162	124	another	205	121	140	155	<i>determiner, pron</i> S1, W1
163	124	children	68	200	X	253	X
164	124	four	X	211	X	266	X
165	124	shape	X	601	740	X	<i>n</i> S2, W2
166	124	take	137	135	60	104	<i>v</i> S1, W1
167	123	cut	X	293	378	291	<i>n</i> S2, W2; <i>v</i> S1, W1
168	122	measure	X	523	340	346	<i>v</i> S2, W2; <i>n</i> W2
169	122	together	X	197	430	246	<i>adv</i> S1, W1
170	122	words	X	95	X	28	X
171	121	design	X	102	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W1; <i>v</i> S3, W1
172	118	first	167	74	69	77	<i>adj</i> S1, W1; <i>adv</i> S1, W2
173	118	wood	X	530	X	398	<i>n</i> S2, W2
174	117	than	259	73	52	76	<i>conj, prep</i> S1, W1
175	116	could	82	70	54	73	<i>modal</i> S1, W1
176	116	live	181	217	215	111	<i>v</i> S1, W1; <i>adj</i> S3, W3
177	115	example	X	261	318	239	<i>n</i> S1, W1
178	113	grow	300	337	368	263	<i>v</i> S1, W1
179	112	through	X	102	91	130	<i>prep, adv</i> S1, W1
180	111	learners	X	X	X	X	X
181	110	objects	X	X	X	X	X
182	109	put	81	138	202	152	<i>v</i> S1, W1
183	106	body	X	285	320	301	<i>n</i> S1, W1
184	106	move	X	290	134	175	<i>v</i> S1, W1 <i>n</i> S2, W1
185	106	structure	X	1042	X	X	<i>n</i> S3, W2
186	104	go	44	105	50	97	<i>n</i> S1; <i>v</i> S1, W1
187	104	heat	X	505	692	477	<i>n</i> S2, W2 <i>v</i> S3
188	104	learn	X	271	427	197	<i>v</i> S1, W1
189	104	ways	X	X	X	X	X
190	104	well	140	132	95	156	<i>adj</i> S1, W2
191	103	feel	X	355	105	422	<i>v</i> S1, W1
192	103	part	X	129	144	100	<i>n</i> S1, W1

193	103	story	X	237	523	225	<i>n</i> S1, W1
194	102	rights	X	X	X	X	X
195	101	clean	X	720	728	X	<i>adj</i> S2, W2; <i>v</i> S1, W3
196	101	others	X	X	X	X	X
197	101	talk	X	398	337	293	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S1, W1
198	101	wheels	X	X	X	440	X
199	100	home	116	157	160	173	<i>adv</i> S1, W1; <i>n</i> S1, W1
200	100	small	X	150	155	150	<i>adj</i> S1, W1
201	100	wire	X	802	X	X	wire <i>n</i> S2, W3
202	99	change	X	264	198	181	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S1, W1
203	99	light	X	227	213	221	<i>adj</i> S1, W1; <i>n</i> S1, W1 <i>v</i> S2, W3
204	98	friend	X	498	386	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
205	96	drink	X	967	522	X	<i>n</i> S1, W2; <i>v</i> S1, W2
206	96	had	28	29	X	26	X
207	96	its	57	76	X	300	<i>determiner</i> S1, W1
208	96	life	X	208	118	241	<i>n</i> S1, W1
209	96	parts	X	X	X	X	X
210	94	box	253	388	X	408	<i>n</i> S1, W1
211	94	person	X	367	163	414	<i>n</i> S1, W1
212	94	total	X	800	447	X	<i>adj</i> S1, W1; <i>n</i> S2, W2
213	94	workbook	X	X	X	X	X
214	93	five	X	276	X	361	X
215	93	glass	X	488	804	579	<i>n</i> S1, W1
216	93	healthy	X	1119	X	X	<i>adj</i> S3, W3
217	92	add	X	335	388	204	<i>v</i> S1, W1
218	92	every	195	151	216	202	<i>determiner</i> S1, W1
219	91	choose	X	580	624	X	<i>v</i> S1, W1
220	91	describe	X	X	546	599	<i>v</i> S2, W1
221	91	electricity	X	982	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W3
222	91	next	166	174	278	236	<i>adv</i> S1, W1 <i>determiner, adj</i> S1, W1
223	91	say	182	149	35	126	<i>v</i> S1, W1
224	90	keep	209	199	189	214	<i>v</i> S1, W1
225	90	line	X	161	200	133	<i>n</i> S1, W1
226	89	piece	X	392	501	319	<i>n</i> S1, W1
227	89	play	136	274	193	183	<i>v</i> S1, W1; <i>n</i> S1, W2
228	88	living	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S2
229	88	moon	X	417	X	520	<i>n</i> W3
230	87	before	216	332	88	132	<i>adv</i> S1, W1 <i>conj</i> S1, W1 <i>prep</i> S1, W1
231	87	making	X	X	X	X	X
232	87	means	X	X	X	136	<i>n</i> S2, W2
233	87	page	X	218	X	190	<i>n</i> S1, W1
234	87	rules	X	X	X	X	X
235	86	cannot	X	343	X	487	X
236	86	days	X	X	X	X	X
237	85	going	109	192	X	X	X
238	84	over	X	82	76	101	<i>adv, adj</i> S1, W1
239	84	patterns	X	X	X	X	X
240	84	try	X	254	222	176	<i>n</i> S3 ; <i>v</i> S1, W1
241	83	tell	X	147	X	X	<i>v</i> S1, W1
242	82	found	X	152	X	194	X
243	82	investigations	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> W2
244	81	mass	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> W2; <i>adj</i> W3
245	80	check	X	493	747	480	<i>v</i> S1, W2; <i>n</i> S1, W3
246	80	colour	X	531	442	303	<i>n</i> S1, W1
247	80	left	X	169	959	227	<i>adj</i> S1, W1 <i>adv</i> S3, W3 <i>n</i> S3, W3
248	80	side	X	203	221	254	<i>n</i> S1, W1
249	80	teacher	X	539	X	597	<i>n</i> S1, W1
250	79	plan	X	144	187	383	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S1, W1
251	79	problems	X	X	X	X	X
252	79	years	X	X	X	110	X
253	78	compare	X	810	662	X	<i>v</i> S1, W1
254	78	friends	252	X	X	X	X
255	77	fill	X	743	568	X	<i>v</i> S1, W1

256	77	graph	X	X	X	X	n S3
257	77	ideas	X	X	X	X	X
258	76	game	X	433	605	457	n S1, W1
259	76	land	X	202	396	171	n S1, W1 v S2, W3
260	76	test	X	628	455	509	n S1, W1 v S3, W2
261	75	investigate	X	X	X	X	v W2
262	75	pattern	X	465	656	369	n S2, W1
263	74	money	X	279	418	374	n S1, W1
264	74	turn	X	289	145	X	n S1, W1 v S1, W1
265	74	year	X	225	58	X	n S1, W1
266	73	assessment	X	X	X	X	n S3, W2
267	73	best	260	246	315	338	adj S1, W1 adv S1, W2
268	73	material	X	641	397	493	n S1, W1; adj W3
269	73	new	X	107	57	102	adj S1, W1
270	72	foods	X	X	X	X	X
271	72	plant	X	X	472	X	n S2, W1
272	72	remember	X	315	453	347	v S1, W1
273	72	something	X	X	241	X	pron S1, W1
274	71	axle	X	X	X	X	X
275	71	wind	269	341	X	352	n S2, W2; v S3, W3
276	70	start	X	389	246	X	v S1, W1; n S1, W2
277	70	without	X	204	170	273	prep, adv S1, W1
278	70	world	X	191	112	200	n S1, W1
279	69	ask	X	508	158	X	v S1, W1
280	69	cold	279	312	569	381	adj S1, W1
281	69	per	X	X	291	X	prep S3, W1
282	69	plastic	X	X	X	X	n S2, W2
283	69	sometimes	X	X	502	289	adv S1, W1
284	68	above	X	213	384	287	adv, prep S2, W1 adj W3
285	68	animal	X	207	814	X	n S1, W1
286	68	carry	X	X	346	X	v S1, W1
287	68	object	X	606	733	481	n S3, W2; v S2
288	68	river	289	394	603	265	n S2, W2
289	68	road	X	406	440	403	n S1, W1
290	68	ten	X	375	X	405	X
291	68	types	X	X	X	X	X
292	67	diagram	X	X	X	X	n S3
293	67	square	X	537	626	503	adj S2, W3; n S2, W3
294	66	away	102	140	239	186	adv S1, W1
295	66	classroom	X	X	X	X	n S3, W3
296	66	count	X	861	X	X	v S2, W3
297	66	difference	X	565	461	542	n S1, W1
298	66	environment	X	1160	X	X	n S1, W1
299	66	me	52	110	X	112	pron S1, W1
300	66	metal	X	X	X	X	n S2, W2
301	66	straight	X	524	X	X	adv S1, W2 adj S2, W3
302	65	short	X	304	436	336	adj S1, W1
303	65	times	X	X	X	X	X
304	64	even	214	X	79	160	X
305	64	length	X	546	710	557	n S2, W2
306	64	space	X	320	527	354	n S1, W1
307	63	back	66	103	90	113	adv S1, W1 n S1, W1 v S2, W3 adj S2, W3
308	63	come	63	123	61	91	v S1, W1
309	63	half	X	297	415	404	adv S2 n S1, W2; pron, adj predeterminer, S1, W1
310	63	oil	X	591	845	82	n S2, W1
311	63	safe	X	766	X	X	adj S2, W2
312	63	such	X	133	74	161	determiner, pron S1, W1
313	62	always	X	183	237	242	X
314	62	drawing	X	X	X	X	n S3, W3
315	62	map	X	497	X	375	n S2, W2

316	62	properties	X	X	X	X	X
317	61	area	X	384	X	308	<i>n</i> S1, W1
318	61	chart	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S3, W3
319	61	family	X	287	271	299	<i>n</i> S1, W1
320	61	little	45	92	111	106	<i>adj</i> S1, W1 <i>adv</i> S1, W1 <i>determiner, pron</i> S1, W1
321	61	off	96	142	152	182	<i>adv, prep, adj</i> S1, W1
322	61	special	X	361	X	494	<i>adj</i> S1, W1
323	60	accessory	X	X	X	X	X
324	60	been	154	75	X	79	X
325	60	easily	X	X	X	X	<i>adv</i> S2, W1
326	60	lines	X	X	X	X	X
327	60	solve	X	X	X	X	<i>v</i> S2, W3
328	60	step	X	570	379	362	<i>n</i> S2, W1; <i>v</i> S3, W3
329	60	strong	X	381	385	418	<i>adj</i> S1, W1
330	60	unit	X	617	563	393	<i>n</i> S2, W2
331	59	amount	X	657	498	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
332	59	big	55	158	262	159	<i>adj</i> S1, W1
333	59	happen	X	X	398	X	<i>v</i> S1, W1
334	59	here	95	134	X	164	<i>adv</i> S1, W1
335	59	individual	X	1112	X	X	<i>adj</i> S2, W1; <i>n</i> S2, W1
336	59	old	84	144	117	137	<i>adj</i> S1, W1
337	59	places	X	X	X	X	X
338	58	again	123	141	171	180	<i>adv</i> S1, W1
339	58	fold	X	X	X	X	<i>v</i> W3
340	58	lot	X	597	649	X	<i>pron, adv</i> S1, W1; <i>n</i> S2
341	58	names	X	X	X	X	X
342	58	order	X	309	185	326	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S2, W2
343	58	pieces	X	X	X	X	X
344	58	sentences	X	X	X	X	X
345	58	want	X	193	149	144	<i>v</i> S1, W1
346	57	am	215	397	X	482	X
347	57	collect	X	X	X	X	<i>v</i> S1, W2
348	57	direction	X	X	634	510	<i>n</i> S1, W1
349	57	model	X	1082	822	X	<i>n</i> S2, W1
350	57	word	X	X	178	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
351	56	equal	X	788	597	X	<i>adj</i> S1, W2; <i>v</i> S2
352	56	identify	X	X	X	X	<i>v</i> S2, W1; <i>n</i> W2
353	56	makes	X	X	X	X	X
354	56	six	X	354	X	489	X
355	55	may	178	89	73	99	<i>modal</i> S1, W1
356	55	natural	X	556	X	X	<i>adj</i> S2, W1
357	55	shows	X	X	X	X	X
358	54	end	258	170	164	153	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S1, W1
359	54	form	X	197	151	148	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S2, W1
360	54	rain	X	457	X	533	<i>n</i> S2, W2 <i>v</i> S3
361	54	rivers	X	X	X	X	X
362	54	rock	X	489	798	353	<i>n</i> S2, W2
363	54	uses	X	X	X	X	X
364	53	being	X	233	X	297	<i>n</i> S2, W3
365	53	hours	X	X	X	X	X
366	53	items	X	X	X	X	X
367	53	method	X	704	X	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
368	52	don't	62	190	X	228	X
369	52	follow	X	428	167	X	<i>v</i> S1, W1
370	52	fraction	X	X	X	X	X
371	52	needs	X	X	X	X	X
372	52	top	249	269	499	331	<i>adj</i> S1, W1; <i>n</i> S1, W2
373	52	while	X	X	142	230	<i>conj</i> S1, W1; <i>n</i> S1, W2
374	51	cardboard	X	X	X	X	X
375	51	kinds	X	X	X	X	X
376	51	newspaper	X	1073	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W2
377	51	present	X	543	169	564	<i>adj</i> S2, W2; <i>n</i> S2, W3 <i>v</i> S2, W1
378	51	problem	X	422	180	313	<i>n</i> S1, W1
379	50	bar	X	X	792	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
380	50	car	187	282	281	256	<i>n</i> S1, W1
381	50	certain	X	353	220	395	<i>adj</i> S1, W1

382	50	ground	X	X	474	388	X
383	50	possible	X	452	175	X	<i>adj</i> S1, W1
384	50	record	X	611	353	571	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S3, W2
385	50	until	X	196	234	252	<i>prep, conj</i> S1, W1
386	49	enough	X	209	254	278	<i>determiner, pron</i> S1, W2
387	49	hand	X	223	116	178	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S2, W2
388	49	lives	X	X	X	X	X
389	49	moving	X	X	X	X	X
390	49	sentence	X	244	X	X	<i>n</i> S1, W2
391	49	sides	X	X	X	X	X
392	49	understand	X	416	324	460	<i>v</i> S1, W1
393	48	bodies	X	X	X	X	X
394	48	changes	X	X	X	X	X
395	48	column	X	844	X	X	<i>n</i> S3, W2
396	48	flow	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S3, W2; <i>v</i> W3
397	48	fractions	X	X	X	X	X
398	48	house	83	189	124	311	<i>n</i> S1, W1
399	48	ice	X	441	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W3 ice cream <i>n</i> S2
400	48	milk	X	579	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W3
401	48	surface	X	393	482	429	X
402	47	correct	X	521	X	411	<i>adj</i> S1, W2
403	47	double	X	958	X	X	<i>adj</i> S1, W2; <i>v</i> S3
404	47	hour	X	480	344	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
405	47	least	X	478	322	X	<i>determiner, pron;</i> S1, W1
406	47	takes	X	X	X	X	X
407	47	weather	X	464	X	583	<i>n</i> S1, W2
408	47	wheel	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W3
409	46	ago	X	322	460	449	<i>adv</i> S1, W1
410	46	build	X	487	X	X	<i>v</i> S1, W1
411	46	comes	X	X	X	X	X
412	46	easy	X	459	351	324	<i>adj</i> S1, W1
413	46	him	X	67	X	X	<i>pron</i> S1, W1
414	46	large	X	185	162	157	<i>adj</i> S1, W1
415	46	multiplication	X	X	X	X	X
416	46	skills	X	X	X	X	X
417	46	someone	X	X	X	X	<i>pron</i> S1, W1
418	46	toy	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S3
419	46	trees	X	X	X	215	X
420	46	waste	X	1168	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W3 <i>v</i> S2, W3 <i>adj</i> W3
421	45	community	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
422	45	grid	X	X	X	X	X
423	45	metals	X	X	X	X	X
424	45	once	272	206	207	269	X
425	45	planets	X	X	X	X	X
426	45	question	X	476	230	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S2, W3
427	45	round	X	401	X	455	<i>adj</i> S1, W2 <i>adv, prep</i> S2, W2 <i>n</i> W3
428	45	type	X	758	345	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
429	45	yes	135	359	743	471	<i>adv</i> S1, W1
430	44	building	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
431	44	hold	X	370	172	358	<i>n</i> S2, W3 <i>v</i> S1, W1
432	44	let	X	230	220	280	<i>v</i> S1, W1
433	44	nine	X	821	X	X	X
434	44	pollution	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> W2
435	44	structures	X	X	X	X	X
436	44	study	X	234	231	195	<i>n</i> S2, W3
437	44	working	X	X	X	X	<i>adj</i> S2, W2
438	43	cm	X	X	X	X	X
439	43	distance	X	X	X	543	<i>n</i> S2, W2
440	43	flat	X	618	X	X	<i>adj</i> S2, W2
441	43	gas	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S1, W2
442	43	high	X	224	108	201	<i>adj</i> S1, W1; <i>adv</i> S3
443	43	thing	X	258	135	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
444	43	too	85	112	109	135	<i>adv</i> S1, W1
445	42	along	294	171	305	231	<i>adv</i> S1, W1; <i>prep</i> S1, W1
446	42	challenge	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W2; <i>v</i> S3, W3

447	42	coal	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W2
448	42	during	X	248	168	335	<i>prep</i> S1, W1
449	42	happens	X	X	X	X	X
450	42	hot	262	368	751	479	<i>adj</i> S1, W2
451	42	looks	292	X	X	X	X
452	42	religion	X	X	365	X	<i>n</i> S2, W2
453	42	respect	X	X	565	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
454	42	team	X	654	X	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
455	42	under	242	164	131	224	<i>prep, adv</i> S1, W1
456	42	yourself	X	X	X	X	<i>pron</i> S1, W2
457	41	axles	X	X	X	X	X
458	41	both	X	180	125	244	<i>determiner, pron</i> S1, W1
459	41	calculator	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S3
460	41	examples	X	X	X	X	X
461	41	minutes	X	X	X	X	X
462	41	oxygen	X	972	X	X	X
463	41	poster	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S3
464	41	rocks	X	X	X	X	X
465	41	sheet	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S1, W2
466	41	triangle	X	X	X	X	X
467	40	bad	247	629	588	X	<i>adj</i> S1, W1
468	40	decide	X	709	X	X	<i>v</i> S1, W1
469	40	eight	X	X	X	X	X
470	40	fish	173	299	X	307	<i>v</i> S3
471	40	friction	X	X	X	X	X
472	40	glue	X	X	X	X	X
473	40	legs	X	X	X	551	X
474	40	litres	X	X	X	X	X
475	40	man	X	111	43	124	<i>n</i> S1, W1
476	40	matter	X	386	288	502	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S1, W3
477	40	open	X	310	165	238	<i>v</i> S1, W1
478	40	results	X	X	X	X	X
479	40	ruler	X	X	X	X	X
480	40	sea	X	267	X	261	<i>n</i> S2, W1
481	40	steps	X	X	X	X	X
482	40	value	X	789	266	X	<i>n</i> S2, W1
483	39	alive	X	964	X	X	<i>adj</i> S2, W3
484	39	buy	X	502	612	X	<i>v</i> S1, W1
485	39	cool	X	749	701	X	<i>adj</i> S2, W3 <i>v</i> S2
486	39	crops	X	X	X	X	X
487	39	front	X	318	478	421	<i>adj</i> S1, W2; <i>n</i> S1, W1
488	39	kind	X	214	293	177	<i>adj</i> S2, W3; <i>n</i> S1, W1
489	39	leaves	X	X	X	X	X
490	39	meal	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W2
491	39	mm	X	X	X	X	X
492	39	often	X	186	292	249	<i>adv</i> S1, W1
493	39	pair	X	631	X	497	<i>n</i> S2, W2
494	39	pay	X	586	228	X	<i>v</i> S1, W1; <i>n</i> S1, W2
495	39	south	X	620	459	385	<i>n</i> S1, W2
496	39	sure	X	251	358	329	<i>adj</i> S1, W1; <i>adv</i> S3
497	39	system	X	434	183	452	<i>n</i> S1, W1
498	39	triangles	X	X	X	X	X
499	39	warm	X	412	X	461	<i>adj</i> S2, W2
500	39	whole	X	259	329	345	<i>adj</i> S1, W1; <i>n</i> S2, W2
501	38	become	X	336	121	330	<i>v</i> S1, W1
502	38	fruit	X	908	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W3
503	38	label	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S3, W3
504	38	nature	X	815	250	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
505	38	run	240	306	188	250	<i>v</i> S1, W1
506	38	signs	X	X	X	X	X
507	38	useful	X	X	X	X	<i>adj</i> S1, W1
508	37	ball	X	404	836	492	<i>n</i> S1, W2
509	37	calculations	X	X	X	X	X
510	37	centre	X	X	219	511	<i>n</i> S1, W1
511	37	child	X	571	153	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
512	37	doing	X	X	X	X	X

513	37	dry	X	438	746	465	<i>adj</i> S2, W2 <i>v</i> S2, W3
514	37	everyone	X	430	X	X	<i>pron</i> S1, W1
515	37	portfolio	X	X	X	X	X
516	37	produce	X	686	444	430	<i>v</i> S1, W1
517	37	product	X	795	564	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
518	37	products	X	X	X	343	X
519	37	responsibilities	X	X	X	X	X
520	37	second	X	235	267	274	<i>number</i> S1, W1 <i>n</i> S1, W2
521	37	solid	X	912	X	X	<i>adj</i> S3, W3
522	37	still	X	153	114	196	<i>adj</i> S3
523	36	bigger	X	X	X	X	X
524	36	burn	X	X	800	X	<i>v</i> S2, W3 <i>n</i> S3
525	36	call	X	X	129	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1 <i>v</i> S1, W1
526	36	far	X	222	235	282	<i>adj</i> S1, W1 <i>adv</i> S1, W1
527	36	findings	X	X	X	X	X
528	36	fun	221	593	X	X	<i>adj</i> S2, W3 <i>n</i> S2, W3
529	36	games	X	X	X	X	X
530	36	liquid	X	963	X	X	<i>n</i> W3
531	36	nearest	X	X	X	X	X
532	36	pencil	X	1099	X	X	<i>n</i> S2
533	36	process	X	814	X	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
534	36	taste	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W2 <i>v</i> S2
535	36	temporary	X	X	X	X	<i>adj</i> S3, W3
536	36	traditional	X	X	X	X	<i>adj</i> S3, W1
537	36	week	X	512	243	445	<i>n</i> S1, W1
538	36	whether	X	399	X	593	<i>conj</i> S1, W1
539	35	carefully	X	X	X	437	<i>adv</i> S2, W2
540	35	done	X	294	X	401	X
541	35	main	X	469	698	553	<i>adj</i> S1, W1
542	35	multiply	X	X	X	X	X
543	35	science	X	683	653	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
544	35	seven	X	X	X	X	X
545	35	stick	X	728	X	X	<i>n</i> S3
546	35	temperature	X	630	637	X	<i>n</i> S2, W2
547	35	transport	X	X	X	X	X
548	34	able	X	346	425	488	<i>adj</i> S1, W1
549	34	against	X	268	157	368	<i>prep</i> S1, W1
550	34	alone	X	X	X	X	<i>adj, adv</i> S2, W1
551	34	believe	X	773	308	523	<i>v</i> S1, W1
552	34	blocks	X	X	X	X	X
553	34	circle	X	519	X	X	X
554	34	clay	X	X	X	X	X
555	34	container	X	X	X	X	X
556	34	few	X	1081	154	229	<i>determiner, pron, adj</i> S1, W1
557	34	green	X	358	X	442	<i>adj</i> S1, W2; <i>n</i> S2, W3
558	34	hard	X	242	477	237	<i>adj</i> S1, W1; <i>adv</i> S1, W2
559	34	inside	X	X	617	439	<i>n</i> S3
560	34	join	X	890	750	X	<i>v</i> S1, W1
561	34	months	X	588	X	X	X
562	34	movement	X	811	X	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
563	34	moves	X	X	X	X	X
564	34	north	X	581	551	372	<i>n</i> S1, W2
565	34	notice	X	379	763	384	<i>v</i> S1, W2 <i>n</i> S2, W2
566	34	planet	X	1056	X	X	<i>n</i> W3
567	34	reason	X	X	296	558	<i>n</i> S1, W1
568	34	size	X	462	700	490	X
569	34	tree	145	316	677	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
570	33	breathe	X	X	X	X	<i>v</i> S3, W3
571	33	cycle	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S3, W3
572	33	edge	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W2
573	33	favourite	X	X	X	X	<i>adj</i> S3, W3
574	33	forms	X	X	X	X	X
575	33	growing	X	X	X	X	X
576	33	investigating	X	X	X	X	X
577	33	middle	X	569	850	X	<i>adj</i> S1, W2; <i>n</i> S1, W2

578	33	missing	X	X	X	X	X
579	33	quickly	X	X	X	413	<i>adv</i> S1, W1
580	33	shown	X	X	X	X	X
581	33	sick	X	X	X	X	<i>adj</i> S1, W3
582	33	started	X	X	X	217	X
583	33	stop	155	396	419	272	<i>v</i> S1, W1; <i>n</i> S2, W3
584	33	technology	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W1
585	32	better	X	245	261	337	<i>adj</i> S1, W1; <i>adv</i> S1, W1
586	32	birds	X	X	X	X	X
587	32	books	X	X	X	X	X
588	32	care	X	483	300	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1; <i>v</i> S1, W2
589	32	conflict	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S3, W2
590	32	farmers	X	X	X	512	X
591	32	fresh	X	697	X	X	<i>adj</i> S2, W2
592	32	got	77	219	X	247	X
593	32	hands	X	X	X	X	X
594	32	lets	201	X	X	X	X
595	32	match	X	960	X	X	<i>n</i> S2, W2; <i>v</i> S3, W2
596	32	protect	X	990	X	X	<i>v</i> S2, W2
597	32	thinking	X	X	X	X	X
598	32	thought	138	179	X	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
599	32	walk	X	X	X	X	<i>v</i> S1, W1; <i>n</i> S2, W2
600	31	across	264	247	282	333	<i>adv, prep</i> S1, W1
601	31	built	X	360	X	X	X
602	31	country	X	228	217	209	<i>n</i> W2
603	31	features	X	X	X	X	X
604	31	gases	X	X	X	X	X
605	31	getting	X	X	X	X	X
606	31	happened	X	481	X	344	X
607	31	instructions	X	X	X	X	X
608	31	investigation	X	X	X	X	X
609	31	never	X	167	138	216	<i>adv</i> S1, W1
610	31	night	X	X	236	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
611	31	reasons	X	X	X	X	X
612	31	said	X	X	X	38	X
613	31	stand	X	387	X	X	<i>v</i> S1, W1
614	31	stay	X	473	525	X	<i>n</i> S3 <i>v</i> S1, W1
615	31	strength	X	950	762	X	<i>n</i> S2, W2
616	31	symmetry	X	X	X	X	X
617	30	biggest	X	X	X	X	X
618	30	block	X	X	X	X	<i>v</i> S3; <i>n</i> S2, W2
619	30	bring	X	X	X	463	<i>v</i> S1, W1
620	30	card	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S1, W2
621	30	difficult	X	638	674	X	<i>adj</i> S1, W1
622	30	drinking	X	X	X	X	X
623	30	gives	X	X	X	X	X
624	30	month	X	864	X	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1
625	30	near	X	X	X	X	<i>adv, prep</i> S1, W1 <i>adj</i> S2, W3
626	30	roll	X	X	X	X	<i>v</i> S1, W2
627	30	sand	X	X	X	X	<i>n</i> S3, W3
628	30	save	X	X	X	X	<i>v</i> S1, W1
629	30	share	X	X	530	X	<i>n</i> S1, W1 <i>v</i> S1, W1
630	30	those	X	182	X	243	X
631	30	tick	X	X	X	X	X
632	30	tube	X	891	X	X	<i>n</i> S3, W3
633	30	watch	X	X	457	281	<i>v</i> S1, W1 <i>n</i> S2, W3

### Appendix 3: Application of word construct for the present study and reorganisation of word rankings on the current frequency list

Rank in Present study List	Frequency in Present study List	Word	Inflected form of the word	Frequency of the Inflected form	Combined Frequency of Base and Inflected form(s)	New Ranking on the Present study list
1	8904	the	X	X	8904	1
2	3819	to	X	X	3819	2
3	3608	and	X	X	3608	3
4	3570	a	X	X	3570	4
5	3532	of	X	X	3532	5
6	2940	in	X	X	2940	6
7	2543	you	X	X	2543	7
8	2035	is	X	X	2035	8
10	1402	are	X	X	1402	9
11	1199	that	X	X	1199	10
12	1177	it	X	X	1177	11
13	1080	what	X	X	1080	13
14	1049	how	X	X	1049	14
15	1019	can	X	X	1019	15
16	1008	for	X	X	1008	16
17	943	do	X	X	943	17
18	912	or	X	X	912	18
19	889	on	X	X	889	19
20	869	water	X	X	869	20
21	856	this	X	X	856	21
22	819	with	X	X	819	22
23	760	have	X	X	760	24
24	760	make	making	56	816	23
25	756	we	X	X	756	25
26	706	use	used using uses	230 177 54	1167	12
27	681	from	X	X	681	26
28	673	they	X	X	673	28
29	658	will	X	X	658	29
30	646	at	X	X	646	30
31	610	about	X	X	610	31
32	605	each	X	X	605	32
33	560	these	X	X	560	34
34	550	one	X	X	550	36
35	534	write	writes	5	539	37
36	518	people	people's	7	525	38
37	515	be	X	X	515	39
38	507	work	working works worked	44 27 26	604	33
39	490	as	X	X	490	40
40	488	many	X	X	488	41
41	484	I	X	X	484	42
42	460	different	X	X	460	43
43	460	when	X	X	460	44
44	446	not	X	X	446	46
45	413	all	X	X	413	49
46	412	which	X	X	412	51
47	398	number	Numbers	282	680	27
48	385	by	X	X	385	53

49	385	out	X	X	385	54
50	382	look	looked	18	415	48
			looking	15		
51	380	group	groups	175	555	35
52	380	need	needs	52	450	45
			needed	18		
54	369	paper	papers	4	373	54
55	365	find	X	X	365	55
56	358	like	X	X	358	56
57	348	into	X	X	348	58
58	339	food	foods	72	411	52
59	336	did	X	X	336	60
60	326	if	X	X	326	61
61	324	down	X	X	324	324
63	323	their	X	X	323	63
64	320	there	X	X	320	66
65	318	two	X	X	318	67
66	312	other	others	101	413	50
67	308	them	X	X	308	68
68	303	why	X	X	303	70
69	298	some	X	X	298	71
70	295	has	X	X	295	72
71	283	our	X	X	283	73
73	282	think	thinking	32	321	65
			thinks	7		
74	272	help	helps	25	322	64
			helped	25		
75	271	animals	animal	68	339	59
76	269	made	X	X	269	75
77	263	draw	X	X	263	77
78	260	time	X	X	260	78
79	250	plants	X	X	250	80
80	248	answer	answers	189	446	47
			answering	4		
			answered	5		
83	243	he	X	X	243	82
84	239	so	X	X	239	83
85	236	was	X	X	236	84
86	234	up	X	X	234	86
88	228	get	gets	26	254	79
89	224	my	X	X	224	87
90	222	energy	X	X	222	88
93	217	own	X	X	217	89
94	213	picture	pictures	138	351	57
95	213	where	X	X	213	91
97	207	called	X	X	207	94
98	204	earth	earth's	6	210	93
99	204	more	X	X	204	95
100	201	way	ways	104	305	69
101	199	table	tables	12	211	92
104	191	she	X	X	191	97
106	189	school	X	X	189	98
108	188	see	X	X	188	99
109	186	very	X	X	186	100
110	184	show	shows	55	266	76
			showing	27		
114	181	same	X	X	181	101
115	179	also	X	X	179	102
116	177	but	X	X	177	104
119	176	place	places	59	235	85

121	175	then	X	X	175	105
124	171	class	X	X	171	108
126	165	us	X	X	165	110
127	164	would	X	X	164	111
128	163	day	days	86	249	81
129	159	because	X	X	159	114
130	156	explain	explains	7	173	106
			explained	5		
			explaining	5		
131	151	around	X	X	151	117
132	150	any	X	X	150	118
133	150	important	X	X	150	119
135	148	now	X	X	148	121
137	145	read	reading	13	158	115
138	142	hair	X	X	142	124
139	142	sun	X	X	142	125
140	141	long	X	X	141	126
141	141	most	X	X	141	127
142	141	must	X	X	141	128
145	137	book	books	32	169	109
146	137	only	X	X	137	130
147	135	list	lists	5	140	129
148	135	right	X	X	135	131
149	134	eat	eating	14	161	113
			eats	13		
150	133	between	X	X	133	132
151	132	give	gives	30	162	112
152	132	who	X	X	132	133
153	131	after	X	X	131	134
154	129	good	X	X	129	136
155	129	his	X	X	129	137
156	129	much	X	X	129	138
157	129	should	X	X	129	139
158	128	no	X	X	128	141
162	124	another	X	X	124	146
163	124	children	X	X	124	147
166	124	take	takes	47	171	108
167	123	cut	X	X	123	148
168	122	measure	measured	20	146	123
			measures	4		
169	122	together	X	X	122	149
172	118	first	X	X	118	153
174	117	than	X	X	117	155
175	116	could	X	X	116	158
176	116	live	lived	9	125	145
177	115	example	examples	41	156	116
178	113	grow	grows	5	118	154
179	112	through	X	X	112	159
182	109	put	X	X	109	161
183	106	body	X	X	106	163
184	106	move	X	X	106	164
186	104	go	going	85	214	90
			goes	23		
187	104	heat	X	X	104	165
188	104	learn	X	X	104	166
190	104	well	X	X	104	167
191	103	feel	feels	9	112	160
192	103	part	parts	96	199	96
193	103	story	X	X	103	168
197	101	talk	talking	12	117	156

			talked	4		
199	100	home	homes	28	128	142
200	100	small	X	X	100	169
202	99	change	changed	26	125	143
203	99	light	X	X	99	171
207	96	its	X	X	96	173
208	96	life	X	X	96	174
210	94	box	boxes	20	114	158
211	94	person	X	X	94	175
215	93	glass	X	X	93	176
217	92	add	adding	20	125	145
			added	11		
			adds	2		
218	92	every	X	X	92	177
222	91	next	X	X	91	178
223	91	say	saying	7	98	172
224	90	keep	keeps	19	116	157
			keeping	7		
225	90	line	lines	60	150	120
226	89	piece	pieces	58	147	122
227	89	play	playing	20	121	151
			played	7		
			plays	5		
230	87	before	X	X	87	181
238	84	over	X	X	84	183
240	84	try	X	X	84	184
245	80	check	checked	4	84	185
246	80	colour	colours	21	120	152
			coloured	19		
247	80	left	X	X	80	188
248	80	side	sides	49	129	140
249	80	teacher	teachers	9	89	180
250	79	plan	X	X	80	191
258	76	game	games	3	79	193
259	76	land	X	X	76	195
260	76	test	tests	3	79	194
262	75	pattern	patterns	84	159	114
263	74	money	X	X	74	198
267	73	best	X	X	73	199
268	73	material	materials	209	282	74
269	73	new	X	X	73	200
272	72	remember	X	X	72	201
275	71	wind	X	X	71	204
277	70	without	X	X	70	205
278	70	world	X	X	70	206
280	69	cold	X	X	69	207
284	68	above	X	X	68	208
285	68	animal	animals	6	74	195
287	68	object	objects	110	178	103
288	68	river	rivers	54	122	150
289	68	road	roads	6	74	196
293	67	square	squares	24	91	179
294	66	away	X	X	66	209
297	66	difference	X	X	66	210
299	66	me	X	X	66	211
302	65	short	X	X	65	212
304	64	even	X	X	64	213
305	64	length	lengths	17	81	186
306	64	space	spaces	15	79	194
307	63	back	X	X	63	215

308	63	come	comes	46	109	216
309	63	half	X	X	63	215
310	63	oil	X	X	63	216
312	63	such	X	X	63	217
313	62	always	X	X	62	218
319	61	family	X	X	61	219
320	61	little	X	X	61	220
321	61	off	X	X	61	221
324	60	been	X	X	60	222
328	60	step	steps	40	100	170
329	60	strong	X	X	60	223
330	60	unit	units	15	75	197
332	59	big	X	X	59	224
334	59	here	X	X	59	225
336	59	old	X	X	59	226
338	58	again	X	X	58	228
342	58	order	X	X	58	229
345	58	want	X	X	58	230
346	57	am	X	X	58	231
355	55	may	X	X	58	232
358	54	end	X	X	58	233
359	54	form	forms	33	87	181
362	54	rock	rocks	41	54	247
368	52	don't	X	X	52	250
372	52	top	X	X	52	251
377	51	present	X	X	51	252
378	51	problem	problems	79	130	136
380	50	car	cars	22	72	201
381	50	certain	X	X	50	254
384	50	record	records	5	55	246
385	50	until	X	X	50	254
386	49	enough	X	X	49	255
387	49	hand	hands	32	81	186
392	49	understand	X	X	49	255
398	48	house	houses	28	76	196
401	48	surface	surfaces	24	72	202
409	46	ago	X	X	46	257
412	46	easy	X	X	46	258
414	46	large	X	X	46	259
424	45	once	X	X	45	260
429	45	yes	X	X	45	261
431	44	hold	X	X	44	262
432	44	let	X	X	44	263
436	44	study	X	X	44	264
442	43	high	X	X	43	265
444	43	too	X	X	43	267
445	42	along	X	X	42	269
448	42	during	X	X	42	270
450	42	hot	X	X	42	271
455	42	under	X	X	42	272
458	41	both	X	X	41	273
467	40	bad	X	X	40	275
470	40	fish	X	X	40	276
475	40	man	man's	4	44	266
476	40	matter	X	X	40	277
477	40	open	X	X	40	278
487	39	front	X	X	39	279
488	39	kind	X	X	39	280
492	39	often	X	X	39	281
495	39	south	X	X	39	282

