

**A CASE STUDY OF ORAL LINGUISTIC ERROR-TREATMENT  
IN SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS WHERE ENGLISH IS  
THE MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION.**

**THESIS**

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## **DEDICATION**

I wish to dedicate this study to all those women who have made it academically despite the odds of being Wife, Mother, full-time worker and Student - all in one -for they know what it is to make it against all odds.

## ABSTRACT

One of the issues that have been debated at length in second language acquisition research circles is that of error-feedback and its desirability. Although there is as yet no conclusive evidence concerning its effectiveness in contributing towards the acquisition of a second language, a number of studies that have been conducted bear evidence to its desirability in L2 classrooms.

This research then, was concerned with the way teachers of content subjects reacted to their learners' linguistically erroneous responses during oral interaction in their classes. The participants were four teachers who, with their pupils, are second language speakers of English. Three of these were content subject teachers while the fourth one teaches English. The data was collected from a class of Std 5 pupils in a rural school in the Eastern Cape where the lessons of these teachers were observed and audio-taped. Subsequently some of them were transcribed and analysed.

The analysis of the data revealed that teachers in content subject classes, who teach through the medium of English showed more concern for content than for linguistic errors despite the fact that they are expected to extend the pupils' chances of second language acquisition.

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## CHAPTER I

### BACKGROUND TO STUDY

#### 1.1 INTRODUCTION.

The importance of the role played by language in education cannot be overemphasized. Any learner who is not equipped with the language to express his thoughts and views is handicapped in one of the worst possible ways. West (1932:2), asserts that

language is not a mere means of expression. We do not think first and then say what we have thought. Language is an instrument of thinking. It is more than that; it is an instrument of feeling and an instrument whereby we are enabled to sympathize with the feelings of others. ...the dumb boy is hampered by his linguistic deficiency in the development of his thought and his emotion...

Hindmarsh (1986:223), confirms this when he posits that

In considering the use of language in education, it is important to keep in mind that it is used for these three purposes: for exploration, whether of the learner's direct experience, or of the transmitted experience of others through listening or reading; for self-expression, often arising from the need to formulate the results of some piece of exploration, possibly in the form of verbal but non-vocal thinking, or within the covers of a diary not meant for others to read; and for communication, where the aim is to interact with others and to share experience or knowledge.

Because of the importance of language in the lives of learners then, it becomes imperative for teachers, as people who have been entrusted with greatest part of the education of the children of a country, to contribute in one way or another to the development of the language the children bring with them from home to school. If this applies to mother tongue classrooms it is the belief of the researcher that this is even more vital in classrooms where the language of education is either a second language

(L2) or a foreign language (FL). This contribution is seen by Findlay in West (1932:v) as the starting point because, he declares, "it is very rarely that a man of mature years reaches a competent power in a foreign language unless he has made a beginning during school years".

South Africa - including the previously independent states - is one of those countries where the need for the kind of contribution by the teacher arises. The main reason for this is possibly the language policy of this country which formerly decreed that for the first four years of their schooling black learners were to be taught in the mother tongue . Once they reach Std 3, which is the first class of the senior primary phase, the medium of instruction (MOI) becomes English (Education and Training Act 1979). The implementation of this policy has had some serious problems which have been discussed at length by various scholars and educationists in this country. Hartshorne (in Young 1987, 1992), Lanham (in Young 1967), Mawasha (1986), Young (1986), Macdonald (1990) and van Rooyen (1990) are among those that have expressed extreme concern over these problems. It is, however, not within the scope of this study to explore these problems as they pertain to the learners. Nevertheless, the documented existence of major problems surrounding EMI for learners whose home language is not English serves to underline the importance of the role of teachers in improving the learners' linguistic skills.

The importance of the teachers' role is further expressed in one of the expectations of the syllabus through which the above language policy is supposed to be implemented in that teachers of subjects that are taught through the English medium "should regard

themselves as additional teachers of English" (Std 3,4 and 5 Syllabi 1985). The implication of this then, is that all teachers at senior primary level should see themselves as being duty-bound to enhance the learners' chances of second language acquisition (SLA).

SLA research has identified several ways in which L2 language teachers can assist learners in their acquisition of language. Some of the variables that have been cited as having a significant role to play in SLA are linguistic input, linguistic adjustments made by first language (L1) speakers when addressing L2 learners, the linguistic environment, errors and how teachers respond to them (Corder 1971, Selinker 1972, Fanselow 1974, Gaies 1977, Long 1980, Allwright 1988, Ellis 1990, Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991, among others).

It is the researcher's assumption that at least some, if not all, of the above variables will be found in the L2 MOI classroom, during oral interaction with their pupils as the teachers present their lessons. The researcher feels that while not all these variables might be found in these classrooms, there are, however, some which should, of necessity, be evident. One of these is error-correction, or whatever treatment teachers feel is necessary in reaction to pupils' "incorrect" responses. (The concept of "incorrect" responses will be dealt with in more detail in Chapter II of this study). It is, therefore, the aim of this study to, focus on investigating how these teachers attend to errors committed by their pupils during oral interaction in the course of the presentation of their lessons in the L2 MOI. Although there are conflicting studies with regard to the effect of error-treatment on SLA, with some studies asserting that treatment has positive

results (Ramirez and Stromquist 1979) on L2 learning, and others positing that, if anything, it hampers acquisition (Krashen 1982, Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982), the researcher believes that teachers do attend to oral errors not only because it is expected of them, but also because they believe that it makes a difference in the learning of the target language. The arguments for and against error-treatment and its effects on language learning as propagated by various studies will be dealt with in more detail later in the study.

## **1.2 SCOPE OF THE STUDY**

It was in response to the urge to find out more about what takes place in classrooms in the senior primary school where English is MOI and a second language for both teachers and pupils, that this study was undertaken. The area of error-treatment was selected as a point of focus because in language learning and teaching research it is regarded as being of importance in the acquisition of language. Some linguists believe that error-treatment - which is the way in which teachers react to learners' errors (Bellack et al 1966) - has a significant role to play in language acquisition (LA) because it affords the learner an opportunity to get information about what is or is not correct in the target language (Allwright 1975, Ellis 1990). It is also regarded as important because it contributes to the process of consciousness-raising (Edmondson 1985). Ellis (1990) speculates that this conscious awareness about the existence of linguistic features that the learners would otherwise ignore may be necessary to ensure that they are eventually acquired, although they may contribute little to communicative effectiveness. The way teachers react to pupils' erroneous responses is important also because it may

influence learning either positively or negatively.

Allwright and Bailey (1991) as well as Ramirez and Stromquist (1979) argue that the teacher's response to the learner's errors does influence learning positively, while Krashen (1982) disagrees. The latter (1982:71) contends that

error-correction has little or no effect on...acquisition. Error-correction supposedly helps the learner to induce or 'figure out' the right form of a rule...This appears reasonable, but it is not clear whether error-correction has this impact on learning in actual practice (1982:71).

He further contends that, rather than help with the acquisition of language, it does the opposite by putting the student of ESL on the defensive. "Error-correction is not the basic mechanism for improving L2 performance" (1982:76)

Whatever the arguments, for and against error-treatment, it would seem that error-treatment has proved to be important enough to merit serious investigation. Where the target language for acquisition is ESL, in schools for Blacks, the investigation of error-treatment then, should extend to the content subject classrooms where English is used as MOI because these classrooms are regarded as essential in providing additional opportunities for the pupils to learn English (Std 5 syllabus 1985).

As indicated above, in most South African schools for Blacks, the MOI is English from Std 3 (Education and Training Act 1979). This is also the time when the children are exposed for the first time to subject teaching (being taught the different subjects by

different teachers), as in the lower primary phase they are taught all their school subjects by one teacher. Language learning and teaching research (LLTR) intended to find out how teachers react to pupils' incorrect linguistic answers has been conducted in countries other than South Africa -especially in America and the European countries - but locally there is no evidence of such research having been carried out.

MacDonald (1990) in the Main Report of the Threshold Project, however, does touch on the extent of linguistic errors that abound in most English L2 medium classrooms, which she remarks, that "many (of the syntactic errors) are highly predictable in terms of the grammatical structure of the African languages themselves" (1990:131). The following is an extract from the research team's findings on the kind of oral errors that are sometimes committed by pupils in the Std 3 ESL classroom. It is a transcription of a child description of a simple story which he is simultaneously enacting with Lego.

Mr Tema and Mrs Tema and Benny and Betty they go the town.  
 They go to buy the, the shirt and the and the other... and  
 the other things. Mr Tema and and Mrs Tema he does to town  
 to buy many things ...Mr and Mrs Tema he park... They are  
 going to the Edgars....They go to buy....they go to buy for  
 Benny and Betty....they buy the shirt and broek and other  
 things. Mr Tema and Mrs Tema he come to the car (Macdonald 1990:134).

The researcher feels that errors like these should be attended to, even if it takes teachers some time to get the pupils to the stage where they will be familiar enough with acceptable language for them not to commit the same kind of errors. Furthermore, the errors which these children commit orally will inevitably be transferred to their writing, if nothing is done about them. The researcher believes that it will be even more difficult

to deal with them as part of the children's writing because of the amount of work involved. In the consolidated Threshold Project report it is suggested that the "kind of mistakes the pupils make when they are speaking are very much the same mistakes they make when they are writing" (Macdonald 1990:134). The fact that the pupils who commit these errors are the same pupils who are found in the ESL MOI classrooms points to a need for the enhancement of their chances of learning English as much as possible. The questions addressed by this study then are:

- \* How do second language speaking teachers who teach through the medium of English in both content subjects and English classes respond to linguistic errors made by their pupils during oral interaction in their classes?
- \* Secondly, what kind of linguistic errors do teachers attend to if and when the errors are attended to?
- \* finally, are these teachers only concerned only with meaning or content or both.

### **1.3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

#### **1.3.1 AIM**

This study seeks to examine the extent to which teachers in content subject classes

correct learners' linguistic oral errors and thereby seek to provide further opportunities for pupils to learn English, although the literature is divided as to whether error correction does in fact do this.

### 1.3.2 Objectives

The objectives of this study are:

- 1 to investigate how teachers who are L2 speakers of English and who use it as MOI react to linguistic errors committed by their pupils during oral interaction in their classes
- 2 to investigate the kind of linguistic errors that the teachers attend to; and, finally,
- 3 to establish whether these teachers pay attention to errors of form as well as of content or if one type of errors takes precedence over the other.

## 1.4 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The second chapter of the study reviews some of the research literature on oral error-treatment. The third chapter deals with the methodology used in this study. In the fourth chapter the results and findings of the study are presented and analyzed. The fifth and final chapter is a summary and conclusion of the study.

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW ON ERROR - TREATMENT

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

An examination of literature on error-treatment in second language (L2) classrooms reveals that this is a problem that has teased the brains of many a researcher and language specialist since the era of contrastive analysis in the sixties. During this period language specialists concerned themselves with a contrastive analysis of languages which generated predictions of errors that an L2 speaker would be likely to make in the L2, based on comparisons between the mother tongue and the foreign or second language. Contrastive analysis, however, left many kinds of errors unaccounted for, and this led to a shift in emphasis from contrastive analysis to error analysis in the seventies (Ellis 1985, Allwright and Bailey 1991).

The basic difference between the two types of analyses was that error analysis studied the errors actually committed by learners rather than trying to predict them, as was the case with contrastive analysis. This study of actual errors gave rise to a number of issues which came to be of major interest to those involved in language-teaching and research. One of the major issues raised was that learners inevitably make errors. This in turn gave rise to further questions, amongst which were the following:

- a) What causes learners to make errors?
- b) Are errors really a problem that teachers should seriously concern themselves with?
- c) Are errors an important part of learning itself?
- d) Should errors made by learners be corrected?
- e) How do teachers react to learners' errors?
- f) Do their responses to learners' errors make a difference to the learning and acquisition of language itself (Hendrickson 1978, Chaudron 1987)?

This study looks into the question of how teachers react to learner errors, but of necessity, it discusses other pertinent issues, such as those listed above, that go hand in hand with this question. There are also other issues that are inextricably woven into the question of error treatment that are discussed in research into teachers' treatment of oral errors as well as errors in written work. A look at the latter is necessary, as teachers tend to practise verbally, what they do in writing and vice-versa. Also some researchers deal with the treatment of both oral and written errors concurrently (Harmer 1991, Botha 1994).

Before one can deal with the question of how errors are treated, one has to first attempt a definition of error-treatment itself, which in turn necessitates a consideration of the concept of error.

## 2.2 ATTEMPTS TO DEFINE ERROR AND CONCOMITANT PROBLEMS

Different linguists at different times have given different definitions for and have had various notions of error. Georges (1972:189) states that "...at the beginning of the sixties the word 'error' was associated with correction, at the end with learning", though this has been challenged by linguists such as Krashen (1982). Allwright in fact, regards this association as an oversimplification of an otherwise complex problem as he states that "contrary to first assumptions, the notion of 'error' is not at all a simple one" (1975 : 83). Corder's definition of errors, as "deviations from target languages norms that occur as a result of a lack of knowledge," (1967 cited in Ellis 1990:54) is supported by Allwright and Bailey who refer to typical definitions of error as including:

...some reference to the production of a linguistic form which deviates from the correct form (which correct form) is often identified as the way native speakers typically produce the form (1991:84).

These definitions, however, may prove to be something of a problem, when the teacher who has to identify instances of error in the classroom happens not to be a native speaker of the target language himself. As often happens, many teachers

who teach the target language are not only L2 speakers but have had very limited or no contact at all with the native speakers and so with the latter's specific production of the language. This applies to both their own language learning experience and their day-to-day adult experiences. This is particularly true of the South African context, where such a target language as English is taught by Black or Afrikaner teachers for whom English is a L2, and who in all probability were taught by L2 speakers of English themselves. This is especially true in the former homelands and "independent states", and even more so in the primary schools.

Allwright and Bailey further record in their attempt to define error, that perhaps:

...in formal classroom instruction of second or foreign languages, the teacher's response to students' utterances may be the most important criterion for judging error (1991 : 85).