496	39	sure	X	X	39	283
497	39	system	systems	14	53	259
505	38	run	runs	15	53	250
508	37	ball	balls	6	43	268
513	37	dry	X	X	37	285
516	37	produce	produces	13	55	247
			produced	5		
520	37	second	X	X	37	286
522	37	still	X	X	37	287
526	36	far	X	X	36	288
537	36	week	weeks	23	59	228
541	35	main	X	X	35	289
548	34	able	X	X	34	290
549	34	against	X	X	34	291
551	34	believe	believed	5	39	284
556	34	few	X	X	34	292
564	34	north	X	X	34	293
565	34	notice	X	X	34	294
568	34	size	X	X	34	295
569	34	tree	trees	46	80	190
583	33	stop	stops	8	41	274
600	31	across	X	X	31	296
602	31	country	X	X	31	297
609	31	never	X	X	31	298

#### Appendix 4: Comparison of HFW across subject lists

New Ranking on the Present study list	Word	Combined Frequency of Base and Inflected form(s)	Maths Textbooks Word Frequency	Natural & Social Sciences Textbooks Word Frequency	Life Orientation Textbooks Word Frequency	Technology Textbooks Word Frequency
1	the	8904	2546	2776	1667	1915
2	to	3819	935	1020	976	889
3	and	3608	949	1042	865	749
4	a	3570	827	1050	773	921
5	of	3532	972	1135	590	835
6	in	2940	795	891	658	595
7	you	2543	522	597	761	665
8	is	2035	429	641	498	467
9	are	1402	242	486	358	316
10	that	1199	180	483	268	270
11	it	1177	206	343	278	350
12	use	1167	354	332	168	313
13	what	1080	256	306	269	249
14	how	1049	470	163	198	217
15	can	1020	166	289	296	269
16	for	1008	280	320	211	197
17	do	943	198	256	304	184
18	or	912	139	272	209	292
19	on	889	266	253	171	199
20	water	869	50	526	233	60
21	this	856	199	246	250	161
22	with	819	224	170	244	181
23	make	816	186	151	159	320
24	have	760	165	238	238	119

25	we	756	116	233	239	169
26	from	681	125	288	122	146
27	number	680	649	21	7	3
28	they	673	118	254	207	94
29	will	658	169	147	139	203
30	at	646	227	147	174	98
31	about	610	83	204	198	125
32	each	605	303	94	111	97
33	work	604	137	128	191	148
34	these	560	146	137	170	107
35	group	555	115	156	140	144
36	one	550	211	116	101	123
37	write	539	293	83	69	94
38	people	525	71	212	194	48
39	be	515	92	136	124	163
40	as	490	111	161	91	127
41	many	488	270	95	74	49
42	I	484	100	51	236	102
43	different	460	84	155	103	118
44	when	460	75	141	154	90
45	need	450	82	97	125	146
46	not	446	67	158	89	73
47	answer	446	144	68	97	136
48	look	415	149	96	51	119
49	all	413	94	121	121	77
50	other	413	84	143	97	89
51	which	412	150	109	62	91
52	food	411	12	127	128	127
53	by	385	101	123	81	81
54	out	385	98	123	81	83
55	paper	373	67	75	22	209
56	find	365	138	100	55	72
57	like	358	86	84	110	78
58	picture	351	76	44	123	82
59	into	348	67	143	62	77
60	animals	339	72	160	76	31
61	did	336	127	82	62	65
62	if	326	68	83	96	79
63	down	324	141	65	47	71
64	their	323	49	129	92	53
65	help	322	74	62	100	86
66	think	321	57	73	115	76
67	there	320	90	105	86	39
68	two	318	155	45	66	52
69	them	308	55	94	93	66
70	way	305	55	86	89	75
71	why	303	84	67	88	64
72	some	298	29	120	85	64
73	has	295	98	70	80	47
74	our	283	24	114	89	56
75	material	282	X	110	X	172
76	made	269	29	90	38	112
77	show	266	80	84	45	57
78	draw	263	132	45	39	47
79	time	260	112	60	59	29
80	get	254	69	68	81	36
81	plants	250	8	164	59	19
82	day	249	126	52	43	28
83	he	243	90	63	76	14
84	so	239	32	82	72	53

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85	was	236	50	97	52	37
86	place	235	50	68	65	52
87	up	234	46	81	63	44
88	my	224	67	35	93	29
89	energy	222	X	72	15	135
90	own	217	94	48	39	36
91	go	214	21	29	59	71
92	where	213	32	78	62	41
93	table	211	91	69	21	30
94	earth	210	4	166	24	16
95	called	207	20	91	50	46
96	more	204	65	55	33	51
97	part	199	70	42	54	33
98	she	191	70	48	66	7
99	school	189	55	68	53	13
100	see	188	33	51	37	67
101	very	186	X	79	54	45
102	same	181	68	45	32	36
103	also	179	18	73	49	39
104	object	178	93	28	3	54
105	but	177	14	58	76	29
106	then	175	37	59	42	37
107	explain	173	47	46	43	38
108	class	171	53	41	55	23
109	take	171	51	50	34	36
110	book	169	55	43	45	26
112	us	165	16	46	68	35
113	would	164	46	39	54	25
114	give	162	46	35	46	36
115	eat	161	17	49	77	18
116	because	159	8	74	49	28
117	pattern	159	147	X	X	12
118	read	158	60	33	38	27
119	example	156	53	47	28	28
120	around	151	16	68	30	37
121	any	150	65	42	17	26
122	important	150	9	72	43	26
123	line	150	91	16	14	29
124	now	148	19	44	29	56
125	piece	147	39	26	33	49
126	measure	146	97	23	2	24
127	hair	142	X	X	7	135
128	sun	142	10	108	7	17
129	long	141	41	15	41	44
130	most	141	31	53	28	29
131	must	141	23	28	49	41
132	list	140	36	39	42	23
133	only	137	41	56	24	16
134	right	135	25	17	84	9
135	between	133	57	43	13	20
136	who	132	22	38	52	20
137	after	131	35	40	36	20
138	problem	130	43	28	24	35
139	good	129	9	27	68	25
140	his	129	42	20	55	12
141	much	129	80	25	14	10
142	should	129	25	24	47	33
143	side	129	65	23	26	15
144	no	128	11	50	44	23
145	home	128	24	39	37	28

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146	live	125	13	41	53	18
147	change	125	36	43	24	22
148	add	125	97	8	10	11
149	another	124	35	33	16	40
150	children	124	19	18	88	9
151	cut	123	42	29	9	43
152	together	122	23	26	20	53
153	river	122	12	77	18	15
154	play	121	35	7	65	14
155	colour	120	35	25	17	20
156	first	118	34	44	15	25
157	grow	118	7	73	24	14
158	than	117	42	36	21	18
159	talk	117	11	30	57	19
160	could	116	25	35	29	27
161	keep	116	12	29	49	26
162	box	114	57	5	7	45
163	through	112	9	53	20	30
164	feel	112	2	30	61	18
165	put	109	16	34	31	28
166	come	109	X	52	27	14
167	body	106	7	22	51	25
168	move	106	6	32	34	34
169	heat	104	X	87	1	16
170	learn	104	22	14	45	23
171	well	104	16	21	35	32
172	story	103	6	22	74	1
173	small	100	25	32	18	25
174	step	100	5	21	29	55
175	light	99	2	77	8	12
176	say	98	23	18	52	13
177	its	96	17	38	15	26
178	life	96	15	45	32	4
179	person	94	25	48	9	12
180	glass	93	11	71	2	10
181	every	92	21	24	31	16
182	next	91	35	19	11	26
183	square	91	70	5	X	14
184	teacher	89	9	27	29	24
185	before	87	14	21	27	25
186	form	87	5	57	4	21
187	over	84	17	28	18	20
188	try	84	10	20	29	25
189	check	84	40	11	X	28
190	length	81	42	14	X	16
191	hand	81	26	11	29	15
192	left	80	36	10	29	4
193	plan	80	26	21	13	20
194	tree	80	10	34	16	20
195	game	79	14	X	61	2
196	test	79	4	40	10	35
197	space	79	8	36	26	9
198	land	76	X	54	20	3
199	house	76	16	31	14	15
200	unit	75	28	18	18	11
201	money	74	53	12	3	6
202	road	74	4	9	53	4
203	best	73	15	18	21	19
204	new	73	14	37	13	9
205	remember	72	36	12	15	9

206	car	72	27	7	22	16
207	surface	72	6	23	11	22
208	wind	71	3	25	30	13
209	without	70	14	22	17	17
210	world	70	6	31	28	5
211	cold	69	13	17	10	29
212	above	68	28	23	7	10
213	away	66	X	26	29	3
214	difference	66	44	X	8	4
215	me	66	10	7	42	7
216	short	65	5	11	36	13
217	even	64	34	6	14	10
218	back	63	X	12	19	20
219	half	63	40	9	10	11
220	oil	63	2	27	8	26
221	such	63	8	23	14	18
222	always	62	11	18	25	8
223	family	61	14	15	28	4
224	little	61	11	17	15	18
225	off	61	31	16	5	9
226	been	60	16	19	X	16
227	strong	60	X	11	X	39
228	big	59	6	13	21	19
229	here	59	8	16	X	17
230	old	59	16	14	19	10
231	week	59	26	4	5	2
232	again	58	14	13	16	15
233	order	58	23	12	X	7
234	want	58	27	10	12	13
235	am	58	25	X	20	4
236	may	58	14	15	11	15
237	end	58	9	20	7	22
238	record	55	12	23	7	13
239	produce	55	2	35	2	15
240	rock	54	2	23	15	14
241	system	53	9	23	2	17
242	run	53	5	5	36	7
243	don't	52	5	5	37	5
244	top	52	X	14	11	15
245	present	51	X	26	11	14
246	certain	50	27	16	4	3
247	until	50	4	21	10	15
248	enough	49	8	18	11	12
249	understand	49	13	15	15	6
250	ago	46	14	22	7	3
251	easy	46	21	5	6	14
252	large	46	5	12	X	21
253	once	45	5	24	7	9
254	yes	45	2	9	14	20
255	hold	44	12	10	10	12
256	let	44	X	11	13	15
257	study	44	7	20	12	5
258	man	44	13	8	7	12
259	high	43	X	11	16	X
260	too	43	X	15	18	9
261	ball	43	4	13	25	1
262	along	42	8	X	X	17
263	during	42	8	26	X	3
264	hot	42	3	21	X	13
265	under	42	3	23	9	7

266	both	41	12	6	11	12
267	stop	41	7	13	15	6
268	bad	40	X	6	27	7
269	fish	40	8	19	8	5
270	matter	40	X	22	X	10
271	open	40	25	5	6	4
272	front	39	8	11	10	10
273	kind	39	14	6	12	7
274	often	39	6	22	9	2
275	south	39	12	31	3	X
276	sure	39	10	8	12	9
277	believe	39	X	25	X	1
278	dry	37	1	15	12	9
279	second	37	10	16	5	6
280	still	37	10	15	X	7
281	far	36	12	11	7	X
282	main	35	1	15	12	7
283	able	34	10	7	X	10
284	against	34	X	7	8	X
285	few	34	5	13	9	7
286	north	34	X	7	X	X
287	notice	34	24	6	3	1
288	size	34	9	14	5	11
289	across	31	X	10	3	13
290	country	31	5	12	14	X
291	never	31	6	9	13	3

Note: The words marked in red on the rankings are those which do not cut across the subject areas and those in purple are those which, though they cut across subject areas, their high frequency status is accorded them by particular subject areas and not all. The marked words were then eliminated.

### Appendix 5: The 213 High Frequency words

Word Ranking in Present Study	Word	Combined Frequency of Base and Inflected form(s)	Word Ranking in Present Study	Word	Combined Frequency of Base and Inflected form(s)
1	the	8904	108	any	150
2	to	3819	109	important	150
3	and	3608	110	line	150
4	a	3570	111	now	148
5	of	3532	112	piece	147
6	in	2940	113	long	141
7	you	2543	114	most	141
8	is	2035	115	must	141
9	are	1402	116	list	140
10	that	1199	117	only	137
11	it	1177	118	right	135
12	use	1167	119	between	133
13	what	1080	120	who	132
14	how	1049	121	after	131
15	can	1020	122	problem	130
16	for	1008	123	good	129

17	do	943	124	his	129
18	or	912	125	should	129
19	on	889	126	side	129
20	this	856	127	no	128
21	with	819	128	home	128
22	make	816	129	live	125
23	have	760	130	change	125
24	we	756	131	add	125
25	from	681	132	another	124
26	they	673	133	cut	123
27	will	658	134	together	122
28	at	646	135	colour	120
29	about	610	136	first	118
30	each	605	137	than	117
31	work	604	138	talk	117
32	these	560	139	could	116
33	group	555	140	keep	116
34	one	550	141	through	112
35	people	525	142	put	109
36	be	515	143	body	106
37	as	490	144	move	106
38	I	484	145	learn	104
39	different	460	146	well	104
40	when	460	147	small	100
41	need	450	148	step	100
42	not	446	149	say	98
43	answer	446	150	its	96
44	look	415	151	life	96
45	all	413	152	every	92
46	other	413	153	next	91
47	which	412	154	teacher	89
48	by	385	155	before	87
49	out	385	156	over	84
50	find	365	157	try	84
51	like	358	158	hand	81
52	picture	351	159	left	80
53	into	348	160	plan	80
54	animals	339	161	tree	80
55	did	336	162	house	76
56	if	326	163	unit	75
57	down	324	164	road	74
58	their	323	165	best	73
59	help	322	166	new	73
60	think	321	167	remember	72
61	there	320	168	car	72
62	them	308	169	surface	72
63	way	305	170	wind	71
64	why	303	171	without	70
65	some	298	172	world	70
66	has	295	173	cold	69
67	our	283	174	above	68
68	made	269	175	me	66
69	show	266	176	even	64
70	draw	263	177	half	63
71	time	260	178	such	63
72	get	254	179	always	62
73	plants	250	180	family	61
74	day	249	181	little	61
75	he	243	182	off	61
76	so	239	183	big	59

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<b>77</b>	was	236	184	old	59
<b>78</b>	place	235	185	again	58
<b>79</b>	up	234	186	want	58
<b>80</b>	my	224	187	may	58
<b>81</b>	own	217	188	end	58
<b>82</b>	go	214	189	record	55
<b>83</b>	where	213	190	produce	55
<b>84</b>	table	211	191	rock	54
<b>85</b>	earth	210	192	until	50
<b>86</b>	called	207	193	enough	49
<b>87</b>	more	204	194	understand	49
<b>88</b>	part	199	195	ago	46
<b>89</b>	she	191	196	easy	46
<b>90</b>	school	189	197	once	45
<b>91</b>	see	188	198	hold	44
<b>92</b>	same	181	199	study	44
<b>93</b>	also	179	200	man	44
<b>94</b>	but	177	201	under	42
<b>95</b>	then	175	202	both	41
<b>96</b>	explain	173	203	stop	41
<b>97</b>	class	171	204	fish	40
<b>98</b>	take	171	205	front	39
<b>99</b>	book	169	206	kind	39
<b>100</b>	us	165	207	often	39
<b>101</b>	would	164	208	sure	39
<b>102</b>	give	162	209	second	37
<b>103</b>	eat	161	210	main	35
<b>104</b>	because	159	211	few	34
<b>105</b>	read	158	212	size	34
<b>106</b>	example	156	213	never	31
<b>107</b>	around	151			

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## Appendix 6: Letter of permission to conduct research



**FACULTY OF EDUCATION**  
Tel: +27 (0) 46 603 8393  
Fax: +27 (0) 46 622 8028  
PO Box 94, Grahamstown, 6140  
E-mail: education@ru.ac.za

DATE: 15 February 2013

To whom it may concern,

Dear Sir / Madam

### **PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH**

**CANDIDATE:** JABULANI SIBANDA

**STUDENT NUMBER:**G11S0013

This letter is to confirm that Jabulani Sibanda is a registered student in the Education Faculty at Rhodes University. He has been registered for a PhD in Education.

Jabulani is a doctoral student in a large research programme funded by the European Union in conjunction with the Department of Higher Education and Training. Its overall goal is to examine the nexus between quality teaching and quality education programmes, and by so doing, improve the quality of teacher education programmes on the one hand, and teaching practices on the other hand. The overall research programme has obtained ethical clearance from Rhodes University as well as from the Provincial Department of Education.

Jabulani will be required to conduct research for his thesis. This letter serves to request permission for him to conduct research in your school for this purpose.

His proposal was approved by the Education Higher Degrees Committee on 24 May 2012. The proposal complied with the ethical clearance requirements of the Faculty of Education.

Yours Sincerely

Prof J. Baxen  
Chair: Higher Degrees Committee  
Deputy Dean: Research  
Faculty of Education

## Appendix 7a: Grade 3 Teacher Interview Guide Items

1. When were the learners in your Grade 3 class first introduced to English?  
Which grade and which term?
2. What were they doing in English at the point at which they were introduced to the learning area?
3. Do you sometimes have word lists which you teach or do you teach new words as you encounter them in context?
4. What are the major sources of the words you teach in your class?
5. How do you know that a word is new and needs to be taught? What do you consider?
6. What strategies do you use to teach new words to your learners? You can mention as many as you normally use.
7. In your estimation, how many new English words do you think your learners are exposed to in your English First Additional Language classes per week?
8. How many new English words do you think your average learners (not the above or below average learners) acquire per week?
9. What is it that the Grade 3 learners should know about a word for you to say they know a word?
10. Can your learners use dictionaries? Do they have access to the dictionaries?
11. What do your learners find easy to do with new words and what do they find difficult?
12. Do you think that by the end of the year your learners will be ready for the challenges of learning all subject areas in English in Grade 4? Why do you say so?
13. Do your learners sometimes surprise you by using words you never taught in class?
14. Are there other sources of new English words that contribute to learners' vocabulary development outside the classroom? How effective do you think these are?
15. Is the time allocated for the English First Additional language adequate to prepare learners for the challenges of learning all content areas in English in Grade 4?
16. Is the school supportive of the development of learners' English vocabulary? In what ways?

## Appendix 7b: Summary of teachers' responses to interview items

Theme	Codes	Tr.	Response
Initial Exposure to the second language	Point of introduction to L2	Alice	<u>Grade 2</u> in 1 <sup>st</sup> term revised to <u>Grade R</u> .
		Betty	"In <u>Grade R</u> they introduced the learners"
		Christine	"From <u>grade one</u> but from grade one, they start, they start studying English at second term."
		Dorothy	"Grade two...fourth term"
		Esther	"First term in <u>Grade 3</u> but they did it even in <u>Grade 2</u> , in <u>Grade 1</u> but they are not compulsory to be assessed."
		Florence	"From grade two on the fourth term."
		Gladys	"From <u>Grade 1</u> "

		Jane	“They started in grade 1”
		Henrietta	“In grade two last year. First term.”
		Kate	“Grade one”
Pedagogy reflected in Tr. choices and practices	Nature of L2 teaching and learning at point of introduction	Alice	Grade 2 “They were talking about their names, the names of their families.” Grade R “In fact even from grade R they are learning about things like my body, the parts of a body”
		Betty	“In Grade R they are <u>not writing.</u> ” “Oral in Grade R in Grade 1 it’s eh eh only the words desk, window...but in Grade 2 they write...”
		Christine	It’s <u>simple English</u> . They <u>write</u> , yes they write.
		Dorothy	“Grade two but orally” writing introduced in Grade 3
		Esther	“They were just doing it orally...but they are not compulsory to be assessed.” “Here it is compulsory in Grade 3 because they learn English; are also assessed.”
		Florence	“They are only doing some single vowels single consonant.” “They did write. Yes”
		Gladys	“It was oral.”
		Jane	“They started in grade 1 <u>orally</u> and in grade 2 they started <u>phonics</u> but now grade three they are going <u>deeper.</u> ”
		Henrietta	“It was oral.”
		Kate	“In fact in grade one it was oral. Say ‘good morning’, ‘good afternoon,’ ‘bye’ and so on. Then the classroom objects. This is a chalkboard, door, and window and so on. Orally. Then grade two, we started the vocabulary; in fact we started from vowels as you saw yesterday.”
	Tr. choices between teaching word lists and teaching words in context.	Alice	“Yes, I’ve got” “Lists, that is phonics.”
		Betty	“Sometimes I teach the words for instance, I teach <u>familiar</u> words like boy or girl”
		Christine	Word lists
		Dorothy	“I write list of words and teach them”
		Esther	“No. (To word lists) They get more vocabulary in any lesson.” “Even if we are doing oral if there is a new word I will introduce it formally”
		Florence	“Sometimes I ask them to come with the with some new words because they know some words”
		Gladys	“Yes.”
		Jane	“I teach the new words when I encounter them in a text but sometimes I also teach word lists.”
		Henrietta	“As I meet them in the text.”
		Kate	Uses lists “there are the sight words and the phonics words.”
Tr. choices on source of words they teach.	Alice	“Series of books” as sources of words taught.	
	Betty	“From the book... They have the list of words”	
	Christine		
	Dorothy	“From the <u>book</u> or else such <u>objects in the classroom</u> ”	
	Esther		
	Florence	Learners as source of new words. “I ask them to come with the...with some new words.” “List anything that is inside the classroom.”	
	Gladys	“From their reading books”	
	Jane	“Yes from the books, the workbooks that they have, they get from government.”	
	Henrietta	From their books. “In those stories there are repeated words then I ask them to do those words.”	
	Kate	“From stories because they have at the end of the book the list of sight words, Then in the lesson you can have these phonic words. Phonics you can have it from this department book, yah the work book.”	
Tr. determination of the novelty of words to	Alice	“You look at how difficult the word is. <u>You can tell easily</u> that learners don’t know this word.” “I know what is supposed to be taught in grade 2 because I was a grade 2 teacher and a grade R teacher”	
	Betty	“I look at how difficult the word is”	

Tr. Practices strategies for teaching new words	learners	Christine	
		Dorothy	<i>“The books have the words stage by stage so the chapters, the units we have not done the children do not know the new words on eh listed there.”</i>
		Esther	<i>“if I have not taught it to them then it is I can say it is a new word”</i>
		Florence	<i>“I ask them which words they don’t know if we are doing a passage and they tell me.”</i>
		Gladys	<i>“Sometimes as a teacher you know your children and their levels so you can tell.”</i>
		Jane	<i>“I ask <u>them to identify</u> some new words</i>
		Henrietta	<i>“Most of the new words are indicated in their books that these are the new words so I know.”</i>
		Kate	<i>There are lists of words in their books</i>
		Alice	<i>“We start with <u>sound</u>. In fact I like to start from the <u>known to the unknown</u>. I always start with their prior work which they were doing in the previous class... then we come up gradually, slowly <u>stage by stage</u>, coming with new words, and words, they are becoming <u>bigger and bigger</u>”</i>
		Betty	<i>“We start with the <u>meaning</u>, we start with the sound, then we <u>construct a word from the sounds and then the meaning, the spelling of that sound, and the... how to start a sentence.</u>”</i>
		Christine	<i>“Umm the strategy, for instance I, let us use 'the girl'. If we say 'girl', we <u>write</u> on the board. So they can see how it is written and also search another words that can be the phonics. “I try to use picture... For instance there are some things like aeroplane. I try to search the picture of aeroplane and they understand.”</i> <i>“The learners are supposed to have the small books so that if I'm talking about the sun, they can see the sun.”</i>
		Dorothy	<i>“When I teach I start from, I start from the <u>work they have done previous year</u> so that they know how to adjust to the new...” “I use <u>phonics</u> because the language starts from the phonics so they know the words, the sound of the words and they know how to write the word so that they can form simple sentences.”</i> <i>“I write the words and <u>put them on the wall</u> so that they read the words. Everyday they must <u>read everyday</u> so that they are familiar with the words.”</i> <i>“Learners are not the same so I have to put them in groups so that I deal with every group...”</i> <i>“I want to use newspapers so that they know how to read”</i>
		Esther	<i>“I use <u>flash cards, writing</u> on the board or take them to... take that <u>group</u> and... even write on the ground using chalk, or close your eyes spell the word ‘sleep’.</i> <i>“I <u>write the word</u> on the chalkboard then I I <u>drill</u> them... then after that I allow them to spell them” “If it is English they <u>spell</u> other words in Xhosa. It will be easy for them to catch up.” “T-For example if we deal with the word ‘b’ for ‘bus’ I can’t say they must <u>spell</u> it using ‘ba’ in isiXhosa. The word ‘bus’ they are going to <u>spell</u> it using ‘b’ unlike the letter ‘c’ in the word ‘car’. They cannot say ‘c’ ‘a’ ‘r’. They spell the letter ‘c’ in Xhosa. They say ‘ka’ so that they can <u>pronounce the word</u> ‘car’. “We also use flash cards.”</i> <i>“If I start teaching them the word on the <u>chalkboard, using flashcards, using the chart</u> then they can read any lesson without any help.”</i> <i>“The only thing I can say is that <u>phonics</u> is of importance to learn English vocabulary because we start about how to <u>pronounce the vowels</u> , how to <u>pronounce the consonants...</u>”</i>
		Florence	<i>“I put a <u>picture first</u> so that they must first look at the picture and they understand the picture after that it’s easy for them to know what is in the picture.” “I <u>pick up</u> the key words in the comprehension and I <u>write the key words</u> on the board and I <u>drill</u> them first before we read it.”</i>
		Gladys	<i>“They <u>read</u> the words and <u>learn to spell</u> then, then, and then <u>talk about their meanings.</u>”</i>
	Jane	<i>“I ask <u>them to identify</u> some new words and then we <u>discuss and explain</u> the</i>	

				<p>meaning of words.” “<u>I write</u> those words on the board and <u>we read</u> those words together with them and I ask If there is <u>anyone who knows</u> their meanings and if none knows the meaning <u>I tell them</u> myself.” “You have to do a lot of code switching.”</p>
		Henrietta		<p>“I write them in the <u>flash cards</u> and then I put it on the wall so that they can read it <u>over and over</u>...I’m <u>reading for them stories</u> sometimes. I think stories can help them.” “they can take the flash cards and read on their own. Then the other one is helping the other one.”</p>
		Kate		<p>“You can have <u>flash cards for sight words</u>...The things that we must stress is the phonics. The words, <u>You must read</u> the word for children, then they must <u>read after you</u>, then must <u>read alone</u>, they must read individually.” “If you introduce them to phonics you introduce them to books that they didn’t do. They manage to read them because of the phonics.”</p>
<b>Teacher beliefs and Perceptions about exposure and acquisition of English vocabulary, about learner competences and about the role of the world outside the classroom</b>	Rate of exposure to new English words	Alice		<p>“At least 20” new English words exposed to learners per week.</p>
		Betty		<p>“I’m sure it’s about eh 20 to 30 per week”</p>
		Christine		<p>“No. I can’t count really”</p>
		Dorothy		<p>“Oh! not more than ten” words per week</p>
		Esther		<p>“I can say <u>50 words</u> because even if they are talking on their own and I hear something wrong I will come up and deal with the word.”</p>
		Florence		<p>“at least twenty... because in my class I have got a corner” reading corner</p>
		Gladys		<p>“Between 20 and 30 I think.”</p>
		Jane		<p>“I really don’t know” “now we have got Mrs Settles. I think she will do a good job in teaching English because she is an English speaker. She speaks English right through.”</p>
		Henrietta		<p>“I don’t count”</p>
		Kate		<p>a lot of words</p>
		Alice		<p>“I would say half” of the words learners are exposed to, are mastered by the average learners. [10 words per week x average of 10 weeks per term x 4 terms translating to around 400 word gain in Grade 3 ]</p>
		Betty		<p>“I’m sure it’s 60 to 70%” words acquired by an average learner per work</p>
		Christine		<p>“I think for a week they have to know <u>at least ten words</u>”</p>
		Dorothy		<p>“I think half.”</p>
		Esther		<p>“They can be 50”</p>
Florence		<p>Thinks only 5 would not master around 20 words</p>		
Gladys		<p>“About 10” revised to 5 when researcher indicated that the estimate should be that of average learners</p>		
Jane		<p>“Ah – not so many words many words, not so many new words because we don’t focus much on English because we have to focus in isiXhosa.”</p>		
		Henrietta		
		Kate		
	Important dimension of word knowledge to privilege.	Alice		<p>“The meaning of the word. We start with the meaning, we start with the sound, then we construct a word from the sounds and then the meaning, the spelling of that sound, and the... how to start a sentence.”</p> <p>“At the end of the term they must be to <u>speak</u>, to <u>listen</u> to an instruction, to <u>announce</u> an instruction. They must know, be able to <u>follow</u> the instructions.”</p>
		Betty		<p>“For instance I use the boy. They should <u>understand</u> when I say the boys stand up, the girls stand up. They should be able to <u>read</u> and <u>spell</u> the word ‘boy’.”</p>
		Christine		<p>“They have to <u>speak</u> so that they know how to say a word, then they <u>read</u> the word and they <u>write</u> the word.”</p>
		Dorothy		<p>“I try them to know how to write it, the meaning of it.”</p>
		Esther		<p>“I want them to know how to <u>spell it</u>, how to..... It’s <u>meaning</u>.”</p>
		Florence		
		Gladys		<p>Spelling and meaning</p>
		Jane		<p>“They must know the <u>meaning</u>, they must know the, how <u>to write it</u>, and how to call that word, how to <u>say the word</u>.”</p>
		Henrietta		<p>“I must show them how <u>to write it</u>, how to <u>pronounce it</u>, what does the word <u>mean</u>.”</p>
		Kate		

Perceived learner competence on dictionary use and other language related competences	Alice	<i>"Yes, they do" [use dictionaries.] "As you see, we have book corner there. They go there, take the books, read."</i>	
	Betty	<i>"They can't use dictionaries"</i> <i>"They go to the library and <u>search for themselves</u> new words."</i> <i>"They learn English words to the papers and to the magazines and to whatever."</i>	
	Christine	<i>"No. not yet, not yet" on learner knowledge of dictionary work</i>	
	Dorothy	<i>"No, I don't use dictionary." They don't easily understand English point number one. I think eeh because of environment. Secondly, we are not use English in all subjects, we speak Xhosa. Even when we announce in the lines 'let us try to speak English' because kaloku because we are here in this we are here in this environment they don't always use it."</i>	
	Esther	<i>"Not this year" dictionary use.</i> <i>"Even in Grade 3 they form sentences."</i>	
	Florence	<i>"I've got some reading books and if they don't understand the word or they don't know the meaning of the word they quickly take the dictionary, there is a dictionary in my corner there that is suitable for the grade threes only, so it's easy for them."</i>	
	Gladys	<i>"They are used to isiXhosa reading and it affects them."</i>	
	Jane	<i>"I don't use dictionaries now but I intend to use them." "No I don't think they know how to use dictionaries."</i>	
	Henrietta	<i>"You must first say it in Xhosa so that they can understand. Otherwise if you just say it in English they won't understand" "No, it's me who explains the word otherwise there is no dictionary."</i>	
	Kate	<i>"Not at the moment, I think dictionary they will use it at the intermediate phase. at least grade four up"</i> <i>"They grasp more easily English than isiXhosa."</i>	
	Perceived learner competence on particular aspects of word.	Alice	<i>"Sometimes they pronounce words differently" pronunciation cited as problematic and cause identified as interference from the L1 pronunciation</i>
		Betty	<i>"Writing is difficult to them"</i>
		Christine	<i>"some words something is easy, some words another thing is easy"</i>
		Dorothy	Easy aspect <i>"Is ... <u>meaning</u>...They know that... for instance they know that sleep,(MIMES), they know the meaning of sleep but it's <u>not easy to write correctly.</u>"</i>
Esther		<i>"to write... to spell" perceived as easy because of use of flash cards</i> <i>"Some of them it is-few learners it's not easy for them to know that they can place a vowel 'eh'. If I just want them to write 'kick' some of them can write 'keak'. Instead of the vowel 'e' they can write 'ea' because there are words like eh eat beat eh meat. When I say 'kick' they can write 'keak' instead of 'ki.."</i>	
Florence		<i>"it's <u>difficult to write</u> the word book because in grade three they are not yet ready to do that <u>double o.</u>" "Sometimes it's difficult for them <u>to write</u> 'cat' you know because of those short vowels you know, They say <u>ket</u> instead of <u>cat</u>"</i>	
Gladys		<i>"Sometimes they know the word but they do not know how to <u>write it</u> or <u>use it.</u>"</i>	
Jane		<i>"<u>Reading is easy</u> but <u>writing eish</u> – is a <u>problem.</u>" "It's difficult when it comes to writing. They <u>can say the word</u> and <u>read it</u> on the board but when you ask them to write those words down they will not do well. Even if you give a spelling test."</i>	
Henrietta		<i>"To <u>use</u> the words it is too difficult to learners, even to <u>write</u> is not easy."</i>	
Kate		<i>"it depends to the learner"</i>	
Perceived learner preparedness for transition to learning	Alice	<i>"Yes, yes. Even now I teach Maths, I mix English and Xhosa."</i>	
	Betty	Affirmed learner readiness for transition to use of English as LoLT in Grade 4	
	Christine	<i>"I think others it will be difficult to adjust but others will adjust because learners are not the same."</i>	
	Dorothy	<i>"They don't easily understand English" "it's not an easy task for them to</i>	

in English as LoLT in Gr. 4	learn all learning areas in English... It's a difficult job, because first of all English is <u>not our mother tongue</u> . Here we use English; at home <u>they use xhosa</u> , their home language." "They learn English for the whole year but you will understand that in grade four few of them understand English."
	Esther "Grade 4 teachers didn't tell me about difficulties...They are ready to read any content subject, ready to write any subject because even in Grade 3 they form sentences."
	Florence "Yes, yes, yes, I'm definite. Sure yes I'm definitely sure." "They like English...early in the morning what I do before they start everything they just read." " even if I teach in mathematics usually I mix the it with English...Teacher : Yes , yes because what I do I even refer that next year when you are in grade four you will be calling nearest tens yes."
	Gladys "Some, a few , will be ready but some, it's a problem"
	Jane "I think so"
	Henrietta "Some, may be a few, others, they will struggle."
	Kate "Yes! Yes! They are ready."
Perceived role of the outside world in learners' English vocabulary development	Alice Confirmed learners having other sources of English vocabulary apart from the classroom.
	Betty "They learn English words to the <u>papers</u> and to the <u>magazines</u> and to whatever"
	Christine "Yes they can learn the words outside but they they... It's it's I think it's important that when I teach something and then they meet stop signs and they see stop signs so they know that at the class we were taught about the road signs so they know... they can know things when you teach them... and they can know, learn other words."
	Dorothy "No some learners have other sources like they are from different homes like father is a <u>police</u> , mother is a <u>nurse</u> even they brought some newspapers for me they can read even now...even two sentences."
	Esther "They can come up with new sentences like if he is angry I can hear him saying "Don't touch me" so I think some of the vocabulary is from outside."
	Florence "One of my learner ask me about "Miss what is a virgin?"
	Gladys "They learn a few other words in the school with friends and older kids."
	"At home, I doubt"
	Jane "Yes! Yes! They should."
	Henrietta "Maybe eh only a few words."
	Kate "Sometimes no one is assisting them. Sometimes their <u>culture at home</u> , they <u>don't value</u> these things. That is our main big challenge. they don't care after their children. Most of the parents, they are dealing with drugs and drinking." "They see TV they can know a lot of words in TV in English"
Perceived sources of English vocabulary outside the classroom	Alice "Yes, yes, they integrate with <u>others</u> . They share their learning with others. They share their learning with <u>families</u> . Their <u>parents</u> , they look their books and saw what is happening and they help them. The parents, they do come to me and share their learners' work.
	Betty "They learn English words to the <u>papers</u> and to the <u>magazines</u> and to whatever"
	Christine "Then they meet stop signs" authentic print in the environment.
	Dorothy "some newspapers"
	Esther
	Florence
	Gladys None. "They also do not have anything to read at home"
	Jane "They see signs on the roads, in town. They see TVs at home."
	Henrietta "Maybe eh only a few words they hear other older children say."
	Kate "They see TV they can know a lot of words in TV in English"
<b>Tr. Perception on the supportive</b>	Material provision, adequacy and access
	Alice "Yes, they do." Learners having access to dictionaries
	Betty "No, we don't." On learners having dictionaries. "They go to the <u>library</u> and search for themselves new words" can borrow material from the library.
	"We have got these books (big books) we get them <u>from the library</u> but we

nature of the school context		<i>do not have the small ones. If you are doing shared reading you want to use the small books. The bookshops if you say I want the small books of this one it is too expensive.</i>	
	Christine	<i>"I don't have the readers, enough so that they are familiar with reading...there are not, they are <u>not enough readers</u> for them to read because reading is everything."</i>	
	Dorothy		
	Esther	<i>"We don't have dictionaries but the other years we had dictionaries"</i>	
	Florence	<i>"I've got some <u>reading books</u> and... there is a <u>dictionary</u> in my corner there that is suitable for the grade threes only"</i>	
	Gladys	<i>"Yes, there are many challenges. We do not have enough reading books."</i>	
	Jane		
	Henrietta	No dictionaries	
	Kate		
	Adequacy of time allocated to English First Additional Language in Grade 3	Alice	<i>"Yes, we do a lot"</i>
		Betty	<i>"Yes, we can cover."</i>
		Christine	
		Dorothy	<i>"I think the time is enough..."</i>
		Esther	<i>"Yes, I think it's enough"</i>
		Florence	<i>"I think so" but goes on to say "it's difficult for us because even in our timetables most of the periods are Xhosa mathematics and we are doing them in Xhosa you know."</i>
	Gladys	<i>"It is enough because English is new so they should be given little time and increase as they to understand."</i>	
	Jane	<i>"Yes, I think it's ok."</i>	
	Henrietta	<i>"Yes, I think so."</i>	
	Kate		

## Appendix 8: Typical lessons from each teacher

### FLORENCE TYPICAL LESSONS

- 1 Teacher: Today first of all we are going to introduce ourselves nhe?
- 2 Class: Yes
- 3 Teacher: We are going to introduce ourselves nhe
- 4 Class: Yes
- 5 Teacher: What is your name?
- 6 Learner: My name is azola
- 7 Teacher: What is your name?
- 8 Learner: My name is sibabalwe
- 9 Teacher: What is your name?
- 10 Learner: Wy name is mawethu
- 11 Teacher: What is your name?
- 12 Learner: My name is mpumelelo
- 13 Teacher: What is your name?
- 14 Learner: My name is sanelise
- 15 Teacher: What is your name?
- 16 Learner: My name is khanyisa
- 17 Teacher: What is your name?
- 18 Learner: My name is delese
- 19 Teacher: What is your name?
- 20 Learner: My name is siphu
- 21 Teacher: What is your name?