This, of course, does not necessarily imply that it might be the best, as the judgement of error would depend on the instructor or teacher's own proficiency in the target language. George (1972 : 2) however, substantiates Allwright and Bailey's contention when he posits that "an error is a form unwanted by the teacher". This was further verified by both Fanselow (1977) and Nystrom (1983) when in their studies, they observed that even when students' responses were not erroneous, if they were not the forms the teachers had expected, they would be rejected. Chaudron, in a study conducted on French immersion classes, defines errors as "linguistic forms or facts as well as any other behaviour signalled by the teacher as needing improvement" (1986:66). This definition falls in line with those definitions already presented. He succinctly sums up the complexity of the

definition of error when he states that:

The determination of errors is clearly a difficult process that depends on the immediate context of the utterance in question as well as on an understanding of the content of the lesson, the intent of the teacher or student, and at times the prior learning of the students (Chaudron 1986:69).

### 2.3 WHY LEARNERS MAKE ERRORS

There seems to be an inevitability attached to the commission of errors by learners.

Wason (1971) and Burt and Dulay (1974) believe that error making is crucial to language learning, and this belief is supported by Allwright who notes that

...it seems common (now) to read that errors are crucial to language learning, ....learners learn... by forming hypotheses about the target language and by testing their hypotheses to destruction (1975 : 96).

Thus L2 learners will try out a new form which they may have read, heard or been taught in the formal classroom situation, which they may not yet have had occasion to try out. This could even be of their own invention, like coining an inflected form of a word, as children often do when they learn a new language. In trying out this "new form" learners may make errors of which they will become aware only when the teacher reacts to their utterance(s), and will thus know whether his was the correct form or not and perhaps even why his utterance is regarded as erroneous.

As it might happen the "new" form might not even be erroneous other than that it was misread, misheard or misunderstood, which in turn led to the erroneous usage of the "new" form. Johnson (1988) suggests that there are at least two reasons why

students get things wrong, the first one being that the student may either not have the appropriate knowledge, or may have some false knowledge. Thus it could be said that the students' interlanguage is faulty. The second reason, he suggests, is that of a "lack of processing ability" (1988:90). This is further discussed in Ellis (1990:7 - 8) when he refers to the difference between the process by which knowledge is internalized and that by which control over it is achieved. He makes a distinction between new knowledge, which is 'declarative' and automated knowledge which is "procedural'. Learners, he claims, proceed from declarative to procedural knowledge and many errors are more a result of a lack of procedural rather than declarative knowledge. Johnson (1988 in Ellis 1990:8) suggests the provision of "authentic communicative situations for language practice of newly acquired language".

Finally, errors, researchers claim, are signals that actual learning is taking place and they are also indicators of the learner's success and progress in language learning (Corder 1967, 1973, Zysdatiss 1974, Lange 1977, Lantolf 1977), and in Gaies' words they "have been viewed as windows to the language acquisition process; ...overt reflections of a learner's internalized knowledge of the language" (1983 : 211).

#### **2.4 SHOULD LEARNER'S ERRORS BE CORRECTED?**

The question of whether learners' errors should be corrected or not has always been a highly controversial one. This goes as far back as the time when audio-lingualism was at its strongest, and when these theorists believed not in the correction but

rather in the complete avoidance of errors as they were thought to have a negative effect on learning. In time, however, ideas concerning errors and their correction changed, with some theorists emphasizing the futility of error-correction and some seeing it as an inevitable part of classroom behaviour and advancing reasons why it should not and could not be done away with.

Ellis (1990:70) posits that "the teacher has a traditional right to provide learners with feedback regarding the correctness of their responses". Furthermore, learners are not always aware of their errors and at times like this they need the assistance of someone more proficient than they in the target language (Corder 1967; George 1972, Allwright 1975, 1991). In addition, research reveals that learners not only welcome correction, but also feel that it should be done more than some teachers feel it should (Cathcart and Olson 1976). Coupled with this, however, is the fact that how errors are treated goes a long way towards either achieving the desired effect on language learning or defeating the aims of error-correction. Hendrickson (1978) does point out, though, that the literature that exists on error-treatment reveals that there are no current standards as to whether, when, which and how student errors should be treated as well as who should correct them. He also claims that a lot of what has been published on the issue of error correction is speculative and still needs to be validated (Hendrickson 1977).

Part of the literature reviewed in this chapter concerns audiolingual theory on error-correction, already mentioned above. One of the central precepts of audiolingualism was the complete avoidance of errors. So preoccupied were

audiolingualists with the avoidance of error that such statements as the one made by Brooks (1960:58 cited in Ellis 1990:25), "Like sin, error is to be avoided and its influence overcome, but its presence to be expected", became quite common. Additional to this was the fact that audiolingualists believed that errors made by learners emanated from mother tongue interference. The latter was later argued against in the strongest terms on the basis of research findings by such linguists as Raven (1968), George (1972), Dulay and Burt (1973), and Huay and Hatch (1978), which revealed that many errors produced by learners were developmental in nature. Views of classroom language learning propagated by Newmark and Reibel (1968) emphasize the view that errors are a natural concomitant of learning and should be tolerated rather than corrected. There should, therefore, be no attempt to interfere with learning by correction of errors, they maintain.

The applied linguist, Stephen Krashen (1982), made use of extrapolation from naturalistic L1 and L2 acquisition research and came up with his monitor model which discourages error-correction in communicative activities because it raises the learner's affective filter, thereby inhibiting learning. He emphasizes, moreover, that error-correction is even more useless and should not be practised for purposes of acquisition. He does acquiesce though, that it might be more useful for learning. This is one of his hypotheses, which have been criticized for not being falsifiable (Ellis 1990:59) and which still needs validation. Murphy, on the other hand, argues that when a learner commits an error he is in need of correction (1986:46).

The debate on error treatment still goes on with regard to both its necessity and usefulness. Much research is still necessary in this regard, and it would seem that teachers, more than anyone else, have the best opportunity to research further into these unresolved issues.

## **2.5 WHAT IS ERROR-TREATMENT?**

The search for an operational definition of error-treatment is one of the main features of much of the current research. In simple terms, error-treatment is the way in which teachers respond to learner errors. Various forms of treatment have been identified by researchers as being evident in both language and immersion classrooms. Some researchers use the term error-treatment interchangeably with such terms as correction, corrective feedback as well as feedback of any kind. Long, (1977) however, suggests a distinction between feedback and correction, with the term 'feedback' being used to refer to a teacher's attempts to supply learners with information about the correctness of their productions, and 'correction' being used when feedback actually results in the learner's utterance or production being corrected as a result of the teacher's feedback. Allwright and Bailey (1991) differentiate between 'treatment' and 'cure', with 'cure' meaning the same as Long's "correction". Thus treatment can only be regarded as correction only when it effects a lasting cure. Feedback can be regarded as a form of treatment in so far as it helps the learner to advance on the interlanguage continuum. Learners need feedback on their productions so that they may self-correct or seek correction elsewhere, so as to alter any of their output for the better. There is a need for

teachers to treat errors in such a way as not to discourage learners. Chaudron also supports the idea of treatment being regarded as correction only when it has a lasting positive effect on the learners' language output when he states that:

...those treatments which, after correction of a given item, succeed in establishing the learner's consistent correct performance and his autonomous ability to correct himself on the item. (Chaudron 1977 : 31).

Allwright (1975), Fanselow (1977), and Gaies (1983) generally use the aforementioned terms interchangeably, although Allwright and Bailey in their 1991 work, adopt Chaudron's stance. In this study, 'error-treatment' will be used broadly to refer to any form of reaction by the teacher to an error made by the pupil as judged by either the teacher or the researcher. It will be used to include feedback and correction. Ignoring an error will also be taken into account.

## **2.6 WHICH ERRORS ARE USUALLY TREATED?**

To date there is no consensus as to which errors should be treated in classroom oral interaction. It would appear though, that there is a leaning towards the treatment of those errors that impair comprehensibility in verbal communication.

It would, at this stage be worthwhile to refer briefly to the different types of major errors identified by language theorists. Edmondson (1986 cited in Ellis 1990) distinguishes between T-errors - those discourse acts treated either explicitly or implicitly as erroneous by the teacher - and U-errors, which are learner utterances which deviate from target language norms. Researchers usually investigate the former in their studies. Burt and Kiparsky (1974) distinguish "global" and 'local'

errors. James (1974) supports this distinction in his concept of 'error gravity'. Both concepts of error judgement involve a consideration of the number and nature of the rules that have been transgressed.

Ellis (1990) suggests a list of errors or error types which should be treated, the first of which are the 'global errors' already referred to, as these are likely to seriously affect the overall comprehensibility of an utterance. Students too, research reveals, prefer not to be corrected for every minor error (Walker 1973). It should, however, be pointed out that even those errors that are not regarded as major may seriously affect intelligibility.

Ellis (1990) as well as other language educators, like Johansson (1973), Richards (1973), Corder (1975), Hanzeli (1975) amongst others, propose that among the first errors to be corrected should be those that "stigmatize" the learner from the perspective of native speakers. This is very important as attitudes to language do influence human behaviour. For instance amongst the "educated" Blacks of South Africa speaking English as 'perfectly' as possible has come to be a distinctive mark of achievement.

Richards (1973 : 131, cited in Hendrickson 1977) points out that "deviancy from grammatical or phonological norms of a speech community elicits evaluational reactions that may classify a person unfavourably." Thus those errors that are likely to lead to a learner being "categorized" unfavourably seem to warrant a very important place in the error-treatment continuum.

Next, Ellis (1990) suggests the treatment of those errors that relate to the learner's next stage of linguistic development, as the learner should be developmentally ready to handle these. Murphy (1986) suggests the treatment of errors which may affect fluency. He feels that these warrant immediate attention along with errors of accuracy which may render the message unintelligible. These errors should not be ignored as they may lead to breakdown in communication, and if, in oral interaction in the classroom, the principal goal is the promotion of communication, then these errors can be regarded as 'grave'.

From the above presentation then, it would appear that researchers and linguists set great store by the treatment of those errors that obscure meaning rather than concern themselves with the grammatical accuracy of the utterance. Some point out, though, that at times it is the "form" of the utterance that impedes the comprehensibility of the message. In a study conducted by Hughes and Lascarton (1982), for instance, non-native teachers of English of Greek birth, judged as very serious errors in which there was an infringement of "basic rules". Although this study was conducted in a foreign language (FL) context the same usually applies in the L2 context where English is supposed to be a L2 but the exposure of the learners to English is as minimal as that of FL learners. One of the reasons for this is that the teachers themselves often revert to the use of the vernacular when they are frustrated by learners' lack of understanding. A good example is that of the schools such as the one in which the present study was conducted.

## 2.7 HOW DO TEACHERS REACT TO LEARNER ERRORS?

Studies by researchers and language educationists, including those by Allwright (1975, 1991) Chaudron (1977, 1986, 1987) Fanselow (1977) Long (1977) and Nystrom (1983) reveal, amongst other things, that teachers do not react to all the errors that occur in classroom oral interaction. A review of the above studies also reveals that teachers have at their disposal a wide variety of techniques for treating errors, which they do not make full use of. Allwright and Bailey (1991:100) refer to "the complexity of the decisions teachers must make in order to treat learners' errors appropriately". The questions addressed prior to this one (see 1.6 above), are some of the variables comprising this complex situation. Also pertinent to the decision-making process concerning itself with the treatment of error are questions of:

- What treatment to provide
- when to provide it, and,
- whether the teacher should provide it himself.

All these are concomitant with "How" errors are treated by teachers.

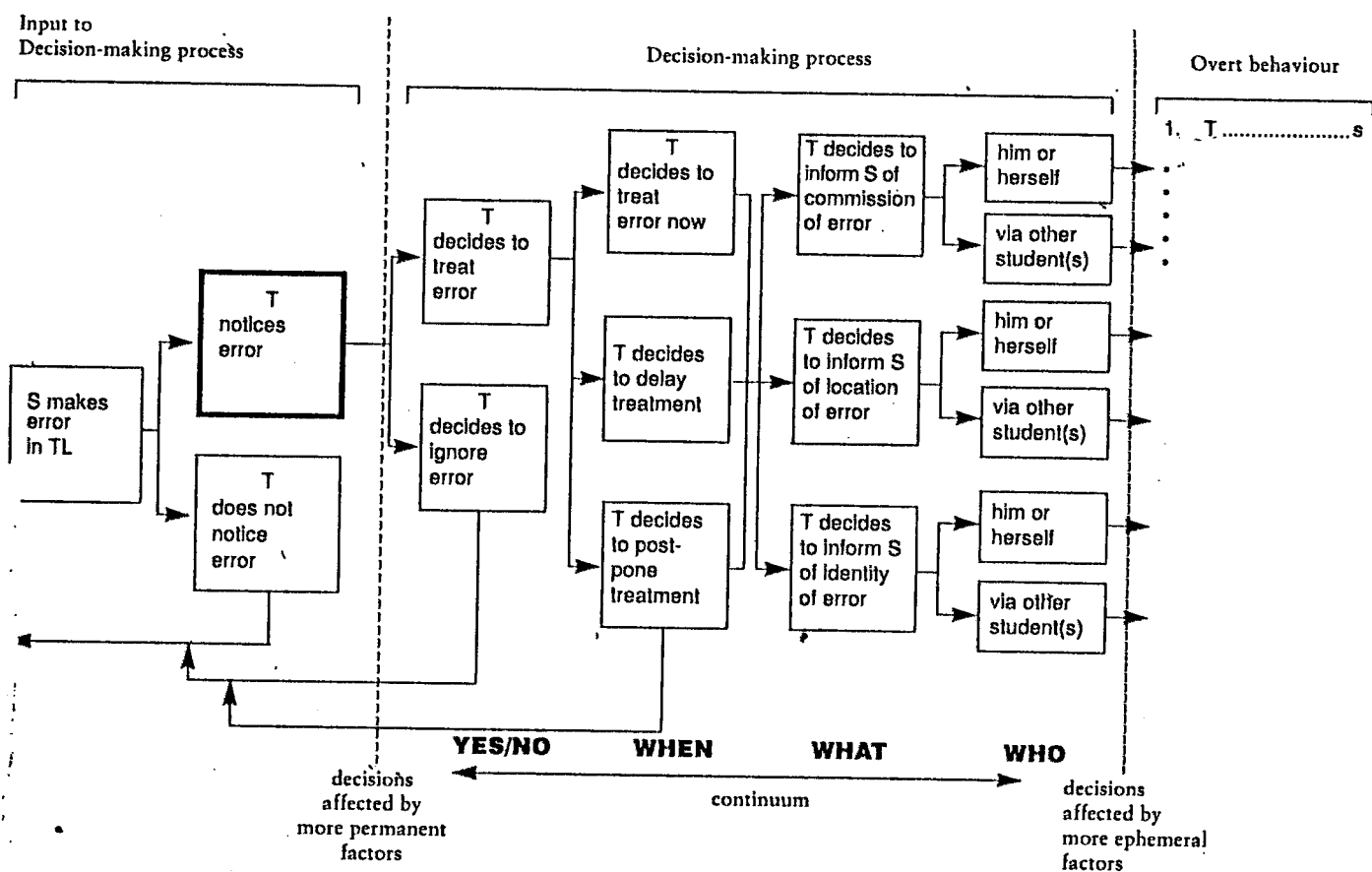
Among the most revealing studies to date with regard to this question are those conducted by Fanselow (1974, 1977), in which he wanted to find out how experienced teachers of ESL actually treated oral errors committed in their classes, and in which he analyses both verbal and non-verbal behaviours. He found that

teachers were inconsistent in treating these errors. The same error, for instance might occur more than once, but might not be treated in each case, or if treated, it might not be treated in the same way each time it occurred. Sometimes teachers used ambiguous treatments which would lead to confusion on the part of the learners. Allwright (1975) argues that teachers perhaps have a "duty" to be inconsistent in their treatment of errors, as the decision to treat and how to treat errors is governed by various circumstances in the classroom situation. He argues that the term "inconsistent" has pejorative overtones which the teachers' varied treatment of errors may not deserve as they have to adjust their treatment of any one error to the needs of the moment. Another finding in Fanselow's study was that there was a general tendency among the teachers to provide the correct model or part thereof after the commission of an error. Also, the teachers were inclined to accept only what they had planned as a correct response.