22 Learner: My name is khaya  
23 Teacher: What is your name?  
24 Learner: My name is sinoxolo  
25 Teacher: What is your name?  
26 Learner: My name is esakho  
27 Teacher: What is your name?  
28 Learner: My name is zethu  
29 Teacher: What is your name?  
30 Learner: My name is lona  
31 Teacher: What is your name?  
32 Learner: My name is siphелеle  
33 Teacher: What is your name?  
34 Learner: My name is lisakhanya  
35 Teacher: What is your name?  
36 Learner: My name is aviwe  
37 Teacher: What is your name?  
38 Learner: My name is afuzile  
39 Teacher: Thank you my class, thank you thank you  
40 Teacher: Now we are going to read a story  
41 Teacher: This story is about the monkey nhe?  
42 Class: Yes  
43 Teacher: This story is about the monkey  
44 Teacher: We all know the monkey nhe  
45 Class: Yes  
46 Teacher: We all know the monkey andithi  
47 Class: Yes  
48 Teacher: Where is the monkey stay?  
49 Teacher: Where is the monkey stay?  
50 Teacher: Hands up  
51 Teacher: Where is the monkey stay  
52 Teacher: Or where do we get monkeys  
53 Teacher: Hands up  
54 Teacher: Where do we get monkeys?  
55 Teacher: Sizi fumanaphi imonkeys?  
56 Teacher: Where do we get monkeys?  
57 Teacher: Yes  
58 Learner: In a forest  
59 Teacher: Yes from the forest andithi?  
60 Learner: Yes  
61 Teacher: We get monkeys from the forest  
62 Learner: Yes  
63 Teacher: What is the colour of a monkey  
64 Teacher: I want the colour of a monkey  
65 Learner: grey  
66 Teacher: Grey sometimes there are grey monkeys  
67 Teacher: Another colour of a monkey  
68 Teacher: Hands up  
69 Learner: Black

70 Teacher: Black ok yes another colour of a monkey  
71 Teacher: Yes  
72 Learner: Brown  
73 Teacher: Brown ok fine lets  
74 Teacher: Now we are going to read a story about a monkey  
75 Teacher: I'm gonna give each and every us a paper  
76 Teacher: So that we can read the story nhe?  
77 Class: Yes  
78 Teacher: And you must listen to me carefully nhe ok  
79 Class: Yes  
80 Teacher: Take it out Lona that's yours, that's yours  
81 Teacher: Let us look at the picture carefully  
82 Teacher: Look at the picture carefully  
83 Teacher: I left my copy there by the office,  
84 Teacher: Can I go quickly and fetch my copy there  
85 Teacher: I'm coming  
86 Teacher: Look at your paper  
87 Class: (Reading together)  
88 Teacher: Ok ok ok  
89 Teacher: I left my paper there by the office  
90 Teacher: Let us look carefully at our papers  
91 Teacher: nhe what do you see in the paper  
92 Teacher: What do you see in the paper  
93 I think there is a picture there?  
94 Teacher: Yes  
95 Learner: I see a monkey  
96 Teacher: Yes thank you, thank you  
97 Teacher: That is a monkey andithi  
98 Class: yes  
99 Teacher: Now we are going to read that story  
100 Teacher: We are going to read that story but before  
101 we read the story I'm gonna write some key words on  
102 the board nhe before we read the story I am going to  
103 write some key words the important words that we are  
104 gonna read first on the board  
105 Class: yes  
106 Teacher: Ok  
107 Teacher: Thank you my class  
108 Teacher: Let us look at the board put down your paper  
109 don't look at your paper look at the board nhe?  
110 Class: yes  
111 Teacher: We are going to read the words that are on the board  
112 Class: yes  
113 Teacher: Tyron  
114 Class: tyron  
115 Teacher: tyron  
116 Class: tyron  
117 Teacher: Monkey

118 Class: monkey  
119 Teacher: monkey  
120 Class: monkey  
121 Teacher: Soft  
122 Class: soft  
123 Teacher: soft  
124 Class: soft  
125 Teacher: Grey  
126 Class: grey  
127 Teacher: grey  
128 Class: grey  
129 Teacher: Fur  
130 Class: fur  
131 Teacher: fur  
132 Class: fur  
133 Teacher: Dear  
134 Class: dear  
135 Teacher: dear  
136 Class: dear  
137 Teacher: Little  
138 Class: little  
139 Teacher: little  
140 Class: little  
141 Teacher: Forest  
142 Class: forest  
143 Teacher: forest  
144 Class: forest  
145 Teacher: Ugly  
146 Class: ugly  
147 Teacher: ugly  
148 Class: ugly  
149 Teacher: Waves  
150 Class: waves  
151 Teacher: waves  
152 Class: waves  
153 Teacher: Let us read again let us start here  
154 Class: tyron  
155 Class: tyron  
156 Class: monkey  
157 Class: monkey  
158 Class: dear  
159 Class: dear  
160 Class: little  
161 Class: little  
162 Class: fur  
163 Class: fur  
164 Class: grey  
165 Class: grey

166 Class: soft  
 167 Class: soft  
 168 Class: ugly  
 169 Class: ugly  
 170 Class: waves  
 171 Class: waves  
 172 Class: waves  
 173 Class: waves  
 174 Teacher: we all understand those words nhe  
 175 Class: yes  
 176 Teacher: Is there any one of us who can stand  
 177 up and read the words again  
 178 Class: yes  
 179 Teacher: Who's gonna read  
 180 Teacher: Azola read  
 181 Learner: tyron, tyron , monkey, monkey, dear, dear,  
 182 little, little, fur, fur, grey, grey, soft, soft,  
 183 ugly, ugly, waves, waves, forest, forest,  
 184 Teacher: Thank you let us clap our hands for Azola  
 185 Teacher: Now we are going to read the story  
 186 Teacher: We are going to read a story you  
 187 are going to listen to me andithi  
 188 Class: yes  
 189 Teacher: I am going to read alone  
 190 Teacher: I am going to read alone  
 191 Teacher: Tyron the monkey  
 192 Teacher: Tyron was a monkey he had soft grey  
 193 fur a dearly thick ugly face and big round eyes he lived  
 194 with his mother in the forest beside the sea there was  
 195 the forest then the road and then the sea, tyro never  
 196 went near the sea he did not like the waves simamele sonke nhe  
 197 Class: yes  
 198 Teacher: Simamele sonke andithi  
 199 Class: yes  
 200 Teacher: So this story is about Tyron the monkey andithi  
 201 Class: yes  
 202 Teacher: This story is about Tyron the monkey nhe  
 203 Class: yes  
 204 Teacher: Now we are going to read all of us nhe  
 205 Class: yes

#### **ESTHER TYPICAL LESSON**

1 Learners: The man is seating on the chair.  
 2 Learners: The man is sitting on the chair  
 3 Teacher: What is the man holding? The man....  
 4 Learners: The man is holding an umbrella  
 5 Teacher: What is this?  
 6 Learners: That is an umbrella

7 Teacher: Sonke Kaloku  
8 Learners: That is an umbrella  
9 Teacher: What is the man holding?  
10 Learners: The man is holding an umbrella  
11 Teacher: What is the bird doing? x2  
12 Learners: The bird is flying  
13 Teacher: The  
14 Learners: The bird is flying  
15 Teacher: What is the boat doing?  
16 Learners: The boat is sailing  
17 Teacher: What is the boat doing?  
18 Learners: The boat is sailing  
19 Teacher: What else can you see in the picture?  
20 Teacher: What else can you see in the picture?  
21 Learners: I can see  
22 Teacher: Xa siyibona sonke we use we can see, we can  
23 Learners: We can see  
24 Teacher: Funa enye into oyibonayo kaloku emfanekisweni  
25 Learners: Baby  
26 Teacher: What can we see?  
27 Learners: We can see a baby  
28 Teacher: Come and show us a baby, iza uzozibonisa umntwana,  
29 Teacher: come and show us a baby, yes what is the baby doing?  
30 Learners: The baby is sitting down  
31 Teacher: What is the baby doing?  
32 Learners : The baby is sitting down  
33 Teacher: Unxibe ntoni? What is the baby wearing, wearing?  
34 Teacher: What is the baby wearing?  
35 Learners: The baby is wearing a dress  
36 Teacher: Yhuu is it a dress elwandle,  
37 sinxiba ntoni elwandle kanene?  
38 Teacher: Sinxiba ntoni kanene?  
39 Learners: Ushoti  
40 Teacher: Hayini bethuna kutwa yintoni yona  
41 lanto inxitywa ngamantombazana idibeneyo,  
42 ntoni kanene izabayi homework  
43 yenu ke leyo nibuze pha ekhaya ba kunxitywa  
44 ntoni elwandle, sizabuza ntoni?  
45 Learners: Kunxitywa ntoni elwandle  
46 Teacher: Ngoba kaloku lena asiyo lokwe nale,  
47 asiyo lokwe naleya andithi na bethuna?  
48 Learners: Yes miss  
49 Teacher: What is the man doing? kanindixele  
50 ngesixhosa yenzani landoda?  
51 Learners: Iyaloba  
52 Teacher: heee  
53 Learners: Iyaloba  
54 Teacher: Kuthini kanene ukuloba kuthini kanene,  
55 kuyelelene negama lentlansti kaluku,  
56 kuthini ukuloba yintoni intlantsi, iloba ntoni?  
57 Learners: Fish  
58 Teacher: Masifakele ke ku fish u ing,  
59 izakuba ngubani kengoku  
60 Learners : Fishing  
61 Teacher: One, two  
62 Learner: Fishing  
63 Teacher: One, two  
64 Learner: Fishing  
65 Teacher: The man is fishing. Kanithethe ninke man  
66 Learners: The man is fishing

67 Teacher: Heeee  
68 Learners: The man is fishing  
69 Teacher: Ingaba lendoda iloba amasele, inyoka  
70 Learners: No  
71 Teacher: Iloba ntoni  
72 Learners: Fish  
73 Teacher: What is he fishing?  
74 Learners: He is fishing  
75 Teacher: What is he fishing?  
76 Learners: He is fishing  
77 Teacher: What is he fishing?  
78 Learners: He is fishing  
79 Teacher: What is he fishing?  
80 Learners: Fishes  
81 Teacher: Fishing what? What is he fishing?  
82 Learners: He is fishing fishes  
83 Teacher: Sonke kaloku  
84 Learners: He is fishing fishes  
85 Teacher: Can you spell fishes?  
86 Learners: Ngu f, no I, no s, no h, no e, no s  
87 Teacher: Spell fishes kwakhona  
88 Learners: Ngu f, no I, no s, no h, no e, no s  
89 Teacher: Can u spell fishes kwakhona in english  
90 Learners: Ngu f, no I, no s, no h, no e, no s  
91 Teacher: Sitsho sithini, fishes, the man is fishing fishes  
92 Learners: The man is fishing fishes  
93 Learners: The man is fishing fishes  
94 Teacher: Yintoni enye into esingathethanga ngayo?  
95 Besithe kuphi kanene apha hee?  
96 Learners: Elwandle  
97 Teacher: Basitsho sonke kaloku sithi at the sea, heeee  
98 Learner: At the sea  
99 Teacher: Heeee  
100 Learners: At the sea  
101 Teacher: Singathi kengoku ph axisisenza isentences kengoku,  
102 we are going to form sentences kengoku xa bendisithi  
103 bhala phantsi andithi ndilindele uba uthi kemnake,  
104 there are many people.  
105 Learners: There are many people  
106 Teacher: There are...  
107 Learner: There are many people  
108 Teacher: Some of them, some of them,  
109 some of them are swimming, some of them,  
110 some of them are swimming ongathethiyo uzobetwa, one two  
111 Learners: Some of them are swimming  
112 Teacher: Again  
113 Learners: Some of them are swimming  
114 Teacher: There are....  
115 Learners : There are many people  
116 Teacher: Kwakhona  
117 Learners: There are many people  
118 Teacher: Some of them...  
119 Learners: Some of them are swimming  
120 Teacher: Andiva  
121 Learners: Some of them are swimming  
122 Teacher: Spell swimming, spell in English  
123 how to spell swimming  
124 Learners : S w  
125 Teaching; Hayi sanu thembiselana,  
126 how to spell swimming

127 Learners: S W I M M I N G  
 128 Teacher: Clap your hands.  
 129 How to spell swimming again.  
 130 Learners: S W I M M I N G  
 131 Teacher: How to spell swimming in Xhosa one, two  
 132 Learners: S W I M M I N G  
 133 Teacher: Sithe kanene ekuqaleni sithe abantu baninzi  
 134 sithe there are ...  
 135 Learners: There are many people  
 136 Teacher: Sonke kaloku there are ....  
 137 Learners: There are many people  
 138 Teacher: What are they, they what are they doing? They...  
 139 Learners: They are swimming  
 140 Teacher: Open your mouth  
 141 Learners: They are swimming  
 142 Teacher: Benzani? Bayadada  
 143 Learners: Andithi na bethuna  
 144 Teacher: What is the bird doing?  
 145 Learners: The bird is flying  
 146 Teacher: The bird  
 147 Learners: The bird is flying  
 148 Teacher: Can you spell flying  
 149 Learners: Yes  
 150 Teacher: Flying nje yedwa, spell fly  
 151 Learners: F l i  
 152 Teacher: Hayi fly, ungama gama  
 153 mathathu ufly, one ,two  
 154 Learners: F, L, Y  
 155 Teacher: Again  
 156 Learners: F, L, Y  
 157 Teacher: Spell in xhosa how to spell fly  
 158 Learners: F,L,Y  
 159 Teacher: Can you spell flying, one,  
 160 two, wonke umntu kaloku  
 161 Learners: F,L,Y,I,N,G  
 162 Teacher: Spell in English  
 163 Learners: F,L,Y,I,N,G  
 164 Teacher: Sitsho sithini?  
 165 Learners: Flying  
 166 Teacher: Sisho sithini?  
 167 Learners: Flying  
 168 Teacher: Niyayazi kengoku into eyenzekayo klento  
 169 siyenzayo, niyayazi ba kwenzekani, ubangaba isentence  
 170 yakho ino are inabani kanene  
 171 Learners: Ino are  
 172 Teacher: Can you spell 'are'  
 173 Learners: ngu a no r no e  
 174 Teacher: Iphinde isentence yakho ibeno is, how to spell is  
 175 Learners: I no s  
 176 Teacher: Iphinde isentence yakho ibeno am, how to spell am  
 177 Learners: A, m  
 178 Teacher: Sinalagama kengoku mathathu siyawabona  
 179 Learners: Yes miss  
 180 Teacher: We have three words, lamagama analo igama  
 181 elibizwa ngalo kutwa lamagama zi helping,  
 182 helping verbs, zintoni eziya  
 183 Learners: Helping  
 184 Teacher: Can you spell 'help'  
 185 Learners: yes  
 186 Teacher: How to spell 'help'

187 Learners: H no E no L no P  
188 Teacher: Sitsho sithini  
189 Learners: Help  
190 Teacher: One, two Helping masimqibezele  
191 Learners: I n g  
192 Teacher: These are helping verbs, these are helping verbs,  
193 ubangabana uthi I am, she is, they are Liziwe and Anelisa are,  
194 Nozizwe is, I am, siyayibona lonto leyo  
195 Learners: Yes  
196 Teacher: hee?  
197 Learners: Yes  
198 Teacher: Then kengoku xa unalamagama  
199 sithi zintoni lamagama  
200 Learners: Helping verbs  
201 Teacher: Kusekuseni kaloku kanithethe man  
202 Learners: Helping verbs  
203 Teacher: Ngobani I helping verbs  
204 Learners: Ngu are ,is, , am  
205 Teacher: Heee  
206 Learners: Ngu are ,is, , am  
207 Teacher: Bawusloko belandela emveni kwento othetha  
208 ngayo siyavana ubangaba uthetha ngo Zezethu  
209 eyedwa tshu, siright xa sisithi Zezethu are?  
210 Learners: No  
211 Teacher: Kufeka sithini  
212 Learners: Is  
213 Teacher: Hayi suyihlonipha  
214 Learners: Zezethu is  
215 Teacher: One,two  
216 Learners: Zezethu is  
217 Teacher: Uba ndithetha ngathi sibaninzi otishala,  
218 the teachers uzawusebenzisa u is?  
219 Learners: No  
220 Teacher: Uzawusebenzisa bani?  
221 Learners: Are  
222 Teacher: Utsho uthini?  
223 Learners: The teachers are  
224 Teacher: Asikabeva kengoku otishala ba benzani  
225 lets say singathi bayacula sisebenzise u sing  
226 so sebenzisa eyiphi I verb  
227 Learners: Sing  
228 Teacher: One, two sing, uzabe kengoku uyathuka uke wathi  
229 the teachers are sing, awunawuthi the teachers are sing,  
230 inoba sifakelela bani kanene kwelagama  
231 Learners: I, N, G  
232 Teacher: Sifakela bani  
233 Learners: I, N, G  
234 Teacher: Sifakela bani  
235 Learners: I, N, G  
236 Teacher: Sitsho sithini kwela gama  
237 Learners: Singing  
238 Teacher: Read kaloku  
239 Learners: Singing  
240 Teacher: Heee  
241 Learners: Singing  
242 Teacher: Lo I,n,g ufuneka kuba busebenzise ubani kanene  
243 Learners: Is  
244 Teacher: Kuba ubusebenzise bani kanene  
245 Learners: Are  
246 Teacher: Kuba ubusebenzise bani kanene

247 Learners: Am  
248 Teacher: And lo is uyintoni kanene  
249 Learners: Helping verb  
250 Teacher: One, two  
251 Learners: Helping verbs  
252 Teacher: Lo are uyintoni kanene? Helping verb, Heeeee  
253 Learners: Helping verb  
254 Teacher: Lamagama ancedisana nesenzi, lamagama enzani?  
255 Learners: Ancedisana nesenzi  
256 Teacher: Yilo lanto sithi zintoni, helping verbs,  
257 the teachers are ....  
258 Learners: The teachers are singing  
259 Teacher: Lo are simsebenzisa xa abaantu, when we speak of  
260 many people, when we speak of...  
261 Learners: Many people  
262 Teacher: Xa sithetha ngantoni abaninzi sisebenzisa ubani u are,  
263 when you speak of one person sizawusebenzisa  
264 bani umntu xa emnye  
265 Learners: U is  
266 Teacher: One, two  
267 Learners: U is  
268 Teacher: When we speak of one person sisebenzisa bani?  
269 U is.... Anelisa is ndifuna igama elizawulandela, Anelisa  
270 Learners: Anelisa is  
271 Teacher: One, two  
272 Learners: Anelisa is  
273 Teacher: Anelisa and Zukhanye, baninzi kengoku, Anelisa  
274 Learners: Anelisa and Zukhanye are  
275 Teacher: Good, Anelisa  
276 Learners: Anelisa and Zukhanye are  
277 Teacher: Ndifune kengoku uthetha umntu athethe ngaye isigqu,  
278 sisebenzisa bani kanene uthetha ngawe?  
279 Learners: I am  
280 Teacher: One, two  
281 Learners: I am  
282 Teacher: Heee  
283 Learners: I am  
284 Teacher: Ndithe ke nethi isentence ibenelegama,  
285 elagama lisixelela into eyenzekayo, elagama lisixelela into  
286 eyenzekayo, action word, action word, elagama lisixelela into  
287 eyenzekayo fakela kulo ubani, I, n, g, ndizazicela kuni kengoku  
288 isentences, we are going to form isentence ezakuba nelinye  
289 lalamagama ungalibali kwi senzi ukuti I,n,g, heeee, my, is,  
290 I am standing up ndiyabona ba anditshongo ba I am stand  
291 Learners: Yes  
292 Teacher: Sawube siyathuka ukhe wathi I am stand kufuneke sithini?  
293 Learners: I am standing up umntu makacinge eyakhe  
294 Teacher: Form your sentence, uzawuthini Zezethu  
295 Learner: I am playing  
296 Teacher: Good, uthini uzezethu?  
297 Learners: I am playing  
298 Teacher: Speak aloud mfondini, I am  
299 Learner: I am playing  
300 Teacher: Leliphi igama eliyi helping verb phaya  
301 Learners: Am  
302 Teacher: Am is the, am the helping verb, am  
303 Learners: Am is the helping verb  
304 Teacher: Xa sinala am sifakela bani kwi senzi?  
305 Learners: I, N,G  
306 Teacher: Heee

307 Learners: I, N,G  
 308 Teacher: Atsho athini uZezethu athi  
 309 Learners: I am playing  
 310 Teacher: Ludwe uyazibona, uyazibona ba nguwe  
 311 wedwa owenze lonto, stand up, I am  
 312 Learners: I am playing  
 313 Teacher: Yeka zezethu ke le isentence, give me another sentence,  
 314 cinga eyakho, ye Likhona  
 315 Learner: I am singing  
 316 Teacher: Very good ke asizosoloko sithetha ngo I qo,  
 317 uthini u Likhona, I am  
 318 Learners: I am singing  
 319 Teacher: Makuthethwe  
 320 Learners: I am singing  
 321 Teacher: Makuthethwe  
 322 Learners: I am singing  
 323 Teacher: Andimfuni umntu ozawuthi I ngoku  
 324 kawuqale ngenye into...yes Zukhanye,  
 325 Learner: Ukho is standing up  
 326 Teacher: Uthini lomntana  
 327 Learners: Ukho is standing up  
 328 Teacher: Uthini  
 329 Learners: Ukho is standing up  
 330 Teacher: Kutheni lento athi is  
 331 Teacher: Kutheni lento athi is  
 332 xa esithi ukho?  
 333 Learners: Umnye  
 334 Teacher: Heee  
 335 Learners: Umnye  
 336 Teacher: Umnye umntu, one, two  
 337 Learners: Umnye umntu  
 338 Teacher: There is one person, hee  
 339 Learners: There is one person  
 340 Teacher: Omnye uzawuthini, hayi tyini,  
 341 tyi phakamisani izandla andizothetha nabantu ababini  
 342 apha eklasini, ndinike eyakho isentence linge  
 343 Learner: Linge is crying  
 344 Teacher: Very good, uthi linge is crying one, two  
 345 Teacher/Learners: Linge is crying  
 346 Teacher: How to spell crying, crying, crying, one, two  
 347 Learners: c no r no i  
 348 Teacher: Hayi  
 349 Learners: Y no I no I no n no g  
 350 Teacher: Atsho athini  
 351 Learners: Crying  
 352 Teacher: Crying, Linge  
 353 Learners: Linge is Crying  
 354 Teacher: Ngoku ndifuna sentence ezino are, make sisebenziseni  
 355 u are, use are, use are, when we speak of many people,  
 356 makuthethwe baninzi ngoku abantu zininzi ngoku izinto  
 357 many things many people, you can start with they, yes  
 358 Learners: The children are singing  
 359 Teacher: Kawusebebnzise esinye isenzi man khawuyeke  
 360 usinging, khamyeke ew uright but I need another verb another verb  
 361 Learners: The children are cooking  
 362 Teacher: Very good, uthini  
 363 Learners: The children are cooking  
 364 Teacher: Kanithethe isentence le yomntu one, two  
 365 Learners: The children are cooking  
 366 Teacher: Heee

367 Learners: The children are cooking  
 368 Teacher: How to spell cooking  
 369 Learners: Ngu c no o no o no k no I no n no g  
 370 Teacher: Sitsho sithini  
 371 Teacher/Learners: Cooking  
 372 Teacher: Cooking, one, two  
 373 Learners: Cooking  
 374 Teacher: Kutheni lento ano are, why do we use are?  
 375 kutheni lento eno are?  
 376 Learners: Kuba baninzi  
 377 Teacher: Hee  
 378 Learners: Ngabantwana baninzi  
 379 Teacher: Many  
 380 Learners: Many children  
 381 Teacher: One, two  
 382 Learners: Many children  
 383 Teacher: Yilo lento sisebenzisa u are ubani?  
 384 Learners: U are  
 385 Teacher: So nethi umsebenzise u are dont forget  
 386 to add ing to the verb don't Forget ukufakela u ing  
 387 kwi verb uAkhona use are, masibhudeneni man awuzobetwa  
 388 Learners: Milile and Zukhanye are shouting  
 389 Teacher: Milile and Zukhanye are shouting, Milile  
 390 Learners: Milile and Zukhanye are shouting  
 391 Teacher: One, two  
 392 Teacher/Learners: Milile and Zukhanye are shouting  
 393 Teacher: Are  
 394 Teacher/ Learners: Are shouting  
 395 Teacher: Shout, shout, shout, how to spell shout  
 396 Learners: Ngu s no h no o no u no t no I no n no g  
 397 Teacher: Than masilifunde  
 398 Learners: Shouting  
 399 Teacher: Masilifunde  
 400 Learners: Shouting  
 401 Teacher/Learners: Milile and Zukhanye are shouting  
 402 Teacher: For the last time use are, for the last time  
 403 use are, Spiwokuhle  
 404 Learner: Inga and  
 405 Teacher: Use they, use they, masibahloniphe kengoku ababantu  
 406 Learner: They are  
 407 Teacher: Benzani mntanam?  
 408 Learner: Hamba  
 409 Teacher: Uhamba ngubani kanene?  
 410 Learners: Walking  
 411 Teacher: One, two, one, two  
 412 Learners: Walking  
 413 Teacher: What are they doing?  
 414 Teacher/Learners: They are walking  
 415 Teacher: How to spell walk, walk, walk, one, two  
 416 Learners: Ngu w no a no r  
 417 Teacher: Hayi, hayi, ngu walk suthi work no  
 418 Learners: No l  
 419 Teacher: One, two  
 420 Learners: No l  
 421 Teacher: Nabani  
 422 Learners: No k  
 423 Teacher: Than add Ing  
 424 Learners: Ing  
 425 Teacher: Sitsho sithini xa silibiza elagama  
 426 Learners: Walking

427 Teacher: Walking, what are they doing?  
 428 Teacher/Learners: They are walking  
 429 Teacher: Walk everybody, walk, walk, walk,  
 430 everybody walk, walk, walk, what are you doing?  
 431 Learners: We are walking  
 432 Teacher: Again  
 433 Learners: We are walking  
 434 Teacher/Learners: We are walking  
 435 Teacher: Heeee  
 436 Learners: We are walking  
 437 Teacher: What are they doing  
 438 Learners: They are walking  
 439 Teacher: Again  
 440 Learners: They are walking  
 441 Teacher: What is he doing? is, is what is he doing?  
 442 Learners: He is walking  
 443 Teacher: Heeee  
 444 Learners: He is walking  
 445 Teacher: She, she, what is she doing?  
 446 Learners: She is walking  
 447 Teacher: Heeee  
 448 Learners: She is walking  
 449 Teacher: What am I, umna kengoku, what am I doing?  
 450 Learners: You are walking  
 451 Teacher: Heeee?  
 452 Learners: You are walking  
 453 Teacher: Siyivile lento siyenzayo  
 454 Learners: Yes  
 455 Teacher: Do you hear me?  
 456 Learners: Yes we hear you  
 457 Teacher: Do you understand?  
 458 Learners: Yes we understand  
 459 Teacher: Do u get me?  
 460 Learners: Yes we get you  
 461 Teacher: Umntu kengoku nje uzandibhalela phantsi  
 462 ezake isentences kengoku lento besiyenza apha jonga  
 463 kaloku ungaba no are no ing ubeno am no ing ubeno  
 464 is no ing lixsha kengoku eliya elantoni,  
 465 lixsha lokuqubeka yintoni leyo  
 466 Teacher/Learner: Lixsha lokuqubeka  
 467 Teacher: Present, continuous, yintoni leya,  
 468 present, continuous, vula umlomo  
 469 Learners: Present, continuous  
 470 Teacher: Masitsho sithi continuous tense  
 471 Learners: Present continuous tense  
 472 Teacher: Masithethe  
 473 Learners: Present continuous tense  
 474 Teacher: Heee?  
 475 Learners: Present continuous tense  
 476 Teacher/Learners: Present continuous tense  
 477 Teacher: Lixsha lokuthini lokuqubeka, lixsha lukothni?  
 478 Learners: Lokuqubeka  
 479 Teacher: Heee  
 480 Learners: Lokuqubeka  
 481 Teacher: Heee  
 482 Learners: Lokuqubeka  
 483 Teacher: Zithini irules ze present continuous tense,  
 484 kuthiwa when we speak of one person we use is  
 485 xa umntu emnye sisebenzisa bani? is yi rule yoku qala leyo  
 486 this is the first rule kwintoni kanene thethani nonke

487 Learners: Kwi present continuous tense  
488 Teacher: When we speak of many, many, many, people  
489 sisebenzisa bani?  
490 Learners: are  
491 Teacher: Yi rule number bani leyo  
492 Learners: Yesibini  
493 Teacher: When we speak of wena I usebenziza bani kanene  
494 Learners: Am  
495 Teacher: Sathi kanene lamagama oma thathu ane gama elinye  
496 sathi zintoni kanene?  
497 Learners: Helping verb  
498 Teacher: Sathi zintoni kanene  
499 Learners: Helping verbs  
500 Teacher: Xa usebenzise lamagama, yintoni le kufuneka  
501 ungayilibelanga kwi verb kwi senzi kwi action word  
502 Learners: ing  
503 Teacher: Heee  
504 Learners: Ing  
505 Teacher: Njengokuba sizithethile zonke phayana  
506 wena kengoku uzawuthatha incwadi yakho  
507 ye English classwork uzandibhalela isentence ibeyi one  
508 ekule tense ekule tense uyayibona lonto leyo ibenye nje  
509 uthi wawugqiba uzayizisa, today's date  
510 Learners: Today's date is 13  
511 Teacher: Hayi andiyazi mna idate, today's date  
512 Learners: Today's date is 13  
513 Teacher: 13 or 14  
514 Learners: 13  
515 Teacher: Heee  
516 Learners: 13  
517 Teacher: Masiyithethe yonke ke, today's date  
518 Learners: Today's date is 13 of April  
519 Teacher: Today's date  
520 Learners: Today's date is 13 of April  
521 Teacher: Is it April na ngoku inyanga theni niphambana nje  
522 Learners: May  
523 Teacher: Heee, is it April or May, heeee  
524 Learners: May  
525 Teacher: Heee  
526 Learners: May  
527 Teacher: Sanuphambana ke, 13th of May, uyayikhuphela  
528 ke lanto masiyifundeni, masiyifundeni  
529 Learners: Write  
530 Teacher: Ndizocela ugrade 3 afunde wonke  
531 Learners: Write three sentences in the present continuous tense  
532 Teacher: Masiphinde sifunde la sentence  
533 sojonga lo ubusy ungafundiyo, write  
534 Learners: Write three sentences in the present continuous tense  
535 Teacher: Masibhale idate english siyibhale lanto,  
536 undibhalele one sentence in the present continuous tense,  
537 isentence ezaba no is okhanye ke uba ufuna ukuthetha  
538 ngabantu aba ninzi izabanabani  
539 Learners: Are  
540 Teacher: Uba ufuna uthetha ngawe, I izababani  
541 Learners: Am  
542 Teacher: Then kwi gama action word, action word action word,  
543 kuzabakho bani Ing khawundibhalele English class work book,  
544 English class work book ubhale kahle ke ngaphezu kwa Friday heee?  
545 Learners: Yes miss  
546 Teacher: Your writing should be more beautiful than Friday,

547 than Friday, sizawubhala kakhle ngaphezu kwa Friday  
 548 sizawubhala kakhle ngaphezu kwa Friday, izawuthi ke  
 549 wena ngokhu usadunsa idate igama lakho  
 550 Teacher: Kweyokuqala lonto ikwenza ube lost  
 551 kengoku zisuka nje, uSima ubukele endingayaziyo,  
 552 uzandibhalela isentence ekwintoni kanene, pre  
 553 Learners: Present tense  
 554 Teacher: Masithetheni  
 555 Learners: Present continuous tense  
 556 Teacher: Heke, mboleka pha kwezinye iclass uyasiphazamisa  
 557 awunantloni, your own sentence in the present continuous  
 558 tense write it down your own sentence. Form your own sentence  
 559 in the present continuous tense yakha esakho isivakalisi  
 560 sibekwishesha lokugqubeka mcoselele la continuous la tense leave  
 561 a space between continuous and tense mna kandisishiye phayana  
 562 andiyazi ba bekutheni mcoselele la continuous your own sentence  
 563 in the continuous present tense write down your own sentences  
 564 form your own sentence in the present continuous tense,  
 565 yakha aesakho isivakalisi sibekwi xesha lokuqubeka mcoselele la  
 566 continuous la tense leave a space between continuous and present  
 567 tense mna khandisishiye phayana andiyazi ba bekutheni  
 568 mcoselele la continuous

#### ALICE TYPICAL LESSONS

1. Teacher: Let us turn to page three  
Teacher: Err no six ezantsi
2. Teacher: What we did on the farm
3. Class: what we did on the farm
4. Teacher: What we did on the farm
5. Class: what we did on the farm
6. Teacher: What we did on the farm
7. Class: what we did on the farm
8. Teacher: Ok ok ok we've got sight words first
9. Teacher: Let us look at the board
10. Teacher: Let us look at the board
11. Teacher: Sitting
12. Class: sitting
13. Teacher: Sitting
14. Class: sitting
15. Teacher: S
16. Class: S
17. Teacher: I
18. Class: I
19. Teacher: T
20. Class: T
21. Teacher: T
22. Class: T
23. Teacher: I
24. Class: I
25. Teacher: N
26. Class: N
27. Teacher: G
28. Class: G
29. Teacher: Lusaya concentrate mani listen
30. lusaya look at the board
31. Teacher: Kholekile thoba isandla
32. Teacher: Milking

33. Class: milking
34. Teacher: Milking
35. Class: milking
36. Teacher: M
37. Class: M
38. Teacher: I
39. Class: I
40. Teacher: L
41. Class: L
42. Teacher: K
43. Class: K
44. Teacher: I
45. Class: I
46. Teacher: N
47. Class: N
48. Teacher: G
49. Class: G
50. Teacher: Milking
51. Class: milking
52. Class: D
53. Class: I
54. Class: G
55. Class: G
56. Class: I
57. Class: N
58. Class: G
59. Teacher: Again
60. Class: digging
61. Teacher: Yes
62. Class: D
63. Class: I
64. Class: G
65. Class: G
66. Class: I
67. Class: N
68. Class: G
69. Teacher: Again
70. Class: D
71. Class: I
72. Class: G
73. Class: G
74. Class: I
75. Class: N
76. Class: G
77. Teacher: Vocabulary
78. Class: vocabulary
79. Teacher: Vocabulary
80. Class: vocabulary
81. Teacher: Vocabulary
82. Class: vocabulary
83. Teacher: Ngama gama avele nje azihlalele
84. apha entloko uya qaphela kuthiwe yi
85. vocabulary lama gama alapha ebalini
86. Teacher: Lama gama ngama gama alapha
87. ebalini esithi sizakuthi kengoku xana
88. sizo kufunda ibali siza kudibana nawo
89. Teacher: We start these are our vocabulary words
90. Teacher: We start with our vocabulary words
91. sight words
92. Teacher: Bench

93. Class: B
94. Class: E
95. Class: N
96. Class: C
97. Class: H
98. Teacher: Le group
99. Group: B
100. Group: E
101. Group: N
102. Group: C
103. Group: H
104. Teacher: Le group
105. Group: T
106. Group: R
107. Group: O
108. Group: U
109. Group: G
110. Group: H
111. Group: T
112. Group: R
113. Group: O
114. Group: U
115. Group: G
116. Group: H
117. Teacher: T
118. Teacher: R
119. Teacher: O
120. Teacher: U
121. Teacher: G
122. Teacher: H
123. Teacher: Trough
124. Teacher: That group
125. Group: holiday
126. Teacher: Yes
127. Group: H
128. Group: O
129. Group: L
130. Group: I
131. Group: D
132. Group: A
133. Group: Y
134. Group: holiday
135. Teacher: Holiday
136. Teacher: H
137. Group: H
138. Group: O
139. Group: L
140. Group: I
141. Group: D
142. Group: A
143. Group: Y
144. Group: S
145. Teacher: Holiday
146. Teacher: What is a holiday
147. Teacher: What do we mean when we say holiday
148. Teacher: Sithetha ukuthini
149. Teacher: Iholiday sithetha ukuthini
150. Teacher: Kuthiwani xana kusithiwa
151. holiday ngesi xhosa
152. Teacher: Holiday