Gaies (1983:212) mentions that studies done in error-treatment including those of Cathcart and Olsen (1976) and Ramirez and Stromquist (1979) "have demonstrated empirically that errors are treated differentially", depending on their nature. One of the variables that has to be taken into account, when considering error-treatment, is the type of classroom activity during which an error occurs. Nystrom's (1983) study reveals that some teachers treat most of the errors while some ignore most. Some teachers treat no errors at all or rather ignore all errors. Chaudron's (1977) study conducted in French immersion classes reveal that error-treatment normally

does not consist of just a single response from the teacher but rather of a cycle of verbal moves. Thus it ends up involving not "a" response, but rather a series of responses following one another in rapid succession. In their presentation of Long's (1983) slightly modified diagram (Figure 1 below) illustrating the decision-making process with regard to error-treatment Allwright and Bailey (1991) illustrate this point well.

Finally, what emerges from the review of literature on error-treatment is, mainly, that problems abound in the decision-making process. That this is a very complex situation becomes increasingly obvious as one delves into studies that have been conducted in this direction. Several researchers have made suggestions as to how to alleviate some of these problems. These will be discussed later in this study. Clearly much research still has to be done in this area.



Long's model of the decision-making process prior to the teacher feedback move (1977:289)

FIGURE 1

## CHAPTER 3

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Approaches to investigating second language (L2) classrooms vary greatly and reflect the diversity of research questions investigated as well as the divergent theoretical perspectives on the conduct of research. Generally, methodological approaches that have been followed in L2 classroom research (which later came to be known as Classroom Process Research (CPR)) - which Allwright (1988a:xvi) defines as 'a procedure for keeping a record of classroom events in such a way that it can later be studied' - have been adopted from other disciplines. The greatest influence has come from such disciplines as sociology, education, psychology, linguistics and applied linguistics, amongst others (Allwright 1988, Chaudron 1988, Allwright and Bailey 1991). Of the numerous research traditions that have been followed by researchers from the above disciplines, perhaps observation - both participant and non-participant - is the one on whose tools and techniques L2 classroom research has drawn most heavily.

Most research approaches can be categorised according to specific characteristics - broadly according to the predominance of either qualitative or quantitative measures - but research methodologists concur that the techniques and instruments they employ are not mutually exclusive and should be used to complement one another whenever the need arises (Hymes 1977, Erickson 1977, (cited in Chaudron 1988), Rist 1977, Reichardt

and Cook 1979 (cited in Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991), van Lier 1984, Chaudron 1988, Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991).

Classroom process research (CPR) has successfully followed this recommendation as reflected by studies conducted by researchers like Fanselow (1977), Nystrom (1983) and Chaudron (1988) among others.

### **3.2 CLASSROOM PROCESS RESEARCH: A BRIEF BACKGROUND**

Classroom process research (CPR) is classroom-centred research which is concerned with the careful description of the interpersonal events which take place in the classroom. It is aimed at developing more understanding of classroom processes (Ellis 1990). According to van Lier (1988:71 (cited in Ellis 1990:64) "second language classroom research, in studying the processes and circumstances of second-language development, aims to identify the phenomena that promote or hamper learning in the classroom".

This is borne out by Allwright and Bailey (1991:ixv) when they posit that "classroom research investigates the processes of learning as they occur in classrooms. Its findings are important to classroom teachers, researchers and theorists".

CPR "is based on the priority of direct observation of L2 classroom activity and is directed primarily at identifying the numerous factors which shape the L2 language instructional experience" (Gaies 1983:205). In addition to this, Allwright (1983:191) contends that in classroom - centred research "the language classroom (is) not just...the

setting for investigation but more importantly... the object of investigation. Classroom processes become the central focus." This is contrary to the kind of interest in classrooms shown by, for example, sociologists, where the principal objects of study are the different types of social organisations found there.

The studies which took place around the classroom over the last two decades, for instance, did not always concern themselves with teaching and/ or learning behaviours but, for about half-a-century, they concerned themselves with method, to the virtual exclusion of other variables (Allwright 1988). Some of these included systematic classroom observation as a design feature, although they were experimental. One such study was conducted by a team of researchers who called their research the Pennsylvania Project and who set out "quite unashamedly to demonstrate the superiority of the new audio-lingual approach in the public school setting" (Allwright 1988:3). Their findings were reported in 1970 by Smith. What came out strongly in the reports was the futility of comparing the methods which were used in the study (Grittner 1968 (cited in Allwright 1988a, Ellis 1990). Allwright makes the following comment about the results of the project - which had been conducted on the two assumptions that it made sense to ask which the best method for modern language teaching was, and that the "winning" method would simply be prescribed for general adoption:

...perhaps the inconclusiveness of the results of these studies should be taken as evidence that method itself was not nearly as important a variable as had been so confidently assumed. It no longer made much sense to ask which method was 'best'.

The time was ripe, then, for...an approach that would no longer see the language teaching world in terms of major rival 'methods'... (1988 :10).

The studies referred to above also proved to have been a waste of time and money as the desired results had not been forthcoming. It was, however, as a result of these studies that over the last two decades it became increasingly obvious that the classroom as the "crucible" (Gaies 1983) of learning activities should be in the forefront of investigations of learning processes and teaching behaviours. Thus one should be cautious in declaring these studies as having been a waste of time and money, for it was because of them that CPR grew to the point where the focus is on all classroom events that matter. These classroom events play a role in making the task of both the learner and the teacher easier or more difficult, or developing insight into the processes and participants in the classroom. Clark (1969) in Allwright 1988:3-9) comments that the identification of various shortcomings in the Pennsylvania Project should not be considered a justification for dismissing the entire investigation as fruitless or insignificant or to close the door to continuing investigations in the area.

Jarvis (1968), whose work was contemporary with the Pennsylvania Project, was one of the people who brought systematic classroom observation to language teaching research. He took the observational perspective of classroom research

as "the most obvious approach to research on language teaching" (quoted in Allwright 1988:11). Thus it was researchers like him, Grittner (1969) and Politzer (1970) that set observation well on its way to further development. It was, however, not until the late seventies that "researchers became less interested in evaluating pedagogic practice than in providing comprehensive and accurate accounts of aspects of classroom behaviour which were deemed significant on the basis of L2 acquisition theory" (Ellis 1990:66). These included, amongst others, detailed studies of such aspects of the teacher's language as the treatment of learner error (Allwright, 1975), and teacher-talk (Gaies 1977).

### **3.3 PREMISES UNDERLYING CLASSROOM PROCESS RESEARCH**

CPR is based on several premises shared by the diverse settings investigated-foreign language classrooms, ESL programmes, immersion programmes, bilingual classrooms in a variety of contexts, with learners of all age groups, with varying ethnic and educational backgrounds - as well as the diverse investigative approaches employed therein (Gaies 1983, Ellis 1990). Gaies (1983) lists the following premises:

- 3.3.1 The first premise underlying CPR is the perceptible move away from the global categorizations of L2 classroom instruction. This kind of research has proved very difficult to conduct resulting in either inconclusive results or results that have been too difficult to interpret.

3.3.2 The second premise, which is somewhat the corollary of the first one, is the emphasis on as full a description as possible of the complexity of the L2 instructional environment. Thus description is the key issue. CPR aims to generate rather than to test hypotheses, which explains to a large extent the non-prescriptive nature of CPR.

3.3.3 The third premise is the priority of direct observation of classroom activity, referred to earlier.

Thus the data for CPR is collected either wholly or substantially through the observation and measurement of L2 classroom activity. "Classroom process research", contends Gaies, "seeks to inform our understanding of how teachers and learners accomplish classroom lessons...this can be done, it is argued, through direct examination of the process" (1983:206). One of the processes that have been investigated through CPR is oral error-treatment in L2 classrooms, which this study also seeks to do.

### **3.4 DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF STUDY**

#### **3.4.1 Design**

This study set out to establish how oral linguistic errors were dealt with in a classroom where English second language (ESL) is used as a medium of instruction. It followed the constructs of CPR which is grounded in the naturalistic paradigm.

CPR is of necessity illuminative and exploratory rather than theory-led. Despite this, however, prior decisions have to be taken about what to look for so that observation can take place. It adopts a non-interventionist stance. Researchers that have adopted this approach "have purposefully tried not to influence the normally occurring patterns of instruction, because they wished to describe and understand these processes rather than to test specific hypotheses about cause-and-effect relationships" (Allwright and Bailey 1991:41-42). No special groups are created by these researchers for purposes of observation.

"Classroom process research," states Ellis (1990:64), "is concerned with the careful description of the interpersonal events which take place in the classroom as a means of developing understanding about how instruction and learning take place".

### 3.4.2 INSTRUMENTS

In order to address the questions that have been posed above (see p6) the researcher decided to undertake a case study for which data was collected by means of audio-tapes, observation of lessons and focused interviews.

#### 3.4.2.1 The case study

The purpose of a case study "is to probe deeply and to analyse intensively the multifarious phenomena that constitute the life cycle of (a) unit with a view to establishing generalizations about the wider population to which that unit

belongs" (Cohen and Manion, 1985:125). Burger (1988:34) further contends that:

the case study method...is an intensive, detailed analysis and description of a particular ...event - be it an individual, group, institution or community event - generally within its environment.

Seliger and Shohamy (1989:125) support this when they point out that "if...we are interested in tracing in detail the development of a particular subset of linguistic forms ...the case study approach is more likely to provide an in-depth and detailed description of how these forms develop ...." The major limitation of case studies, however, is that they do not always give rise to useful generalizations.

#### 3.4.2.2 Observation

In his work, Problems in the Study of the Language Teacher's Treatment of Learner Error (1975), Allwright points out the difficulties surrounding any investigation in the field of error-treatment- especially where the observation of the classroom event is concerned, given the variables involved in such an investigation. One of the problems he cites is that of the identification of error. He locates as a specific problem the possibility of not being able to locate all 'error events'. This obviously presents a very real problem for the researcher. In locating errors, for example, would a researcher include 'failure to respond' as an error? The teacher's reaction to the student's 'failure to respond' to an elicitation might actually cause an error to be committed where none was going to be committed. Waiting time is a variable that is intertwined with this one in that by not giving the

students enough time to formulate their thoughts and to get ready to proffer an answer the teacher "creates the failure" to give the desired response. There is also the problem of whether to accept only those instances of error that are defined by the teacher, either from the recorded lesson, or judged by his/her reaction to the student's response. In Allwright's words, defining as errors "only those events that get treated as errors, overtly, in the classroom,... would beg all the important questions' (Allwright 1988:203). There is, furthermore, the question of whether the teacher's and the learner's conceptions of the target language are the same. This is important in that, if their conception of the target language is different, then their concept of error in the target language is not likely to be the same. He does, however, suggest that, despite these problems, classroom studies are clearly essential as a solution to the abundant methodological problems surrounding these studies. In another paper, on classroom - centred research, he posits that "observation necessarily involves keeping a record of what goes on in the classrooms observed. At its simplest, an audio-cassette recorder may suffice" (1983:192).

In the same study, he adds that field notes to supplement the audio/video - tapes of the observed lessons are necessary. The recordings, he suggests, need to be transcribed and analyzed for them to be of real use for research purposes, in the sense that it is only then that the results would shed some light, "if any", on the topic being investigated (1983 :192).

#### 3.4.3 Interviews

Finally, interviews with individual teachers were conducted. The focused rather than the tightly structured interview was chosen, as one of the distinctive features of the former is that the interviewee must have been involved in a particular situation prior to the interview (Cohen and Manion 1985 :326). The aim of the interviews conducted in this study was to elicit information from the teachers, based on a situation they had been involved in, namely, the presentation of the lessons. The focused interview seeks 'to follow closely the principle of non-direction' while it gives the interviewer some control over the kinds of questions used and enables him to 'limit the discussion to certain parts of the respondent's experience' (Cohen and Manion 1985:326). Through the focused interview, the researcher is able to construct an interview guide based on an analysis of the situation previously analyzed by him. The investigator is thus able to identify 'the major areas of enquiry and hypotheses which determine the relevant data to be obtained in the interview' (Cohen and Manion 1985:326).

The researcher was aware of the greater interviewing skills that are required of the interviewer who opts for this kind of interview, but still felt that despite this it was the one type of interview that would yield the kind of information that was being sought. In addition, the researcher felt that the focused interview had the decided advantage

of creating a relaxed atmosphere for the interviewee. The structured interview was excluded on the grounds that it is too restrictive and thus leaves the interviewer too

little freedom to make modifications where necessary. Where some leeway is granted him (the researcher), it is too specified in

advance [and is thus] characterized by being a closed situation (Cohen and Manion 1985:309).

### 3.4.3 Implementation

#### 3.4.3.1 Data collection

In the course of the case study of a Std V class in a rural primary school in Alice the following data collection procedures were followed:

- (a) To provide data for quantitative analysis the following lessons were observed and audio-taped over a period of ten school days:
  - 2.1 six Mathematics lessons taught by Teacher A (TA)
  - 2.2 four General Science lessons presented by Teacher B (TB)
  - 2.3 three Geography lessons given by Teacher C (TC)
  - 2.4 three History lessons taught by Teacher C (TC)
  - 2.5 six English lessons presented by Teacher D (TD) and
  - 2.6 four Agriculture lessons also taught by TB.

For General Science and Agriculture fewer lessons were recorded because they were presented by the same teacher. For Geography and History fewer lessons were recorded because they, too, were taught by the same teacher and, in addition, the school time-table allows for only about half the time allowed for other subjects, for these two subjects, as they are regarded as components of the same subject,

Social Studies. This trend is followed right up to Std 7.

Subsequently, all relevant parts of every lesson were transcribed (see Appendix B). Lessons and parts of lessons that yielded no error or error-response episodes were omitted. These parts also did not have any bearing on any of the research questions. In the case of Mathematics and English the first two lessons and in the other instances only the first of the lessons was used for the purpose of familiarizing both the teachers and the pupils with the presence of the researcher in their midst during teaching time.

- (b) In order to collect qualitative data, focused interviews were conducted with individual Std V teachers that teach through the English medium and whose lessons had been observed. The guide for the interview was constructed on the basis of the observed and transcribed lessons (see Appendix C). In order to refocus the attention of the teachers on some details of the lessons, especially those pertinent to the study, the relevant sections of the tape were played back to them.

#### 3.4.3.2 Selection of target school

For this study the Std V class of a primary school in Alice was visited over a period of ten school days with the intention of observing the classroom events therein. This school was selected because the researcher felt that it is fairly representative of other schools for black children in the area. Both the teachers and the pupils are

second language speakers of English. Most of the pupils come from the surrounding area where the first language is Xhosa. Only a very small group of these children come from homes with professional parents. The bulk of the class has parents who work as labourers and either housemaids or cleaners at the nearby University of Fort Hare, or they do the same kind of work at the local hospital. Some of the parents are self-employed, with local businesses, both big and small.

As can be gleaned from the above analysis of the class, the bulk of these children have little or no exposure to English other than at school, as they come from a home background where the parents are either semi-literate or illiterate. Those that come from a home background which could afford them some exposure to the language - through reading or the media - often do not get the parental support that is necessary to take them through the paces of familiarizing themselves with a second - if not foreign - language. The basic reason for this is that the parents of these children usually get engrossed in their own professions, which leave them very little time to spend with their children. This is usually the case with parents who are teachers, for instance, who often have to take home a lot of their work after a long, tiring day at the schools or nurses, who arrive home late in the day or leave for night shifts at a time when the rest of the family are beginning to settle down towards the end of the "working" day.

The above school was also chosen because it is a typical Black school, with virtually none of the advantages that one sometimes finds in urban schools, such as electricity, laboratories and libraries, because of the latter schools' proximity to

industrial areas, where they are sometimes able to raise funds for the above. The only advantage enjoyed by this school, perhaps, is its adjacency to a nearby training college - with a staff that comprises lecturers that are both L1 and L2 speakers of English - which uses the school for their students' practical teaching sessions at regular intervals during the course of the year. During these sessions the pupils get more exposure to English for the periods that they are at the college as the student teachers have to use English when presenting their lessons for the benefit of these lecturers, who might otherwise not understand the lessons. While this might be regarded as an advantage on the one hand, viewed from another angle it can be regarded as a disadvantage for the pupils because these teaching practice sessions interfere with their regular school programme. Any advantage is further counterbalanced by the pupils having to follow two programmes of the former Ciskeian government imposed on the school, despite their not being part of the syllabus, which the pupils have to attend three times a week. Thus, the researcher was informed by one of the teachers, the pupils had only two full teaching days a week. The pupils are thus robbed of about six hours' teaching time during which they should have got more input that might, hopefully, have further improved their linguistic skills.

A further reason the investigator had for choosing this school was that as the pupils are used to observers - in the form of the college lecturers during Teaching Practice sessions by the college students - her presence would not be too disturbing for the children. The teachers, too, were sometimes asked to demonstrate lessons to the students using their classes. Thus, they too, would be able to carry on as normal

after the first few lessons of being observed by the researcher. This, therefore, was seen as an advantage by the observer because both the pupils and their teachers were used to outsiders in their classes during the presentation of lessons.

The Std V class was selected because the researcher felt that the members of the class should, by this level of their schooling, be quite accustomed to being taught through the medium of English to the extent that, while linguistic adjustments might have to be made by the teachers from time to time, there should not be too much reversion to the use of the vernacular in explaining subject content or putting questions to pupils. Furthermore, Std V is a crucial class in that it is the final class in the senior primary phase of black schools in the region. The next class, Std VI, which is the beginning of the secondary school phase, is housed in completely different educational institutions and has absolutely nothing to do with the primary school with regard to matters of tuition.

Permission to use the school as well as the Std V class was sought and obtained from the principal of the school, to whom the researcher explained some aspects of the visit. Some details of the visit, such as the fact that the researcher would be specifically looking at error-treatment in their classes and how far the teachers contributed through their use of English during their lessons were, however, omitted as mentioning them might have been counter-productive, because the teachers whose classes would be observed might change their normal classroom behaviour for the benefit of the researcher. Further permission was sought from the teachers whose class was to be studied. They were informed that the main purpose of the

visit was to observe their presentation of lessons as well as how they interacted with their pupils during their lessons, for purposes of research. They were also made aware that the researcher was interested in the language medium aspect of their lessons. They were, however, not informed that the researcher would be specifically looking at error-treatment, as it was felt that this would only put them on their guard. The researcher felt that it would be wiser to inform the teachers of the focus on error-treatment while the interviews were being conducted so that they might still have an opportunity for withdrawing from the research if they were not happy about it. Thus, while the tapes were being played back to the teachers, the researcher made them aware that the main focus of the exercise had been the linguistic errors the pupils committed while speaking in class and how seriously they (the teachers) felt they affected the pupils' learning. None of these teachers chose to opt out and, therefore, explicitly permitted the researcher to use the data in the study.

### **3.5 DATA ANALYSIS**

#### **3.5.1 Framework for Analysis**

Several models for analysing classroom activities have been produced by several researchers who saw the need for this. A number of these models have made use of the ideas of Bellack and his team as a basis for their own improved models. This was the case, for instance with Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), whose model appears as (Appendix 1.1). Chaudron (1977) also used the same model as a

starting point to develop his own model (Appendix.1.2), which included aspects that had been left out in Bellack et al's. The same model was used as a basis by Fanselow (1977b) for the development of his own classroom observation system, which he named FOCUS - an acronym for Foci for Observing Communications Used in Settings (Appendices 1.3 and 1.4). He used this model in his paper, 'Beyond Rashomon - Conceptualizing and Describing the Teaching Act', the purpose of which was, among other things, to:

teach the five characteristics of communications that [were] noted in FOCUS, provide a rationale for each and suggest applications of the instrument for teachers, teacher trainers, supervisors and researchers (and)...argue that the teaching act is not a mystery that defies precise and rational description and that we can learn a great deal about how to teach by analysing descriptions that show how practising teachers and their students communicate ...inthe classroom.... (Allwright 1988:127).

Judging by the extent to which Bellack et al's model has been used - with all the modifications effected on it for different purposes - it would seem that it has provided a sound and reliable basis for studying classroom behaviours. In analyzing the results of this study the same model by Bellack et al (1966) was used as a point of departure. The researcher decided to use this model because of its simplicity and also because it was specifically developed for purposes of describing classroom discourse. The framework involves four moves that comprise teacher-learner classroom discourse, namely:

- (1) Structuring
- (2) Soliciting
- (3) Responding and

## (4) Reacting

The following transcript from Allwright and Bailey (1991), reprinted from Long (1980a) and also reprinted in Seliger and Long (1983a:8) serves to illustrate these moves.

## TRANSCRIPT 5 : What's a Conductor?

- T: O.K. Now. What's a conductor? (STRUCTURING)  
 Pedro, What's a conductor? (SOLICITING)
- S: A conductor is the people who is boss in the (inaudible) for example,  
 in music. (RESPONDING)
- T: O.K. (REACTING)
- (T represents teacher and S represents Students.)

Fanselow refers to these moves as pedagogical purposes for which communication is used in the classroom. In his conceptual framework, FOCUS, he gives the description of 'communications' as follows:

communications ... inside the classroom are seen as a series of patterned events in which two or more people use mediums such as speech, gestures, noise, or writing to evaluate, interpret and ... communicate separate areas of content such as the meaning of words, personal feelings, or classroom procedure, for one of four pedagogical purposes: structuring, soliciting, responding and reacting (Fanselow 1977b in Allwright 1988: 129-130).

He conceives the four moves thus:

Communications that set the stage for subsequent behaviour and exercises or self-directed activities such as reading silently or cleaning up the classroom without being told are structuring moves. Those communications that set tasks or ask questions are considered soliciting moves. Communications that modify previous moves are reacting moves (Allwright 1988:130).

Responding moves, which have not been included above, can be regarded as those moves which are directed at carrying out solicitations. Fanselow adds that although in conversations any of the participants can employ any of the moves any number of times, in the classroom this is usually quite different, and the usual pattern is that the teacher structures, solicits and reacts, with the learners only responding to the teacher's solicitations. This, however, is different in classes where tutoring or group sessions are in progress because the students get the opportunity to solicit as well as to react. One of the additions made by Fanselow (1977) to the original four-part framework by Bellack et al (1966) is the source of the move. For him the pedagogical purpose is vital because it is the determinant of the move, which he regards as the basic unit of analysis. For the analysis of results in this study the two moves of soliciting- responding and reacting- were of vital importance as the pupils had to respond to the teacher's solicitations in order to provide the necessary data. In addition the teacher's reaction to the pupils' response was very important because the answer to one of the questions pertinent to the study could only be answered through this move. Although these three moves have been highlighted as having been the most important for the study, the move of structuring also came into play because the data was obtained within the context of normal classroom activities where all four moves usually interplay.

In order to determine what constituted an error-response episode, the researcher

used as a point of departure the model of discourse for the description of discourse in corrective treatment of learners' errors, developed by Chaudron (1977a - see Appendix 1.2)

Chaudron's model includes both the terminology and the assumptions of discourse analysis. Its units of analysis, rather than being based on an arbitrary time segment, is based on the natural divisions in classroom discourse : the beginnings of a new class of utterances is determined by the change in the person speaking, as well as by changes in the functions of what is said (Nystrom 1983:171).

### 3.5.2 Types of Treatment

One of the questions addressed by this study is: what types of treatment are employed by teachers in dealing with linguistic oral errors committed by pupils in their content classes, if they do attend to them. A review of literature on error-treatment reveals that theorists and researchers that have conducted studies in this area have advanced the language educationists' understanding of the nature of the process of error feedback. Studies conducted both in language and immersion classrooms by specialists like Holley and King (1971), Cohen (1974), Fanselow (1974,1977), Cathcart and Olsen (1976) Chaudron (1976, 1977, 1986b, 1987), Long (1977), Nystrom (1983), Allwright (1988), Ellis (1990) , Allwright and Bailey (1991), among others, have revealed some interesting findings about how teachers handle their pupils' oral errors. The following are some of the findings:

- (a) teachers do not treat all errors that do occur;
- (b) individual teachers use various means to respond to learners' errors;
- (c) in almost all cases teachers model at least part of the desired form

- when learners respond erroneously;
- (d) although teachers have at their disposal a plethora of types of treatment, they do not, as rule, make full use of the repertoire of behaviours from which they could choose;
  - (e) teachers are often ambiguous in their 'delivery of error responses' (Nystrom 1983:170);
  - (f) most teachers in immersion classrooms attend to errors of content more than to linguistic errors.

One of the researchers who have provided models for categorizing treatment types that are open to teachers is Allwright (1988), which, although he regards these as tentative, he sees as generally relatable to some classroom data. His model comprises what he refers to as 'basic treatment options', of which there are seven open to the teacher to select from. In addition he has a further nine possible features of treatments that the teacher can employ. He points out that because his model is so tentative, "especially the difference between the 'basic options' and the 'possible features', he has numbered these continuously from one to sixteen rather than one to seven and then one to nine (Allwright 1988:207). A number of both the basic options and the possible features were used in the current study. The following is an illustration of his model and the options and features marked with an asterisk were selected for use in the study. Some of these, however, do not appear in the tables but rather in the rest of the discussion of the results.

## ALLWRIGHT'S MODEL OF TREATMENT TYPES.

Treatment Type

## A. Basic Options:

- \* 1. To treat or to ignore completely.
- \* 2. To treat immediately or delay.
- \* 3. To transfer treatment or not.
- \* 4. To transfer to another individual, a sub-group, or to the whole class.
- \* 5. To return, or not, to original error-maker after treatment.
- \* 6. To call upon, or permit another learner (or learners) to provide treatment.
- \* 7. To test for efficacy of treatment.

## B. Possible Features:

- \* 8. Fact of error indicated.
- 9. Blame indicated.
- \* 10. Location indicated.
- \* 11. Opportunity for new attempt given.
- \* 12. Model provided.
- 13. Error type indicated.
- 14. Remedy indicated.
- \* 15. Improvement indicated.
- 16. Praise indicated.

**Figure 2**

The researcher found the above model quite useful and, as claimed by Allwright, relatable to the data. Features of Chaudron's model were also made use of.

## CHAPTER 4

### PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA.

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

The original research question this study set out to address was a descriptive one, namely:

How do teachers who are second language speakers (L2) of English and who have to use English as the medium of instruction (MOI) react to linguistically erroneous oral responses made by the pupils in the course of the presentation of their lessons?

In an attempt to refine the question and to identify significant variables that could account for what was observed, the following specific questions were addressed:

- 4.1.1 Do these teachers concern themselves with content errors only, or do they also concern themselves with linguistic errors?
- 4.1.2 Do these errors get an approximately equal amount of attention?
- 4.1.3 If oral errors are attended to, what treatments do the teachers employ in dealing with them?