153. Teacher: Holiday  
 154. Teacher: Holiday  
 155. Teacher: Yes boy  
 156. Learner: iholide  
 157. Teacher: Iholide  
 158. Teacher: sizaku tyelela eholidayini  
 159. kumakhulu efarmer  
 160. Teacher: sizaku tyelela ekapa  
 161. kumhlobo eholidayini  
 162. Teacher: sonke  
 163. class: visited  
 164. Teacher: sonke  
 165. class: visited  
 166. class: V  
 167. class: I  
 168. class: S  
 169. class: I  
 170. class: T  
 171. class: E  
 172. class: D  
 173. class: visited  
 174. Teacher: uthetha ukuthini uvisited  
 175. learner: ukuhambela  
 176. Teacher: ukuhambela thank you girl  
 177. thank you very much masimqwabele  
 178. class: grandmother  
 179. class: grandmother  
 180. class: G  
 181. class: R  
 182. class: A  
 183. class: N  
 184. class: D  
 185. class: M  
 186. class: O  
 187. class: T  
 188. class: H  
 189. class: E  
 190. class: R  
 191. class: grandmother  
 192. Teacher: grandmother  
 193. Teacher: uthetha ukuthini ugrandmother  
 194. Teacher: uthetha ukuthini ugrandmother  
 195. learner: umakhulu  
 196. Teacher: umakhulu  
 197. Teacher: umakhulu  
 198. Teacher: good  
 199. class: milk  
 200. Teacher: uthetha ukuuthini umilk  
 201. learner: milk  
 202. class: M  
 203. class: I  
 204. class: L  
 205. class: K  
 206. class: milk  
 207. Teacher: where do we get milk  
 208. Teacher: where do we get milk  
 209. Teacher: where do we get milk  
 210. Teacher: zukhanye  
 211. learner: milk we get from cows  
 212. Teacher: we get milk from cows

213. Teacher: where do we get milk  
 214. Class: we get milk from cows  
 215. Teacher: silufumanaphi ubisi  
 216. Class: ezinkomeni  
 217. Teacher: silufumana ubisi ezinkomeni  
 218. Teacher: jongani epicturen ubona ntoni epicturen  
 219. Learner: unomsa esenga inkomo  
 220. Teacher: what do you see in the picture  
 221. Teacher: unomsa wenza ntoni  
 222. class: usenga inkomo  
 223. Teacher: nomsa is milking the cows  
 224. Teacher: nomsa is milking the cows  
 225. Teacher: unomsa usenga inkomo  
 226. class: cows  
 227. class: cows  
 228. class: C  
 229. class: O  
 230. class: W  
 231. class: S  
 232. Teacher: sonke  
 233. class: C  
 234. class: O  
 235. class: W  
 236. class: S  
 237. Teacher: sonke  
 238. class: C  
 239. class: O  
 240. class: W  
 241. class: S  
 242. Teacher: what do we mean when we say cows?  
 243. Teacher: cows  
 244. Teacher: cows  
 245. Teacher: cows  
 246. Teacher: inkomo  
 247. Teacher: zikhona kokwabo niyayazi lonto  
 248. learner: yes  
 249. Teacher: niyayazi ukuba kokwabo zikhona  
 250. Teacher: simamkele's grandmother has got cows  
 251. but akazazi namhlanje inkomo ba zintoni  
 252. nha uzilibebe uzilibebe  
 253. class: rode  
 254. class: R  
 255. class: O  
 256. class: D  
 257. class: E  
 258. good  
 259. class: butter  
 260. Teacher: sonke  
 261. class: butter  
 262. class: B  
 263. class: U  
 264. class: T  
 265. class: T  
 266. class: E  
 267. class: R  
 268. class: butter  
 269. Teacher: again  
 270. class: B  
 271. class: U  
 272. class: T

273. class: T  
 274. class: E  
 275. class: R  
 276. class: butter  
 277. Teacher: sonke  
 278. class: butter  
 279. Teacher: thetha ukuthini uthetha ukuthini ubutter  
 280. Teacher: nzakhe ndini bone xana ibutter ningayazi  
 281. Teacher: ibutter xana ningayazi  
 282. Teacher: sikhosikho  
 283. Teacher: yhiii  
 284. learner: kukombhatha  
 285. Teacher: unyanisile  
 286. learners; no ma'am  
 287. Teacher: ithini ibutter kwathini  
 288. Teacher: what do I mean by butter?  
 289. learner: butternut  
 290. Teacher: butternut  
 291. Teacher: yes yes  
 292. Teacher: nantsika yolokazi  
 293. learner: kukutya kwenyosi  
 294. Teacher: kukutya kwenyosi butter  
 295. Teacher: butter  
 296. Learner: ibhabhathane  
 297. Teacher: butter  
 298. Teacher: butter  
 299. Teacher: butter  
 300. Teacher: yes  
 301. Learner: ubusi  
 302. Teacher: ubusi heee  
 303. Teacher: butter  
 304. Teacher: ibhotolo  
 305. Teacher: ibhotolo  
 306. Teacher: kaloku mamelani we get butter from the milk  
 307. Teacher: we get butter from the milk  
 308. Teacher: uyayiqaphela mtana wam  
 309. Teacher: siyifumana pha elubisini  
 310. Teacher: kubakho la cream ibapha ihlala apha  
 311. phezulu apha elubisisni  
 312. Teacher: zekengoku la cream bathi kengoku abantu  
 313. abane zinto ama farmer bayi jije bayi fanise bayi  
 314. lungise benze izinto benze icheese  
 315. Teacher: icheese iphuma phi elubisini emasini sifumane  
 316. amasi enkomeni sifumane ibhotolo sifumane icheese  
 317. enkomeni sifumane inyama  
 318. Teacher: we get meat from the cows  
 319. Teacher: we get milk from the cows  
 320. Teacher: we get cheese from the milk that milk is from the  
 321. cow uyayi qonda lanto  
 322. Teacher: ewe konke okakutya kumnandi esa sonka sakho  
 323. siphumaphi sine butter ibutter iphuma phi apha enkomeni phi  
 324. Teacher: apha enkomeni ok  
 325. Teacher: eggs  
 326. class: eggs  
 327. Teacher: eggs  
 328. class: eggs  
 329. class: E  
 330. class: G  
 331. class: G  
 332. class: S

333. Teacher: masiphinde  
 334. class: E  
 335. class: G  
 336. class: G  
 337. class: S  
 338. Teacher: where do we get eggs  
 339. Teacher: where do we get eggs  
 340. Teacher: where do we get eggs  
 341. class: me madam  
 342. Teacher: where do we get eggs  
 343. Teacher: where do we get eggs  
 344. learner: from the chicken  
 345. Teacher: yes  
 346. Teacher: from the chicken  
 347. Teacher: from the chicken  
 348. Teacher: from the chicken  
 349. Teacher: we get eggs from the chicken  
 350. Teacher: amaqanda siwa fumanaphi ezinkukwini  
 351. Teacher: amaqanda nangayana  
 352. Teacher: ok  
 353. class: hen  
 354. Teacher: sonke  
 355. class: hen  
 356. class: hen  
 357. class: hen  
 358. class: H  
 359. class: E  
 360. class: N  
 361. again  
 362. class: H  
 363. class: E  
 364. class: N  
 365. Teacher: sithe kanene ngenye imini ihen yintoni  
 366. learners: me madam  
 367. learner: yinkunzi ye nkukhu  
 368. Teacher: yinkunzi ye nkukhu  
 369. Teacher: yintoni  
 370. learning is fun English is fun English is fun  
 371. Teacher: isilungu simandi bantwana bam  
 372. let us enjoy English  
 373. Teacher: let us engage ourselves in English  
 374. Teacher: in what in English  
 375. class: in english  
 376. class: honey  
 377. class: honey  
 378. Teacher: spell  
 379. class: H  
 380. class: O  
 381. class: N  
 382. class: E  
 383. class: Y  
 384. Teacher: y  
 385. again  
 386. class: H  
 387. class: O  
 388. class: N  
 389. class: E  
 390. class: Y  
 391. Teacher: where do we get honey  
 392. yes anele

393. learner: ubusi  
 394. Teacher: good good boy masimqwabele  
 395. class: honey ubusi  
 396. Teacher: honey ubusi honey ubusi  
 397. class: honey ubusi  
 398. Teacher: where do we get honey  
 399. learners: me madam  
 400. Teacher: ubusi sulifumanaphi  
 401. Teacher: from the  
 402. Teacher: from the  
 403. Teacher: from the  
 404. class: bees  
 405. Teacher: let us construct sentence  
 406. Teacher: we get honey from the bees  
 407. Teacher: sifumana ubusi phi ezi nyosini  
 408. Teacher: silu fumanaphi ubusi ezinyosini  
 409. class: ezinyosini  
 410. class: ate  
 411. Teacher: ok again  
 412. class: ate  
 413. class: A  
 414. class: T  
 415. class: E  
 416. Teacher: will you construct a sentence for me  
 417. Teacher: yes  
 418. learner: me  
 419. Teacher: yes  
 420. Teacher: yes  
 421. Teacher: construct a sentence stand up stand up boy  
 422. learner: me ma'am  
 423. yes  
 424. learner: likho ate eggs  
 425. Teacher: listen  
 426. learner: likho ate eggs  
 427. Teacher: very good  
 428. Teacher: likho ate eggs  
 429. Teacher: ulikho utye amaqanda  
 430. class: amqanda  
 431. Teacher: ulikho utye amaqanda  
 432. class: utye amaqanda  
 433. Teacher: likho ate bacon and eggs  
 434. Teacher: utye ibacon and egg  
 435. Teacher: ulikho utye ntoni  
 436. Teacher: ibacon yintoni  
 437. Teacher: yilanyama ye hagu  
 438. Teacher: inyama e hagu nanaqanda  
 439. likho ate bacon and eggs ok  
 440. class: vegetables  
 441. Teacher: again  
 442. class: vegetables  
 443. Teacher: again  
 444. class: vegetables  
 445. Teacher: spell  
 446. class: V  
 447. class: E  
 448. class: G  
 449. class: E  
 450. class: T  
 451. class: A  
 452. class: B

453. class: L  
454. class: E  
455. class: S  
456. Teacher: again  
457. class: V  
458. class: vegetables  
459. class: E  
460. class: G  
461. class: E  
462. class: T  
463. class: A  
464. class: B  
465. class: L  
466. class: E  
467. class: S  
468. class: vegetables  
469. Teacher: hayibo  
470. Teacher: again  
471. class: V  
472. class: E  
473. class: G  
474. class: E  
475. class: T  
476. class: A  
477. class: B  
478. class: L  
479. class: E  
480. class: S  
481. class: vegetables  
482. Teacher: vegetables  
483. Teacher: where do we get vegetables  
484. Teacher: where do we get vegetables  
485. Teacher: yes zukhanye  
486. Teacher: yes zeze  
487. learner: spinach  
488. Teacher: where do we get vegetables  
489. Teacher: where do we get vegetables  
490. learner: vegetables we get from the garden  
491. Teacher: niyamva umihlali  
492. class: yes  
493. Teacher: enkosi bantwana bam  
494. Teacher: we get vegetables from the garden unyanisile  
495. Teacher: what kind of vegetables do we get from the garden  
496. Teacher: what kind of vegetable what kind what kind  
497. of vegetables do we get from the garden  
498. Teacher: what kind come come simfu come simfu mani  
499. Teacher: unyanisile kwi  
500. Teacher: yes  
501. Teacher: yes  
502. Teacher: yes  
503. Teacher: yes  
504. Teacher: yes  
505. Teacher: ngeyiphi imifuno esiyi fumana egadini  
506. Teacher: yes  
507. learner: spinach  
508. Teacher: yes  
509. learner: cabbage ma'am  
510. Teacher: ok ok  
511. Teacher: sonke  
512. Teacher: hayibo

- 513. class: garden
- 514. Teacher: again
- 515. class: garden
- 516. Teacher: again
- 517. class: garden
- 518. Teacher: spell
- 519. class: G
- 520. class: A
- 521. class: R
- 522. class: G
- 523. class: A
- 524. class: R
- 525. class: D
- 526. class: E
- 527. class: N
- 528. Teacher: again
- 529. class: G
- 530. class: A
- 531. class: R
- 532. class: D
- 533. class: E
- 534. class: N
- 535. Teacher: garden
- 536. class: garden
- 537. Teacher: garden
- 538. class: garden
- 539. Teacher: igadi
- 540. class: igadi
- 541. Teacher: igadi
- 542. class: igadi
- 543. class: drink
- 544. Teacher: drank
- 545. class: drank
- 546. Teacher: drank
- 547. class: drank
- 548. class: D
- 549. class: R
- 550. class: A
- 551. class: N
- 552. class: K
- 553. Teacher: again
- 554. class: D
- 555. class: R
- 556. class: A
- 557. class: N
- 558. class: K
- 559. Teacher: kalok udrank uyintoni
- 560. Teacher: uyintoni uyi past tense ka bani ka drink
- 561. Teacher: uyipast tense ka bani ka drink
- 562. Teacher: sela
- 563. class: som
- 564. Teacher: some
- 565. class: some
- 566. Teacher: some
- 567. class: some
- 568. class: S
- 569. class: O
- 570. class: M
- 571. class: E
- 572. Teacher: some

573. class: S  
 574. class: O  
 575. class: M  
 576. class: E  
 577. class: F  
 578. class: A  
 579. class: R  
 580. class: M  
 581. class: F  
 582. class: A  
 583. class: R  
 584. class: M  
 585. Teacher: what do you mean by farm?  
 586. Teacher: yes  
 587. learner: efama  
 588. Teacher: efama  
 589. Teacher: who lives in a farm in our story?  
 590. Teacher: who lives in a farm  
 591. Teacher: yes  
 592. learner: ngu maka nomsa ma'am  
 593. Teacher: speak English  
 594. Teacher: will you speak English  
 595. Teacher: yes  
 596. learner: nomsa her grandmother lives on a farm?  
 597. Teacher: good  
 598. Teacher: uyalifunda ibali  
 599. Teacher: nomsa's grandmother lives on a farm  
 600. class: granny  
 601. Teacher: kholekile silapha kwedini  
 602. Class: granny  
 603. Teacher: kholekile silapha kwedini  
 604. class: granny  
 605. Teacher: ok stand up every body  
 606. Teacher: ok sit down  
 607. Teacher: lift up your hands stand up  
 608. Teacher: sit down  
 609. Teacher: are you tired now  
 610. Teacher: ok let us read our story  
 611. Teacher: in the holidays nomsa visited her grandmother  
 612. Teacher: what we did on the farm  
 613. Teacher: in the holidays kholekile khawu  
 614. concentrate jonga ecwadini  
 615. Teacher: what we did on the farm  
 616. Teacher: in the holidays nomsa visited her granny  
 617. her granny lives on a farm every morning when nomsa  
 618. woke up she milked the cows her grandmother made  
 butter from the milk she rode on the tractor

### BETTY TYPICAL LESSON

- 128 teacher: ok class good morning class
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- 129 class: good morning teacher  
 130 teacher: good morning class  
 131 class: good morning teacher  
 132 teacher: good morning class
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133 class: good morning teacher  
134 teacher: how are you class  
135 class: we are very well thank you teacher  
136 teacher: thank not tank you, not tank you  
137 teacher: how are you class  
138 class: we are very well thank you teacher and how are you  
139 teacher: im very well sit down class  
140 class: we are sitting down  
141 teacher: ohk take out your English book  
142 teacher; we say that we are very, cant you clean the board cant you clean  
143 teacher; we say that we are very well not were the others say we are very were not well  
144 teacher: very well heee class  
145 teacher: very  
146 class: very well  
147 teacher: very  
148 class; very well  
149 teacher: yes very well  
150 teacher: in xhosa siright unjani wena teacher nhe ohk  
151 teacher: lets turn to page turn to page turn to page turn to  
152 page 6  
153 teacher: ohk in page 6 our comprehension for today is said what  
154 we did on the farm nhe  
155 class; yes  
156 teacher: what we did on the farm  
157 teacher: do we know the farm class  
158 teacher; siyayazi ifama  
159 class: yes  
160 teacher: what are we going to do at farm?  
161 teacher: what are we doing at farm  
162 teacher: don't concentrate to this teacher concentrate at your  
163 book look at your book please look at your book  
164 teacher: what are we doing on the farm  
165 teacher: class  
166 teacher: efama kwenzwani  
167 learner: kuyoluswa  
168 teacher: heee heee  
169 teacher: kuyoluswa  
170 teacher: kwenzwani efama bethuna  
171 teacher: efama efama  
172 learner: kuyoluswa  
173 teacher: hee hehe kuyoluswa  
174 teacher: yes  
175 teacher: on the farm there are some cows there are some errr  
176 take out your tshepisi please  
177 teacher: take out your tshepisi  
178 teacher: read this book which book is this

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179 learner: thina  
180 teacher: heee thina  
181 teacher: ohk take this book turn to page 6  
182 teacher: at farm on the farm there are some cows nhe  
183 teacher: on the farm there are some cows look at the picture  
184 teacher: look at the picture everybody look at the picture  
185 teacher: do you want a book a book  
186 jabulani: hayi no  
187 teacher: there are some tractors on the farm there are some peas  
188 teacher: there are some some some some herbs nhe  
189 class: yes  
190 teacher: nhe yes  
191 teacher: now im going to read and read this book and  
192 comprehension after me nhe  
193 class: yes  
194 teacher: ohk  
195 teacher: our comprehension what we did on the farm  
196 teacher: senza ntoni efama siya xeletwa bana senza ntoni efama nhe  
197 class: yes  
198 teacher: nhe class  
199 class: yes  
200 teacher: in the holidays nomsa visited her granny  
201 teacher: look at your book please look at your book look at your  
202 book  
203 teacher: in the holidays nomsa visited her granny nhe  
204 class: yes  
205 teacher: her granny lived on a farm every morning when nomsa  
206 woke up she milked the cows  
207 teacher: look at your book liyema please  
208 teacher: her grandmother made butter from the milk nhe  
209 class: yes  
210 teacher: she rode on the tractor nomsa ate eggs from the hens  
211 and honey from the bees nhe  
212 teacher: makulunge where is your book look to maliviwe's book  
213 please  
214 teacher: at night she ate vegetables from the garden and then  
215 she drank some milk from the cows nhe  
216 class: yes  
217 teacher: im going to read again after ive read kukho umtu  
218 ozophakama apha andibalise ba kuthiwani apha  
219 teacher: nimyeke utishara lowa sense ingathi asimboni niyeva  
220 emveni ukuba ndifundile nizakundi cacisela ba nive ntoni apha  
221 kule ncwadi kwe story noba umtu uve into encinci athi ba kuthiwa  
222 kuthiwa  
223 teacher: what we did on the farm  
224 teacher: in the holidays nomsa visited her granny her granny

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225 lived on a farm every morning when nomsa woke she milked the  
226 cows her grandmother made butter from the milk she rode on the  
227 tractor nomsa ate eggs from the hens and honey from the bees nhe  
228 class: yes  
229 teacher: at night she ate vegetables from the garden and then  
230 she drank some milk from the cows  
231 teacher: who can tell me what is this story about kuthiwani apha  
232 teacher: what this story about class?  
233 teacher: umtu aphakame athi uve ngesixhos sorry jabulane we  
234 going to mix with isiXhosa  
235 jabulani: jha its ohk  
236 teacher: umtu aphakame atsho ba uve ntoni nha athi ndive lento  
237 hayi ndive lento  
238 teacher: kuthiwani apha kweli bali  
239 teacher: apha sibaliselwa ngokuba kwenziwani efama  
240 teacher: as I asked first of all what we did in the farm  
241 teacher: apha sibaliselwa ngokuba kwenziwa ntoni efama  
242 teacher: kuthiwa kwenziwani ke fama what we did on the farm  
243 kuthiwa kwenzwani  
244 learner: kuya linywa  
245 teacher: we plant on the farm yes kuya linywa  
246 teacher: what else we did on the farm  
247 learner: kuya sengwa  
248 teacher: uyasengwa look at your picture zonke ezi question  
249 ndiku buza zona naziyana zipha kula picture yonke lento ndiyi  
250 buzayo is what is explained at your picture  
251 teacher: what we did on the farm  
252 learner: kuya tyalwa  
253 teacher: yes  
254 teacher: we plant on the farm what else  
255 learner: kufuyiwe  
256 teacher: kufuyiwe because there are some cows, hens, pigs  
257 teacher: yes what else what we did on the farm  
258 teacher: what we did on the farm sinazo  
259 teacher: what we did on the farm  
260 teacher: hlumelokazi  
261 teacher: simangi  
262 learner: kuya setyenzwa  
263 teacher: ewe they are working because they are milking the cows  
264 teacher: what is the mother doing in that  
265 teacher: what is mother doing? they are sitting on a bench and  
266 they are peeling some umbhona  
267 teacher: what else we did on the farm yintoni enye esiyenzayo  
268 efama  
269 learner: siyolusa  
270 teacher: kuyoluswa yes kuyo luswa

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271 teacher: what the tractor do on the farm  
272 learner: is ploughing  
273 teacher: yes the tractor is ploughing on the farm  
274 teacher: what else? what else?  
275 teacher: yes mmmm  
276 learner: kuya fidwa  
277 teacher: hee kuya fiwa  
278 teacher: this boy says they are dying  
279 jabula: isn't he saying fielder  
280 teacher: heee kuya fidwa  
281 teacher: the mother is feeding the hens because they look at  
282 that mother jabulani they are feeding mother is feeding these  
283 hens  
284 jabulani: jha  
285 teacher: this guy says mother is feeding  
286 jabulani: this one is clever  
287 teacher: this one is clever over  
288 teacher: what else what else what else that we did on the farm  
289 teacher: kufuyiwe sitsho moss anhe there are some pigs, hens,  
290 cows and they are ploughing nhe  
291 class: yes  
292 teacher: now we are going to read after me  
293 class: yes  
294 teacher: niza kufunda emveni kuba ndifundile  
295 teacher: what we did on the farm  
296 teacher: funda  
297 teacher: what we did on the farm read the topic please what we  
298 did  
299 class: what we did on the farm  
300 teacher: yes in the holidays nomsa visited her granny  
301 class: in the holidays nomsa visited here granny  
302 teacher: her granny  
303 class: her granny  
304 teacher: her granny lives on a farm  
305 class: her granny lives on a farm  
306 teacher: class all the class must read please  
307 teacher: her granny lives on a farm  
308 class: her granny lives on a farm  
309 teacher: every morning when nomsa woke up  
310 class: every morning when nomsa woke up  
311 teacher: she milked the cows  
312 class: she milked the cows  
313 teacher: she milked the cows  
314 class: she milked the cows  
315 teacher: her grandmother made butter from the milk  
316 class: her grandmother made butter from the milk

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317 teacher: she rode on the tractor  
318 class: she rode on the tractor  
319 teacher: nomsa ate eggs from the hens  
320 class: nomsa ate eggs from the hens  
321 teacher: and honey from the bees  
322 class: and honey from the bees  
323 teacher: who can tell me what is honey in xhosa what is honey in  
324 xhosa what is honey le isuka ezinyosini lanto ityiwayo iphuma  
325 ezinyosini  
326 class: ngama caca  
327 teacher: mmmm heee macaca  
328 teacher: hayi thina sithi lubusi luubusi thini andiyazi lento  
329 niyithethayo mna thina sithi lubusi  
330 teacher: ohk at night she ate vegetables from the garden  
331 class: at night she and  
332 teacher: she ate at night she ate vegetables from the garden  
333 teacher: at night  
334 class: at night she ate vegetables from the garden  
335 teacher: and then she drank some milk from the cows  
336 class: she drank  
337 teacher: and then  
338 class: and then she drank some milk from the cows  
339 teacher: ohk we are going to read again  
340 teacher: listen watch the words listen to the words please

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#### GLADYS TYPICAL LESSON

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1 Teacher: Can you stand class?  
2 Class: Yes Miss Solwandle I can stand up  
3 Teacher: Get ready so you can stand up other side the the the by the wall nhe  
4 Teacher: No no no don't touch  
5 Teacher: Come this side, come this side and stand here  
6 Class: Open the window  
7 Teacher: Yes  
8 Teacher: You are so clever maan  
9 Teacher: Will you do me something ?  
10 Class: Yes teacher  
11 Teacher: Getting ready for school  
12 Class: Getting Ready for school I'm washing my face and brushing my teeth my uniform is neat  
13 And my clothes underneath my shoes have been cleaned, my socks washed and  
14 dried. My books are all ready and my lunch neatly tied. The school bell is ringing to  
15 call us to school. We mustn't be late for that is a rule. So hurry get ready walk fast.  
16 Out to the road. For teacher is ready with work on the board.  
17 Teacher: Again for the last time  
18 Class: Get ready for school. I'm washing my face and brushing my teeth my uniform is

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	neat	
19		And my clothes underneath my shoes have been cleaned my socks washing and
	dried	
20		My books are all ready and my lunch neatly tied. The school bell is ringing to call
	us to	
21		school. We mustn't be late for that is the rule. So hurry get ready get ready walk
	fast	
22		Out to the road. For teacher is ready with work on the board.
23	Teacher:	Learners you are so super can you go back to your place and sit down
24	Class:	Yes Mrs Solwandle we are sitting down.
25	Teacher:	Ok Sive can please hand out the English books no not this one the red ones
26	Teacher:	Ok put the rulers down we not gonna use them now
27	Teacher:	Ok can we sort our books with making a noise
28	Teacher:	Wait for your book when you receive your book please turn to page
29	Learber:	Page 14
30	Teacher:	is it page 14
31	Class:	No
32	Teacher:	No it's not page 14 turn to page 20
33	Teacher:	Page 20
34	Teacher:	Page 2
35	Teacher:	Did you turn to page 20 nhe?
36	Class:	Yes
37	Teacher:	Page 20 nhe
38	Class:	Yes teacher
39	Teacher:	Right, what do you see to the picture there, what do you see to the picture there?
40	Teacher:	A what?
41	Class:	Cat
42	Teacher:	Yes, how many cats are there?
43	Class:	2
44	Teacher:	2 cats
45	Teacher:	Listen when it is 1 you say cat when the cats are 2 you say cats
46	Class:	Cats
47	Teacher:	A what?
48	Class:	Cats
49	Teacher:	Cats nhe?
50	Teacher:	Hhee ?
51	Class:	Cats
52	Teacher:	Right. What else do you see in the picture?
53	Class:	Teeth
54	Teacher:	Hhee?
55	Class:	Teeth
56	Teacher:	How many teeth?
57	Class:	One
58	Teacher:	One. It is one what do we say?
59	Class:	Teeth
60	Teacher:	No! No! No!
61	Class:	Tooth
62	Teacher:	A what?
63	Class:	Tooth

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64	Teacher:	Hhee?
65	Class:	Tooth
66	Teacher:	Very good 1 tooth 2 teeth
67	Teacher:	I wrote it on the board Friday you don't remember
68	Teacher:	I said to you if it is 1 teeth what do we say?
69	Teacher:	Tooth
70	Learner:	Tooth
71	Teacher:	Tooth
72	Teacher:	When the teeth are 2 what do we call them?
73	Teacher:	What do we say? What do we say?
74	Class:	Tooth
75	Teacher:	You lying
76	Class:	Teeth
77	Teacher:	Teeth. Very good teeth
78	Teacher:	We said it here 1 tooth, 2 teeth
79	Teacher:	This is 1 tooth 2 teeth nhe
80	Class:	Yes teacher
81	Teacher:	Nhe?
82	Class:	Yes ma'am
83	Teacher:	What else do you see in the picture?
84	Teacher:	What else do you see In the picture
85	Class:	A boy
86	Teacher:	A what?
87	Class:	A boy
88	Teacher:	How many boys do you see?
89	Class:	1
90	Teacher:	1
91	Class:	1 boy
92	Teacher:	1 boy
93	Teacher:	The boy. How many boys now?
94	Class:	2
95	Class:	2 boys
96	Teacher:	Hhee
97	Class:	2 boys
98	Teacher:	What did we say at first?
99	Class:	1 boy
100	Teacher:	1 boy
101	Teacher:	Then where are the boys?
102	Class:	2 boys
103	Teacher:	2 boys. Very good, very good
104	Teacher:	That's it. where are we?
105	Class:	Foot
106	Class:	Foot
107	Teacher:	Hhe?
108	Class:	Foot
109	Teacher:	What is this?
110	Class:	Foot
111	Teacher:	A what?

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112	Class:	Foot
113	Teacher:	Foot
114	Class:	Foot
115	Teacher:	Foot nhe?
116	Class:	Yes teacher
117	Teacher:	Then?
118	Class:	Feet
119	Teacher:	You are so clever maarn
120	Class:	Yes
121	Teacher:	Ok! Ok. What you say? What you say?
122	Class:	Feet
123	Teacher:	Feet
124	Teacher:	1 foot 2 feet
125	Class:	1 foot 2 feet
126	Teacher:	What?
127	Class:	1 foot 2 feet
128	Teacher:	You see?
129	Class:	Yes
130	Teacher:	Hhee ?
131	Class:	Yes Mrs Solwandle
132	Teacher:	Right let's read under the pictures there.
133	Teacher:	Cat
134	Class:	Cat
135	Teacher:	The following one is cats
136	Class:	Cats
137	Teacher:	The first one is cat isn't it?
138	Class:	Yes ma'am
139	Teacher:	The following one, what do we call it?
140	Class:	Cats
141	Teacher:	Go to the next one
142	Class:	Tooth, teeth
143	Teacher:	Teeth good, go to the following one
144	Class:	Boy, Boys
145	Teacher:	Go to the following one
146	Class:	Foot, Feet
147	Teacher:	You see
148	Class:	Yes Mrs Solwandle
149	Teacher:	Ok let's go to the ring+ g it's a ring nhe?
150	Class:	Yes
151	Teacher:	I'm going to write, we are going to write now, we are going to write now.
152	Teacher:	Ok ok. Can you please remind me who came here and gave me R50
153	Teacher:	Hhee
154	Teacher:	There is a parent who came here Friday and gave me R50. Whose parent was that?
155	Learner:	It's Iviwe parent
156	Teacher:	Hhee?
157	Learner:	It's Iviwe parent, Iviwe is raising a hand
158	Teacher:	Was it Friday? No! No! No!
159	Teacher:	This one, I remember now she gave R50 and I was standing here. It's

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160		ngxakaza please
161		Ngxakaza remind me after I finish here
162	Teacher:	We are going to match the names. Example it's ring Ri+ng=
163	Class	Ring
164	Teacher:	Ring, do you know a ring what is a ring?
165	Class:	It's a ring
166	Teacher:	Hhee
167	Class:	It's a ring
168	Teacher:	Can you please show the ring
169	Class:	There is no ring
170	Teacher:	You don't see a ring inside the class?
171	Teacher:	Ok very good yes there is a ring in this picture, very good it's a ring ok.
172	Teacher:	Ok ok ok you must write it down. We are going to start writing now.
173	Teacher:	Im going to give you 5 minutes to do this.
174	Teacher:	Ri+ng it's ring
175	Teacher:	I+nk what is the word, ok start writing mandilakhe, start writing
176		mandilakhe,start writing
177		Mandilakhe
178	Learner:	Teacher we must answer all the questions
179	Teacher:	Yes must you answer all of them, all of the question mandilakhe
180	Teacher:	You are writing stop making noise. I will give you some hiding luthando can you please ...
181	Teacher:	Let me have a look. Are the books I gave you the same? No no no they are not,
182		These ones are not the same like these ones.
183	Teacher:	Please you must pay attention, somebody must help me, somebody must help me
184	Teacher:	Can we please pay attention to each other, listen can you please keep quiet
185		especially
186		the ones who are writing nhe
187	Class:	Yes
188	Teacher:	We are busy with this group, let's turn to page 11, let's turn to page 11. You
189		don't have
190		A book?
191	Teacher:	Turn to page 11, turn to page 11, turn to page 11. What do you see in the
192		picture?
193	Teacher:	Can me show me tell me what do you see in the picture. Page 11 page 11, page
194		11 What do you see in the picture?
195	Teacher:	In the picture I see?
196	Learner:	In the picture I see a girl
197	Teacher:	Very good in the picture I see a girl.
198	Teacher:	What else do you see in the picture?
199	Learner:	Brush
200	Teacher:	A what?
201	Teacher:	Brush. very good in the picture I see brush.
202	Teacher:	What else do you see in the picture? Mandilakhe less noise there. less noise
203	Learner:	A mirror
204	Teacher:	A what?
205	Learner:	A mirror
206	Teacher:	A mirror

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207	Teacher:	What is it? It's a mirror
208	Class:	It's a mirror
209	Teacher:	In the picture I see a mirror
210	Teacher:	What else do you see in the picture? What else do you see in the picture?
211	Learner:	Dress
212	Teacher:	A what?
213	Teacher:	A dress
214	Teacher:	A what?
215	Class:	A dress
216	Teacher:	Very good
217	Teacher:	What else do you see in the picture?
218	Learner:	Hair
219	Teacher:	Yes very good in the picture I see hair
220	Teacher:	What else do you see in the picture?
221	Learner:	Tables
222	Teacher:	Tables very good very good. Table
223	Teacher:	What else do you see in the picture? Can you turn to page 12 turn to page 12,
224		Turn to page 12. Hhaa there is another picture there.
225	Teacher:	What do you see in the picture now?
226	Learner:	Girl
227	Teacher:	A girl. Good, a girl. Good
228	Teacher:	What else do you see in the picture?
229	Learner:	Flowers
230	Teacher:	Flowers very good
231	Teacher:	What else do you see in the picture?
232	Learner:	Tree
233	Teacher:	Tree
234	Teacher:	A what?
235	Class:	Tree
236	Teacher:	Very good
237	Teacher:	What else do you see in the picture?
238	Learner:	Shoes
239	Teacher:	Shoes
240	Teacher:	You are fantastic, you are fantastic. What else?
241	Learner:	A dress
242	Teacher:	A dress
243	Teacher:	Ok let's turn to page 11 again, let's turn to page 11 and listen carefully. I'm gonna
244		read And you read after me. Ok!
245	Class:	Yes teacher
246	Teacher:	I have happy face
247	Class:	I have happy face
248	Teacher:	Let us start again
249	Teacher:	I have a happy face
250	Class:	I have a happy face
251	Teacher:	The second line
252	Teacher:	And lot's of hair
253	Class:	And lot's of hair
254	Teacher:	The third row

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255	Teacher:	Two eyes to see the clothes I wear
256	Class:	Two eyes to see the clothes I wear
257	Teacher:	Let's turn to page 12, let's turn to page 12
258	Teacher:	Learners! Learners! Stop! Stop making noise
259	Teacher:	Ok what are we saying?
260	Teacher:	Don't make noise
261	Class:	Yes teacher
262	Teacher:	No no I'm not talking to you, I'm talking to the ones that are reading.
263	Teacher:	Keep writing what you writing. Do you understand me.
264	Class:	Yes
265	Teacher:	Or keep on reading other stories
266	Learner:	Sorry teacher can we write this?
267	Teacher:	Yes you write
268	Teacher:	Listen let's turn to page to page 12 nhe
269	Class:	Yes
270	Teacher:	You will read after me again
271	Teacher:	I have one nose
272	Class:	I have one nose
273	Teacher:	Let's read the second line
274	Teacher:	I have two ears
275	Class:	I have two ears
276	Teacher:	The third line
277	Teacher:	With one I smell
278	Class:	With one I smell
279	Teacher:	With two hear
280	Class:	With two hear
281	Teacher:	Let's go to page 13, page 13
282	Teacher:	My two strong legs
283	Class:	My two strong legs
284	Teacher:	And two big feet
285	Class:	And two big feet
286	Teacher:	Keep fit by running down the street
287	Class:	Keep fit by running down the street
288	Teacher:	The street not the feet ok
289	Teacher:	Let's go back to page 11, page 11 can you read for me while I'm listening
290	Teacher:	Can you?
291	Class:	Yes teacher
292	Teacher:	Try try
293	Class:	I have a happy face
294	Teacher:	Very good my girl next and let's all read
295	Learner:	And lot's of hair
296	Teacher:	Very good third row
297	Class:	Two ears
298	Teacher:	Two eyes
299	Class:	Two eyes to see the clothes I wear
300	Teacher:	I ware
301	Teacher:	Let's all read that line again for the last time
302	Teacher:	Two eyes to see the clothes I wear

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303	Class:	Two eyes to see the clothes I wear
304	Teacher:	Nhe?
305	Class:	Yes
306	Teacher:	Let's go to page 12, page12, page 12
307	Teacher:	Let's go, I have...
308	Class:	I have one nose
309	Teacher:	Good
310	Class:	I have two ears
311	Teacher:	Good
312	Teacher:	With
313	Class:	With one I
314	Teacher:	Listen listen with one I smell say
315	Class:	With one I smell
316	Teacher:	With one I hear
317	Class:	With one I hear
318	Teacher:	Mmm
319	Class:	With two I hear
320	Teacher:	Go on read and you, you must keep on writing because you were not finished
321	Teacher:	You are not finish nhe?
322	Class:	Yes
323	Teacher:	Ok let's turn to page 11. You you did not finish writing you must keep on
324		writing
325		You, you must keep on reading.
326	Teacher:	Page 11 nhe, page 11, page 11. Right
327	Teacher:	I love my body
328	Class;	I love my body
329	Teacher:	Keep on writing
330	Teacher:	Let's go
331	Teacher:	What do you see in the picture? I'm asking here. are you still writing? The
332		reason why I'm asking it's because you are talking.
333	Teacher:	Ok what do you see in the picture?
334	Learner:	Hair
335	Teacher:	What else?
336	Learner:	Girl
337	Teacher:	Girl
338	Teacher:	What else?
339	Learner:	A ball
340	Teacher:	Where is the ball?
341	Teacher:	Look at this page not that one
342	Teacher:	What else do you see? Nwabisa, simnikiwe
343	Learner:	Dress
344	Teacher:	A what:
345	Learner:	Dress
346	Teacher:	What else?
347	Teacher:	Do you see simnikiwe
348	Teacher:	A what?
349	Learner:	Mirror
350	Teacher:	Mirrior

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351	Teacher:	A what
352	Teacher:	Mirror
353	Class:	Mirror
354	Teacher:	Mirror good
355	Teacher:	What else do you see? what else do you see?
356	Teacher:	A what?
357	Learner:	Brush
358	Teacher:	Brush
359	Teacher:	Let me show you the one that I have it's big. A big big brush
360	Teacher:	Can you look at my picture ok
361	Teacher:	What else?
362	Learner:	A table
363	Teacher:	Do you see. A what?
364	Learner:	A girl
365	Teacher:	A girl
366	Teacher:	What else do you see?
367	Learner:	A dress
368	Teacher:	We already know about the dress
369	Teacher:	What is the girl doing here? can you tell me, can you tell me what is the girl doing
370	Teacher:	Hhee you can say it in Xhosa if you don't know what is called in English
371	Teacher:	Hhee?
372	Teacher:	Hhee?
373	Teacher:	She is dressing up her self hne she is dressing up her self nhe. You see
374	Leaner:	Yes
375	Teacher:	You said at the top I love my body, I love my body. You see.
376	Teacher:	What does that mean when you say you love your body
377	Teacher:	It means you love your body
378	Teacher:	Can you tell me something. When you said I love my body can you allow
379		anybody to Touch your body
380	Teacher:	Can you allow anybody to touch your body?
381	Teacher:	Can you? Can you?
382	Teacher:	No! no! because you love your body nhe? You can't allow anybody to do what?
383		Your what? Your body because you love your body okay,
384	Teacher:	Okay when it my happen somebody touch your body. What are you going to do?
385	Teacher:	What can you go you can do? When somebody or a stranger touch your body
386	Teacher:	What can you do?
387	Teacher:	Hhee
388	Teacher:	If somebody is touching you on your private part. What can you do?
389	Teacher:	What can you do?
390	Teacher:	The toilet paper is in the cupboard don't make mess.
391	Teacher:	Hhee? Nwabisa
392	Teacher:	She saying she will be dirty
393	Learner:	I will be dirty
394	Teacher:	Any one what else can you do? Siphokazi
395	Teacher:	Siphokazi is saying that she will go straight home and tell her parents
396	Teacher:	That is a wise thing to go and tell the parent that somebody touch my body. You see
397	Teacher:	That is very wise you you you siphokazi, that is very wise action to go and tell
398		parent that Somebody touched my body.