In order to attempt to find answers to the questions set out above, the researcher observed, audio-taped and transcribed lessons of a Std V class, in a school near the town of Alice. Details of how the study was conducted are dealt with in Chapter 3.

## 4.2 Identifying Errors

For the purposes of this data analysis, erroneous utterances made by pupils in response to the teacher's solicitations were considered. These included answers to questions and the carrying out of instructions given by the teacher, such as going to the board to draw a figure, to identify a figure or to point out something they had been asked to, e.g. in Mathematics. They also included going to the board or the table to arrange or rearrange phrases or words on flashcards or sentence strips displayed on the table or the board as in the English lessons. Errors were categorized according to whether they were linguistic errors or errors of content. Linguistic errors included lexical, phonological, morpho-syntactical and discourse errors. If earlier in the lesson, for instance, the teacher had regarded the use of incomplete sentences as erroneous, even when he did not do so later the researcher continued to regard them as such. Errors that were ignored by the teacher for one reason or the other were, however, also taken into consideration by the researcher for the purposes of this study. The use of incomplete sentences by pupils was regarded as an error of discourse, (according to how each teacher reacted to such responses) for the purposes of analyzing the data for this study. The researcher experienced some difficulty in coding some of the errors as either linguistic or content errors. These were, however, finally coded as both linguistic and content errors. These will be discussed later in this chapter. Lists of errors committed in each teacher's classes appear as appendices 3.1 - 3.4.

### 4.3 Types of treatment

The type of treatment given to each error by the teacher was deemed as very important as this behaviour could help to provide an answer to 4.1.3. Since this study is an attempt to establish how teachers 'react' to pupils' erroneous responses, a teacher's ignoring of errors occurring in pupils' utterances was used by the researcher to determine which errors were treated or not, but was not used for purposes of categorization. This is also in line with the model provided by Allwright (see Chapter III). Thus in addition to the error types (i.e. linguistic and content) treatment types were also categorized.

### 4.4 Presentation of data

As a starting point, statistical tables for the number of each type of errors occurring in each teacher's classes will be presented. The total number of errors occurring during the period of lesson observation for each teacher - rather than the number of errors per lesson - will be presented. This will be followed by a profile for error - response episodes (according to the types of errors) for each teacher. Profiles for the types of treatment provided by the teachers to linguistic errors will then be presented. These will be followed by a discussion of the tables. No tables will be provided, however, for the different types of treatment provided by the teachers for content errors as this not within the scope of this study. This will be followed by a discussion of selected transcripts from some of the teachers' lessons from which more can be learned about the teachers and their style of lesson presentation as it affects the treatment of errors in their lessons. Supportive evidence from the interviews conducted with the individual teachers will then be presented for each teacher. This will

provide further information on what took place in the individual teachers' classrooms when oral errors occurred during oral interaction and why they reacted as they did.

#### 4.4.1 Teacher A : Mathematics Teacher

TABLE 2.1 ERROR-TYPE PROFILE FOR TEACHER A

Error-type	No. of errors	% of error-type
Linguistic	35	66
Content	18	34
TOTAL	53	

TABLE 2.2 PROFILE FOR TYPE OF ERROR ATTENDED TO IN TA'S CLASSES

Type of error	No. treated	No. treated in %
Linguistic	13	37
Content	18	100
TOTAL	31	

TABLE 2.3 TEACHER-REACTION PROFILE FOR LINGUISTIC  
ERRORS FOR :TA

Treatment type	Frequency	of treatment type.
Model provided	13	76.5
Permit another learner/s to provide treatment	2	11.8
Opportunity for another attempt given	2	11.8
TOTAL	17	

This teacher had been teaching at the school for five years when these lessons were observed. She had received training as a teacher of General Science and English, but because there was always a shortage of Mathematics teachers, she assisted with its teaching whenever the need arose. She had studied it up to Matric and transferred the skills she had acquired in her two methods to teach it effectively. She presented her lessons in what can be regarded as the traditional way of teaching, with the teacher being in the forefront of all classroom activity. All the structuring, soliciting and reacting moves were made by the teacher. As a result the errors - content and linguistic - that were committed in her lessons were committed when the pupils responded to her solicitations. Her solicitations were in the form of questions, instructions to point out angles and lines/sides of figures, seeking confirmation from the class as to the correctness of a given response, so as to ascertain whether the rest of the class 'understood' the concept being handled in the lesson and to ask the class to repeat most

correct responses. The pupils in her class were, however, active throughout her lessons albeit only in the role of responding to her solicits.

A study of Table 2.1 above reflects that 66% of all errors committed in her classes were linguistic errors. Of the 35 linguistic errors committed only 13 (37%) were treated (see Table 2.2 above). All the content errors that were committed during her lessons were attended to. These tables then, portray Teacher A as a teacher who is more concerned with content than linguistic errors. These tables, however, also reflect her as someone who is not completely oblivious to her pupils' linguistic errors. Furthermore, in dealing with these she uses different treatments. Table 2.3 shows her most frequently applied treatment type to be giving the correct model of the erroneous response. She did, however, afford the error makers in her class the opportunity to self-correct. In addition, she encouraged peer-correction, though to a far lesser extent than she modelled her reactions.

One of the observations made by other researchers (Chaudron 1977b, 1986b, Fanselow 1977, Nystrom 1983) on error treatment is that there is little consistency in teacher treatment of learner error (Nystrom 1983:170). This was one of the features of this teacher's treatment of errors in her classes. She would, for instance, insist that pupils use full sentences when answering questions and then, she would abandon this strategy and accept incomplete sentences only to indicate again later in the lesson that she would like the pupils to answer in full sentences.

The following excerpts from one of her lessons (See Appendix 3.2 for the complete transcript) serve to illustrate this point. Early in this lesson the teacher virtually insisted on the use of full sentences by always modelling the desired form of the sentence whenever a pupil answered (correctly in terms of content) in either a phrase or a half-sentence. (From utterance 15)

- 15 T: ... What do we call the shorter sides? What do we call ...  
Nomculo? (Calling out a pupil whose hand is raised).
- 16 Nom: We call it a breadth or width.
- 17 T: The breadth or width. The longer sides? Nkomo.
- 18 Nko: The length.
- 19 T: We call it the length. Right ...

Again in another utterance the same sequence occurs:

- 22 T: ...Another? Sana
- 23 San: The blackboard.
- 24 T: The blackboard ...? (Indicates that he should continue by raising her voice at the end of the utterance).
- 25 San: The blackboard has a rectangular shape.

After this the pupils in her class seem to understand that their teacher would like them to use full sentences and their subsequent responses are in full sentences whenever necessary. Such is the case, for instance in the following extract:

- 34 T: Mh. Another object. Nombutho?
- 35 Nom: The ... (inaudible) has a rectangular shape.
- 36 T: The...?
- 37 Nom: The chart has a rectangular shape.
- 38 T: The chart has a rectangular shape. Do you all agree?
- 39 P's: Yes Maam.

A comparison with another part of the same lesson, however, shows the teacher not to be as preoccupied as before with the use of full sentences. She has just indicated to one pupil, for instance, that she expected a full sentence in response to the solicit "what are the names of these sides? Ncesh?" Ncesh responds by telling the teacher, "AB". The teacher responds by repeating the response in a full sentence, with stress laid on 'side', "We have side AB. We have side AB, class?" The pupils repeat after her. Yet a few utterances later the same does not apply. See the following extract:

- 79 T: Who can come and show us side AB or side BA? Moni. Show us side AB or side BA. Moni come to the board and points at point B.  
No, that is point B. Show us side AB or side BA. (Moni tries again).  
This is side BA. Good. Another side? Themba.
- 80 The: (After a long pause) Side BC.
- 81 T: Side BC or---?
- 82 P's: CB.
- 83 T: Who can come and show us side BC/CB? (A pupil comes forward and does so successfully). CB/BC. Another side? Gquma.

- 84 Gqu: Side DC.
- 85 T: Side---?
- 86 Gqi: Side DC.
- 87 T: Side DC or---?
- 88 P's: Side CD.
- 89 T: Side DC or side CD. Who can come and show us that side?  
 Anyone. (A volunteer comes forward and points out the wrong side). Mhm (shaking her head) You are "khombing" (meaning pointing at) the point wena. Pupil tries again). Another side, Pele.
- 90 Pel: Side--- side---
- 91 T: We have side AB, this is side AB. We have side BC. We have side CD. Which is the remaining side that we have not mentioned?
- 92 Pet: Side AB.
- 93 T: Side AD or---?
- 94 P's: Side DA.

An examination of the rest of this lesson shows a recurrence of this pattern. Thus in the case of this teacher the findings of previous research with regard to the inconsistency of teachers' handling of oral treatment is corroborated. This, however, applied only to linguistic errors because none of the content errors was ignored. The interview conducted with this teacher yielded some interesting aspects about the teacher and her classroom behaviour, including her treatment of errors. She became aware of the linguistic errors she had ignored while listening to the tapes of her lessons. Among these were 'errors' such as the use of incomplete sentences, the use of precise terms for naming mathematical figures. In fact these formed the majority of the 'errors' in her

lessons. On being asked if she had any specific reasons for ignoring these errors when at other times she attended to them, she replied:

T: I do not regard these errors as serious for most of the pupils, that is why I don't concentrate on them all the time. Another thing is that in Maths you are not expected to use sentences most of the time. It is important for them to know and to name the figures and their parts correctly, however. They must know their proper names in order to do this. So when they don't say their names I become worried and feel that I should correct them.

The reason for the teacher's insistence on the use of the proper terms for the figures or their parts earlier becomes obvious. This response also accounts for her emphasis on terms like 'side' and 'point' (see 79 on p9) when her pupils are not specific in their use of them. This, of course should be expected from a Maths teacher, because of the precision demanded by the nature of its content. Thus it is important for the teacher to stress the distinction between terms and their use. This strategy, in the researcher's opinion, is a good way of avoiding content errors in the Maths classes.

#### 4.4.2 TEACHER B : GENERAL SCIENCE AND AGRICULTURE

Error-type	No. of errors	% of error-type
Linguistic	14	66.6
Content	07	33.3
TOTAL	21	

## CLASS.

Type of error	No. treated	No. treated in %
Linguistic	4	28.6
Content	7	100
TOTAL	11	52.4

Table 2.6 TEACHER-REACTION PROFILE FOR LINGUISTIC ERRORS

## FOR TEACHER B

Type of treatment	Frequency of type	Type in %
Model provided	04	100
Permit another learner/s to provide treatment	01	25
TOTAL	05	

Table 2.3 above indicates that 66.6 % of all errors committed in Teacher B's classes were linguistic errors, with the rest being errors of content. Table 2.5 portrays a situation where the teacher concerns himself with the treatment of content rather than linguistic errors. The seven (100%) content errors committed in his lessons are all treated, whereas only 4 (28.6%) of the 14 linguistic errors are attended to. Thus, of the 21 (100%) errors that were committed, a total of 11 (52.4%) were treated, with the rest (47.6%) receiving no treatment at all. For the researcher this is a clear indication of the teacher's preference for the treatment of content errors over linguistic ones. As can be

seen in Table 2.6 the teacher modelled the desired form for all linguistic errors. Only once does the teacher deviate from this type of error-treatment. In this particular case the teacher models the desired response once it is not forthcoming from the class to whom the question has been redirected. This happens in one of the General Science lessons when a lexical error has been committed. The teacher has asked the class to provide a mother tongue equivalent of 'a fox'.

- 59 T: the epidermis. Right. They say that there are other mammals like the fox and the mink. Who can tell me the fox in Xhosa? Yes? The fox in Xhosa.
- 60 P: Ixwhili.
- 61 T: Mh-m, not ixhwili. Mh? A fox in Xhosa. Right, ifox ke yile nto sithi yingcuka. Niyayazi ingcuka?

The other linguistic errors for which this teacher modelled the desired responses were mostly those of either the omission or incorrect use of the article and number. During the observation of the lessons the researcher was left with the impression that even these were treated 'incidentally' rather than intentionally because of the level of inconsistency with which this treatment was applied. A review of this teacher's transcribed lessons in both of his subjects (Appendices 2.3 to 2.6) will illustrate this.

At the time the data was collected Teacher B had been teaching at this school for almost two years. His approach to his lessons was that of giver of information, with very little coming from the pupils. His style of lesson presentation afforded the pupils very little opportunity to use language at all, and, therefore, committing errors of either type. For

instance, the pupils were expected to respond to solicitations for examples, providing vernacular equivalents of English terms, completing utterances started by the teacher or simply responding automatically to the teacher's equally automatic "OK", "Right" or "Siyevana na?" (which means "Do you understand me?"). The following extract from one of his transcribed Agriculture lessons (Appendix 2.6) portrays a common pattern followed by this teacher in his lessons. (The extract is from lesson 3, from utterance 7)

- 7 T: Right--- and then now, we find also another class of vegetables,  
ie. now tuberous vegetables. Right?
- 8 Ps: Yes the tuberous vegetables.
- 9 T: Right the tuberous vegetables. They are like the (sic) tubes, right?
- 10 Ps: Yes.
- 11 T: OK, The tuberous vegetables are like the (sic) tubes. What are the  
examples of tuberous vegetables?
- 12 P: Sweet potato.
- 13 T: Sweet potato, sweet potato, sweet potato. Another example? Yes  
Kid?
- 14 Kid: Potato.
- 15 T: Potato, potato, potato, we have the potato in our... ie the (as he  
writes on the board) potatoes ...these are pota--?
- 16 Ps: ...potatoes.
- 17 T: Right, potatoes, we find the sweet potato and also the potato. O.K

18 Ps: Yes teacher.

19 T: Fine. Potatoes are found on the ground. Right?

20 Ps: Yes.

21 T: OK?

22 Ps: Yes.

23 T: They are found on the gro---

24 Ps: ...on the ground.

25 T: Fine. They are the (sic) examples of tuberous vegetables. They are like the (sic) tubes and then we find the sweet potato and the potato Right?

26 Ps: Yes.

27 T: OK? I-sweet potato ke yile nto kuthwa yi---? (The sweet potato is what is called...?)

28 Ps: Yibhatata (Xhosa for sweet potato).

29 T: Ibhata. Sweet, it's sweet. It is different from the potato. Right?

30 Ps: Yes.

31 T: No question ?

32 Ps: No teacher.

33 T: Right, we move to another class, ie. the root vegetables.

Root vegetables, the root vegetables. What are the root vegetables ?  
the examples of the root vegetables. . Yes?

In thirty three utterances made in the above extract there was not a single error either of content or of a linguistic nature made by the pupils because of the teacher's approach to his lesson. Instead what there is evidence of is a number of linguistic errors occurring in the teacher's own utterances. Teacher B did not really concern himself with the linguistic errors committed by his pupils as can be seen from the excerpt from one of his General Science lessons. That he did not attend to the errors occurring in the pupil's utterance, but instead repeats it came as no surprise, considering his own indiscriminate use of the definite article, and other linguistic errors he made that seemed not to be aware of. The researcher, however, did not establish the real cause for this high incidence of error in the teacher's own output as the teachers had been informed that it was not theirs but the pupils' errors that were being investigated. The researcher will, therefore, not go into detail concerning this or any other teacher's linguistic errors. She attributes some, if not all, their errors, however, to the fact that the teachers are L2 speakers of English. It must also be born in mind that not all of them did train as ESL teachers.

04 T : ... Right, what is energy?

05 P : Energy is the ability to do the work.

06 T : The ability to do the work. Right, right, right. We see that there  
are various work...,

He also did not regard the treatment of language errors as of particular importance during content lessons. He thought the person best qualified to handle the teaching of English was the English teacher. For him the grasping of factual information was all-important. This was confirmed during the interview as the teacher seemed oblivious to the errors that he had

ignored. Consider the following excerpt from the interview held with him:

R: Would you regard the correction of language errors in the subjects you teach in English as being of particular importance?

TB: Not really.

R: Why would you say this when your own subject is taught through the medium English?

TB: Well, well, well Maam I think not all teachers are going to correct children well. Another thing the children can say the facts correctly although the English is not very correct.

R: I notice that when you teach you often explain things to the children in Xhosa, although they are supposed to learn your subjects in English. Why do you do this?

T: As I said before the children must know er er these subjects in order to pass examinations. Sometimes they don't understand in English and therefore I explain in Xhosa. After this they understand and they use their English to answer the questions.

R: Are you aware that one of the requirements stated in the Std V English Syllabus is that you should help the pupils to improve their English through your subject?

TB: No. Also there is not enough time to to teach English during my periods because er er when the children fail my subjects the parents and the government will blame me if I didn't finish the syllabus.

The teacher thus presented himself as someone for whom the treatment of linguistic errors and, therefore, extending the pupil's opportunity for language acquisition was outside his domain. What was most important to him was that the pupils should understand and pass his subjects.

#### 4.4.3 TEACHER C : Geography and History

Table 2.7 ERROR-TYPE PROFILE FOR TEACHER C

Error-type	No of errors	% of error-type
Linguistic	11	91.7
Content	01	08.3
TOTAL	12	

Table 2.8 PROFILE FOR TYPE OF ERROR ATTENDED TO IN TC'S CLASSES.

Type of error	No treated	% of error type
Linguistic	05	45.5
Content	01	100
TOTAL	06	

Table 2.9      TEACHER-REACTION PROFILE FOR LINGUISTIC ERRORS  
FOR TC

Treatment type	Frequency of	Frequency in %
Model provided	05	100
Locate error	01	20
TOTAL	06	

Table 2.7 displays a breakdown of the types of errors that were committed during Teacher C's lessons. A sum total of all erroneous responses in his classes was 12 errors. Eleven (11) of these were linguistic errors. The only other one was a content error in History. As this a "content" subject, this error was dealt with immediately. Of the 11 (91.7%) linguistic errors committed in the teacher's transcribed lessons, only 5 were attended to. This was only 45.5% of the linguistic errors, and 41% of errors committed during the period of observation. For all five errors the teacher modelled the desired response. Only once did the teacher indicate the location of the "error", by telling the pupil that he must answer in a full sentence. On other occasions when a linguistic error had been committed the teacher modelled the response.

As with Teacher B this teacher's method of presenting lessons contributed to the few errors committed both in language and content. His approach was the traditional teacher-centred approach of lesson presentation, where the teacher gives information to the pupils and the pupils are mere recipients of this information. There was very little pupil participation in the teacher's class. Even when there was some oral interaction between the teacher and his

pupils, it was not the kind that encourages 'hypothesis testing' in language learning. The pupils took the cue from him for virtually all their responses and even used his own language for responding to solicits. In fact it was quite interesting to observe that some of the errors the pupils committed were the result of either the teacher's own erroneous form which they had been exposed to earlier in the lesson, or lack of clarity in the teacher's solicitation. The following extracts from a History lesson (Appendix 2.8) illustrate this point:

- 3 T: .... Which place is our printing press here at Alice? Yes?
- 4 P: Lovedale Press.
- 5 T: Lovedale Press. Where is Lovedale Press? Where is Lovedale Press? Where is Lovedale Press? Yes?
- 6 P: Lovedale Press is at Alice.
- 7 T: At Alice? Which place?

The teacher would like to know the situation of the press in the town of Alice, but because of the way he has phrased his question the pupils are not able to give him the desired response. Later in the lesson the teacher informs the class that :

- 25 T: ... So the results of the invention of the machines (writes on the board). One, the books were printed at a large scale (writes on the board). What do I mean about the part of this sentence : the books were printed at a large scale? ...

When the teacher puts questions to the class during the conclusion stage of the lesson the same error comes up when one of the pupils answers a question that requires them to enumerate the results of the discovery of printing

37 T: ... What were are the results of the printing? Yes?

38 P: Books were cheaper.

39 T: Books were cheaper. So we are able to buy the books now. Eh?

40 P's: Yes.

41 T: No 2.

42 P: Books were printed at a large scale.

43 T: Books were printed at a large scale. ...

The recurrence of this error and the teacher's constant repetition of it points to the teacher's lack of awareness of it. It is also interesting to find that while the teacher had preceded 'books' with 'the' in utterance 39, the pupil who responded to the next solicit dropped the article although he repeated the prepositional error committed earlier in utterance 25. The linguistic errors that he mainly addressed were lexical errors which might lead to the pupils' acquisition of incorrect subject-specific terminology. It was in a lesson in Geography that he showed some concern for linguistic errors, and even then it was more an error of discourse than that of a morpho-syntactical type, when the teacher insisted on the use of full sentences by the pupils. The following extract from a Geography lesson is a case in point:

- 6 T: ...OK. If it is Summer in the northern hemisphere what season is it in the southern hemisphere? Yes Ant.
- 7 Ant: Winter.
- 8 T: It is winter. Full sentence.

From here onwards the pupils answer in full sentences and the lesson goes smoothly till Tommy uses an incorrect adjective - north instead of northern.

- 13 Tom: It is winter in the north hemisphere.
- 14 T: Northern (with emphasis on -thern)
- 15 Tom: It is winter northern hemisphere. (Others: It is winter in the northern hemisphere).
- 16 T: Class!
- 17 Ps: It is winter in the northern hemisphere.

In utterance 15 the teacher concentrates on correcting one error but in repeating the response modelled by the teacher, the pupils makes another error which the teacher ignored. It was interesting to find that, in their repetition of the answer as the teacher solicits, some of the pupils correct the error made by one of them. Equally interesting was the fact that the teacher's approach to lessons in the different subjects was slightly different. Although the Goegraphy lesson was much shorter in terms of both time and content, the teacher's style of handling it allowed for more oral interaction than the longer History lesson. When this was brought to his attention during the interview, he

commented that this was possibly because of the nature of the two subjects. History lent itself more to narration than Geography, the latter is more of a natural science subject and the pupils have to deal with facts that need to be exact. The following was his direct reply:

R: When you were presenting your lessons for Geography and History, I noticed that you asked more questions and the children were more involved in Geography than in History. Could you please tell me why this is so?

T: Well, I think when I teach History I feel that there must be fewer questions so that the children can hear the events that were taking place continuously. History is like a story. On the other hand in Geography there is no need for continuity. Geography is a science subject and it has a lot of facts.

This teacher informed the researcher that he felt that error correction had a role to play in improving the learner's language although he himself did not do it all the time. To quote from the interview with him,

It is important that we as teachers of content subjects must correct the children's mistakes because this can only be done at school. Also the English teacher cannot know all the mistakes that the pupils make in our classes because she is not there when they make them.

In his response to the question of errors that he had ignored he said that

there were different reasons why this happens. Sometimes I do not notice that the child has made a mistake because I was concentrating on whether he understands the facts. Sometimes I am not aware that what the child has said is incorrect when it comes to language because English is not my mother tongue. (Appendix 3.3)

## 4.4.4 Teacher D: English Teacher.

Table 2.10 ERROR-TYPE PROFILE FOR TEACHER D

Error-type	No.of errors	% of errors
Linguistic	69	94,5
Content	04	05.5
TOTAL	73	

Table 2.11 PROFILE FOR TYPE OF ERROR ATTENDED TO IN TD'S CLASSES.

Type of error	No. treated	% of errors treated
Linguistic	56	81.2
Content	04	100
TOTAL	60	

Table 2.12 TEACHER-REACTION PROFILE FOR LINGUISTIC ERRORS  
FOR TD

Treatment type	Frequency of treatment type	Frequency in %
Permit another learner/s to provide treatment	16	17.2
Delay treatment	03	03.2
Gives cues	09	09.6
Location of error indicated	16	17.2
Model provided	24	25,5
Opportunity for new attempt given	17	18.1
Return to original error-maker after treatment	03	3.2
Test for efficacy of treatment	04	4.3
TOTAL	94	

Table 2.10 indicates a high incidence of linguistic errors in this teacher's class. Although Table 2.11 reflects the number of linguistic errors committed as being less than that of content errors in terms of percentage, still a fairly high number of them are treated.

Furthermore, when one considers that the 100% content errors that were committed and treated represent only 4 out of 73 errors, it is easy to understand that in an English class they would be treated. Table 2.12 portrays Teacher D as having used quite a wide repertoire of repair strategies during the period of observation of her lessons. The most probable reason for this is that being a language teacher and knowing how crucial it is for learners to get maximal feedback during her lessons, she had experimented with the different types of treatment in the past. This table shows the modelling of desired responses as having been used more than any other type of treatment by this teacher, with giving the error-maker a chance for self-correction, encouraging peer-correction and the location of errors being almost evenly distributed throughout the lesson.

The table displaying the error types that received more attention reveals that this teacher ignored a number of linguistic errors in her lessons. When one considers that this is a language class, this can be disconcerting, till one realises that these errors were ignored only to be treated later, or in favour of another error. Alternatively, the error would either have been committed earlier or a similar type of error would either have been committed or would be committed later, thus giving the teacher chance to treat it. An example of this pattern can be observed in the following extract:

- 155 T: What work does she do? What work does she do? Noxie?
- 156 Nox: She work she work she work she work in she work in hospital
- 157 T: What WORK What work does she do?
- 158 Nox: She work--
- 159 T: What TYPE of WORK does she do?

Obviously here the teacher is concerned more with the correctness of the content Noxie has to make rather than the language with which she expresses whatever she has to say. She thus ignores the omission of the '-s', although the error is committed repeatedly. Even when she reconstructs her question she puts the stress that she uses as an indication of where the error has been committed on the noun rather than the verb form. "WHAT WORK does she do?". and when Noxie answers,

159 N: She nursing people is hard work,

she still ignores the errors contained in the answer, "She nursing people is ...", and repeats her question in its last form, WHAT WORK does she do?", and accepts :

161 N: She does nursing....,

although grammatically the sentence is not quite correct. In fact, the teacher repeats the pupil's erroneous response, giving the rest of the class the impression that it is acceptable. She goes on to encourage the class to give an alternative way of saying the same thing:

162 T: Yes, she does nursing or? Yes?

163 P: Or she help people.

The errors contained in this utterance are once again ignored in favour of the content. The teacher then makes use of probing to try and get the pupils to give the desired response.

164 T: She is...?

165 P: She is help she is help--

166 T: Yes--?

and when she still does not get the response she desires the teacher redirects her question to the class, and is only satisfied when the response is:

167 P: She is a nurse,

to which she reacts,

168 T: She is a nurse. She is a nurse. All of us!

169 Ps: She is a nurse.

Probably because this is a comprehension lesson, the teacher would like to satisfy herself that the content of the passage has been grasped as pupils have to answer questions set on it. In the case of such lessons not only is the prioritization of meaning over form acceptable but it is also desirable.

Although she does attend to linguistic errors in most instances, sometimes in this case content has to take precedence over them. Later in the same lesson she is observed concerning herself with the correctness of the language a pupil uses because she is satisfied that her facts are correct.

170 T: Where does she work? Where does she work? Mandy?

171 Man: She work in hospital

172 T: Where DOES she work?

173 Man: She she works in hospital

174 T: Yes. She works in the hospital.

In some cases the pupils correct errors committed by their classmates without any solicitation from the teacher, as in the following case:

86 P: I looked again at the golden yellow bench beside me--

87 Ps: BUNCH!

This correction is repeated by the teacher in the next utterance. When the same pupil mispronounces "beside" in:

88 P: ...golden yellow bunch beside me,

the class reacts by providing a model of the correct form. When another pupil commits an error later the pupils are quick to correct without any solicitation from the teacher.

239 T: What DOES he do when he returns home?

240 P: When she returns home--

241 Ps: HE!

In many cases the teacher would model the desired response, but along with this treatment she would give an explanation as to why the answer was not acceptable. During the interview some of the reasons for the way she reacted to these errors came to light. For instance, when asked about her preference for encouraging self-correction she responded thus:

TD: I believe that when the pupils correct their own mistakes they think more about them and, therefore, they will not forget easily what you tell them. Also, I have found that sometimes when they commit errors it is not because they don't know the right answer, but they are just careless. So when you give them another chance to answer the question they say the correct thing. Also, if they know what is wrong with their answers they can remember the rule later.

R: I have noticed that you also let others correct the errors made by their classmates. Is there any special reason for this?

TD: This gives me an opportunity to see if the problem affects other members of the class or just the pupil who made the mistake. What I usually do is that if others still don't know the correct answer, I explain to the whole class. Sometimes I even stop what I was teaching so that I can try and help them to understand the structure that is a problem.