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399	Teacher:	You see, ok let's go to a. let's read now, let's read,let's read,let's read.
400	Teacher:	I've got this book can you read on this book
401	Teacher:	Can you? Or you will look at your book. Because the same it's the same.
402	Teacher:	Let's read

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### JANE TYPICAL LESSON

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1	Teacher:	There are children playing with a ball, there are children playing with a ball.
2	Teacher:	What else is it at the cover of my book?
3	Learner:	I see a dog that is barking
4	Teacher:	There is a dog that is barking
5	Teacher:	This is a ...
6	Class:	A dog
7	Teacher:	This is a dog and the dog is ....
8	Class:	Barking
9	Teacher:	What is the colour of my dog? What is the colour of my dog?
10	Learner:	Black
11	Teacher:	The colour of the dog is black let's all say the colour of the dog is black
12	Learner:	The colour of the dog is black
13	Teacher:	What else do you see at this cover? What else do you see at this cover?
14	Learner:	Sorry teacher I see pink
15	Teacher:	There are two huts
16	Teacher:	How many huts are there?
17	Class:	There are two huts
18	Teacher:	There are two huts, there are two huts
19	Teacher:	What colour is the wall of each huts?
20	Learner:	Brown
21	Teacher:	Yes there is a brown hut the wall of another huts is brown.
22	Teacher:	What is the colour of another one? there is brown huts
23	Learner:	A yellow hut
24	Teacher:	Yes, there is a yellow hut. There are two huts
25	Teacher:	There are two huts there is a hut with a brown wall there is a hut with
26		a yellow with a yellow wall
27	Teacher:	What else can you tell me about this cover?
28	Learner:	A sun
29	Teacher:	Yes there is a sun
30	Teacher:	What else what else is at this cover what else
31	Learner:	Sorry teacher there are flowers
32	Teacher:	There are flowers yes there are flowers
33	Teacher:	What else?
34	Learner:	A boy
35	Teacher:	When you answer me answer in English. You can say I see a boy I
36		see children playing with a ball.
38	Teacher:	What else do you see?
39	Learner:	A sky
40	Teacher:	Yes there is a sky look outside and see the sky that is the sky. What
41		is the colour of sky?
42	Learner:	it's white

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43 Teacher: The colour of the sky is not white

44 Teacher: What is the colour Afikile?

45 Learner: Blue

46 Teacher: The colour of the sky is blue

47 Teacher: What is the colour of the sky the colour of the sky is blue

48 Learner: The colour of the sky is blue

49 Teacher: The colour of the sky is blue, the colour of the sky is blue

50 Teacher: Ok! What is the name of my book? Look at the cover page of my book

51 Teacher: What is the name of my book?

52 Learner: English

53 Teacher: It's English, English big book 1 it's English big book and my book is from oxford look at

54 the word. My book is from oxford it's from oxford.

55 Teacher: Now let's open our book now let's open our book and I want you, look at this picture on

56 my right hand side and tell me what do you see look at the picture, look at the picture

57 Teacher: Bhekizulu

58 Teacher: I see children

59 Teacher: You can't say I see a children because this is one child you can say I see a child because you

60 Are talking about one child I see child yes there is a child this is a child this is a child.

61 Teacher: What else do you see?

62 Learner: A cow

63 Teacher: Yes, there are cows how many cows are there? Alizwa

64 Learner: Three teacher

65 Teacher: Yes the are three cows let's count them

66 Learner: 1,2, 3

67 Teacher: There are three cows

68 Teacher: I want you stand up because you can't see

69 Teacher: I want you to come closer come closer

70 Teacher: Yes, there are three cows

71 Teacher: What else is there? There are three cows these are the cows and what is colour of these

72 cows?

73 Learner: Sorry teacher brown

74 Teacher: Yes the colour of these cows are brown the cows are brown the colour of the cows is

75 Brown

76 Teacher: What else do you see?

77 Learner: I see water

78 Teacher: There is water but that water we are not going to say we said there is river this is a river

79 Learner: A river

80 Teacher: This is a river

81 Learner: A river

82 Teacher: It's water but this is a river there is a river here

83 Teacher: What else zanda

84 Learner: I see aaaa I see aaaa

85 Teacher: Don't laugh at her

86 Learner: I see a tree

87 Teacher: Yes there are trees. How many trees are there? Look at the trees yes the are trees the

88 Teacher: How many trees are there?

89 Learner: Two trees

90 Teacher: Yes there are two trees. Let's count them 1,2,3.

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91 Teacher: What else do you see?  
92 Learner: I see a father  
93 Teacher: No let's look at this one at this picture let's look at this one  
94 Learner: A mountain  
95 Teacher: Mmhh a mountain  
96 Teacher: What else sokhana?  
97 Learner: I see a house  
98 Teacher: Yes there's a house there  
99 Teacher: There we put a question mark  
100 Teacher: What is your name? what is your surname ?who is you mother?  
101 Teacher: Zanekhaya  
102 Teacher: Heeee  
103 Learner: where are you going  
104 Teacher: Where are you going  
105 Teacher: Where are you going that is question  
106 Teacher: Where are you going  
107 Teacher: Where are you going  
108 Teacher: Uyaphi  
109 Teacher: Where are you going  
110 Teacher: What is your name? Who is your mother? give me the last question  
111 Teacher: Emihle  
112 Learner: who is your father  
113 Teacher: Who is your father  
114 Teacher: Who is your father  
115 Teacher: Who is your father  
116 Teacher: And then we put a question mark  
117 Teacher: Then we put a question mark at the end of our sentence  
118 Teacher: We put a question mark at the end of our sentence  
119 Teacher: So you must know when asking a question you must put a question  
121 Teacher: Lets all say you put a question mark at the end of a sentence  
122 Class: you put a question mark at the end of a sentence  
123 Teacher: You put a question mark at the end of a sentence

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### **CHRISTINE TYPICAL LESSON**

1. Teacher: The opposite of full is empty  
2. Class: empty  
3. Teacher: Lets say so every body  
4. Teacher: The opposite of full is empty  
5. Class: the opposite of full is empty  
6. Teacher: The opposite of full is empty  
7. Class: empty  
8. Teacher: The opposite of full is empty  
9. Class: empty  
10. Teacher: The opposite of full is empty  
11. Teacher: Class: empty  
12. Teacher: This glass is full of water  
13. Teacher: This glass is full of water  
14. Class: full of water  
15. Teacher: This glass is full of water  
16. Class: full of water  
17. Teacher: This glass is full of water  
18. Class: is full of water

19. Teacher: Igcwela ngantoni ngamanzi  
 20. Class: ngamanzi  
 21. Teacher: Its full of water and this one is empty  
 22. Class: empty  
 23. Teacher: There is no water in here is  
 24. there water in here  
 25. Class: no  
 26. Teacher: There is no water in here  
 27. Teacher: As you can see as you can see  
 28. there is no water in the glass  
 29. Teacher: Can you see that there  
 30. is no water in the glass  
 31. Teacher: There is no water inside the glass  
 32. Teacher: Alright so we say full is  
 33. the opposite of empty  
 34. Class: empty  
 35. Teacher: We say full is the opposite of empty  
 36. Teacher: So athi come in front of the class  
 37. stand up and come in front of the class  
 38. Teacher: And sihle come in front of the class  
 39. Teacher: So who can tell me the difference  
 40. between athi and sihle  
 41. Teacher: Who can tell me the difference  
 42. between athi and sihle  
 43. Teacher: Yes this is a girl and boy the difference  
 44. is this is a girl and a boy  
 45. Teacher: That is correct this is a girl and this is a boy  
 46. Class: boy  
 47. Teacher: What else can you tell me about this two  
 48. Teacher: Yes I had that this is a girl and this is a boy  
 49. Teacher: What else can you tell me about this two  
 50. Teacher: Look at them look at them don't look at  
 51. me don't look at me look at them  
 52. Teacher: What is the difference  
 53. Teacher: This one is taller than athi  
 54. Teacher: This one is tall  
 55. Teacher: When we say this one is taller  
 56. sithetha ukuthini ngesi xhosa  
 57. Learner: umde  
 58. Class: umde  
 59. Teacher: Utheni usihle  
 60. Teacher: Sihle is tall  
 61. Teacher: Sihle is tall say so  
 62. Class: sihle is tall  
 63. Teacher: Sihle is tall  
 64. Teacher: Sihle is tall  
 65. Teacher: Sihle is tall  
 66. Teacher: The boy sihle is tall  
 67. Teacher: And this one is short  
 68. Teacher: Athi is short  
 69. Teacher: So the difference between athi and sihle  
 70. is that sihle is tall and athi is short  
 71. Teacher: Athi is short and sihle is tall  
 72. Teacher: So the opposite of tall is short  
 73. Class: short  
 74. Teacher: The opposite of tall is short  
 75. Class: short  
 76. Teacher: Sihle is tall he is tall  
 77. Teacher: We say he is tall because he is a boy  
 78. Class: boy

79. Teacher: We use the word he because he is a boy  
80. Class: boy  
81. Teacher: And this one is a girl so we use she  
82. Class: she  
83. Teacher: She is tall I mean she is short  
84. and this one is tall  
85. Teacher: So the opposite of tall is short  
86. Class: short  
87. Teacher: The opposite of tall is short  
88. Class: short  
89. Teacher: The opposite of tall is short  
90. so sihle is taller than athi  
91. Teacher: Athi is short  
92. Class: short  
93. Teacher: Athi is short  
94. Teacher: And sihle is tall  
95. Teacher: Sit down  
96. Teacher: So we say the opposite of tall is short  
97. Class: short  
98. Teacher: The opposite of tall is short  
99. Class: short  
100. Teacher: The opposite of tall is short  
101. Teacher: Sihle is tall and athi is short  
102. Teacher: Athi is short and sihle is tall  
103. Teacher: Do you get that do you get me so  
104. sihle is tall and athi is short  
105. Teacher: The opposite of tall again is short  
106. Teacher: Lets all talk together the opposite of tall is short  
107. Class: is short  
108. Teacher: Lets talk together the opposite of tall is short  
109. Teacher: The opposite of tall is short  
110. Class: short  
111. Teacher: Ok now we have these books who can  
112. come and lift for me these books  
113. Teacher: Who can come forward and lift up these books  
114. Teacher: Who can come thandokazi come forward  
115. come forward thandokazi  
116. Teacher: Lift these books put them down again  
117. and take these books  
118. Teacher: So what is the difference between  
119. these books thandokazi  
120. Teacher: In your own language what can you tell  
121. me in your own language in your home language xhosa  
122. Teacher: Ngesi xhosa ungathi zitheni ezincwadi  
123. Speak up when you speak you must speak up  
124. Teacher: Yintoni umahluko phakathi kwezincwadi  
125. nazi incwadi ubusi phakamisile  
126. Teacher: What is the difference yintoni umahluko  
127. Teacher: Zohluke kanjani  
128. Learner: : Utsho ba zincinci these are many and these are  
129. Class: small  
130. Teacher: No they are not small  
131. ezi zinintsi ezi zincinci  
132. Teacher  
133. Teacher: These are many and these are few  
134. Teacher: What else is the difference  
135. Teacher: Xana uziphakamisa zinjani ezi nei uyazi phakamisa  
136. Teacher: You lift them up again  
137. Teacher: Sinomthandazo come forward  
138. Teacher: sit down

139. Teacher: lift these books up
140. Teacher: put them down and take these one
141. Teacher: yintoni umahluko nomthandazo
142. kwezi ncwadi nezi
143. Teacher: what is the difference between these books?
144. learner: miss ezi zinzima ezi zinintsi
145. Teacher: yes these are heavy these books are heavy
146. and when you take them uyayiva ba heavy
147. Teacher: these books are heavy and these are light
148. Teacher: these books are heavy
149. Teacher: come and see the difference come and lift
150. these books these books are heavy and these are light
151. Teacher: take the books take the books lift them put
152. them down and take these ones put them down again
153. Teacher: come and lift these books
154. Teacher: I want you to see the difference
155. Teacher: I want you to see the difference between
156. these books put them down
157. Teacher: Lift these again put them down again
158. Teacher: Come and lift these books
159. Teacher: Come forward and lift these books
160. Teacher: Sit down sit down
161. Teacher: Sokhana come forward
162. Teacher: Sit down
163. Teacher: These books are heavy these
164. books are heavy
165. Class: heavy
166. Teacher: Zitheni zinzima
167. Class: zinzima
168. Teacher: These books are heavy and
169. this is the word heavy sit down
170. Teacher: And this is the word heavy
171. Teacher: This is the word heavy
172. Teacher: Before we are saying
173. these books are heavy
174. Teacher: These books are heavy
175. Teacher: These are heavy
176. Teacher: Than these
177. Teacher: These are light
178. Teacher: Zilula zona they are light
179. Teacher: Something that is light yinto
180. elula ngokuyi phakamisa
181. Teacher: Something that is light is something
182. that is not heavy
183. Teacher: This is light this is light and this is light
184. Teacher: Ilula its light
185. Teacher: These books are light and these are heavy
186. Teacher: These are heavy
187. Teacher: Everybody speak these books are heavy
188. Class: heavy
189. Teacher: These books are heavy
190. Class: heavy
191. Teacher: You can look at me when I lift them up
192. Teacher: Look at my arm uyayibona ingalo
193. yam igobile apha
194. Class: yes
195. Teacher: but ezi ndiziphakamisa nje lula
196. Teacher: Look at the difference look at my arm
197. Teacher: Look at my arm these are heavy and
198. these are light these are light and these books are heavy

199. Teacher: Zitheni  
 200. Class: zinzima  
 201. Teacher: zinzima siyevana ezi  
 202. Teacher: Zinzima ezi and ezi zitheni  
 203. Class: zilula  
 204. Teacher: zilula  
 205. Teacher: So we say these books are heavy  
 206. Teacher: The difference between the books is  
 207. the other books are heavy and there others are light  
 208. Class: light  
 209. Teacher: So the opposite of the word heavy is light  
 210. Class: light  
 211. Teacher: The opposite of the word heavy is light  
 212. Class: light  
 213. Teacher: The opposite of the word heavy is light  
 214. Class: light  
 215. Teacher: The opposite of the word heavy is light  
 216. Class: light  
 217. The opposite of heavy is light  
 218. Class: light  
 219. Teacher: Who can tell me what are these  
 220. Teacher: What is this  
 221. Teacher: What is this  
 222. Teacher: This is a mop  
 223. Teacher: What is this  
 224. Class: this is a mop  
 225. Teacher: That is a mop because I am lifting it so you  
 226. say that because its not nearer you its near me  
 227. Teacher: So we say that is a mop  
 228. Class: that is a mop  
 229. Teacher: Because I am holding it I say this is a mop  
 230. Teacher: This is a mop  
 231. Teacher: What is this class  
 232. Class: that is  
 233. Teacher: That  
 234. Class: that is a mop  
 235. Teacher: What is  
 236. Teacher: This is a mop  
 237. Teacher: What is this class  
 238. Class: that is a mop  
 239. Teacher: Yes because it is not near you it near me  
 240. so I use this cause I holding it and the mop  
 241. is far away from you  
 242. Teacher: That is why you we use the word that  
 243. Teacher: That is a you use and you must point  
 244. that is a mop point at the mop  
 245. Class: that is a mop  
 246. Teacher: What is this class  
 247. Class: that is a mop  
 248. Teacher: What is this class  
 249. Teacher: So I have these two mops  
 250. Teacher: Who can tell me the difference  
 251. between these two mops  
 252. Teacher: Who can tell the difference yintoni  
 253. umahluko phakathi kwezi mop zombini  
 254. Teacher: What is the difference  
 255. Ncebakazi  
 256. Learner: enye iclaen  
 257. Teacher: This mop from my right hand  
 258. is clean this one is clean

259. Teacher: This mop is clean  
 260. Teacher: this one is clean  
 261. class: clean  
 262. Teacher: This mop is clean  
 263. Class: clean  
 264. Teacher: Look at it  
 265. Teacher: Look at it  
 266. Teacher: It is clean  
 267. Teacher: It is clean this mop is clean  
 268. Teacher: This mop is clean  
 269. Class: clean  
 270. Teacher: What about this one  
 271. Teacher: What about this one  
 272. Teacher: What about this one look at this one  
 273. Teacher: Look at this mop  
 274. Teacher: Who can tell me about this mop  
 275. Teacher: You can tell me in your home language  
 276. Teacher: Ndixelele ngesi xhosa itheni lena imop  
 277. Learner: imdaka  
 278. Teacher: So this mop is dirty this mop is dirty  
 279. Class: dirty  
 280. Teacher: When we say imdaka we say it is dirty  
 281. Class: dirty  
 282. Teacher: It is dirty this mop is dirty  
 283. Teacher: It is dirty  
 284. Teacher: It is dirty  
 285. Teacher: This one is dirty and this one is clean  
 286. Class: clean  
 287. Teacher: This one is dirty and this one is clean  
 288. Teacher: So the opposite of the word clean is in dirty  
 289. The opposite of the word clean is dirty  
 290. Class: dirty  
 291. Teacher: The opposite of the word clean is dirty  
 292. Class: dirty  
 293. Teacher: The opposite of the word clean is dirty  
 294. Class: dirty  
 295. Teacher: So that is the difference the other one  
 296. is clean and the other one is dirty  
 297. Teacher: This mop is dirty and this one is  
 298. clean and this one is dirty  
 299. Teacher: So the difference between these two  
 300. is the other one is dirty and the other one is clean  
 301. Teacher: Lets read now the opposite of clean  
 302. is dirty siyevana  
 303. Teacher: So the opposite of clean is dirty  
 304. Teacher: What else is dirty in this class room  
 305. Teacher: Who can tell me  
 306. Teacher: Look at the classroom look at the  
 307. class room look at the classroom  
 308. Teacher: Look at the class room and take something  
 309. that is dirty and something that is clean  
 310. Teacher: Zanekhaya phakama stand up  
 311. and take what you that is dirty  
 312. Teacher: We have this bucket so this bucket is dirty  
 313. Class: dirty  
 314. Teacher: This bucket is dirty look at it  
 315. Teacher: It is dirty  
 316. Teacher: This bucket is dirty  
 317. Teacher: I want you to take something that is  
 318. clean in the whole class room something that is clean

319. Teacher: Yes this is clean look at it  
 320. Teacher: It is clean  
 321. Teacher: What else is clean in the class room  
 322. Teacher: What else look  
 323. Teacher: Go and take it  
 324. Teacher: Yes look at this chart it is clean  
 325. Teacher: This chart is clean it is clean it  
 326. is clean this chart  
 327. Teacher: Sit down  
 328. Teacher: What else can you see  
 329. Teacher: Yes this clean  
 330. Teacher: This is clean and its white in  
 331. colour and it is clean  
 332. Teacher: It is white in colour  
 333. Teacher: For the last time I want you to take  
 334. something that is dirty again something that is  
 335. dirty something that is dirty again  
 336. Teacher: Something that is dirty again sihle  
 337. Teacher: Yes the roof our roof is dirty  
 338. Teacher: Is it dirty  
 339. Teacher: Is it dirty  
 340. Teacher: Is our roof dirty  
 341. Teacher: Oh you say our roof is dirty  
 342. Teacher: Ok what else is dirty in the class room  
 343. Teacher: No its not dirty its just dirty on top  
 344. its dirty on top its not that dirty  
 345. Teacher: You can lift down your hands now  
 346. Teacher: So look at these books and  
 347. tell me the difference  
 348. Teacher: Look at these books and  
 349. tell me the difference  
 350. Teacher: Look at these books yintoni  
 351. umahluko phakathi kwezincwadi  
 352. Learner: enye incinci  
 353. Teacher: There is a small we have a small book  
 354. Teacher: This is a  
 355. Class: small book  
 356. Teacher: This book is a small it is small  
 357. Class: small  
 358. Teacher: It is small this book is small  
 359. Class: small  
 360. Teacher: This book is small what about this one  
 361. What about this one  
 362. Thandokazi  
 363. Learner: it is big  
 364. Teacher: Yes it is big  
 365. Teacher: This one is big  
 366. Teacher: So we say the opposite of small is big  
 367. Class: big  
 368. Teacher: The opposite of small is big  
 369. Class: big  
 370. Teacher: The opposite of small is big  
 371. Class: big  
 372. Teacher: So we have this small book and  
 373. we have this big book  
 374. Teacher: This book is big and this one is small  
 375. Teacher: So the opposite of the word small is big  
 376. Teacher: The opposite of the word small is big  
 377. Teacher: Look at these soaps  
 378. What is the difference between these soaps

379. Teacher: Learner: incinci
380. Teacher: We have this, this soap is small
381. Class: small
382. Teacher: This soap is small
383. Class: small
384. Teacher: This soap is and this soap is big
385. Class: big
386. Teacher: This soap is big and this one is small
387. Class: small
388. Teacher: We have a big soap this is a soap
389. Teacher: This is a
390. Teacher: This is a
391. Class: soap
392. Teacher: And this is a soap
393. Class: soap
394. Teacher: This one is big and this one is small
395. Teacher: This one is big and this one is small
396. Teacher: So the opposite of the word big is small
397. Class: small
398. Teacher: The opposite of the word big is small
399. Class: small
400. Teacher: The opposite of the word big is small
401. Class: small
402. Teacher: Now I want us to read on the chalk board
403. Teacher: I want us to look at the chalk board
404. Teacher: And when we were starting our lesson
405. we said the opposite of full is empty
406. Class: empty
407. Teacher: The opposite of the word full is empty
408. Class: empty
409. Teacher: The opposite of the word full is empty
410. Class: empty
411. Teacher: The opposite of the word tall is short
412. Class: short
413. Teacher: The opposite of the word tall is short
414. Class: short
415. Teacher: The opposite of the word heavy is
416. Class: light
417. Teacher: The opposite of the word heavy is
418. Class: light
419. Teacher: The opposite of the word clean is
420. Class: dirty
421. Teacher: The opposite of the word clean is
422. Class: dirty
423. Teacher: The opposite of the word small is
424. Class: big
425. Teacher: The opposite of the word small is
426. Class: big
427. Teacher: As we were saying this glass is full
428. of water and this glass is empty
429. Teacher: This glass is full of water and
430. this glass is empty
431. Class: empty
432. Teacher: And we asked sihle to come forward and
433. athi to see who is tall and who is short
434. Teacher: So athi is short
435. Teacher: Stand up athi
436. Teacher: So athi is short
437. Class: short
438. Teacher: and zanda is tall

439. class: tall
440. Teacher: Zanda is tall and athi is short
441. Teacher: So the opposite of tall is short
442. Class: short
443. Teacher: The opposite of heavy is light
444. Class: light
445. Teacher: As we lifted these books everybody lifted
446. these books and we saw that these books are
447. heavy and these are light
448. Teacher: These are light and these books are
449. heavy these are heavy
450. Teacher: These are heavy
451. Class: heavy
452. Teacher: So we the opposite of heavy is light
453. Teacher: The opposite of the word heavy is light
454. Class: light
455. Teacher: And we looked at these mops and we
456. saw that the other one is clean and
457. the other one is dirty
458. Teacher: So we said the opposite of clean is dirty
459. Teacher: The opposite of clean is dirty
460. Class: dirty
461. Teacher: And we took these soaps and see the
462. difference and said this soap is big this soap is big
463. sand this is one is small this one is small
464. Class: small
465. Teacher: And we said that the opposite
466. of the word small is big
467. Class: big
468. Teacher: The opposite of the word small is big
469. Class: big
470. Teacher: So I want you to go forward and read
471. those words those opposite words
472. Teacher: Phakamani niye phambile
473. Teacher: Don't make noise don't make noise
474. don't make noise
475. Teacher: When you read say the
476. opposite of full is empty
477. Teacher: The opposite of full is
478. Teacher: Say it like is say it
479. Teacher: The opposite of full is
480. Class: empty
481. Teacher: Makamnye umtu opointayo sanufuna
482. uku pointer nonke
483. Class: full
484. Class: empty
485. Teacher: Class: the opposite of full is empty
486. The opposite of full is
487. Class: empty
488. Teacher: The opposite of tall is short
489. Class: short
490. Teacher: The opposite of tall is short
491. Class: short
492. Class: The opposite of tall is short
493. Class: the opposite of heavy is light
494. Class: the opposite of heavy is light
495. Teacher: Don't play don't play read
496. Class: the opposite of clean is dirty
497. Class: the opposite of clean is dirty
498. Class: the opposite of small is big

499. Class: the opposite of small is big  
 500. Class: the opposite of full is empty  
 501. Class: the opposite of full is empty  
 502. Class: the opposite of tall is short  
 503. Class: the opposite of tall is short  
 504. Class; the opposite of heavy is light  
 505. Class: the opposite of heavy is light  
 506. Class: the opposite of clean is dirty  
 507. Class: the opposite of clean is dirty  
 508. Teacher: You are playing now you are not reading  
 509. Teacher: You are playing now you are not reading  
 510. Class: the opposite of big is  
 511. Class: the opposite of small is big

### **KATE TYPICAL LESSON**

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- 1 Learner: My church is hope of glory  
 2 Teacher: Thank you Njongo, and you your church, your church, yes Nwabisa your church  
 3 Learner: My church is United  
 4 Teacher: United Church of Christ  
 5 Learner: United Holy Church of God  
 6 Teacher: Ok thank you, thank you, thank you, and yours?... Everybody must raise their hands up not sing, Luxolo what is this?  
 7 Learner: That is an apple  
 8 Teacher: That is an apple  
 9 Learners: That is an apple  
 10 Teacher: That is an apple, class  
 11 Learners: That is an apple  
 12 Teacher: Can you read this for me all of you  
 13 Learners: Yes, Mrs Solwandle  
 14 Teacher: Read  
 15 Learners: a  
 16 Teacher: I want to see your mouth is that a  
 17 Learners: a  
 18 Teacher: No no no no no not a look at my mouth look at my mouth  
 19 Learners : a a a  
 20 Teacher: a a my teeth are inside, do you see my teeth no no no you don't see my teeth when I said a do you see my teeth  
 21 Learners: No  
 22 Teacher: This is an apple, what is this class?  
 23 Learners: This is an...  
 24 Teacher: No no no no no look at me, I've said this is an apple because I can point it I can touch the apple ne? I've said this ne? you are going to say  
 25 Learners: That  
 26 Teacher: That is an apple, this is an apple, what is this class?  
 27 Learners: That is an apple  
 28 Teacher: This is an apple, what is this class  
 29 Learners: That is an apple  
 30 Teacher: Very good, can you see this picture, what is it? Noluvuyo  
 31 Learner: That is an ink  
 32 Teacher: Do you know a ink, what do you do with an ink?  
 33 Learners: Painting
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- 34 Teacher: We are using long long ago, let me show you the ink, let me show the ink, this pen inside the pen there is ink, ja inside this pen there is an ink long time ago the ink was inside the bottle and the pens are not like this one, we are using the pen that takes the ink and we wrote with that aniyazi ke ninake thina sasisebenzisa izinto kwakusithiwa ngamasiba, thina sasisebebnzisa izinto kwakusithiwa ngamasiba ibhol pen enjengalena zazingqabile ezine ink inside ezi ready for uba ubhale ne uthenga I ink esebhotileni ink like this than elasiba lakho lenziwe uyifunxe la ink apha ngaphakathi ubhale iyaphela ke as ba ubhala ke as you are writing the ink finish up than you going to take the bottle again and take the ink inside u see
- 35 Learners: Yes miss
- 36 Teacher: Ja this is an ink, can you tell me what is it I'm not sure about this picture can you tell me what is this, I'm not sure about the picture
- 37 Learners: E
- 38 Teacher: I want you to look at my mouth
- 39 Learners: E x7
- 40 Teacher: Do you see my teeth now
- 41 Learners: E x5
- 42 Teacher: Very good this is an egg ne? Can you look at this picture, what is it umbrella,umbrella, Ngxakaza uthi this is an umbrella, what is this?
- 43 Learners: That is an umbrella
- 44 Teacher: What is this class
- 45 Learners: That is an umbrella
- 46 Teacher: Very good, what is it this one, what is it Iviwe?
- 47 Learner: Orange
- 48 Teacher: Jonga, look at my mouth now, orange, what is it?
- 49 Learner: Orange
- 50 Teacher: Heeee
- 51 Learners: Orange
- 52 Teacher: Very good, right learners lets go back to a we said apple ne, can you give me five other words with this vowel a, ndinike amamnye amagama ona a owaziyo, give me another words with this a
- 53 Learner: Cat
- 54 Teacher: Very good
- 55 Learner: Car
- 56 Learner: Mat
- 57 Teacher: Very good
- 58 Learner: Arm
- 59 Teacher: heee
- 60 Learner: Can
- 61 Teacher: Hee can
- 62 Learner: Sat
- 63 Teacher: Very good, wake up, wake up, wake up Sethu
- 64 Learner: Man
- 65 Teacher: Man good, you are so clever man, you are so clever, will you give me other words rather than egg, other five words with this vowel
- 66 Learner: Yes
- 67 Teacher: Yes very good, look at me yes
- 68 Learner: Wet
- 69 Teacher: Wet, wet very good
- 70 Learner: Let
- 71 Teacher: Let, let
- 72 Learner: Leg
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- 73 Teacher: Leg very good  
74 Learner: Hen, hen  
75 Teacher: Hen very good  
76 Learner: Ten  
77 Teacher: Hands down you are very good, oh you look at this picture, ok it doesn't matter, so we all know these vowels ne?  
78 Learner: Yes  
79 Teacher: Will you please read for me these phonics  
80 Learner: Yes  
81 Teacher: Can you read for me all of you  
82 Learners: What  
83 Teacher: The red one, the red one, right wh plus at what is it?  
84 Learners: What  
85 Teacher: What very good... bla...ck Sinentlantla  
86 Learner: Good  
87 Teacher: Black very good black. Siphokazi  
88 Learner: Chop  
89 Teacher: Let's not do the noise, let's not make noise ne let us not make noise okay  
90 Learners: Yes miss  
91 Teacher: Okay Sibabalo  
92 Learner: Clak  
93 Teacher: No x5..Yes onela  
94 Learner: Clap  
95 Teacher: Clap will you please, hands up don't talk all of you ne will you please show me how to clap  
96 Learners: Clap hands  
97 Teacher: I said not everybody, I'm gonna say do the thing, ja  
98 Learner: Clap hands  
99 Teacher: Very good what are you doing Noluvuyo  
100 Learners: I am claping  
101 Teacher: What are you doing  
102 Learners: I am claping  
103 Teacher: Good x3 right. Learners, learners will you do me something heee  
104 Learners: Yes miss  
105 Teacher: Can you stand  
106 Learners: Yes  
107 Teacher: Because I am going to write now, can you stand up  
108 Learners: Yes I can stand up  
109 Teacher: I am standing up  
110 Learners: I am standing up  
111 Teacher: I can stand up  
112 Learners: I can stand up  
113 Teacher: Not standing, I can stand up
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HENRIETTA TYPICAL LESSONS

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- 1 Teacher: Sit down sit...
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- 2 Teacher: Put away other books
  - 3 Teacher: Imountain yintaba andithi
  - 4 Class: yes
  - 5 Teacher: Imountain yintoni?
  - 6 Class: yintaba
  - 7 Teacher: Imountain yintoni?
  - 8 Class: yintaba
  - 9 Teacher: Yintaba imountainin
  - 10 Teacher: Yintaba imountain
  - 11 Teacher: Kuthiwa lamanzi asuka umlambho usuka entabeni
  - 12 Teacher: Yintaba andithi
  - 13 Class: yes
  - 14 Teacher: Andithi
  - 15 Class: yes
  - 16 Teacher: Andithi
  - 17 Class: yes
  - 18 Teacher: Ok listen
  - 19 Class: listen
  - 20 Teacher: Listen
  - 21 Class: listen
  - 22 Teacher: I will tell you a story about little river
  - 23 Class: I will tell you a story about little river
  - 24 Teacher: I will tell you a story about little river
  - 25 Class: I will tell you a story about little river
  - 26 Teacher: Now lets start from the beginning nhe
  - 27 Class: yes
  - 28 Teacher: Let us read the heading
  - 29 Class: little river runs to the sea
  - 30 Teacher: Again
  - 31 Class: little river runs to the sea
  - 32 Teacher: Again
  - 33 Class: little river runs to the sea
  - 34 Teacher: Yes
  - 35 Class: everyday mamelo helps her mother
  - 36 Teacher: Yes
  - 37 Class: she carries a bucket of water from the river to the kitchen
  - 38 Teacher: Yes
  - 39 Teacher: Mother boils the water one day mamelo says to her mother
  - 40 Yes
  - 41 Class: please tell me a story about water
  - 42 Teacher: Yes
  - 43 Class: where does it come from
  - 44 Teacher: Yes
  - 45 Teacher: Yes
  - 46 Teacher: Yes
  - 47 Teacher: Everyday mamelo helps her mother she carries a bucket of water from the river to the kitchen nhe
  - 48 Class: yes
  - 49 Teacher: Mother boils the water one day mamelo says to her mother please mother tell me a story about water
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- where does it comes from nhe
- 50 Class: yes
- 51 Teacher: Now lets come to the second passage. mother pours some water
- 52 Class: mother pours some water
- 53 Teacher: Out of a jug
- 54 Class: out of a jug
- 55 Teacher: Into a cup
- 56 Class: in to a cup
- 57 Teacher: Mother pours some water out of a jug into a cup
- 58 Class: mother pours some water out of a jug into a cup
- 59 Teacher: She gives it to mamelo
- 60 Class: she gives it to mamelo
- 61 Teacher: And says
- 62 Class: and says
- 63 Teacher: She gives it to mamelo and says
- 64 Class: she gives it to mamelo and says
- 65 Teacher: The river brings us water
- 66 Class: the river brings us water
- 67 Teacher: Yolanda
- 68 Learner: Foot
- 69 Teacher: Nyanisile, omnye
- 70 Learner: Good
- 71 Teacher: Good umiss naye abhale pha encwadini yakhe abhale bani
- 72 Learners: Good
- 73 Teacher: Elandelayo
- 74 Learner: Goose
- 75 Teacher: Yabona naye phaya solathisele Thozama, heke yabona ba kukho o oo ababini
- 76 Leaners: Yes miss
- 77 Teacher: Kwafuneka ujonge kum ke andiyazi ujonge ntoni apho
- 78 Learner: Zoo
- 79 Teacher: Zoo sawuya e zoo, phi
- 80 Learners: E zoo
- 81 Teacher: Ndakubetha Siphosethu, zoo ewe
- 82 Learner: Door
- 83 Teacher: Door unyanisile, Thandokazi
- 84 Learner: Doll
- 85 Teacher: Uthandokazi uthi doll
- 86 Learners: No mem
- 87 Teacher: Yava bathi no ke
- 88 Learner: Foot
- 89 Teacher: Uthi foot, ndisekhona Thanduxolo
- 90 Learner: Floor
- 91 Teacher: Floor ok, khona elinye funeka abemayi ten , basiwabale mangaphi
- 92 Learners: One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight
- 93 Teacher: Heke
- 94 Learner: Food
- 95 Teacher: Food, unyanisile food, Ayabonga
- 96 Learner: School
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- 97 Teacher: Unyanisile
- 98 Learners: Yes miss
- 99 Teacher: Unyanisile school
- 100 Learners: Khona elinye mem
- 101 Teacher: Isithuba siphelile ngoku
- 102 Learner: Tooth
- 103 Teacher: Unyanisile, khannenze isivakalisi, kanenze isivakalisi ngalamagama. I went to the zoo
- 104 Learners: I went to the zoo
- 105 Teacher: Esakho isivakalisi
- 106 Learner: The book is on the chair, the book is on the chair
- 107 Teacher: Unyanisile heke right esinye isivakalisi, isentence, the book is on the chair unyanisile. Enye I sentence, ithini enye, sithini esinye isivakalisi Gcobani
- 108 Learner: I go to school
- 109 Teacher: Ok unyanisile ke go to school ewe, ithini enye Aphiwe, kwaza Aphiwe,
- 110 Learner: The door is open
- 111 Teacher: Uthini u Aphiwe
- 112 Learners: The door is open
- 113 Teacher: Unyanisile okay esinye isivakalisi, usebenzise eli igama uAphiwe ne, heke usebenzise udoor
- 114 Learner: I look the hippo
- 115 Teacher: At the hippo, wayijonga kaloku ne okay alright, elinye ke
- 116 Learner: Uthi uBilli the foot is writing
- 117 Teacher: Heeeee
- 118 Learner: Uthi uBilli the foot is writing
- 119 Learner: Hayi uyakumsha Sibabalwe
- 120 Learner: The goose is on the zoo
- 121 Teacher: Alright ke nanga lamagama ano o, ngoku ke pha encwadini yakho, ngoku ke pha encwadini yakho ke ne lamaama ano o uzawabhala nge crayon kengoku anditsho ogqiba kengoku umntu andenzele Isentence eyi one, kupha incwadi ye phonics, khupha incwadi ye english phonics, suze yonke enye incwadi kushiyeke le inye, bhala igama ubhale uMarch. Uyakhupha Afrika uyawuvula nini incwadi uqale ke kwi phephe elitsha ne
- 122 Learners: Yes miss
- 123 Teacher: Uyabhala ke khaya okhanye uyathetha, hayi hayi suthetha, suthetha
- 124 Learner: Siphamandla awukabhali nobhala, bhala lanto ipha ebhodini
- 125 Teacher: Do you want somebody to read something for you
- 126 Jabulani: It's okay ja
- 127 Teacher: Iphi Billi mane nilahla qo nicimba nzaninika into zobhala, hayisuka wonke ayikho lento uyenzayo uzabhala njani isivakalisi kulendawo incinci kangaka ungaske utyile ke qa, utheni lona u o ngoba kufuneka balingane ba o bobabini, siviwe theni ungabekeli, umntu ozothatha icrayon ibenye ne kwezi zicacayo kuba ezi ziske zingacaci nakezincwadi sowuthatha le ibomvu yakho ubhale ngayo thatha ke ubhale phezu kwaba o baphayana. Afrika izobonakala lonto kuloncwadi, kwelophepha, heee yenza isivakalisi , bhala eligama kaloku, anicingi nithethe apha nina.
- 128 Learner: Bhala Afrika
- 129 Teacher: One, one kaloku bazawu bhuda apha, heke ugqibile kengoku, ide ubhale thanduxolo ithini lento yakho bhala phezu kwesandi esi ubulindlele ntoni Thanduxolo, asithethi asithethi siyabhala
- 130 Learners: Book, look, foot, food
- 131 Teacher: Theni uno foot aba bini, masiwa jongo ke sonke apha ebhodini sonke, Siphosethu sijongo
- 132 Learners: Book, look, foot, good
- 133 Teacher: Good ne
- 134 Learners: Yes miss
- 135 Teacher: Very good, good
- 136 Learner: Goose, zoo, door, floor
- 137 Teacher: Phinde
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- 138 Learners: Floor, foot, food, school  
 139 Teacher: Nantsoke, khayenze we ke Liyema  
 140 Learner: food, foot, zoo, floor, school  
 141 Teacher: Thanduxolo  
 142 Learners: Book, look, foot, good, goose, zoo, floor  
 143 Teacher: Jokani eyokqibela  
 144 Learner: Foot, food, goose, zoo, door, floor, food, school  
 145 Teacher: Hayike nango ke amagama hayi siyapheza ngoku,  
 146 right ke vala incwadi sithi cwaka
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<b>JANE TYPICAL LESSON</b>	
1	Teacher: There are children playing with a ball, there are children playing with a ball.
2	Teacher: What else is it at the cover of my book?
3	Learner: I see a dog that is barking
4	Teacher: There is a dog that is barking
5	Teacher: This is a dog
6	Class: A dog
7	Teacher: This is a dog and the dog is ....
8	Class: Barking
9	Teacher: What is the colour of my dog? What is the colour of my dog?
10	Learner: Black
11	Teacher: The colour of the dog is black let's all say the colour of the dog is black
12	Learner: The colour of the dog is black
13	Teacher: What else do you see at this cover? What else do you see at this cover?
14	Learner: Sorry teacher I see pink
15	Teacher: There are two huts
16	Teacher: How many huts are there?
17	Class: There are two huts
18	Teacher: There are two huts, there are two huts
19	Teacher: What colour is the wall of each huts?
20	Learner: Brown
21	Teacher: Yes there is a brown hut the wall of another huts is brown.
22	Teacher: What is the colour of another one? there is brown huts
23	Learner: A yellow hut
24	Teacher: Yes, there is a yellow hut. There are two huts
25	Teacher: There are two huts there is a hut with a brown wall there is a hut with
26	a yellow with a yellow wall
27	Teacher: What else can you tell me about this cover?
28	Learner: A sun
29	Teacher: Yes there is a sun
30	Teacher: What else what else is at this cover what else
31	Learner: Sorry teacher there are flowers
32	Teacher: There are flowers yes there are flowers
33	Teacher: What else?

34	Learner: A boy
35	Teacher: When you answer me answer in English. You can say I see a boy I
36	see children playing with a ball.
38	Teacher: What else do you see?
39	Learner: A sky
40	Teacher: Yes there is a sky look outside and see the sky that is the sky. What
41	is the colour of sky?
42	Learner: it's white
43	Teacher: The colour of the sky is not white
44	Teacher: What is the colour Afikile?
45	Learner: Blue
46	Teacher: The colour of the sky is blue
47	Teacher: What is the colour of the sky the colour of the sky is blue
48	Learner: The colour of the sky is blue
49	Teacher: The colour of the sky is blue, the colour of the sky is blue
50	Teacher: Ok! What is the name of my book? Look at the cover page of my book
51	Teacher: What is the name of my book?
52	Learner: English
53	Teacher: It's English, English big book I it's English big book and my book is from oxford look at
54	the word. My book is from oxford it's from oxford.
55	Teacher: Now let's open our book now let's open our book and I want you, look at this picture on
56	my right hand side and tell me what do you see look at the picture, look at the picture
57	Teacher: Bhekizulu
58	Teacher: I see children
59	Teacher: You can't say I see a children because this is one child you can say I see a child because
60	you Are talking about one child I see child yes there is a child this is a child this is a child.
61	Teacher: What else do you see?
62	Learner: A cow
63	Teacher: Yes, there are cows how many cows are there? Alizwa
64	Learner: Three teacher
65	Teacher: Yes the are three cows let's count them
66	Learner: 1,2, 3
67	Teacher: There are three cows
68	Teacher: I want you stand up because you can't see
69	Teacher: I want you to come closer come closer
70	Teacher: Yes, there are three cows
71	Teacher: What else is there? There are three cows these are the cows and what is colour of these
72	cows?
73	Learner: Sorry teacher brown
74	Teacher: Yes the colour of these cows are brown the cows are brown the colour of the cows is
75	Brown
76	Teacher: What else do you see?
77	Learner: I see water
78	Teacher: There is water but that water we are not going to say we said there is river this is a river
79	Learner: A river
80	Teacher: This is a river

81	Learner: A river
82	Teacher: It's water but this is a river there is a river here
83	Teacher: What else zanda
84	Learner: I see aaaa I see aaaa
85	Teacher: Don't laugh at her
86	Learner: I see a tree
87	Teacher: Yes there are trees. How many trees are there? Look at the trees yes the are trees the
88	Teacher: How many trees are there?
89	Learner: Two trees
90	Teacher: Yes there are two trees. Let's count them 1,2,3.
91	Teacher: What else do you see?
92	Learner: I see a father
93	Teacher: No let's look at this one at this picture let's look at this one
94	Learner: A mountain
95	Teacher: Mmhh a mountain
96	Teacher: What else sokhana?
97	Learner: I see a house
98	Teacher: Yes there's a house there
99	Teacher: There we put a question mark
100	Teacher: What is your name? what is your surname ?who is you mother?
101	Teacher: Zanekhaya
102	Teacher: Heeee
103	Learner: where are you going
104	Teacher: Where are you going
105	Teacher: Where are you going that is question
106	Teacher: Where are you going
107	Teacher: Where are you going
108	Teacher: Uyaphi
109	Teacher: Where are you going
110	Teacher: What is your name? Who is your mother? give me the last question
111	Teacher: Emihle
112	Learner: who is your father
113	Teacher: Who is your father
114	Teacher: Who is your father
115	Teacher: Who is your father
116	Teacher: And then we put a question mark
117	Teacher: Then we put a question mark at the end of our sentence
118	Teacher: We put a question mark at the end of our sentence
119	Teacher: So you must know when asking a question you must put a question
121	Teacher: Lets all say you put a question mark at the end of a sentence
122	Class: you put a question mark at the end of a sentence
123	Teacher: You put a question mark at the end of a sentence

### CHRISTINE TYPICAL LESSON

1. Teacher: The opposite of full is empty
2. Class: empty
3. Teacher: Lets say so every body
4. Teacher: The opposite of full is empty

5. Class: the opposite of full is empty
6. Teacher: The opposite of full is empty
7. Class: empty
8. Teacher: The opposite of full is empty
9. Class: empty
10. Teacher: The opposite of full is empty
11. Teacher: Class: empty
12. Teacher: This glass is full of water
13. Teacher: This glass is full of water
14. Class: full of water
15. Teacher: This glass is full of water
16. Class: full of water
17. Teacher: This glass is full of water
18. Class: is full of water
19. Teacher: Igcwela ngantoni ngamanzi
20. Class: ngamanzi
21. Teacher: Its full of water and this one is empty
22. Class: empty
23. Teacher: There is no water in here is
24. there water in here
25. Class: no
26. Teacher: There is no water in here
27. Teacher: As you can see as you can see
28. there is no water in the glass
29. Teacher: Can you see that there
30. is no water in the glass
31. Teacher: There is no water inside the glass
32. Teacher: Alright so we say full is
33. the opposite of empty
34. Class: empty
35. Teacher: We say full is the opposite of empty
36. Teacher: So athi come in front of the class
37. stand up and come in front of the class
38. Teacher: And sihle come in front of the class
39. Teacher: So who can tell me the difference
40. between athi and sihle
41. Teacher: Who can tell me the difference
42. between athi and sihle
43. Teacher: Yes this is a girl and boy the difference
44. is this is a girl and a boy
45. Teacher: That is correct this is a girl and this is a boy
46. Class: boy
47. Teacher: What else can you tell me about this two
48. Teacher: Yes I had that this is a girl and this is a boy
49. Teacher: What else can you tell me about this two
50. Teacher: Look at them look at them don't look at
51. me don't look at me look at them
52. Teacher: What is the difference
53. Teacher: This one is taller than athi
54. Teacher: This one is tall
55. Teacher: When we say this one is taller
56. sithetha ukuthini ngesi xhosa
57. Learner: umde
58. Class: umde
59. Teacher: Utheni usihle
60. Teacher: Sihle is tall
61. Teacher: Sihle is tall say so
62. Class: sihle is tall
63. Teacher: Sihle is tall
64. Teacher: Sihle is tall

65. Teacher: Sihle is tall
66. Teacher: The boy sihle is tall
67. Teacher: And this one is short
68. Teacher: Athi is short
69. Teacher: So the difference between athi and sihle
70. is that sihle is tall and athi is short
71. Teacher: Athi is short and sihle is tall
72. Teacher: So the opposite of tall is short
73. Class: short
74. Teacher: The opposite of tall is short
75. Class: short
76. Teacher: Sihle is tall he is tall
77. Teacher: We say he is tall because he is a boy
78. Class: boy
79. Teacher: We use the word he because he is a boy
80. Class: boy
81. Teacher: And this one is a girl so we use she
82. Class: she
83. Teacher: She is tall I mean she is short
84. and this one is tall
85. Teacher: So the opposite of tall is short
86. Class: short
87. Teacher: The opposite of tall is short
88. Class: short
89. Teacher: The opposite of tall is short
90. so sihle is taller than athi
91. Teacher: Athi is short
92. Class: short
93. Teacher: Athi is short
94. Teacher: And sihle is tall
95. Teacher: Sit down
96. Teacher: So we say the opposite of tall is short
97. Class: short
98. Teacher: The opposite of tall is short
99. Class: short
100. Teacher: The opposite of tall is short
101. Teacher: Sihle is tall and athi is short
102. Teacher: Athi is short and sihle is tall
103. Teacher: Do you get that do you get me so
104. sihle is tall and athi is short
105. Teacher: The opposite of tall again is short
106. Teacher: Lets all talk together the opposite of tall is short
107. Class: is short
108. Teacher: Lets talk together the opposite of tall is short
109. Teacher: The opposite of tall is short
110. Class: short
111. Teacher: Ok now we have these books who can
112. come and lift for me these books
113. Teacher: Who can come forward and lift up these books
114. Teacher: Who can come thandokazi come forward
115. come forward thandokazi
116. Teacher: Lift these books put them down again
117. and take these books
118. Teacher: So what is the difference between
119. these books thandokazi
120. Teacher: In your own language what can you tell
121. me in your own language in your home language xhosa
122. Teacher: Ngesi xhosa ungathi zitheni ezincwadi
123. Speak up when you speak you must speak up
124. Teacher: Yintoni umahluko phakathi kwezincwadi

125. nazi incwadi ubusi phakamisile
126. Teacher: What is the difference yintoni umahluko
127. Teacher: Zohluke kanjani
128. Learner: : Utsho ba zincinci these are many and these are
129. Class: small
130. Teacher: No they are not small
131. ezi zinintsi ezi zincinci
132. Teacher
133. Teacher: These are many and these are few
134. Teacher: What else is the difference
135. Teacher: Xana uziphakamisa zinjani ezi nei uyazi phakamisa
136. Teacher: You lift them up again
137. Teacher: Sinomthandazo come forward
138. Teacher: sit down
139. Teacher: lift these books up
140. Teacher: put them down and take these one
141. Teacher: yintoni umahluko nomthandazo
142. kwezi ncwadi nezi
143. Teacher: what is the difference between these books?
144. learner: miss ezi zinzima ezi zinintsi
145. Teacher: yes these are heavy these books are heavy
146. and when you take them uyayiva ba heavy
147. Teacher: these books are heavy and these are light
148. Teacher: these books are heavy
149. Teacher: come and see the difference come and lift
150. these books these books are heavy and these are light
151. Teacher: take the books take the books lift them put
152. them down and take these ones put them down again
153. Teacher: come and lift these books
154. Teacher: I want you to see the difference
155. Teacher: I want you to see the difference between
156. these books put them down
157. Teacher: Lift these again put them down again
158. Teacher: Come and lift these books
159. Teacher: Come forward and lift these books
160. Teacher: Sit down sit down
161. Teacher: Sokhana come forward
162. Teacher: Sit down
163. Teacher: These books are heavy these
164. books are heavy
165. Class: heavy
166. Teacher: Zitheni zinzima
167. Class: zinzima
168. Teacher: These books are heavy and
169. this is the word heavy sit down
170. Teacher: And this is the word heavy
171. Teacher: This is the word heavy
172. Teacher: Before we are saying
173. these books are heavy
174. Teacher: These books are heavy
175. Teacher: These are heavy
176. Teacher: Than these
177. Teacher: These are light
178. Teacher: Zilula zona they are light
179. Teacher: Something that is light yinto
180. elula ngokuyi phakamisa
181. Teacher: Something that is light is something
182. that is not heavy
183. Teacher: This is light this is light and this is light
184. Teacher: Ilula its light

185. Teacher: These books are light and these are heavy
186. Teacher: These are heavy
187. Teacher: Everybody speak these books are heavy
188. Class: heavy
189. Teacher: These books are heavy
190. Class: heavy
191. Teacher: You can look at me when I lift them up
192. Teacher: Look at my arm uyayibona ingalo
193. yam igobile apha
194. Class: yes
195. Teacher: but ezi ndiziphakamisa nje lula
196. Teacher: Look at the difference look at my arm
197. Teacher: Look at my arm these are heavy and
198. these are light these are light and these books are heavy
199. Teacher: Zitheni
200. Class: zinzima
201. Teacher: zinzima siyevana ezi
202. Teacher: Zinzima ezi and ezi zitheni
203. Class: zilula
204. Teacher: zilula
205. Teacher: So we say these books are heavy
206. Teacher: The difference between the books is
207. the other books are heavy and there others are light
208. Class: light
209. Teacher: So the opposite of the word heavy is light
210. Class: light
211. Teacher: The opposite of the word heavy is light
212. Class: light
213. Teacher: The opposite of the word heavy is light
214. Class: light
215. Teacher: The opposite of the word heavy is light
216. Class: light
217. The opposite of heavy is light
218. Class: light
219. Teacher: Who can tell me what are these
220. Teacher: What is this
221. Teacher: What is this
222. Teacher: This is a mop
223. Teacher: What is this
224. Class: this is a mop
225. Teacher: That is a mop because I am lifting it so you
226. say that because its not nearer you its near me
227. Teacher: So we say that is a mop
228. Class: that is a mop
229. Teacher: Because I am holding it I say this is a mop
230. Teacher: This is a mop
231. Teacher: What is this class
232. Class: that is
233. Teacher: That
234. Class: that is a mop
235. Teacher: What is
236. Teacher: This is a mop
237. Teacher: What is this class
238. Class: that is a mop
239. Teacher: Yes because it is not near you it near me
240. so I use this cause I holding it and the mop
241. is far away from you
242. Teacher: That is why you we use the word that
243. Teacher: That is a you use and you must point
244. that is a mop point at the mop

245. Class: that is a mop
246. Teacher: What is this class
247. Class: that is a mop
248. Teacher: What is this class
249. Teacher: So I have these two mops
250. Teacher: Who can tell me the difference
251. between these two mops
252. Teacher: Who can tell the difference yintoni
253. umahluko phakathi kwezi mop zombini
254. Teacher: What is the difference
255. Ncebakazi
256. Learner: enye iclaen
257. Teacher: This mop from my right hand
258. is clean this one is clean
259. Teacher: This mop is clean
260. Teacher: this one is clean
261. class: clean
262. Teacher: This mop is clean
263. Class: clean
264. Teacher: Look at it
265. Teacher: Look at it
266. Teacher: It is clean
267. Teacher: It is clean this mop is clean
268. Teacher: This mop is clean
269. Class: clean
270. Teacher: What about this one
271. Teacher: What about this one
272. Teacher: What about this one look at this one
273. Teacher: Look at this mop
274. Teacher: Who can tell me about this mop
275. Teacher: You can tell me in your home language
276. Teacher: Ndixelele ngesi xhosa itheni lena imop
277. Learner: imdaka
278. Teacher: So this mop is dirty this mop is dirty
279. Class: dirty
280. Teacher: When we say imdaka we say it is dirty
281. Class: dirty
282. Teacher: It is dirty this mop is dirty
283. Teacher: It is dirty
284. Teacher: It is dirty
285. Teacher: This one is dirty and this one is clean
286. Class: clean
287. Teacher: This one is dirty and this one is clean
288. Teacher: So the opposite of the word clean is in dirty
289. The opposite of the word clean is dirty
290. Class: dirty
291. Teacher: The opposite of the word clean is dirty
292. Class: dirty
293. Teacher: The opposite of the word clean is dirty
294. Class: dirty
295. Teacher: So that is the difference the other one
296. is clean and the other one is dirty
297. Teacher: This mop is dirty and this one is
298. clean and this one is dirty
299. Teacher: So the difference between these two
300. is the other one is dirty and the other one is clean
301. Teacher: Lets read now the opposite of clean
302. is dirty siyevana
303. Teacher: So the opposite of clean is dirty
304. Teacher: What else is dirty in this class room

305. Teacher: Who can tell me  
 306. Teacher: Look at the classroom look at the  
 307. class room look at the classroom  
 308. Teacher: Look at the class room and take something  
 309. that is dirty and something that is clean  
 310. Teacher: Zanekhaya phakama stand up  
 311. and take what you that is dirty  
 312. Teacher: We have this bucket so this bucket is dirty  
 313. Class: dirty  
 314. Teacher: This bucket is dirty look at it  
 315. Teacher: It is dirty  
 316. Teacher: This bucket is dirty  
 317. Teacher: I want you to take something that is  
 318. clean in the whole class room something that is clean  
 319. Teacher: Yes this is clean look at it  
 320. Teacher: It is clean  
 321. Teacher: What else is clean in the class room  
 322. Teacher: What else look  
 323. Teacher: Go and take it  
 324. Teacher: Yes look at this chart it is clean  
 325. Teacher: This chart is clean it is clean it  
 326. is clean this chart  
 327. Teacher: Sit down  
 328. Teacher: What else can you see  
 329. Teacher: Yes this clean  
 330. Teacher: This is clean and its white in  
 331. colour and it is clean  
 332. Teacher: It is white in colour  
 333. Teacher: For the last time I want you to take  
 334. something that is dirty again something that is  
 335. dirty something that is dirty again  
 336. Teacher: Something that is dirty again sihle  
 337. Teacher: Yes the roof our roof is dirty  
 338. Teacher: Is it dirty  
 339. Teacher: Is it dirty  
 340. Teacher: Is our roof dirty  
 341. Teacher: Oh you say our roof is dirty  
 342. Teacher: Ok what else is dirty in the class room  
 343. Teacher: No its not dirty its just dirty on top  
 344. its dirty on top its not that dirty  
 345. Teacher: You can lift down your hands now  
 346. Teacher: So look at these books and  
 347. tell me the difference  
 348. Teacher: Look at these books and  
 349. tell me the difference  
 350. Teacher: Look at these books yintoni  
 351. umahluko phakathi kwezincwadi  
 352. Learner: enye incinci  
 353. Teacher: There is a small we have a small book  
 354. Teacher: This is a  
 355. Class: small book  
 356. Teacher: This book is a small it is small  
 357. Class: small  
 358. Teacher: It is small this book is small  
 359. Class: small  
 360. Teacher: This book is small what about this one  
 361. What about this one  
 362. Thandokazi  
 363. Learner: it is big  
 364. Teacher: Yes it is big

365. Teacher: This one is big  
366. Teacher: So we say the opposite of small is big  
367. Class: big  
368. Teacher: The opposite of small is big  
369. Class: big  
370. Teacher: The opposite of small is big  
371. Class: big  
372. Teacher: So we have this small book and  
373. we have this big book  
374. Teacher: This book is big and this one is small  
375. Teacher: So the opposite of the word small is big  
376. Teacher: The opposite of the word small is big  
377. Teacher: Look at these soaps  
378. What is the difference between these soaps  
379. Teacher: Learner: incinci  
380. Teacher: We have this, this soap is small  
381. Class: small  
382. Teacher: This soap is small  
383. Class: small  
384. Teacher: This soap is and this soap is big  
385. Class: big  
386. Teacher: This soap is big and this one is small  
387. Class: small  
388. Teacher: We have a big soap this is a soap  
389. Teacher: This is a  
390. Teacher: This is a  
391. Class: soap  
392. Teacher: And this is a soap  
393. Class: soap  
394. Teacher: This one is big and this one is small  
395. Teacher: This one is big and this one is small  
396. Teacher: So the opposite of the word big is small  
397. Class: small  
398. Teacher: The opposite of the word big is small  
399. Class: small  
400. Teacher: The opposite of the word big is small  
401. Class: small  
402. Teacher: Now I want us to read on the chalk board  
403. Teacher: I want us to look at the chalk board  
404. Teacher: And when we were starting our lesson  
405. we said the opposite of full is empty  
406. Class: empty  
407. Teacher: The opposite of the word full is empty  
408. Class: empty  
409. Teacher: The opposite of the word full is empty  
410. Class: empty  
411. Teacher: The opposite of the word tall is short  
412. Class: short  
413. Teacher: The opposite of the word tall is short  
414. Class: short  
415. Teacher: The opposite of the word heavy is  
416. Class: light  
417. Teacher: The opposite of the word heavy is  
418. Class: light  
419. Teacher: The opposite of the word clean is  
420. Class: dirty  
421. Teacher: The opposite of the word clean is  
422. Class: dirty  
423. Teacher: The opposite of the word small is  
424. Class: big

425. Teacher: The opposite of the word small is  
426. Class: big  
427. Teacher: As we were saying this glass is full  
428. of water and this glass is empty  
429. Teacher: This glass is full of water and  
430. this glass is empty  
431. Class: empty  
432. Teacher: And we asked sihle to come forward and  
433. athi to see who is tall and who is short  
434. Teacher: So athi is short  
435. Teacher: Stand up athi  
436. Teacher: So athi is short  
437. Class: short  
438. Teacher: and zanda is tall  
439. class: tall  
440. Teacher: Zanda is tall and athi is short  
441. Teacher: So the opposite of tall is short  
442. Class: short  
443. Teacher: The opposite of heavy is light  
444. Class: light  
445. Teacher: As we lifted these books everybody lifted  
446. these books and we saw that these books are  
447. heavy and these are light  
448. Teacher: These are light and these books are  
449. heavy these are heavy  
450. Teacher: These are heavy  
451. Class: heavy  
452. Teacher: So we the opposite of heavy is light  
453. Teacher: The opposite of the word heavy is light  
454. Class: light  
455. Teacher: And we looked at these mops and we  
456. saw that the other one is clean and  
457. the other one is dirty  
458. Teacher: So we said the opposite of clean is dirty  
459. Teacher: The opposite of clean is dirty  
460. Class: dirty  
461. Teacher: And we took these soaps and see the  
462. difference and said this soap is big this soap is big  
463. sand this is one is small this one is small  
464. Class: small  
465. Teacher: And we said that the opposite  
466. of the word small is big  
467. Class: big  
468. Teacher: The opposite of the word small is big  
469. Class: big  
470. Teacher: So I want you to go forward and read  
471. those words those opposite words  
472. Teacher: Phakamani niye phambile  
473. Teacher: Don't make noise don't make noise  
474. don't make noise  
475. Teacher: When you read say the  
476. opposite of full is empty  
477. Teacher: The opposite of full is  
478. Teacher: Say it like is say it  
479. Teacher: The opposite of full is  
480. Class: empty  
481. Teacher: Makamnye umtu opointayo sanufuna  
482. uku pointer nonke  
483. Class: full  
484. Class: empty

485. Teacher: Class: the opposite of full is empty  
 486. The opposite of full is  
 487. Class: empty  
 488. Teacher: The opposite of tall is short  
 489. Class: short  
 490. Teacher: The opposite of tall is short  
 491. Class: short  
 492. Class: The opposite of tall is short  
 493. Class: the opposite of heavy is light  
 494. Class: the opposite of heavy is light  
 495. Teacher: Don't play don't play read  
 496. Class: the opposite of clean is dirty  
 497. Class: the opposite of clean is dirty  
 498. Class: the opposite of small is big  
 499. Class: the opposite of small is big  
 500. Class: the opposite of full is empty  
 501. Class: the opposite of full is empty  
 502. Class: the opposite of tall is short  
 503. Class: the opposite of tall is short  
 504. Class; the opposite of heavy is light  
 505. Class: the opposite of heavy is light  
 506. Class: the opposite of clean is dirty  
 507. Class: the opposite of clean is dirty  
 508. Teacher: You are playing now you are not reading  
 509. Teacher: You are playing now you are not reading  
 510. Class: the opposite of big is  
 511. Class: the opposite of small is big

#### **KATE TYPICAL LESSON**

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- 1 Learner: My church is hope of glory  
 2 Teacher: Thank you Njongo, and you your church, your church, yes Nwabisa your church  
 3 Learner: My church is United  
 4 Teacher: United Church of Christ  
 5 Learner: United Holy Church of God  
 6 Teacher: Ok thank you, thank you, thank you, and yours?... Everybody must raise their hands up not sing, Luxolo what is this?  
 7 Learner: That is an apple  
 8 Teacher: That is an apple  
 9 Learners: That is an apple  
 10 Teacher: That is an apple, class  
 11 Learners: That is an apple  
 12 Teacher: Can you read this for me all of you  
 13 Learners: Yes, Mrs Solwandle  
 14 Teacher: Read  
 15 Learners: a  
 16 Teacher: I want to see your mouth is that a  
 17 Learners: a  
 18 Teacher: No no no no no not a look at my mouth look at my mouth  
 19 Learners : a a a  
 20 Teacher: a a my teeth are inside, do you see my teeth no no no you don't see my teeth when I said a do you see my teeth  
 21 Learners: No  
 22 Teacher: This is an apple, what is this class?  
 23 Learners: This is an...
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- 24 Teacher: No no no no no look at me, I've said this is an apple because I can point it  
I can touch the apple ne? I've said this ne? you are going to say
- 25 Learners: That
- 26 Teacher: That is an apple, this is an apple, what is this class?
- 27 Learners: That is an apple
- 28 Teacher: This is an apple, what is this class
- 29 Learners: That is an apple
- 30 Teacher: Very good, can you see this picture, what is it? Noluvuyo
- 31 Learner: That is an ink
- 32 Teacher: Do you know a ink, what do you do with an ink?
- 33 Learners: Painting
- 34 Teacher: We are using long long ago, let me show you the ink, let me show the ink, this pen inside  
the pen there is ink, ja inside this pen there is an ink long time ago the ink was inside the bottle and  
the pens are not like this one, we are using the pen that takes the ink and we wrote with that aniyazi  
ke ninake thina sasisebenzisa izinto kwakusithiwa ngamasiba, thina sasisebebnzisa izinto  
kwakusithiwa ngamasiba ibhol pen enjengalena zazinqabile ezine ink inside ezi ready for uba ubhale  
ne uthenga I ink esebhotileni ink like this than elasiba lakho lenziwe uyifunxe la ink apha  
ngaphakathi ubhale iyaphela ke as ba ubhala ke as you are writing the ink finish up than you going to  
take the bottle again and take the ink inside u see
- 35 Learners: Yes miss
- 36 Teacher: Ja this is an ink, can you tell me what is it I'm not sure about this picture can you tell me  
what is this, I'm not sure about the picture
- 37 Learners: E
- 38 Teacher: I want you to look at my mouth
- 39 Learners: E x7
- 40 Teacher: Do you see my teeth now
- 41 Learners: E x5
- 42 Teacher: Very good this is an egg ne? Can you look at this picture, what is it umbrella,umbrella,  
Ngxakaza uthi this is an umbrella, what is this?
- 43 Learners: That is an umbrella
- 44 Teacher: What is this class
- 45 Learners: That is an umbrella
- 46 Teacher: Very good, what is it this one, what is it Iviwe?
- 47 Learner: Orange
- 48 Teacher: Jonga, look at my mouth now, orange, what is it?
- 49 Learner: Orange
- 50 Teacher: Heeee
- 51 Learners: Orange
- 52 Teacher: Very good, right learners lets go back to a we said apple ne, can you give me five other  
words with this vowel a, ndinike amamnye amagama ona a owaziyo, give me another words with this  
a
- 53 Learner: Cat
- 54 Teacher: Very good
- 55 Learner: Car
- 56 Learner: Mat
- 57 Teacher: Very good
- 58 Learner: Arm
- 59 Teacher: heee
- 60 Learner: Can
- 61 Teacher: Hee can
- 62 Learner: Sat
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63 Teacher: Very good, wake up, wake up, wake up Sethu  
64 Learner: Man  
65 Teacher: Man good, you are so clever man, you are so clever, will you give me other words rather than egg, other five words with this vowel  
66 Learner: Yes  
67 Teacher: Yes very good, look at me yes  
68 Learner: Wet  
69 Teacher: Wet, wet very good  
70 Learner: Let  
71 Teacher: Let, let  
72 Learner: Leg  
73 Teacher: Leg very good  
74 Learner: Hen, hen  
75 Teacher: Hen very good  
76 Learner: Ten  
77 Teacher: Hands down you are very good, oh you look at this picture, ok it doesn't matter, so we all know these vowels ne?  
78 Learner: Yes  
79 Teacher: Will you please read for me these phonics  
80 Learner: Yes  
81 Teacher: Can you read for me all of you  
82 Learners: What  
83 Teacher: The red one, the red one, right wh plus at what is it?  
84 Learners: What  
85 Teacher: What very good... bla...ck Sinentlantla  
86 Learner: Good  
87 Teacher: Black very good black. Siphokazi  
88 Learner: Chop  
89 Teacher: Let's not do the noise, let's not make noise ne let us not make noise okay  
90 Learners: Yes miss  
91 Teacher: Okay Sibabalo  
92 Learner: Clak  
93 Teacher: No x5..Yes onela  
94 Learner: Clap  
95 Teacher: Clap will you please, hands up don't talk all of you ne will you please show me how to clap  
96 Learners: Clap hands  
97 Teacher: I said not everybody, I'm gonna say do the thing, ja  
98 Learner: Clap hands  
99 Teacher: Very good what are you doing Noluvuyo  
100 Learners: I am claping  
101 Teacher: What are you doing  
102 Learners: I am claping  
103 Teacher: Good x3 right. Learners, learners will you do me something heee  
104 Learners: Yes miss  
105 Teacher: Can you stand  
106 Learners: Yes  
107 Teacher: Because I am going to write now, can you stand up  
108 Learners: Yes I can stand up  
109 Teacher: I am standing up

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- 110 Learners: I am standing up  
111 Teacher: I can stand up  
112 Learners: I can stand up  
113 Teacher: Not standing, I can stand up
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### **HENRIETTA TYPICAL LESSONS**

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- 1 Teacher: Sit down sit...  
2 Teacher: Put away other books  
3 Teacher: Imountain yintaba andithi  
4 Class: yes  
5 Teacher: Imountain yintoni?  
6 Class: yintaba  
7 Teacher: Imountain yintoni?  
8 Class: yintaba  
9 Teacher: Yintaba imoutanin  
10 Teacher: Yintaba imountain  
11 Teacher: Kuthiwa lamanzi asuka unlambho usuka entabeni  
12 Teacher: Yintaba andithi  
13 Class: yes  
14 Teacher: Andithi  
15 Class: yes  
16 Teacher: Andithi  
17 Class: yes  
18 Teacher: Ok listen  
19 Class: listen  
20 Teacher: Listen  
21 Class: listen  
22 Teacher: I will tell you a story about little river  
23 Class: I will tell you a story about little river  
24 Teacher: I will tell you a story about little river  
25 Class: I will tell you a story about little river  
26 Teacher: Now lets start from the beginning nhe  
27 Class: yes  
28 Teacher: Let us read the heading  
29 Class: little river runs to the sea  
30 Teacher: Again  
31 Class: little river runs to the sea  
32 Teacher: Again  
33 Class: little river runs to the sea  
34 Teacher: Yes  
35 Class: everyday mamelo helps her mother  
36 Teacher: Yes  
37 Class: she carries a bucket of water from the river to the kitchen  
38 Teacher: Yes
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- 39 Teacher: Mother boils the water one day mamelo says to her mother  
40 Yes  
41 Class: please tell me a story about water  
42 Teacher: Yes  
43 Class: where does it come from  
44 Teacher: Yes  
45 Teacher: Yes  
46 Teacher: Yes  
47 Teacher: Everyday mamelo helps her mother she carries a bucket of water from the river to the kitchen nhe  
48 Class: yes  
49 Teacher: Mother boils the water one day mamelo says to her mother please mother tell me a story about water where does it comes from nhe  
50 Class: yes  
51 Teacher: Now lets come to the second passage. mother pours some water  
52 Class: mother pours some water  
53 Teacher: Out of a jug  
54 Class: out of a jug  
55 Teacher: Into a cup  
56 Class: in to a cup  
57 Teacher: Mother pours some water out of a jug into a cup  
58 Class: mother pours some water out of a jug into a cup  
59 Teacher: She gives it to mamelo  
60 Class: she gives it to mamelo  
61 Teacher: And says  
62 Class: and says  
63 Teacher: She gives it to mamelo and says  
64 Class: she gives it to mamelo and says  
65 Teacher: The river brings us water  
66 Class: the river brings us water  
67 Teacher: Yolanda  
68 Learner: Foot  
69 Teacher: Nyanisile, omnye  
70 Learner: Good  
71 Teacher: Good umiss naye abhale pha encwadini yakhe abhale bani  
72 Learners: Good  
73 Teacher: Elandelayo  
74 Learner: Goose  
75 Teacher: Yabona naye phaya solathisele Thozama, heke yabona ba kukho o oo ababini  
76 Leaners: Yes miss  
77 Teacher: Kwafuneka ujonge kum ke andiyazi ujonge ntoni apho  
78 Learner: Zoo  
79 Teacher: Zoo sawuya e zoo, phi  
80 Learners: E zoo  
81 Teacher: Ndakubetha Siphosethu, zoo ewe  
82 Learner: Door  
83 Teacher: Door unyanisile, Thandokazi  
84 Learner: Doll  
85 Teacher: Uthandokazi uthi doll
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- 86 Learners: No mem
- 87 Teacher: Yava bathi no ke
- 88 Learner: Foot
- 89 Teacher: Uthi foot, ndisekhona Thanduxolo
- 90 Learner: Floor
- 91 Teacher: Floor ok, khona elinye funeka abemayi ten , basiwabale mangaphi
- 92 Learners: One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight
- 93 Teacher: Heke
- 94 Learner: Food
- 95 Teacher: Food, unyanisile food, Ayabonga
- 96 Learner: School
- 97 Teacher: Unyanisile
- 98 Learners: Yes miss
- 99 Teacher: Unyanisile school
- 100 Learners: Khona elinye mem
- 101 Teacher: Isithuba siphelile ngoku
- 102 Learner: Tooth
- 103 Teacher: Unyanisile, khannenze isivakalisi, kanenze isivakalisi ngalamagama. I went to the zoo
- 104 Learners: I went to the zoo
- 105 Teacher: Esakho isivakalisi
- 106 Learner: The book is on the chair, the book is on the chair
- 107 Teacher: Unyanisile heke right esinye isivakalisi, isentence, the book is on the chair unyanisile. Enye I sentence, ithini enye, sithini esinye isivakalisi Gcobani
- 108 Learner: I go to school
- 109 Teacher: Ok unyanisile ke go to school ewe, ithini enye Aphiwe, kwaza Aphiwe,
- 110 Learner: The door is open
- 111 Teacher: Uthini u Aphiwe
- 112 Learners: The door is open
- 113 Teacher: Unyanisile okay esinye isivakalisi, usebenzise eli igama uAphiwe ne, heke usebenzise udoor
- 114 Learner: I look the hippo
- 115 Teacher: At the hippo, wayijonga kaloku ne okay alright, elinye ke
- 116 Learner: Uthi uBilli the foot is writing
- 117 Teacher: Heeeee
- 118 Learner: Uthi uBilli the foot is writing
- 119 Learner: Hayi uyakumsha Sibabalwe
- 120 Learner: The goose is on the zoo
- 121 Teacher: Alright ke nanga lamagama ano o, ngoku ke pha encwadini yakho, ngoku ke pha encwadini yakho ke ne lamaama ano o uzawabhala nge crayon kengoku anditsho ogqiba kengoku umntu andenzele Isentence eyi one, kupha incwadi ye phonics, khupha incwadi ye english phonics, suze yonke enye incwadi kushiyeke le inye, bhala igama ubhale uMarch. Uyakhupha Afrika uyawuvula nini incwadi uqale ke kwi phephe elitsha ne
- 122 Learners: Yes miss
- 123 Teacher: Uyabhala ke khaya okhanye uyathetha, hayi hayi suthetha, suthetha
- 124 Learner: Siphamandla awukabhali nobhala, bhala lanto ipha ebhodini
- 125 Teacher: Do you want somebody to read something for you
- 126 Jabulani: It's okay ja
- 127 Teacher: Iphi Billi mane nilahla qo nicimba nzaninika into zobhala, hayisuka wonke ayikho lento uyenzayo uzabhala njani isivakalisi kulendawo incinci kangaka ungaske utyile ke qa, utheni lona u o ngoba kufuneka balingane ba o bobabini, siviwe theni ungabekeli, umntu ozothatha icrayon ibenye ne kwezi zicacayo kuba ezi ziske zingacaci nakezincwadi sowuthatha le ibomvu yakho ubhale ngayo thatha ke ubhale phezu kwaba o baphayana. Afrika izobonakala lonto kuloncwadi, kwelophepha, heee yenza isivakalisi , bhala eligama kaloku,
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- anicingi nithethe apha nina.
- 128** Learner: Bhala Afrika
- 129** Teacher: One, one kaloku bazawu bhuda apha, heke ugqibile kengoku, ide ubhale thanduxolo ithini lento yakho bhala phezu kwesandi esi ubulindele ntoni Thanduxolo, asithethi asithethi siyabhala
- 130** Learners: Book, look, foot, food
- 131** Teacher: Theni uno foot aba bini, masiwa jonge ke sonke apha ebhodini sonke, Siphosethu sijonge
- 132** Learners: Book, look, foot, good
- 133** Teacher: Good ne
- 134** Learners: Yes miss
- 135** Teacher: Very good, good
- 136** Learner: Goose, zoo, door, floor
- 137** Teacher: Phinde
- 138** Learners: Floor, foot, food, school
- 139** Teacher: Nantsoke, khayenze we ke Liyema
- 140** Learner: food, foot, zoo, floor, school
- 141** Teacher: Thanduxolo
- 142** Learners: Book, look, foot, good, goose, zoo, floor
- 143** Teacher: Jokani eyokqibela
- 144** Learner: Foot, food, goose, zoo, door, floor, food, school
- 145** Teacher: Hayike nango ke amagama hayi siyapheza ngoku,
- 146** right ke vala incwadi sithi cwaka
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#### **DOROTHY LESSONS**