Teacher D had vast experience in teaching English. At the time the data was collected, she had been teaching at the school for more than ten years and had taught the subject from Std 3 to Std 5. She had also taught History, Geography, and General Science in the senior

primary classes. During her classes her pupils were encouraged to articulate their ideas as fully as possible. This she did without insisting on the use of "full sentences" by the pupils. The way she handled her lessons opened up opportunities for the pupils to make both content and linguistic errors.

Among the repair strategies she employed, especially with regard to the treatment of linguistic errors, was going into either short repetition cycles or longer drill exercises as the error-response episode called for. After one of these she would go back to the original transgressor to test the efficacy of the treatment that had been effected (See appendix 2.10). Classroom climate played a very important role in her classes. She was patient with her pupils, whom she encouraged to keep on trying, and often rebuked others for jeering at an error-maker. "Give her a chance, I said give her/him a chance", she would be often heard saying to those jeering at others. The pupils were thus encouraged to go on using language even when they were not certain it was absolutely correct. An analysis of the data from this teacher's lessons, then, portrays a teacher who is concerned with both content and linguistic errors.

#### 4.5 Summary

A comparison of the profiles for error-treatment in the classes of the four teachers reveals that all of them attended to all the content errors committed in their lessons. In all the teachers' classes more linguistic than content errors were committed but there was not a single class where all the linguistic errors were attended to. Thus, although in some cases the linguistic errors formed only a small percentage of all errors committed in the lessons,

more attention was paid to them resulting in a 100% treatment rate. This was the case even in English, where the researcher had predicted that the teacher would pay more attention to linguistic than content errors. Despite this, however, the highest number of linguistic errors (81.2%) was treated in her classes, with Teacher C (History and Geography) coming next (45.5%), followed by Teacher C, with a 37% treatment rate and Teacher B coming last with a 28.6% treatment rate. The determination of the treatment rates of the teachers using percentages creates a wrong impression, however, because when one looks at the actual number of linguistic errors committed in the various lessons, it becomes obvious that Teacher A for instance, treated a much higher number of this type of error than Teacher C.

The profiles for the treatment types employed by the various teachers revealed that the teacher who applied the widest variety of treatment types was the English teacher, TD, while TA was next although her profile was not nearly as varied as TD's. There was virtually no variation in the types of treatment applied to linguistic errors by the other two teachers. What is evident though, from these teachers is that the most popular form of treatment is the teacher modelling either the whole or part of the desired response for the pupil/s. Of 122 treatment instances that occurred in the study, 46 (37.7%) were models of the desired response.

As Fanselow (1974:586) pointed out, however,

any type of content analysis or categorization obscures some information. ... The figures also do not show that treatments sometimes occurred in combinations, some of which (may be) ambiguous. ... The figures do not reflect the lack of consistency in treating errors either... The quantitative information also fails to show that after errors of pronunciation short repetition cycles sometimes occurred.

This is true of most, if not all quantitative results, a fact which necessitates descriptive information to supplement the quantitative data. For instance, a comparison of the total scores for the linguistic errors committed with that of the treatment types gives a completely skewed picture, where the treatment types far outnumber the errors committed. Again this aspect is covered in the above quotation from Fanselow (1974).

The fact that Teacher D, for example, treated the highest number of linguistic errors and also used the widest variety of treatment types is, perhaps not surprising, considering that not only is she an experienced English teacher, but also has experience in teaching a number of content subjects. In addition this teacher presented her lessons in such a way that pupils would be encouraged to 'experiment' with linguistic forms. Affective factors were important to her and she would sometimes smile or even laugh with her pupils even when errors had been committed. The Maths teacher, Teacher A also had experience in teaching both English and content subjects, although at the time of the research she was involved in teaching content subjects only. She informed the researcher that she was an English teacher as well, after all, which made her quite sensitive to linguistic errors although she did not always treat them. Both teachers regarded the treatment of linguistic errors as important so that pupils will become aware of them.

The other two teachers revealed that it was important to treat linguistic errors if they interfered with the grasping of content. This was especially the case with General Science and Agriculture as the interview with this teacher reveals. The interviews also revealed that the teachers had not thought much about the use of modelling the expected response, except in cases of incorrect reading and mispronunciation, where the teacher felt that the pupils

should use her own reading and pronunciation as a model. The latter was true for instance, of English. One good example to illustrate this is the error-response episode involving the pronunciation of "bunch" and "beside" - utterance 87 to 139 - as well as utterances 198 to 216 in the same lesson.

An analysis of the qualitative data further revealed that although these teachers of content subjects generally acknowledge the important role language plays in the learning of their subjects they still feel that in their specific subjects they should concentrate on addressing errors of content rather than linguistic ones. In addition none of the teachers, even those who had trained as English teachers, were specially trained to deal with the language errors that arose in their classes. When the researcher enquired whether TD for instance, had had any special training in oral error-treatment, the latter responded:

TD: No, I didn't have any special training in error-treatment.

R: So where did you acquire your skills for reacting to your pupils' errors as you do because I have noticed that you use different ways of correction.

TD: Most of what I do is from experience. I have used trial and error in whatever I do in class. Also I usually try to correct errors the way my teachers used to do with me, both when I was still at school, and when I was in training school.

The interviews with the other teachers yielded much the same information on the lack of training in error-treatment strategies in their own subjects. The closest they had come to dealing with learner error during teacher training was doing remedial work after giving a test.

#### 4.6 Conclusion

The research methods employed in this study, including the gathering and analysis of data have been kept simple due to the inexperience of the researcher. The results of the study, however, have revealed that far more sophisticated work is called for in order to gain a much deeper understanding of the complex 'problems' Allwright (1975) refers to as surrounding the investigation of error treatment (See Chapter 3 p28).

One of the problems the researcher encountered was the difficulty of categorising some errors as either linguistic or content. This problem was especially encountered in Maths lessons where the teacher would insist on the use of terms like 'Side A, number 1, Angle CDB' etc. What rendered these difficult to categorise was the fact that although the pupil would get the figure or its part right, the teacher would not be satisfied till it had been called what it was supposed to be called. Secondly, although the researcher categorized the use of incomplete sentences as linguistic errors, again because of the teachers' insistence on the use of full sentences, she was aware that this need not necessarily have been viewed as such, because as a rule, both in the teachers' and the children's mother tongue as well as in English people do not always speak in full sentences. This, of course was not a new phenomenon in the researcher's experience of ESL classrooms. It is, in fact a feature of the former DET ESL classroom discourse where teachers seem to equate the use of full sentences with "correct English". What the researcher found puzzling was that it was the teachers of subjects other than English who insisted most strongly on the use of full sentences. The English teacher, on the other hand, would only insist on a full sentence if there was something specific to be gained by that. Finally, the researcher wishes to note that since the study was not directed at the teachers' language, only the errors committed by the pupils have been analysed, with those of the teachers referred to only in as far as they affect the pupils' use of English.

## CHAPTER 5

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

#### 5.1 Summary of Study

This study has been an attempt to provide some insight into what takes place in an ESL Std V classroom of a particular school, where ESL is the medium of instruction (MOI) and both the learners and their teachers are L2 speakers of English especially as regards the oral treatment of pupils' errors. The literature review on the issue focused on research done and the theories propounded concerning the role of oral error and feedback in L2 classrooms. Attention was also given to the concomitant problems of how teachers in these classrooms dealt with oral linguistic and content errors respectively, as well as to how they divided their attention between linguistic and content errors.

A review of the research on oral errors and their treatment in language classrooms reveals that this process is an important as well as necessary aspect of language teaching and learning because it is through errors that the teacher can determine the learner's success and progress in language learning. Furthermore the studies conducted reveal that teachers are faced with several problems concerning the treatment of errors. Among these are:

- what errors should be treated
- when and how to treat these
- whether they should treat these themselves or
- whether they should let someone else, e.g. one of the other pupils treat these errors.

The study also had to address the problem of providing a definition of error, which, according to relevant literature, may to a large extent depend in L2 classrooms on the teacher's own proficiency in the target language. This, in turn, is influenced by a number of variables, amongst which is the teacher's own exposure - both as a learner and later as a teacher of the subject - to the target language. Another variable which is said to influence the teachers' proficiency in the target language is the need for the use of the target language outside the classroom.

What has also emerged from these studies is the question of the inconsistency of teachers in their treatment of oral errors, which, Allwright (1975) argues, may actually be necessary, if one considers the fact that the treatment of error is governed by different circumstances. Amongst these is the seriousness of the error that has been committed in so far as it affects comprehensibility. Another factor worth considering is the importance of the specific error with regard to the task being handled by the teacher and his class. An additional feature that has been given consideration is how the correction of the error is likely to affect fluency. Allwright (1975:202) posits that the realm of investigating error and error-treatment is one that abounds with methodological problems, some of which are mentioned in Chapter 3 of this study.

The data for this study was gathered by observing lessons in a Std V class of a primary school in Alice, where the MOI is English and both the pupils and the teachers are L2 speakers of the language. Field notes which were used to provide additional information during the analysis were also taken during the observation of the lessons. Subsequently the interviews were conducted with individual teachers and the tapes were played back to them

during the interviews. Lessons in all the subjects that are taught through the English medium in this class were involved in the study.

The analysis of the data revealed that the teachers of content subjects involved in the study tend to concern themselves with content rather than linguistic errors. The English teacher paid attention to both content and linguistic errors. This analysis also revealed that, when teachers of content subjects ignore errors, it is either because they are not aware of them, or in the case of linguistic errors, because they don't think attending to the error is as important as dealing with a content one that appeared in the same utterance. Some of the teachers involved in the study ignored those errors which they did not think were crucial for the task at hand, and, inevitably these were linguistic errors.

The teachers employed different techniques for treating errors, but all of them modelled the desired response or a part of it, which the teacher would like the pupil to repair. Also, they transferred treatment to other members of the class with the exception of Teacher C, who modelled the correct response once the pupil did not get it right. This treatment technique was especially preponderant in the content classrooms. Though the English teacher probably did as much modelling as the other teachers it was not especially noticeable in her classes, possibly because of the wide variety of techniques she put to use. One of the findings revealed by this study through the interviews was the failure of training programmes to prepare teachers for handling errors in their classes. This could even be generalizable because the four teachers had trained at different training colleges, and yet none of them had received the much needed training.

All the teachers presented their lessons through the English medium and, with the exception of one out of the four teachers, they explained to the pupils by adjusting the language to a level they felt would be more comprehensible to the pupils. The one teacher felt very strongly about the use of the mother tongue in explaining parts of the lessons that proved too difficult for the pupils as he believed that the pupils' cognitive processes operated better when their own language was used. Teacher D was under no illusion about the fact that those errors that she had "corrected" would turn up again and she would probably have to go through the same process of "correcting" some of them again and again. The researcher found this to be a very realistic attitude towards the treatment of errors and one which confirmed some of the theories propounded by researchers. This, in fact, is the kind of treatment that Chaudron (1977) suggests should not be referred to as correction because it does not have a permanent remedial effect on learning. Experience had taught her that error-correction was not an easy process and it demanded patience of the teacher for it to be effective. This was a long-term process. Many of the errors had been neglected by previous teachers and the pupils had become used to the incorrect use of the language. She could, therefore, not get rid of these in one or two lessons. Furthermore, the errors she had to correct during the lesson observation period were errors she had attempted correcting in previous lessons. None of the teachers treated all the linguistic errors that appeared in their lessons. While this might be viewed negatively, the researcher would instead commend these teachers for this practice. Research on error-treatment has recorded students as preferring "not to be marked down for each minor speaking and writing error because this practice destroys their confidence and forces them to expend so much effort on details that they lose the overall ability to use language" (Walker 1973:109 cited in Hendrickson 1978). Thus it would seem that these teachers, fall in line with wider language learning practices.

## 5.2 Implications and Recommendations.

This study was undertaken within the context of the teaching of English as a second language. The area of error-treatment was selected for investigation because of its proclaimed importance in language learning. Gaies (1983), among others, has pointed out that it is through error that language teachers become aware of the progress made by the learners on the interlanguage continuum. Any recommendations, therefore, made as a result of what emerged from an analysis of the data of the study must be considered within the wider context. For this study this also includes the use of ESL as MOI.

A review of this study has certain implications for the teaching of ESL and the use of English as a MOI in South African L2 classrooms. One such implication results directly from assertions made by previous researchers like Allwright (1975,) and Gaies (1983) that errors are a necessary part of learning as they serve as a means of providing learners with the opportunity for experimenting with the target language. If this is the case, it implies that the pupils should be afforded the opportunity to make errors. The best place to do this then is in the classroom with its structured and ordered learning and where, it is assumed, the teacher has the necessary skills to 'monitor' their language. This, therefore links up with a problem that emerged from the study, namely the teachers' style of teaching, which made room for very little pupil talk.

In many cases the teaching style of the four teachers did not really cater for the need for the pupil to make errors, as the pupils were encouraged to make just one move, the responding move. Even this was strictly controlled by the teacher. Even in the case of Teacher D, in

whose lessons most linguistic errors were committed and treated, the same formal teacher-centred approach was employed. Thus, one of the implications is a change in the teachers' style of teaching. These teachers would have to adopt a more progressive style of teaching, one of whose characteristics is that "the teacher serves as guide to educational experiences [rather than] as distributor of knowledge" (Bennett 1987:46 in Macdonald 1990:16). This teaching style is also characterized by pupils playing an active role in their own education. Such a teaching style, it is to be hoped, would create many opportunities for pupils to experiment with language even in content subjects.

#### 5.2.1 Implications for Teachers in ESL Classrooms

Before this can be achieved, however, the teachers have to become aware of the role they have to play in the teaching of English in their classes. Once they become sensitive to this role they might in turn be sensitized to the importance of the role of errors in learning, and later the role of linguistic errors in the learning of a language. This is very important because the schoolroom, in many cases, is the only place where the pupils can practise their linguistic skills. The teachers of content subjects have to realize that they have to provide the pupils with the opportunity to make errors. The researcher realizes that one of the problems encountered in such classrooms is that "non-language teachers" are often more worried about "finishing" the syllabus for examination purposes than about helping the pupils to cope in the same examination through the necessary competence in English, such as in the case of Teacher B. who stated that he would be blamed if the pupils failed and he had not 'finished' the syllabus. In addition, West's words, quoted on page 1 of this study apply very aptly in this case, as these learners still have much ground to cover in L2 learning.