1. Teacher: Ahhh yes boy
2. Learner: my name is afikile
3. Teacher: He is afikile
4. Teacher: Who is he
5. Teacher: Ngubani lowa
6. Teacher: Who is he
7. Learner: he is afikile
8. Teacher: Class
9. Class: he is afikile
10. Teacher: Thank you
11. Teacher: Who is the boy
12. Teacher: Ngubani la nkwenkwe
13. Teacher: Who is the boy
14. Teacher: Who is the boy
15. Teacher: who is the boy
16. Teacher: yes at the back
17. Teacher: yankela the boy
18. learner: the boy is afikile
19. Teacher: thank you sit down
20. Teacher: how old are you?
21. Teacher: how old are you?
22. Teacher: girls girls come up
23. Teacher: how old are you?
24. learner: I am eleven years old
25. Teacher: she is eleven years old
26. Teacher: she is eleven years old
27. Teacher: how old is she
28. Teacher: how old is she
29. Teacher: yes
30. learner: she is eleven years old
31. Teacher: good class she is eleven years old

32. Teacher: she is
33. class: she is eleven years old
34. Teacher: she is
35. class: she is eleven years old
36. Teacher: alright thank you
37. Teacher: err today we are going to talk about nouns
38. Teacher: today we are going to talk about nouns
39. Teacher: what is the other name for talk
40. Teacher: talk other name
41. Teacher: meaning of the word talk
42. Teacher: hehehe meaning of the word talk
43. Teacher: igama ilithetha inti enye notalk nguanina
44. Teacher: meaning of the other word talk
45. Teacher: same as
46. learner: same as speak
47. Teacher: speak
48. Teacher: talk speak
49. Teacher: talk speak
50. Teacher: talk speak
51. Teacher: talk
52. class: talk speak
53. Teacher: talk
54. class: talk speak
55. Teacher: sorry sir
56. Teacher: mama khawulinde wethu ndise nondwndwe
57. Teacher: ok what is a noun
58. Teacher: what is a noun
59. Teacher: hands up hands up
60. Teacher: what is a noun
61. Teacher: this side
62. Teacher: this side
63. Teacher: be there for you group
64. Teacher: be there for your group
65. Teacher: what is a noun?
66. Teacher: yes ndoda
67. learner: a noun is a doing word
68. Teacher: no try again
69. Teacher: not a doing word
70. Teacher: not a doing word
71. Teacher: this is a verb I want a noun
72. Teacher: what is a noun
73. Teacher: yes bhuti
74. learner: the noun is the name of a place
75. Teacher: a noun is the name of a place
76. Teacher: a noun is the name of a place
77. Teacher: a noun
78. class: a noun is the name of a place
79. Teacher: a noun
80. class: a noun is the name of a place
81. Teacher: name of a place
82. Teacher: give any name of a place
83. Teacher: I want only two
84. Teacher: yes
85. learner: magcabini
86. Teacher: Magcabini
87. Teacher: Magcabini
88. Teacher: Yes nontombi
89. Teacher: Yes pitshozana
90. Learner: monti
91. Teacher: Monti

92. Teacher: Ok thank you
93. Teacher: Second description about a noun
94. Teacher: Second description about a noun
95. Teacher: Hayi kalok inoun ayilo gama lomtu kuphela
96. Teacher: Second description about a noun
97. Teacher: Hee naba abantu belibele
98. Teacher: They are old they are grannies and grandfathers
99. Teacher: Yes
100. Learner: a noun is the name of a person
101. Teacher: A noun is the name of a person
102. Teacher: A noun is the name of a person
103. Teacher: A noun is the name of a person good
104. Teacher: Noun?
105. Class: noun is the name of a person
106. Teacher: Give any name of a person
107. Teacher: Any any any name of a person
108. Teacher: Yes
109. Learner: Banoyolo
110. Teacher: Banoyolo
111. Teacher: What about surname is it a noun or not
112. Teacher: A surname is noun
113. Teacher: What about surname
114. Teacher: Is it a noun or not
115. Teacher: Ifani yi noun noba yintoni
116. Teacher: What about a surname?
117. Teacher: Yes I agree a noun is the name of a person what about surname is it a noun or not
118. Teacher: A surname is also a noun
119. Teacher: A surname is a noun
120. Teacher: A surname is a noun
121. Teacher: Ifani
122. Teacher: A surname
123. Class: a surname is a noun
124. Teacher: Very good what's next about a noun
125. Teacher: Name of a person
126. Teacher: Name of a place
127. Teacher: Let us describe
128. Teacher: Let us describe a noun
129. Teacher: Name of a person
130. Teacher: Name of a place
131. Teacher: Yes yamkela
132. Teacher: A noun
133. Teacher: Incorrect
134. Teacher: Yes
135. Class: a noun is the name of a thing
136. Teacher: Name of a thing
137. Teacher: Name of a thing
138. Teacher: A noun
139. Class: a noun is the name of a thing
140. Teacher: Give any example of a thing
141. Teacher: Any example of a thing
142. Teacher: This raw stand in for your raw
143. Teacher: Stand for your raw
144. Teacher: Stand for your raw
145. Teacher: Any example of a thing
146. Learner: dog
147. Teacher: Dog
148. Teacher: Dog
149. Teacher: Dog is a thing
150. Teacher: Okuhle
151. Learner: aeroplane

152. Teacher: Aeroplane  
 153. Teacher: Aeroplane  
 154. Teacher: Class  
 155. Class: aeroplane  
 156. Teacher: Class  
 157. Class: aeroplane  
 158. Teacher: Yes thing  
 159. Teacher: Yes yamkela  
 160. Learner: chair  
 161. Learner: chair  
 162. Teacher: Good chair  
 163. Teacher: There are many things here in our class room  
 164. Teacher: There are many things here in our class room  
 165. Teacher: Here good  
 166. Teacher: Ongeziwe  
 167. Learner: cow  
 168. Teacher: Cow let us think about things in our class room  
 169. Teacher: Let us try to think about things in our class room  
 170. Teacher: Yes asivile  
 171. Learner: car  
 172. Teacher: Let us speak about these things these things in our class room  
 173. Teacher: Yes afikile  
 174. Class: chair  
 175. Teacher: Chair what else  
 176. Teacher: Thabo  
 177. Teacher: Awuuu you like motor cars  
 178. Teacher: You like motor cars  
 179. Teacher: Yes  
 180. Learner: cupboard  
 181. Teacher: Cupboard thank you sit down  
 182. Teacher: Sit down err  
 183. Teacher: What about seasons of the year  
 184. Teacher: What about days of the week  
 185. Teacher: What about days of the week  
 186. Teacher: nirhakazi  
 187. Teacher: Days of the week are also nouns  
 188. Teacher: Now give me any day of the week  
 189. Teacher: How many days in a week  
 190. Teacher: How many days in a week  
 191. Teacher: Zingaphi intsuku zeveki  
 192. Teacher: I know nothing about a week  
 193. Teacher: I know nothing about the days  
 194. Teacher: I want to know how many days in a week  
 195. Teacher: Yes nondoda  
 196. Learner: there are seven days in a week  
 197. Teacher: There are seven days in a week  
 198. Class: there are seven days in a week  
 199. Teacher: Again  
 200. Class: there are seven days in a week  
 201. Teacher: Which are they  
 202. Teacher: Hands up  
 203. Teacher: Days of the week  
 204. Teacher: I want the nouns  
 205. Teacher: I want the days of the week  
 206. Teacher: Yes nondoda  
 207. Learner: Monday  
 208. Teacher: Monday  
 209. Teacher: What day is it today?  
 210. Teacher: Today is  
 211. Teacher: What day is it today?

212. Teacher: Today  
 213. Teacher: No hands up  
 214. Teacher: No howling  
 215. Teacher: No howling  
 216. Yes nontombi  
 217. Learner: today is Monday  
 218. Teacher: Today  
 219. Class: today is Monday  
 220. Teacher: Today  
 221. Class: today is Monday  
 222. Teacher: What day was it yesterday?  
 223. Teacher: What day was it yesterday?  
 224. Teacher: Same hands  
 225. Teacher: Same hands  
 226. Teacher: Come on  
 227. Teacher: Yesterday  
 228. Teacher: Yesterday  
 229. Learner: yesterday date was Sunday  
 230. Teacher: Yesterday was Sunday  
 231. Teacher: Come again  
 232. Learner: yesterday date was Sunday  
 233. Teacher: Yesterday was Sunday  
 234. Class: yesterday was Sunday  
 235. Teacher: Yesterday  
 236. Class: yesterday was Sunday  
 237. Teacher: Yesterday  
 238. Class: yesterday was Sunday  
 239. Teacher: Alright  
 240. Teacher: Give the present tense of the word was  
 241. Teacher: Present tense of the word was  
 242. Teacher: Heee they are sleeping  
 243. Teacher: They are sleeping  
 244. Teacher: Yes mihlali  
 245. Learner: is was  
 246. Teacher: Is present tense  
 247. Class: is  
 248. Teacher: Is past tense was  
 249. Class: was  
 250. Teacher: Present tense  
 251. Teacher: Past tense was  
 252. Teacher: What day is it today  
 253. Teacher: What day  
 254. Teacher: What day is it today  
 255. Teacher: Today  
 256. Teacher: Today  
 257. Teacher: They know nothing about the days of the week  
 258. Teacher: Today yes ntombi  
 259. Learner: today is Monday  
 260. Teacher: Good  
 261. Teacher: Today is Monday  
 262. Teacher: Today  
 263. Teacher: Today  
 264. Teacher: Ok tomorrow will be  
 265. Teacher: Tomorrow  
 266. Teacher: They seem as if they know nothing the days of the week  
 267. Teacher: I am teaching grannies and grandfathers  
 268. Teacher: Yes  
 269. Teacher: Abongile  
 270. Learner: will be  
 271. Teacher: Tomorrow will be

272. Learner: tomorrow will be Wednesday  
 273. Teacher: Tomorrow no not Wednesday  
 274. Teacher: Try again  
 275. Teacher: Try again  
 276. Teacher: Try again baby  
 277. Teacher: Try again  
 278. Teacher: Yes awonke  
 279. Learner: tomorrow will be Tuesday  
 280. Teacher: Good Tomorrow will be Tuesday say it Abongile  
 281. Learner: tomorrow will be Tuesday  
 282. Teacher: Uvile Abongile  
 283. Teacher: Tomorrow  
 284. Learner: Tomorrow will be Tuesday  
 285. Teacher: Tomorrow class  
 286. Class: Tomorrow will be Tuesday  
 287. Teacher: Class  
 288. Class: Tomorrow will be Tuesday  
 289. Teacher: Will you please please give me the last day of the week  
 290. Teacher: Last day  
 291. Teacher: Last day of the week  
 292. Teacher: Will you please give me the last day of the week  
 293. Teacher: Hayi madoda last day ekugqibeleni last born  
 294. Teacher: Uzelwe mva lomtu ngowoku gqibela she is the last born  
 295. Teacher: Ngowoku gqibela  
 296. Teacher: Last day  
 297. Teacher: Yes nondoda  
 298. Learner: last day is friday  
 299. Teacher: Try again  
 300. Teacher: Try again  
 301. Teacher: Try again  
 302. Teacher: Try again  
 303. Teacher: Last day  
 304. Teacher: Yes siphelele  
 305. Learner: last day is Saturday  
 306. Teacher: Last day is Saturday  
 307. Teacher: Mihlali last day is Saturday  
 308. Teacher: Say so  
 309. Learner: the last day is Saturday  
 310. Teacher: Again  
 311. Learner: the last day is Saturday  
 312. Teacher: Thank you thank you  
 313. Teacher: I think let me change my topic  
 314. Teacher: Alright oh where is the duster  
 315. Teacher: Ok sorry  
 316. Teacher: Piece of chalk please  
 317. Teacher: Ok I am going to give you some short exercise  
 318. Teacher: We are going to write one by one on the board  
 319. Teacher: Alright my name is Mary Sokufa  
 320. Teacher: My name is Mary Sokufa  
 321. Teacher: The teacher's name is Mary and the surname is Sokufa  
 322. Teacher: Alright  
 323. Teacher: Let us read on the board  
 324. Class: my name is Mary Sokufa  
 325. Teacher: Ruler  
 326. Teacher: Again  
 327. Teacher: Again class let us read read  
 328. Class: my name is Mary Sokufa  
 329. Teacher: I don't want you to remind me about what I want  
 330. Teacher: Do you understand sir  
 331. Teacher: I don't want to remind them about what I want

332. Teacher: I think this sentence is not properly correct
333. Teacher: We are going to correct it
334. Teacher: This sentence is not properly correct
335. Teacher: We are going to correct it properly
336. Teacher: Right what's wrong
337. Teacher: Coloured chalk coloured chalk
338. Teacher: Ok there is a chalk
339. Teacher: Let us come and correct the sentence
340. Teacher: Yes
341. Learner: my name
342. Teacher: Come and write
343. Teacher: Come and write
344. Teacher: Nantsi ichalk maku bhalwe
345. Teacher: Ndifuna silungise ezanto zi wrong pha
346. Teacher: I want us to speak about this m
347. Teacher: Do you think this m is right or wrong
348. Teacher: Is m right or wrong
349. Class: wrong
350. Teacher: It is wrong let us correct it
351. Teacher: No sit down sit down my boys
352. Teacher: Yes asivile
353. Teacher: Good good I want this one
354. Teacher: This size of m
355. Teacher: This size of m
356. Teacher: Ok this m is it a small letter or a capital letter
357. Teacher: Small letter or capital letter
358. Teacher: Yes cirhakazi
359. Learner: capital letter
360. Teacher: It is capital letter
361. Teacher: Why do we write capital letter here
362. Teacher: Yintoni lena ibangela ba sibale icaptal letter phayana
363. Teacher: Why we write capital letter here
364. Teacher: M capital letter
365. Teacher: Kutheni sizenza la m abeyi capital letter
366. Teacher: Hands up
367. Learner: it is the beginning of a sentence
368. Teacher: It is in the beginning of a sentence
369. Teacher: It is in the beginning of a sentence
370. Teacher: It is
371. Class: it is in the beginning of a sentence
372. Teacher: We write capital letter in the beginning of a sentence
373. Teacher: Class
374. Teacher: We write
375. Class: we write capital letter in the beginning of a sentence
376. Teacher: Masithethe sonke come again we write
377. Class: we write capital letters in the beginning of a sentence
378. Teacher: Again
379. Class: we write capital letters in the beginning of a sentence
380. Teacher: Alright we write capital letter in the beginning of a sentence
381. Teacher: Ok class we continue with our sentence
382. Teacher: Let us correct asika gqibi kaloku madoda
383. Teacher: Asikayi gqibi kwala sentence
384. Teacher: Hayi kengoku nalala
385. Teacher: Maphipha khange wenzento khange wenzento sisi
386. Teacher: Yes kungako
387. Teacher: Good good
388. Teacher: Good Mary
389. Teacher: Class
390. Class: Marry
391. Teacher: Class

392. Class: marry
393. Teacher: Why do we write m as a capital letter
394. Teacher: Why do we write m as a capital letter
395. Teacher: Hands up
396. Teacher: Yintoni ebangela ba la m simenze abeyi capital letter
397. Teacher: Because it is the name of a person
398. Teacher: Mary is the name of a person
399. Teacher: Mary
400. Class: Mary is the name of a person
401. Teacher: Mary
402. Class: Mary is the name of a person
403. Teacher: Yes we write capital letter or we use capital letter when we write the name of a person
404. Teacher: We write capital letter at the beginning of a sentence
405. Teacher: We write capital letter at the beginning of a sentence
406. Teacher: Here at the beginning of a sentence
407. Teacher: And also when we write the name of a person
408. Teacher: Name of a person
409. Teacher: Mary is the name of a person
410. Teacher: Sokufa I think is the surname
411. Teacher: Let us correct there
412. Teacher: Sorry about the poor hand writing
413. Teacher: Thank you thank you
414. Teacher: We also the surname
415. Teacher: We begin the surname with capital letter
416. Teacher: We begin the surname with capital letter
417. Teacher: Ok ok
418. Teacher: Where else do we use capital letters
419. Teacher: Size sebenzisa naphi icapital letters
420. Teacher: Where else do we use capital letters
421. Teacher: Hayi madoda hayi madoda icapital letters siyazi sebenzisa when writing the name of a person
422. Teacher: We use capital letter when we writing surname
423. Teacher: We use capital letter at the beginning of a sentence we use capital letter
424. Teacher: Where else naphi
425. Teacher: Hands up
426. Teacher: Hands up
427. Teacher: Yes afikile
428. Learner: place
429. Teacher: Where is the chalk?
430. Teacher: When we write the name of a place
431. Teacher: When we write the name of a place we use capital letters
432. Teacher: These are the uses of capital letters
433. Teacher: Where we use capital letter
434. Teacher: Where we write capital letters
435. Teacher: We use capital letter when we write the name of a place
436. Teacher: E.g umzekelo
437. Teacher: Zwelakhe
438. Teacher: Zwelakhe my school is zwelakhe
439. Teacher: Zwelakhe is the name of a place
440. Teacher: Is the name of my school zwelakhe
441. Teacher: My school is zwelakhe
442. Teacher: My school
443. Class: my school is zwelakhe
444. Teacher: My school
445. Class: my school is zwelakhe
446. Teacher: My school
447. Class: my school is zwelakhe
448. Teacher: Zwelakhe is the name of a place when you write the name of a place we begin with capital letter
449. Teacher: Ok let us look at this sentence
450. Teacher: Let us read the sentence

451. Teacher: Let us read the sentence
452. Class: today is Monday
453. Teacher: Come again
454. Class: today is Monday
455. Teacher: Come again
456. Class: today is Monday
457. Teacher: Let us correct the sentence
458. Teacher: Let us the correct the sentence
459. Teacher: Andifuni ukubiza abantu abanye madoda
460. Teacher: Yes yonelisa
461. Teacher: Nantsi ichalk mtana wam
462. Teacher: Ok thank you
463. Teacher: Yes
464. 2
465. Teacher: lets all stand up
466. Teacher: sit down
467. Teacher: stand up
468. Teacher: sit down
469. Teacher: stand up
470. Teacher: sit down
471. Teacher: stand up
472. Teacher: ok ok
473. Teacher: stand up stand up please
474. Teacher: let's do this quick quick
475. Teacher: quick quick
476. Teacher: ok ok
477. Teacher: hands up down
478. Teacher: up
479. Teacher: up
480. Teacher: down up
481. Teacher: up
482. Teacher: down
483. Teacher: Down
484. Teacher: Ok sit down
485. Teacher: My name
486. Teacher: Sunxama
487. Teacher: Sunxama
488. Teacher: Khawuthobe isandla awazi nalento ndiza kuyithetha
489. Teacher: My name is liziwe makhawula
490. Teacher: My name
491. Teacher: The teacher's name is liziwe makhawula
492. Teacher: I am a teacher
493. Teacher: I am a teacher
494. Teacher: My name is liziwe makhawula
495. Teacher: The teacher's name is liziwe makhawula
496. Teacher: Who is the teacher's name
497. Teacher: What is the teacher's name
498. Learner: the teacher's name is liziwe makhawula
499. Teacher: The teacher's name
500. Class: the teacher's name is liziwe makhawula
501. Teacher: Who is liziwe makhawula
502. Teacher: Ngubani uliziwe makhawula nolubabalo
503. Teacher: Ngubani uliziwe makhawula
504. Teacher: The teacher's is liziwe makhawula
505. Teacher: Yes ndiya vuma
506. Teacher: Who is liziwe makhawula
507. Teacher: Ngubani uliziwe ningathini ungandazi
508. Teacher: Ungamchaza uthini uliziwe
509. Teacher: Animazi ba ngubani uliziwe
510. Learner: teacher

511. Teacher: Teacher
512. Teacher: Liziwe makhawula is our teacher
513. Teacher: Yi tishala yethu
514. Teacher: Or is my eyam
515. Teacher: Liziwe makhawula
516. Class: liziwe makhawula is my teacher
517. Teacher: Liziwe makhawula is my teacher
518. Class: liziwe makhawula is my teacher
519. Teacher: Liziwe makhawula
520. Class: liziwe makhawula is my teacher
521. Teacher: Ok ok ok
522. Teacher: How many sisters do you have?
523. Teacher: How many sisters do you have?
524. Teacher: Yes nondoda
525. Learner: I have a three sisters
526. Teacher: I have three sisters
527. Teacher: I have three sisters
528. Teacher: Say it again
529. Learner: I have three sisters
530. Teacher: Good
531. Teacher: Zubenathi have has three sisters
532. Teacher: Zubenathi has three sisters
533. Teacher: How many sisters have zubenathi
534. Teacher: Andithethi ngabakho ndithetha ngaba kazubenathi
535. Teacher: Yes bhelekazi
536. Learner: has thee sisters
537. Teacher: Full sentence kaloku bhelekazi
538. Teacher: Zubenathi has three sisters itsho
539. Learner: zubenathi has three sisters
540. Teacher: Xana sithetha masizame ukuba sikhwaze
541. Teacher: Speak aloud
542. Teacher: Zubenathi
543. Class: zubenathi has three sisters
544. Teacher: Ok
545. Teacher: Where is your mother?
546. Teacher: Where is your mother?
547. Teacher: Zizo
548. Teacher: Kwaza nontombi
549. Learner: my mother is at home
550. Teacher: Again
551. Learner: my mother is at home
552. Teacher: Khwaza kaloku funeka evile lamtu uphayana
553. Teacher: My mother is at home
554. Teacher: What is she doing? wenzani umama?
555. Teacher: Umshiye esenza ntoni
556. Teacher: Umshiye esenza ntoni umama
557. Teacher: Ndicela nindijongwe bethunana noba ndimbi kangaka nanina
558. Teacher: Ndicela ndijongwe
559. Teacher: What is she doing?
560. Teacher: Hayibo asinabo omama
561. Teacher: Yes mcengane
562. Learner: my mother is clean home
563. Teacher: Yes my mother is at home
564. Teacher: What is she doing there besenza ntoni wenza ntoni umama
565. Learner: my mother sweep the floor
566. Teacher: My mother swept the floor
567. Teacher: Umshiye esenzani etshayela
568. Class: etshayela
569. Teacher: Ruler thank you thank you
570. Teacher: Thank you thank you

571. Teacher: Alright let us look to the chalk board
572. Teacher: Ok from the sentences on the board
573. Teacher: From the sentences on the board
574. Teacher: Let us choose first verbs only
575. Teacher: Let us choose verbs from the sentence on the board
576. Teacher: Girls boys not same hands please
577. Teacher: Yes thandokazi
578. Teacher: From the sentences here are the sentences
579. Teacher: Here are the sentences
580. Teacher: Choose verbs
581. Teacher: From any sentences anditshongo ba kweyiphi
582. Teacher: Leyo uyithandayo le ubinleyoba oh hayi at least ndiyayazi leyana iverb
583. Teacher: Yes banoyolo
584. Learner: drink
585. Teacher: drink
586. Teacher: Drink
587. Teacher: Where ok ok very good
588. Teacher: Class
589. Class: drink
590. Teacher: Class
591. Class: drink
592. Teacher: Class
593. Class: drink
594. Teacher: Drink is a
595. Class: drink is a verb
596. Teacher: Drink
597. Class: drink is a verb
598. Teacher: Thank you banoyolo
599. Teacher: Thank you banoyolo
600. Teacher: Hands up
601. Teacher: Hands up
602. Teacher: Hands up
603. Teacher: Yes siphelelele
604. Learner: run
605. Teacher: Run
606. Teacher: Ok thank you
607. Teacher: Where is run I don't see it
608. Teacher: I don't see the word run
609. Teacher: Point it
610. Teacher: Good
611. Teacher: Good
612. Teacher: Class
613. Class: run
614. Teacher: Class
615. Class: run
616. Teacher: Class run
617. Teacher: Run class
618. Teacher: Ok
619. Teacher: Ok
620. Teacher: Thank you
621. Teacher: Run is a verb
622. Teacher: The word run is a verb
623. Teacher: The word run is a verb
624. Teacher: The word
625. Class: the word run is a verb
626. Teacher: Yes where are the hands
627. Teacher: Where are the hands
628. Teacher: Yes yamkela
629. Learner: dog
630. Teacher: Dog

631. Teacher: Dog  
632. Teacher: Dog  
633. Teacher: Come and point dog  
634. Teacher: Come and point dog  
635. Teacher: Ok no no  
636. Teacher: No no we want a verb  
637. Teacher: Bhuti try again try again  
638. Teacher: We want a verb  
639. Teacher: That is not a verb  
640. Teacher: Dog is not a verb  
641. Teacher: Dog is a  
642. Class: dog is a noun  
643. Teacher: Dog is a  
644. Class: dog is a noun  
645. Teacher: Dog is a heyi you are clever  
646. Teacher: This side they say dog is not a verb  
647. Teacher: This side say dog is a noun  
648. Teacher: Good  
649. Teacher: Good  
650. Teacher: We are speaking about verbs we want verbs  
651. Teacher: Yes  
652. Teacher: Yes  
653. Teacher: Yes  
654. Teacher: Yes  
655. Teacher: Yes  
656. Teacher: Yes mihlali  
657. Teacher: Cry  
658. Teacher: Point cry  
659. Teacher: Ok cry class  
660. Class: try  
661. Teacher: Not tr  
662. Teacher: Not tr  
663. Teacher: Cry class  
664. Teacher: Class  
665. Class: cry  
666. Teacher: Cry class  
667. Teacher: Cry ok  
668. Teacher: Thank you  
669. Teacher: Thank you  
670. Teacher: Err cry  
671. Teacher: Cry  
672. Teacher: Yes  
673. Teacher: Come again  
674. Learner: sleep  
675. Teacher: Sleep  
676. Teacher: Point sleep  
677. Teacher: Ok thank you sit down  
678. Teacher: Sit down thank you  
679. Teacher: Thank you thank you my kids  
680. Teacher: Write the sentences  
681. Teacher: All the sentences  
682. Teacher: All all kanene ithetha ntoni  
683. Teacher: Good  
684. Teacher: All the sentences are in the present tense  
685. Teacher: Are in the present tense  
686. Teacher: All the sentences are in the present tense  
687. Teacher: Present tense  
688. Teacher: Class  
689. Class: present tense  
690. Teacher: Class

691. Class: present tense  
692. Teacher: Present tense  
693. Teacher: Class  
694. Class: present tense  
695. Teacher: Class  
696. Class: present tense  
697. Teacher: Ok  
698. Teacher: When a sentence is in the present tense  
699. Teacher: I mean  
700. Teacher: I mean ndithetha ukuthi  
701. Teacher: I mean  
702. Teacher: When the sentence is in the present tense that sentence when we speak about present tense we speak about something happening now  
703. Teacher: Now now  
704. Teacher: Nini  
705. Class: ngoku  
706. Teacher: now ngoku  
707. Teacher: When we speak about or when we talk about  
708. Teacher: When we speak or when we talk about present tense we talk about something happening when  
709. Class: now  
710. Teacher: Now  
711. Teacher: So we are going to change these sentences  
712. Teacher: They are in the present tense  
713. Teacher: We are going to change these sentences we are going to change them to the past tense  
714. Teacher: To the  
715. Class: to the past tense  
716. Teacher: To the  
717. Class: to the past tense  
718. Teacher: What do we mean about past tense?  
719. Teacher: Past tense  
720. Teacher: When you are outside someone say woou usandi xelesa ngalonto hayi mani yi past tense lena undixelela ngayo  
721. Teacher: Sundi xelalela nge past tense mna  
722. Teacher: Past tense is when the thing is already done no matter in the morning  
723. Teacher: No matter yesterday  
724. Teacher: No matter in two thousand and two yinto eseyenzekile ipast tense  
725. Teacher: Noba biyenzeke kusasa seyitheni seyenzekile  
726. Teacher: When you change the sentences or the sentence from present tense when you change the sentence from present tense to past tense  
727. Teacher: Look watch there is  
728. Teacher: You are going to change verb  
729. Teacher: If you change the sentence from the present tense to the past tense we are going to change verbs  
730. Teacher: We are going to change what...  
731. Class: we are going to change verbs  
732. Teacher: We are going to change verbs  
733. Teacher: We are going ...  
734. Teacher: We are going to change verbs  
735. Class: we are going to change verbs  
736. Teacher: We are going to change verbs  
737. Teacher: What is a verb?  
738. Teacher: It is wise to understand the meaning of the word verb  
739. Teacher: What is a verb?  
740. Teacher: Yes msabeli  
741. Learner: a verb is a doing word  
742. Teacher: A verb  
743. Class: a verb is a doing word  
744. Teacher: A verb is a doing word  
745. Teacher: Ok we are going to change all the doing words from the sentences on the board

746. Teacher: Let us read sentence number one
747. Class: my mother cook food
748. Teacher: Come again
749. Class: my mother cook food
750. Teacher: Ok
751. Teacher: Which word is going to be changed
752. Teacher: Which word are we going to change on the board
753. Teacher: Hands up
754. Teacher: Hands up
755. Teacher: Thabo
756. Learner: cooked
757. Teacher: Leliphi eligama sizakuli tshintsha apho eboardin
758. Teacher: Sotshintsha eliphi igama
759. Teacher: Ongeziwe yini nondoda
760. Teacher: Sotshintsha eliphi igama
761. Teacher: Sotshinstha eliphi igama
762. Teacher: From the sentence which word are we going to change
763. Teacher: Mmmm awonke
764. Learner: cook
765. Teacher: We are going to change cook
766. Teacher: We are going to change cook
767. Teacher: We are going to change cook
768. Teacher: Why
769. Teacher: Why cook
770. Teacher: Why are we going to change cook
771. Teacher: Why
772. Teacher: Kutheni nggani
773. Teacher: Kutheni lento ucook funeka simtshintshile
774. Teacher: Besiyi xelile
775. Teacher: Ok we are going to change cook because cook is a verb
776. Teacher: Cook is a verb
777. Teacher: When we change a sentence from the present tense to the past tense
778. Teacher: Let us change
779. Teacher: Let us change
780. Teacher: Let us look to the verb
781. Teacher: Let us change the verb
782. Teacher: That is why we are going to change because cook is a verb
783. Teacher: We are going to change cook to cooked
784. Teacher: Cooked
785. Class: cooked
786. Teacher: Cook
787. Class: cooked
788. Teacher: Cook
789. Class: cooked
790. Teacher: Cook
791. Class: cooked
792. Teacher: Cooked
793. Teacher: Ok let us change this sentence into past tense
794. Teacher: Let us change sentence number one
795. Teacher: Hayibo
796. Teacher: Hayibo
797. Teacher: Hayibo mela iraw yakho mani
798. Teacher: Mela iraw yakho mani
799. Teacher: Zubenathi
800. Learner: cooked
801. Teacher: Read the sentence
802. Learner: my mother cooked food
803. Teacher: Let us change the verb cook
804. Teacher: My
805. Learner: my mother cooked food

806. Teacher: Change cook to past tense  
807. Learner: cooked  
808. Teacher: Come again  
809. Learner: my mother cooked food  
810. Teacher: Class let us change the sentence  
811. Teacher: Thank you sit down  
812. Teacher: Let us change the sentence number one  
813. Class: my mother cooked food  
814. Teacher: Again  
815. Class: my mother cooked food  
816. Teacher: Ok thank you let us look at sentence number six  
817. Teacher: Sentence number six  
818. Teacher: Let us look at sentence number six  
819. Teacher: I want the verb first  
820. Teacher: I want the verb from sentence number six  
821. Teacher: I want the verb  
822. Teacher: Singaba sithi abanye kaloku bantwana bam  
823. Teacher: Yes banoyolo  
824. Learner: read  
825. Teacher: Good verb  
826. Teacher: Class  
827. Class: read  
828. Teacher: Class  
829. Class: read  
830. Teacher: Class  
831. Class: read  
832. Teacher: Let us spell read  
833. Class: R  
834. Class: E  
835. Class: A  
836. Class: D  
837. Class: read  
838. Teacher: Again  
839. Class: R  
840. Class: E  
841. Class: A  
842. Class: D  
843. Class: read  
844. Teacher: Ok close your eyes  
845. Teacher: Close your eyes  
846. Teacher: Spell read  
847. Class: R  
848. Class: E  
849. Class: A  
850. Class: D  
851. Class: read  
852. Teacher: Again  
853. Class: R  
854. Class: E  
855. Class: A  
856. Class: D  
857. Class: read  
858. Teacher: Okuhle spell read  
859. Learner: R  
860. Teacher: Close your eyes  
861. Learner: R  
862. Learner: E  
863. Learner: A  
864. Learner: D  
865. Learner: read

866. Teacher: Yhoooo
867. Teacher: Open your eyes
868. Teacher: Open your eyes read sentence number six
869. Teacher: All read sentence number six
870. Class: they read the book
871. Teacher: Again
872. Class: they read the book
873. Teacher: Ok
874. Teacher: Err is it a noun or a verb?
875. Teacher: Is read a noun or a verb?
876. Teacher: Mihlali
877. Learner: read is a verb
878. Teacher: Read is a verb
879. Teacher: So we are going to change read
880. Teacher: Because when we change the sentence to past tense we change verbs
881. Teacher: ok
882. Teacher: Hands up past tense of read
883. Teacher: Ndiya kubawela nje nondodana
884. Teacher: Past tense of read
885. Teacher: Nanku umtu endiphoxa nanku umtu endiphoxa
886. Teacher: Silindokuhle
887. Learner: read read
888. Teacher: Read read
889. Teacher: Makhe sive
890. Teacher: Try again
891. Teacher: Try again
892. Teacher: Try again
893. Teacher: Hayibi yonelisa
894. Learner: read
895. Teacher: Read
896. Teacher: No yonelisa
897. Learner: read read
898. Teacher: Class
899. Class: read read
900. Teacher: Class
901. Class: read read
902. Teacher: Ok close your eyes
903. Teacher: Close your eyes
904. Teacher: Hehe akhondawu engenabo otsotsi
905. Teacher: Spell read
906. Class: R
907. Class: E
908. Class: A
909. Class: D
910. Class: read
911. Teacher: Again
912. Class: R
913. Class: E
914. Class: A
915. Class: D
916. Class: read
917. Teacher: Ok thank you
918. Teacher: Good
919. Teacher: Good
920. Teacher: Good let us read this word
921. Teacher: Let us read this word
922. Teacher: Hands up
923. Teacher: Read this word
924. Teacher: Eligama eli
925. Teacher: Hayibo hayi bethuna open your eyes

926. Teacher: Open masiwavule sorini bantwana bam  
 927. Teacher: Let us read hands up  
 928. Teacher: Thandokazi  
 929. Learner: read  
 930. Teacher: Read  
 931. Teacher: Class  
 932. Class: read  
 933. Teacher: Class  
 934. Class: read  
 935. Teacher: Class  
 936. Class: read  
 937. Teacher: Ok read Red but this means a colour  
 938. Teacher: Means colour  
 939. Teacher: Sapha ubhaka lowo  
 940. Teacher: Let allsay this word is read past tense of read  
 941. Teacher: This one is the past tense of  
 942. Class: of read  
 943. Teacher: This read is the past tense read but there is this red same pronunciation  
 944. Teacher: Abizwa ngoku fanayo  
 945. Teacher: Same pronunciation but this one means the colour  
 946. Teacher: For instance this colour is red  
 947. Teacher: The colour this part of the colour is red  
 948. Teacher: This colour is red  
 949. Teacher: This line is red  
 950. Teacher: Do you understand the colour red  
 951. Teacher: This line is red  
 952. Teacher: Ok sit down  
 953. Teacher: Sit down  
 954. Teacher: Let us read sentence number five  
 955. Teacher: Let us read all read sentence number five  
 956. Class: the dog sleeps outside  
 957. Teacher: The dogs  
 958. Class: the dog sleeps out side  
 959. Teacher: Ok what do you mean by sleep  
 960. Teacher: Sleep  
 961. Teacher: Sleep class  
 962. Teacher: Akusekhomtu uronayo  
 963. Teacher: Yaziba nilala kamandi nhe ok bantwana bam  
 964. Teacher: The dog sleep outside  
 965. Teacher: Outside phi kanene  
 966. Class: phandle  
 967. Teacher: Eee phandle  
 968. Teacher: Thetha nondoda  
 969. Teacher: Hayi suka uyandi phazamisa mtanam andina pen  
 970. Teacher: The dog sleep outside  
 971. Teacher: Err sleep we say sleep is a verb  
 972. Teacher: Past tense of sleep is  
 973. Teacher: Past tense of sleep is  
 974. Teacher: Class  
 975. Class: slept  
 976. Teacher: Again  
 977. Class: slept  
 978. Teacher: Close your eyes and spell sleep  
 979. Teacher: Lithakazi spell sleep  
 980. Learner: S  
 981. Learner: L  
 982. Learner: E  
 983. Learner: E  
 984. Learner: P  
 985. Learner: sleep

986. Teacher: Come again lithakazi Learner: S  
 987. Learner: L  
 988. Learner: E  
 989. Learner: E  
 990. Learner: P  
 991. Learner: sleep  
 992. Teacher: Try again  
 993. Teacher: I want spelling of sleep  
 994. Teacher: Again lithakazi  
 995. Learner: S  
 996. Learner: L  
 997. Learner: E  
 998. Learner: E  
 999. Learner: P  
 1000. Learner: sleep  
 1001. Teacher: Ok ok she is right we say past tense of sleep is  
 1002. Class: slept  
 1003. Teacher: Ok ok  
 1004. Teacher: Sentence number three  
 1005. Teacher: No no not the whole class  
 1006. Teacher: Not the whole class  
 1007. Teacher: Asivile read sentence number three  
 1008. Teacher: Again asivile  
 1009. Learner: the girl sing  
 1010. Teacher: Again  
 1011. Learner: the girl sing  
 1012. Teacher: The girl sing class  
 1013. Class: the girl sing  
 1014. Teacher: Class  
 1015. Class: the girl sing  
 1016. Teacher: Ok let us change the sentence to past tense  
 1017. Teacher: Hands up  
 1018. Teacher: Dumisile  
 1019. Learner: sing  
 1020. Teacher: Change sentence nibomamela kaloku bantwana bam  
 1021. Teacher: Isentence basithetha nge sentence sithetha ngesi vakakliso sonke  
 1022. Teacher: Change sentence into past tense  
 1023. Teacher: Dumisile  
 1024. Teacher: Ziyephi izandla namadoda  
 1025. Teacher: Abongile andiqondi ba bendikhe ndakuva uthetha  
 1026. Teacher: Change sentence number three  
 1027. Teacher: Kungawo  
 1028. Learner: sing sang  
 1029. Teacher: Change the whole sentence let us change the whole sentence  
 1030. Learner: the girl sang  
 1031. Teacher: Good  
 1032. Teacher: Again kungawo  
 1033. Learner: the girl sang  
 1034. Teacher: Class  
 1035. Class: the girl sang  
 1036. Teacher: Class  
 1037. Class: the girl sang  
 1038. Teacher: Ok sit down  
 1039. Teacher: Sit down  
 1040. Teacher: Now we are going  
 1041. Teacher: I am going to word  
 1042. Teacher: I am going to read word and I want you to take the past tense of that word  
 1043. Teacher: I am going to read the verbs from the board  
 1044. Teacher: From these sentences not verb in the air  
 1045. Teacher: From these sentence

1046. Teacher: And we are going to take the past tense of that verb and match it with the word
1047. Teacher: Do you understand
1048. Class: yes
1049. Teacher: Ok
1050. Teacher: Ok
1051. Teacher: Ok
1052. Teacher: Ok
1053. Teacher: Ok
1054. Teacher: Ok
1055. Teacher: Sleep
1056. Teacher: Ok masivukeni
1057. Teacher: Kaloku bantwana bam ndithe ndizo biza igama eliku present tense yaqonda
1058. Class: yes
1059. Teacher: Wena kengoku sesidlulile pha ekwenzeni
1060. Teacher: Wena kengoku uzakuththa eli umzekelo kengoku ndibize usleep
1061. Teacher: Ndifuna umtu ozavele ayothatha ipast tense ka sleep ayoyi ncamathisela phezu ko sleep
1062. Teacher: Masihlalani phantsi nizakundi phandla
1063. Teacher: Masihlalani phantsi nizakundi phandla
1064. Teacher: Sleep onamandla
1065. Teacher: Good
1066. Teacher: Good
1067. Teacher: Sleep
1068. Class: sleep slept
1069. Teacher: Sleep
1070. Class: sleep slept
1071. Teacher: Thank you very much
1072. Teacher: Thank you very much
1073. Teacher: Read
1074. Teacher: Read
1075. Teacher: Yes mjakajaka
1076. Teacher: Hlalani phantsi kaloku bantwana bam
1077. Teacher: Yes Abongile come and help him
1078. Teacher: Come and help him
1079. Teacher: Thank you
1080. Teacher: Thank you
1081. Teacher: Read past tense of read
1082. Class: read read
1083. Teacher: Class
1084. Class: read read
1085. Teacher: Class
1086. Class: read read
1087. Teacher: Ok I am going to write read
1088. Teacher: Read
1089. Teacher: Let me write read
1090. Teacher: I want past tense of read
1091. Teacher: Someone write past tense of read here
1092. Teacher: I want to be sure about spelling
1093. Teacher: I want someone somebody to write past tense of read here
1094. Teacher: Le line ke
1095. Teacher: Le line
1096. Teacher: Yes khawukhe uye the past tense of read
1097. Teacher: Ok thank you
1098. Teacher: Read
1099. Class: read read
1100. Teacher: Read
1101. Class: read read
1102. Teacher: Ok ok
1103. Teacher: Same spelling read read
1104. Teacher: Same spelling but different pronunciation
1105. Teacher: Uread uyi past tense ka read ubhale nje ngoku fanayo

1106. Teacher: Kodwa xana sesi wabiza awafani  
 1107. Teacher: Ok run  
 1108. Teacher: Run  
 1109. Teacher: Run  
 1110. Teacher: Phakama  
 1111. Teacher: Umtu makalibize igama alithathayo sizo qatheka  
 1112. Teacher: Makalibize  
 1113. Teacher: Libize nondoda ngubani eligama  
 1114. Learner: ran  
 1115. Teacher: Heee  
 1116. Learner: ran  
 1117. Teacher: Run  
 1118. Teacher: Run  
 1119. Class: run ran  
 1120. Teacher: Run  
 1121. Class: run ran  
 1122. Teacher: Ok  
 1123. Teacher: Ok  
 1124. Teacher: Cry  
 1125. Teacher: Cry  
 1126. Teacher: Cry  
 1127. Teacher: Cry  
 1128. Teacher: Khawuke uye  
 1129. Teacher: Khawuke uye  
 1130. Teacher: Libize banyanisile  
 1131. Learner: cry cried  
 1132. Teacher: Cry cried  
 1133. Teacher: Cried class  
 1134. Class: cried  
 1135. Teacher: Class  
 1136. Class: cried  
 1137. Teacher: Class  
 1138. Class: cried  
 1139. Teacher: Class  
 1140. Class: cried  
 1141. Teacher: Ok  
 1142. Teacher: The last one  
 1143. Teacher: Last one cook  
 1144. Teacher: Cook  
 1145. Teacher: Cook  
 1146. Teacher: Cook yi Christmas kengoku  
 1147. Teacher: It's a Christmas  
 1148. Teacher: Cook  
 1149. Teacher: Awonke  
 1150. Teacher: Read the word awonke  
 1151. Learner: cook cooked  
 1152. Teacher: Cook cooked class  
 1153. Class: cook cooked  
 1154. Teacher: Ok ngoku khawuleza  
 1155. Teacher: Khupha incwadi noba yile ye home work  
 1156. 3  
 1157. Teacher: English work books  
 1158. Teacher: And turn to page twenty two  
 1159. Teacher: Page twenty two  
 1160. Teacher: Page twenty two  
 1161. Teacher: Ok page twenty two  
 1162. Teacher: Let us look at the pictures  
 1163. Teacher: Let us carefully look at the pictures  
 1164. Teacher: Ok  
 1165. Teacher: Err how many people are there in the picture

1166. Teacher: How many people are there in the picture  
 1167. Teacher: How many people are there in the picture  
 1168. Teacher: Page twenty two sithetha ngala mfanekiso  
 1169. Teacher: How many people  
 1170. Teacher: Hayibo tyi  
 1171. Teacher: Hands up  
 1172. Teacher: How many people are there in the picture  
 1173. Teacher: There are  
 1174. Teacher: Yes thandokazi  
 1175. Learner: there are five people in the picture  
 1176. Teacher: There are  
 1177. Class: there are five people in the picture  
 1178. Class again  
 1179. Class: there are five people in the picture  
 1180. Teacher: People  
 1181. Teacher: There are five people abantu  
 1182. Teacher: There are five people in the picture  
 1183. Teacher: Class again  
 1184. Class: there are five people in the picture  
 1185. Teacher: Ok  
 1186. Teacher: How many dogs are there  
 1187. Teacher: How many dogs are there  
 1188. Teacher: Yes tolibhayi  
 1189. Learner: there are one dog  
 1190. Teacher: There is because it is one  
 1191. Teacher: It is one  
 1192. Teacher: There is  
 1193. Teacher: Come again  
 1194. Learner: there is one dog  
 1195. Teacher: There is  
 1196. Class: there is one dog  
 1197. Teacher: Again  
 1198. Class: there is one dog  
 1199. Teacher: Do you have a dog  
 1200. Teacher: Unayoinja wena  
 1201. Teacher: Do you have a dog  
 1202. Teacher: Yes or no  
 1203. Teacher: Do you have a dog  
 1204. Teacher: Do you have a dog  
 1205. Learner: yes  
 1206. Teacher: I have a dog  
 1207. Teacher: Yes I have a dog  
 1208. Learner: yes I have a dog  
 1209. Teacher: Do you have a dog  
 1210. Learner: yes I have a dog  
 1211. Teacher: Do you have a dog  
 1212. Teacher: No I have no dog  
 1213. Teacher: No  
 1214. Learner: I have  
 1215. Teacher: No  
 1216. Teacher: Say no I have no dog  
 1217. Teacher: No  
 1218. Teacher: Thetha kaloku  
 1219. Teacher: No I have no dog  
 1220. Learner: no I have no dog  
 1221. Teacher: Class no I have no dog  
 1222. Class: no I have no dog  
 1223. Teacher: Ude wenjenje mani ubonakalisa ba awunayo  
 1224. Teacher: No I have no dog  
 1225. Class: no I have no dog

1226. Teacher: Again  
 1227. Class: no I have no dog  
 1228. Teacher: Ok  
 1229. Teacher: What are the babies doing  
 1230. Teacher: What are the babies doing there are babies there  
 1231. Teacher: What are they doing  
 1232. Teacher: What are the babies doing  
 1233. Teacher: Yes mihlali  
 1234. Class: there are babies  
 1235. Teacher: What are benzani  
 1236. Learner: the babies are swimming  
 1237. Teacher: The babies are  
 1238. Teacher: Very good the babies are swimming  
 1239. Teacher: The babies  
 1240. Class: the babies are swimming  
 1241. Teacher: The babies  
 1242. Class: the babies are swimming  
 1243. Teacher: Where are they swimming  
 1244. Teacher: Where are they swimming  
 1245. Teacher: Where phi  
 1246. Teacher: Where are they swimming  
 1247. Teacher: Where are they swimming  
 1248. Teacher: Aisiboni nha madoda  
 1249. Teacher: Asinekuthekelela ba kwenzeka ntoni  
 1250. Teacher: Where are they swimming  
 1251. Teacher: Hands up  
 1252. Teacher: Yes nondoda  
 1253. Learner: they swimming  
 1254. Teacher: They are  
 1255. Learner: they are swimming in the pool  
 1256. Teacher: They are swimming in the pool  
 1257. Teacher: They are swimming in the pool  
 1258. Teacher: They are swimming class  
 1259. Class: they are swimming in the pool  
 1260. Teacher: They  
 1261. Class: they are swimming in the pool  
 1262. Teacher: Ok what is father carrying  
 1263. Teacher: Carrying  
 1264. Teacher: What is father carrying  
 1265. Teacher: Carrying  
 1266. Teacher: I am carrying my bag  
 1267. Teacher: I am carrying my bag  
 1268. Teacher: What is father carrying  
 1269. Teacher: Uphethe ntoni utata  
 1270. Teacher: Hands up  
 1271. Teacher: Hayi mani kulomfanekiso asiboni ba uphethe ntoni nha  
 1272. Teacher: Let us look at the picture what is father carrying?  
 1273. Teacher: Yes nondoda  
 1274. Learner: they  
 1275. Teacher: Father  
 1276. Learner: father  
 1277. Teacher: We are speaking about father  
 1278. Teacher: What is father listen to the question  
 1279. Teacher: What is father carrying?  
 1280. Teacher: Father  
 1281. Learner: father is carrying bag  
 1282. Teacher: Good. father is carrying a bag  
 1283. Teacher: Father  
 1284. Class: father is carrying a bag  
 1285. Teacher: Father

1286. Class: father is carrying a bag  
 1287. Teacher: Ok let us start reading the story  
 1288. Teacher: Family and friends  
 1289. Teacher: Family  
 1290. Class: family and friends  
 1291. Teacher: Family  
 1292. Class: family and friends  
 1293. Teacher: Ok have you got a friend  
 1294. Teacher: Unaye umhlobo  
 1295. Teacher: Have you got a friend?  
 1296. Teacher: Yes  
 1297. Learner: yes  
 1298. Teacher: I have a friend  
 1299. Learner: I have a friend  
 1300. Teacher: Yes  
 1301. Teacher: Yes don't forgotten to say yes  
 1302. Teacher: Yes I have a friend  
 1303. Class: yes, I have a friend  
 1304. Teacher: Class  
 1305. Class: yes I have a friend  
 1306. Teacher: Good, give the name of your friend  
 1307. Teacher: Give the name of your friend  
 1308. Teacher: You say I have a friend  
 1309. Teacher: Yes thabo  
 1310. Teacher: My friend  
 1311. Learner: my friend is yamkela  
 1312. Teacher: Yes your friend  
 1313. Learner: my friend is asivile  
 1314. Teacher: Good  
 1315. Teacher: My friend and also I have a friend  
 1316. Teacher: My friend is dumisile and ive got so many friends all my grade 3 learners are my friends  
 1317. Teacher: Ok let us start reading  
 1318. Teacher: Lets read this  
 1319. Class: this is the maloi family they have a house with a pool  
 1320. Teacher: Come again  
 1321. Teacher: Come again  
 1322. Teacher: Mr  
 1323. Class: mr maloi is thirty six  
 1324. Teacher: He works  
 1325. Teacher: Works  
 1326. Class: he works in a tall  
 1327. Teacher: In a tool  
 1328. Teacher: Tool  
 1329. Teacher: He works  
 1330. Class: he works in a tool factory in town  
 1331. Teacher: He works in a tool factory  
 1332. Teacher: He works  
 1333. Class: he works in a tool factory in town  
 1334. Teacher: Good mrs  
 1335. Class: mrs maloi is thirty five  
 1336. Teacher: Good  
 1337. Class: She is a nurse at the hospital  
 1338. Teacher: She  
 1339. Class: she is a nurse at the hospital  
 1340. Teacher: She is a nurse at the hospital  
 1341. Teacher: She  
 1342. Class: she is a nurse at the hospital  
 1343. Teacher: Good  
 1344. Class: they have three children and a cat dog and a fish  
 1345. Teacher: They again

1346. Teacher: They have  
1347. Class: they have three children and a cat dog and a fish  
1348. Teacher: Good  
1349. Class: Aaron is three  
1350. Teacher: Yes  
1351. Class: he goes to the greentree nursery school  
1352. Teacher: He goes  
1353. Class: he goes to the greentree nursery school  
1354. Teacher: Good  
1355. Class: it is in the street where they live  
1356. Teacher: It is in the street  
1357. Teacher: It is  
1358. Class: it is in the street where they live  
1359. Teacher: Good  
1360. Class: marron is eight she is in grade one at sunshine primary school  
1361. Teacher: Yes  
1362. Teacher: She  
1363. Class: she is in grade one at sunshine primary school  
1364. Teacher: Good  
1365. Teacher: And  
1366. Class: and her best friend is susan  
1367. Teacher: Is susan  
1368. Teacher: Susan her best friend is susan  
1369. Teacher: Good  
1370. Teacher: Yes  
1371. Class: marron has a big brother his name is peter he is thirteen he is in grade seven  
1372. Teacher: Yes  
1373. Class: He eats fish  
1374. Teacher: Peter  
1375. Class: peter has two best friends rick and john they like to swim in the pool  
1376. Teacher: Ok I think we all understand the story  
1377. Teacher: The nice story about family about maloyi family  
1378. Teacher: Ok  
1379. Teacher: How old is mr maloyi  
1380. Teacher: How old is mr maloyi  
1381. Teacher: Yes sanele  
1382. Learner: maloyi is thirty six old  
1383. Teacher: Old  
1384. Teacher: Maloyi  
1385. Class: maloyi is thirty six years old  
1386. Teacher: Maloyi  
1387. Class: maloyi is thirty six years old  
1388. Teacher: Ok maloyi is thirty six years old  
1389. Teacher: Who is maloyi  
1390. Teacher: Umaloyi lona ngubani okanye uyintoni kule family  
1391. Teacher: Uyintoni kule family umaloyi  
1392. Teacher: Who is maloyi  
1393. Let us describe mr maloyi  
1394. Learner: ngu mr  
1395. Teacher: Let us try to speak English  
1396. Teacher: Let us try to speak English  
1397. Teacher: I understand yes ngu mr umr lowo umele ntoni  
1398. Teacher: Let us try to speak English  
1399. Teacher: Who is mr maloyi  
1400. Teacher: Yes try  
1401. Learner: mr maloyi he is father  
1402. Teacher: Mr maloyi is the father of the family  
1403. Teacher: Ngu tata wale family  
1404. Teacher: Mr maloyi is the father of the family  
1405. Teacher: Mr maloyi

1406. Class: mr maloyi is the father of the family  
 1407. Teacher: Mr maloyi  
 1408. Class: mr maloyi is the father of the family  
 1409. Teacher: Mr maloyi  
 1410. Class: mr maloyi is the father of the family  
 1411. Teacher: Ngu tata kaloku wale family umr amloyi ngu tata wale family  
 1412. Teacher: Who is the father of your family  
 1413. Teacher: Eyakho ifamily ngubani utata wayo  
 1414. Teacher: Who is the father of your family  
 1415. Teacher: Who is your father  
 1416. Teacher: Hands up ngubani utata wakho  
 1417. Teacher: Who is your father  
 1418. Teacher: Ngubani utata wakho  
 1419. Teacher: Hayibo amdoda umtu akamazi utata wakhe  
 1420. Teacher: Hayibo zintloni ezi  
 1421. Teacher: Yes nocutshi  
 1422. Learner: my father is lungile  
 1423. Teacher: Very good  
 1424. Teacher: My father is lungile say awonke  
 1425. Teacher: Her father is lungile  
 1426. Teacher: Lungile is the family of nocutsha family  
 1427. Teacher: Is the father of noncutsha family  
 1428. Teacher: Lungile is the father of noncutsha family  
 1429. Teacher: Yes who is your father  
 1430. Learner: my father is mari  
 1431. Teacher: Come again  
 1432. Learner: my father is mari  
 1433. Teacher: Mari ok ok  
 1434. Teacher: His father is mari  
 1435. Teacher: Mari is the father of gcitho family  
 1436. Teacher: Mari ngu tata wale family  
 1437. Teacher: Now we are speaking about maloyi family  
 1438. Teacher: Mr maloyi is the father of the maloyi family  
 1439. Teacher: Ok  
 1440. Teacher: What is mrs maloyi doing  
 1441. Teacher: Wenzani umrs maloyi  
 1442. Teacher: What is mrs maloyi doing  
 1443. Teacher: Yonke lento ilapha bethuna let us read  
 1444. Teacher: When we are reading let us try to understand  
 1445. Teacher: What is mrs maloyi doing  
 1446. Teacher: Wenza ntoni umrs maloyi  
 1447. Teacher: Yes tolibhati  
 1448. Learner: ms maloyi  
 1449. Teacher: Mrs  
 1450. Teacher: Mrs  
 1451. Learner: mrs maloyi is hospital  
 1452. Teacher: Is  
 1453. Teacher: Is  
 1454. Teacher: Likhona eligama alishiyileyo  
 1455. Teacher: Apha ehospital uyintoni kanye  
 1456. Teacher: She is in hospital but what is she doing there in the hospital  
 1457. Teacher: Yes come again  
 1458. Learner: mrs maloyi is nurse  
 1459. Teacher: Very good my boy mrs maloyi is a nurse  
 1460. Teacher: Mrs maloyi is a nurse  
 1461. Teacher: Mrs  
 1462. Class: mrs maloyi is a nurse  
 1463. Teacher: Mrs  
 1464. Class: mrs maloyi is a nurse  
 1465. Teacher: Where does mr maloyi work?

1466. Teacher: Usebenzaphi umr maloyi loo  
 1467. Teacher: Where does mr maloyi work?  
 1468. Teacher: Yonke lento nantsi apha ebalini  
 1469. Teacher: We are speaking about the story where mr maloyi work  
 1470. Teacher: Hayi madoda  
 1471. Teacher: hayi madoda  
 1472. Teacher: hayi  
 1473. Teacher: hayi  
 1474. Teacher: hayi  
 1475. Teacher: Come  
 1476. Teacher: come  
 1477. Teacher: come  
 1478. Teacher: Yes thabo  
 1479. Learner: she is a  
 1480. Teacher: We are speaking about mr maloyi  
 1481. Teacher: Where does mr maloyi work  
 1482. Teacher: Usebenzaphi umr maloyi  
 1483. Teacher: Ibhaliwe njena pha encwadini madoda  
 1484. Teacher: Yes mihlali  
 1485. Learner: mr maloyi he is work at tool factory  
 1486. Teacher: Factory  
 1487. Learner: factory in town  
 1488. Teacher: Mr maloyi works  
 1489. Teacher: Mr maloyi there is a sentence  
 1490. Teacher: He works in a tool factory in town  
 1491. Teacher: Mr maloyi works in a tool factory  
 1492. Teacher: In a tool factory  
 1493. Teacher: Mr maloyi works in a tool factory in town  
 1494. Teacher: Don't you see that sentence asiyi boni lo sentence  
 1495. Teacher: Hee  
 1496. Class: siyayibona  
 1497. Teacher: Mr maloyi works in a tool factory in town  
 1498. Teacher: Mr maloyi  
 1499. Class: mr maloyi works in a tool factory in town  
 1500. Teacher: Mr maloyi works in a tool factory in town  
 1501. Teacher: Works  
 1502. Teacher: Come again  
 1503. Class: mr maloyi works in a tool factory in town  
 1504. Teacher: Works in ok  
 1505. Teacher: How many children do they have  
 1506. Teacher: Bangaphi na abantwana balomzi bale family  
 1507. Teacher: How many children do they have  
 1508. Teacher: Yes yamkela  
 1509. Learner: they have three children  
 1510. Teacher: They have three children  
 1511. Teacher: They have  
 1512. Class: they have three children  
 1513. Teacher: Come again  
 1514. Class: they have three children  
 1515. Teacher: Let us all look at the story  
 1516. Teacher: Let us look at the story we are speaking about  
 1517. Teacher: Who is the eldest  
 1518. Teacher: Oyena umdala ngubani  
 1519. Teacher: Who is the eldest child  
 1520. Teacher: The eldest child is  
 1521. Teacher: Who is the eldest child  
 1522. Teacher: Yes okuhle  
 1523. Learner: the eldest eldest child is mando  
 1524. Teacher: Let us try  
 1525. Teacher: Try again okuhle

1526. Teacher: Try again okuhle  
 1527. Teacher: Try again okuhle  
 1528. Learner: the eldest child is peter  
 1529. Teacher: The eldest child okuhle the eldest child is peter  
 1530. Teacher: The eldest  
 1531. Class: the eldest child is peter  
 1532. Teacher: Come again  
 1533. Class: the eldest child is peter  
 1534. Teacher: Teacher: How old is peter  
 1535. Teacher: How old is peter  
 1536. Teacher: How old is peter  
 1537. Teacher: Yes nontombi try  
 1538. Learner: peter is thirteen years old  
 1539. Teacher: Good  
 1540. Teacher: Good  
 1541. Teacher: Peter  
 1542. Class: peter is thirteen years old  
 1543. Teacher: Who is the eldest child at your home owakokwenu ngubani omdala  
 1544. Teacher: Who is the eldest child at your home  
 1545. Teacher: Yes  
 1546. Learner: is my grand father  
 1547. Teacher: The eldest child  
 1548. Teacher: Grandfather is not a child  
 1549. Teacher: The eldest child  
 1550. Teacher: Yes  
 1551. Teacher: Sorry yes awonke  
 1552. Learner: the eldest child is asonele  
 1553. Teacher: The eldest child is asonele  
 1554. Teacher: I think we know asonele  
 1555. Teacher: Do you know asonele  
 1556. Teacher: Haaa but she is here at school  
 1557. Teacher: Ok ok how old is mandu  
 1558. Teacher: How old is mandu  
 1559. Teacher: Yes silondo kuhle  
 1560. Learner: mando is eight years old  
 1561. Teacher: Mandu is eight years old  
 1562. Teacher: Who is schooling at green tree nursery school  
 1563. Teacher: Who ngubani  
 1564. Teacher: who use green tree nursery school  
 1565. Teacher: Who is school at green tree nursery school  
 1566. Teacher: Hayi kengoku no no come up  
 1567. Teacher: Come up  
 1568. Teacher: Come up  
 1569. Teacher: Banoyolo  
 1570. Teacher: Try banoyolo  
 1571. Learner: nursery school is thabo  
 1572. Teacher: Try again  
 1573. Teacher: Try again  
 1574. Teacher: Try again  
 1575. Teacher: Try again  
 1576. Learner: it is thabo  
 1577. Teacher: Alright  
 1578. Teacher: Alright  
 1579. Teacher: Oh this girl is right  
 1580. Teacher: Thabo goes to nursery tree green nursery school  
 1581. Teacher: Yes she is right  
 1582. Teacher: Thabo it is thabo  
 1583. Teacher: Who is in grade seven  
 1584. Teacher: Who is in grade seven  
 1585. Teacher: Yes

1586. Learner: grade seven  
 1587. Teacher: Who ngubani  
 1588. Teacher: Who ngubani  
 1589. Teacher: The question who means the name of a person  
 1590. Teacher: Who  
 1591. Teacher: Name of a person  
 1592. Teacher: Who is in grade seven  
 1593. Teacher: Hands up let us all try  
 1594. Teacher: Yes abongile  
 1595. Learner: peter  
 1596. Teacher: Full sentence again peter is in grade seven  
 1597. Teacher: Abongile say so  
 1598. Learner: peter is in grade seven  
 1599. Teacher: Peter  
 1600. Teacher: Is in  
 1601. Learner: peter is in grade seven  
 1602. Teacher: Peter  
 1603. Class: peter is in grade seven  
 1604. Teacher: Peter  
 1605. Class: peter is in grade seven  
 1606. Teacher: Alright  
 1607. Teacher: Let us look carefully to the story  
 1608. Teacher: We are going now we are going to choose verbs  
 1609. Teacher: Let us look for the verbs  
 1610. Teacher: Now  
 1611. Teacher: We are going to choose verbs from the story from our story  
 1612. Teacher: Hewethu ujongephi  
 1613. Teacher: Ok  
 1614. Teacher: Hands up  
 1615. Teacher: What about verbs  
 1616. Teacher: Let us choose verbs  
 1617. Teacher: What is a verb  
 1618. Teacher: What is a verb  
 1619. Teacher: Yintoni iverb  
 1620. Teacher: What is a verb  
 1621. Teacher: Eyi everything is new  
 1622. Teacher: What are we going to write my kids  
 1623. Teacher: Yes  
 1624. Learner: a verb is a doing word  
 1625. Teacher: Very good  
 1626. Teacher: Very good  
 1627. Teacher: Very good  
 1628. Teacher: Come again mihlali  
 1629. Learner: a verb is a doing word  
 1630. Teacher: A verb  
 1631. Class: a verb is a doing word  
 1632. Teacher: Ok let us choose verbs from the story  
 1633. Teacher: Hands up  
 1634. Teacher: Any verb  
 1635. Teacher: Yamkela  
 1636. Learner: pool  
 1637. Teacher: No  
 1638. Teacher: Let me describe a pool  
 1639. Teacher: Let me describe let me tell you what is a pool  
 1640. Teacher: A pool is similar to a dam  
 1641. Teacher: Yinto engathi li dama  
 1642. Teacher: But a pool is a place just a place  
 1643. Teacher: We may do it at our homes  
 1644. Teacher: It's a place for children to swim  
 1645. Teacher: Yindawo esiyenzayo lento kuthiwe uve umtu esithi ndiya epoolin

1646. Teacher: Ndiya epoolin aniyazi nalo pool  
 1647. Teacher: It's a place for children to swim nalapha emakhaya lanto iyenziwa  
 1648. Teacher: Kwenziwe nje indawu entle isanyentwe lendawu  
 1649. Teacher: Kugalelwe amanzi  
 1650. Teacher: Sendisitsho kengoku ba nalamanzi afuna ukumane eklinwa esithiwani  
 1651. Teacher: Yi pool leyo  
 1652. Teacher: A pool is not a verb  
 1653. Teacher: Is not a verb I want verb  
 1654. Teacher: Let us choose verbs  
 1655. Teacher: Yes  
 1656. Learner: swim  
 1657. Teacher: Swim  
 1658. Teacher: Swim is a verb because it is a doing word  
 1659. Teacher: The children swim in the dam  
 1660. Teacher: The boys swim in the river  
 1661. Teacher: Swim  
 1662. Teacher: What are they doing  
 1663. Teacher: They are swimming  
 1664. Teacher: Swim right hands up  
 1665. Teacher: Let us try  
 1666. Teacher: Let us try  
 1667. Teacher: Let us try  
 1668. Learner: work  
 1669. Teacher: Works  
 1670. Teacher: Works  
 1671. Teacher: Works  
 1672. Teacher: Mr maloyi works in a tool factory  
 1673. Teacher: My father works in a shop  
 1674. Teacher: Works uyasebenza  
 1675. Teacher: My father works in a garage  
 1676. Teacher: Usebenzaphi utata  
 1677. Teacher: My father  
 1678. Teacher: My father works in a super market  
 1679. Teacher: Works is a verb  
 1680. Teacher: Good  
 1681. Teacher: Works is a verb  
 1682. Teacher: Yes abongile  
 1683. Learner: nurse  
 1684. Teacher: Come  
 1685. Learner: nurse  
 1686. Teacher: Nurse  
 1687. Teacher: She is a nurse  
 1688. Teacher: Err according to their level I want to say she is right according to their level because she understands what is she doing  
 1689. Teacher: Ok nurse  
 1690. Teacher: Yes  
 1691. Learner: hospital  
 1692. Teacher: No  
 1693. Teacher: No  
 1694. Teacher: No  
 1695. Teacher: No  
 1696. Teacher: Lets try  
 1697. Teacher: Lets try again bhuti  
 1698. Teacher: Try again bhuti  
 1699. Learner: dog  
 1700. Teacher: Haaa you are thinking about nouns now  
 1701. Teacher: I want verbs  
 1702. Teacher: Verbs  
 1703. Teacher: He keeps fish  
 1704. Teacher: He keeps fish

1705. Teacher: Keep is a verb  
 1706. Teacher: We keep our books in the cupboard  
 1707. Teacher: We keep our books where in the cupboard  
 1708. Teacher: We keep  
 1709. Teacher: In the cupboard  
 1710. Teacher: We keep  
 1711. Class: we keep our books in the cupboard  
 1712. Teacher: We keep  
 1713. Class: we keep our books in the cupboard  
 1714. Teacher: Ok  
 1715. Teacher: Thabo is school at green tree nursery school  
 1716. Teacher: Where do you schooling?  
 1717. Teacher: Or what is the name of your school  
 1718. Teacher: Esakho  
 1719. Teacher: Heyi hayi madoda hayi  
 1720. Teacher: Yes onamandla  
 1721. Learner: my school is zwelakhe  
 1722. Teacher: My school  
 1723. Class: my school is zwelakhe jss  
 1724. Teacher: My school  
 1725. Class: my school is zwelakhe jss  
 1726. Teacher: Ok  
 1727. Teacher: Ok  
 1728. Teacher: I only want only five learners to write nouns on the board  
 1729. Teacher: Only five first come first serve  
 1730. Teacher: Abantu babebahlanu abazo bhala inouns pha eboardin  
 1731. Teacher: Nouns from the story  
 1732. Teacher: Inouns ngokwalapha ebalini  
 1733. Teacher: Let us choose nouns only five  
 1734. Teacher: Yes tolibadi  
 1735. Teacher: Write  
 1736. Teacher: Write from the story  
 1737. Teacher: From the story  
 1738. Teacher: Mandu  
 1739. Teacher: Madnu  
 1740. Teacher: We are not going to write names of the people  
 1741. Teacher: Let us look for other nouns  
 1742. Teacher: Let us look for other nouns  
 1743. Teacher: Sibonile umandu  
 1744. Teacher: Maskhe sikhangele ezinye inouns ezingengawo amagama abantu  
 1745. Teacher: Number two  
 1746. Teacher: Good  
 1747. Teacher: Good  
 1748. Teacher: Good  
 1749. Teacher: Let us read the name  
 1750. Class: dog  
 1751. Teacher: Number three  
 1752. Teacher: Where are the girls  
 1753. Teacher: Oh write  
 1754. Teacher: Ok thank you  
 1755. Teacher: Alright  
 1756. Teacher: Works is a noun or a verb  
 1757. Teacher: Class  
 1758. Teacher: Works is  
 1759. Teacher: Works  
 1760. Class: works is a verb  
 1761. Teacher: Works  
 1762. Class: works is a verb  
 1763. Teacher: Works is a verb  
 1764. Teacher: Let us try to think

## Appendix 9: Composition of Teachers' Classroom Print

### Esther

- 1 phonic words chart and 1 sight words chart (both commercially produced),
- 1 spelling words chart (teacher produced)
- 3 'new words' charts of both phonic and sight words derived from three reading passages [Join the band, All about drums, and Plants and Food] all teacher produced,
- 1 prayer chart (teacher produced),
- 1 chart with instructions in point form on how to plant a tree (teacher produced),
- 3 charts on short comprehension passages (teacher produced),
- 1 chart with sentences in the present continuous tense (teacher produced),
- 1 chart on rain helping seeds to grow (teacher produced),
- 1 spelling chart (teacher produced),
- 2 charts on words from comprehension passages (teacher produced).

### Christine

The classroom charts were distributed thus:

- 1 chart on a list of domestic animals (word level)
- 1 chart on 'possessive words' with sentences like, 'The book belongs to me. The book is mine.
- 2 charts with sentences illustrating different tenses.
- 2 charts with words and their past tense
- 1 chart on filling in blanks.
- 1 chart on opposites, 2 on phonic sounds
- 1 chart on clothes and the labels [commercially produced].
- 1 chart on the days of the week,
- 1 chart on the months of the year.
- 1 chart on word list
- 1 alphabet chart with illustrations [commercially produced]
- 1 word-plural chart

### Kate

The charts in her class were distributed as follows:

- 1 phonic chart with word parts like cr + ab =, sh + op =. [Word level; commercially produced].
- 3 other phonic charts with full words which take on particular vowel sounds. [Word level; commercially produced]
- 4 charts on sight words from 4 stories; 'No more sweets', 'I love my body', 'The purse', and 'Clever.' [Word level; commercially produced]
- 1 chart on the four seasons with picture illustrations [Word level; commercially produced]
- 1 chart on girl and women rights [at the level of discourse; commercially produced]
- 1 chart with sentences containing -oo- words like, 'We took the book to the room.' [Sentence level; commercially produced]
- 1 chart with short words containing vowel 'a' and sentences with the words. [Word and sentence level; commercially produced]
- 1 chart below inviting volunteers for a Rotary Literacy programme [at discourse level and commercially produced]
- 1 illustrated alphabet chart [word level, commercially produced]

## Henrietta

- 1 chart on farm animals with the pictures of the animals and their names [word level]
- 1 picture about a home store [word level]
- 1 chart about money [sentence level]
- 1 chart about fractions [sentence level]
- 2 charts on 3 dimensional shapes [sentence level]
- 1 chart on examination invigilation timetable
- 1 chart on multiplication [sentence level]
- 1 chart on symmetry [sentence level]
- 1 chart on parts of the body and how to stay healthy [word and sentence level]