Thus these teachers would do well to contribute in all possible ways - including the treatment of linguistic errors - to their language learning because whatever they learn from these classes will be built on by teachers whose classes they join later.

### 5.2.2 Implications for Teacher Training

The researcher also realizes that in some cases these teachers are aware of their role, but it is one that they do not play because of their own place on the interlanguage continuum. This is a problem that is highlighted by Allwright and Bailey (1991 :100) when they posit that "teachers who are non-native speakers of the target language may perhaps be expected to have a rather special problem in terms of their ability to even notice learners' errors". In support of this, Mawasha (1986:23-24) when he points out that one of the problems of using ESL as MOI in Black Education is that "not all teachers are adequately articulate in English to use it to maximum advantage as a medium of instruction". This researcher wishes to align herself with his recommendation that as a means of solving this particular problem,

Teacher training institutions should intensify programmes of English for communication so that new teachers who join the fraternity (sic) should provide reliable models of English as a language and English as medium of instruction. ... Black teachers can and must be trained to use English effectively as a medium of teaching and learning (1986:24).

In addition to this, the researcher strongly suggests that the intensification of such programmes should include courses such as the use of English for special purposes like teaching. This, of necessity, should include equipping trainees with error treatment strategies. The trainers themselves would have to be familiar with language learning theory

that involves oral error and its treatment. Some of the features of error-treatment that these trainees would have to be made aware of would be variables like the positive and negative effects of error treatment on learning, decisions that teachers have to take concerning the treatment of errors and the plethora of error-treatment techniques at their disposal, among others. The most important factor though, the researcher feels, is that in their treatment of errors teachers should always bear in mind that affective factors should always be given their place in the classroom. Allwright and Bailey (1991) suggest a method of preparing trainees for the task of handling errors which should familiarize them with interaction modes in lessons they have taped, which they would then transcribe and analyze. This would also introduce them to basic classroom research as part of their training. It would also be advisable that the same kind of programmes be made available to teachers that are already serving in the form of in-service training courses.

### 5.2.3 Implications for Further Research

In conclusion, research referred to in this study, concerning oral error-treatment was done outside South Africa, especially in Europe and the America's. Many of the researchers referred to stress the fact that there is still much research that needs to be conducted in the area of error-treatment. In South Africa there is a paucity of literature covering this field, which points to very little research having been done. The researcher, therefore recommends that this is a field that still needs to be investigated extensively. With the advent of the 'New South Africa' it would be interesting to find out the classroom dynamics that surround error-treatment in Model C classrooms, for instance, where learners with different mother tongues learn English as a first language. Any research done should serve to inform educationists

involved in South African L2 classrooms where English is MOI. This can be done by teachers in practice as Allwright and Bailey (1991) suggest, with the intention of improving their own input in L2 learning or by researchers with the intention of introducing changes to classroom theory and practice for teacher training purposes.

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Appendix 1 Models for Classroom Observation.

Appendix 1.1

Sinclair and Coulthards System of Analysis.

RANK II: Transaction

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes of Exchange
Preliminary (P) Medial (M) Terminal (T)	P(M)(M...M)(T)	P-T Boundary (II.1) M-Teaching (II.2)

This table identifies the rank as second from the top of the scale, i.e. transaction. It states that there are three elements of structure, called *Preliminary* (short symbol P), *Medial* (M), and *Terminal* (T). In the next column is given a composite statement of the possible structures of this transaction: P(M)(M...M)(T). Anything within brackets is optional, so this formula states:

- a) there must be a preliminary move in each transaction
- b) there must be one medial move, but there may be any number of them
- c) there can be a terminal move, but not necessarily.

In the third column the elements of transaction structure are associated with the classes of the rank next below (exchange), because each element is realized by a class of exchange. Preliminary and terminal exchange, it is claimed, are selected from the same class of move called *Boundary* moves, and this is numbered for ease of reference. The element medial is realized by a class of exchange called *Teaching*. Later tables develop the structure of these exchanges at rank III.

RANK I: Lesson

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes
	an unordered series of transactions	

RANK III: Exchange (Boundary)

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes of Move
Frame (Fr) Focus (Fo)	(F)(Fo)	Fr Framing (III.1) Fo Focusing (III.2)

RANK III: Exchange (Teaching)

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes of Move
Initiation (I) Response (R) Feedback (F)	I(R)(F)	I: Opening (III.3) R: Answering (III.4) F: Follow-up (III.5)

RANK IV: Move (Opening)

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes of Act
signal (s) pre-head (pre-h) head (h) post-head (post-h) select (sel)	s (pre-h) h (post-h) (sel) (sel) (pre-h) h	s: marker (IV.1) pre-h: starter (IV.2) h: system operating at h: choice of elicitation, directive, informative, check (IV.3) post-h: system operating at post-h: choice from prompt and cue (IV.4) sel: (cue) bid nomination (IV.5)

RANK IV: Move (Answering)

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes of Act
pre-head (pre-h) head (h) post-head (post-h)	(pre-h) h (post-h)	pre-h: a knowledge (IV.6) h: system operating at h: choice of reply, react, acknowledge (IV.7) post-h: comment (IV.8)

RANK IV: Move (Follow up)

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes of Act
pre-head (pre-h) head (h) post-head (post-h)	(pre-h) (h) (post-h)	pre-h: accept (IV.9) h: evaluate (IV.10) post-h: comment (IV.8)

RANK IV: Move (Framing)

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes of Act
head (h) qualifier (q)	hq	h: marker (IV.1) q: silent stress (IV.11)

RANK IV: Move (Focusing)

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes of Act
signal (s) pre-head (pre-h) head (h) post-head (post-h)	(s) (pre-h) h (post-h)	s: marker (IV.1) pre-h: starter (IV.2) h: system at h: choice from metastatement or conclusion (IV.12) post-h: comment (IV.8)



Appendix 1.3

Focus: Two Characteristics of Communications in Settings.

The boxes in the two columns below are just like items in a substitution table; any box in Column 1 can combine with any box in Column 2.

Two Characteristics of Communications in Settings

Column 1 Source\*

Column 2 Move Type

COLUMN 1 SOURCE\*

COLUMN 2 MOVE TYPE

Who communicates?

What is the Pedagogical Purpose of communication?

teacher t
textbook b
informant i
student s
group of students g
class c

to structure str
to solicit sol
to respond res
to react rea

TABLE 2 Five characteristics of communications in settings

1. Who communicates?	2. What is the pedagogical purpose of the communication?*	3. What mediums are used to communicate content?	4. How are the mediums used to communicate areas of content? **	5. What areas of content are communicated? **
teacher	to structure	linguistic	1 attend	language systems
		aural		contextual
		visual	2 characterize	grammatical
			21 differentiate	literary
		ideogram	22 evaluate	meaning
		transcribed	23 examine	mechanics of writing
		written	24 illustrate	sound segmental supra-segmental
individual student	to solicit	other	25 label	speech production
		non-linguistic	3 present	unclassified
			31 call words	
		aural	32 change medium	life
		visual	33 question	
		real	34 state	formula
		representational	4 relate	imagination
		schematic	41 explain	personal
	to respond	symbolic	42 interpret	public
		other		skills
group of students			5 re-present	social issues
		para-linguistic	51 combine	procedure
		aural	52 imitate	administration
		visual	53 paraphrase	cl. social behavior
		real	54 sub. and change	teaching directions
	to react		55 sub. no change	
		symbolic		teaching rationale
whole class			56 transform	
		other		subject matter

\* These four pedagogical purposes are from Bellack.  
 \*\* The uses and areas of content are presented alphabetically.

## APPENDIX 2

## LESSON TRANSCRIPTS

## TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS.

The following conventions have been used in the transcripts:

- 1 All the pupils' names are fictitious.
- 2 T represents the teacher who is conducting the particular lesson.
- 3 P refers to one pupil.
- 4 P's refers to the whole class.
- 5 In cases where the T uses a P's full (fictitious) name the name is abbreviated in the transcript.

## Appendix 2.1

## MATHEMATICS

Lesson 1.

The teacher, after greeting the class, draws some figures on the board and then goes on with her lesson thus:-

- 1 T: Of the two figures on the board which one is the rectangle? Of the two figures which one is the rectangle? Sana.
- 2 SAN: It is number 2.
- 3 T: Sana says it's number 2. Is he correct?
- 4 P's: Yes/No.
- 5 T: Is he correct? (With emphasis on 'is' and 'correct')
- 6 P's: No.
- 7 T: Why do you say no? What are the properties of a rectangle? Nomculo.
- 8 Nom: It has two equal sides.
- 9 T: Dumani.
- 10 Dum: It has two equal sides and-----

- 11 T: Are they are they all are the sides-all equal or does it have a pair of longer sides and shorter sides? Yes Nondle?
- 12 Nol: It has four right angles.
- 13 T: Four. Oh it has four right angles (Ls), they all have they both have four right Ls. What about the sides of a rectangle? What did we say about the sides of a right L of a rectangle? What did we say about the sides?... Mancini?
- 14 Man: Two sides are short two sides are long.
- 15 T: Two sides are shorter than the others two sides are longer. What do we call the shorter sides what do we call--- Nomculo.
- 16 Nom: We call it a breadth or width.
- 17 T: The breadth or width. The longer sides? Nkomo.
- 18 Nko: The length.
- 19 T: We call it the length. Right. So of the two diagrams which one is the rectangle? Knowing that the properties are two longer sides and two shorter sides which one is the rectangle? Micky.
- 20 Mic: 1 is a rectangle.
- 21 T: Number 1 is a rectangle.(emphasis on 'number') Right. OK. In the classroom who can show us figures with a rectangular shape? Here in the classroom who can show us figures that have a rectangular shape? Antennae.
- 22 Ant: The door has a rectangular shape.
- 23 T: The door has a rectangular shape. Another? Sana.
- 24 San: The blackboard.
- 25 T: The blackboard...?(indicates her wish for him to continue with the sentence by raising her tone when she says ...board)
- 26 San: The blackboard has a rectangular shape.
- 27 T: Mh. Blambo.
- 28 Bla: The table.
- 29 T: The top of the table.
- 30 Bla: The top of the table it is a rectangular shape.
- 31 T: has a rectangular shape.
- 32 Bla: The top of the table it has a rectangular shape.
- 33 T: The top of the table has a rectangular shape.
- 34 Bla: The top of the table has a rectangular shape.
- 35 T: Mm. Another object. Nombutho.
- 36 Nom: The (inaudible) has a rectangular shape.
- 37 T: The...?
- 38 Nomb: The chart has a rectangular shape.
- 39 T: The chart has a rectangular shape. Do you all agree?
- 40 P's: Yes Maam.
- 41 T: O.K. Micky.
- 42 Mich: The window has a rectangular shape.
- 43 T: The window has a rectangular shape. Mm. Another object which has a rectangular shape? Gqomo.

- 44 Gqo: The (inaudible) has a rectangular shape.  
 45 T: The...?  
 46 Gqo: Cup- cu- cupboard has a rectangular shape.  
 47 T: The cupboard has a ----? (points at a boy)  
 48 Boy: The wall has a ---  
 49 T: The wall has a--- do we all agree? Do we all agree that the wall has a rectangular shape?  
 50 P's: No.  
 51 T: Why 'no'? Why 'no'? Why do you say you do not agree? Why do you say you do not agree? Why do you not agree that the wall has a rectangular shape? Khabani.  
 52 Kha: All the sides are not equal.  
 53 T: (Points at two sides of the wall that are unequal) Are these sides equal?  
 54 P's: No/Yes.  
 55 T: Are they equal?  
 56 P's: No.  
 57 T: (Points at the two other sides of the wall which are equal) Are these sides equal?  
 58 P's: Yes.  
 59 T: Is this side equal to that side?  
 60 P's: Yes.  
 61 T: Are you sure?  
 62 P's: Yes.  
 63 T: (Points at another set of walls) Is this side equal to this side?  
 64 P's: Yes.  
 65 T: O K, we'll want we'll look for a tape measure and then we can measure.  
 OK, O K. So we say the rectangle has two longer sides and two shorter sides; two opposite long sides and two opposite short sides. Right?  
 66 P's: Yes.  
 67 T: O K, let's look at diagram B. Let's call the points A,B,C,D. Right?  
 68 P's: Yes.  
 69 T: How many sides does this figure have? How many sides does this figure have? Nontsokolo.  
 70 Non: There are four sides.  
 71 T: The figure has four sides. Class?  
 72 P's: The figure has four sides.  
 73 T: The figure has four sides. So this (pointing at the side) is the property of this figure that we don't know and they are equal. We say all the sides are equal. What are the names of these sides? Ncesh.  
 74 Nce: AB.  
 75 T: We have side AB. We have side AB, class?  
 76 P's: We have side AB.  
 77 T: Or?  
 78 P's: Or side BA.

- 79 T: Who can come and show us side AB or side BA? Moni  
Show us side AB or side BA. Moni come to the board and points at point B.  
No, that is point B. Show us side AB or side BA. (Moni tries again). This  
side BA. Good. Another side? Themba.
- 80 The: (After a pause) Side BC.
- 81 T: Side BC or---?
- 82 P's: CB.
- 83 T: Who can come and show us side BC/CB? (A pupil comes forward and does  
so successfully). CB/BC. Another side? Gquma.
- 84 Gqu: Side DC.
- 85 T: Side---?
- 86 Gqu: Side DC.
- 87 T: Side DC or---?
- 88 P's: Side CD.
- 89 T: Side DC or side CD. Who can come and show us that side? Anyone. (A  
volunteer comes forward and points out the wrong side). Mh-m (shaking her  
head) You are "khombing" (meaning pointing at) the point wena. Pupil  
tries again). Mh. Another side, Petelo.
- 90 Pet: Side--- side---
- 91 T: We have side AB, this is side AB. We have side BC. We have side CD.  
Which is the remaining side that we have not mentioned?
- 92 Pet: Side AB.
- 93 T: Side AD or---?
- 94 P's: Side DA.
- 95 T: How many angles does this figure have? How many angles does this figure  
have? Nondwe?
- 96 Nond: There are four angles.
- 97 T: The figure has four angles.
- 98 Nond: The figure have four angles.
- 99 T: The figure has four angles.
- 100 Nond: The figure has four angles.
- 101 T: Class?
- 102 P's: The figure has four angles.
- 103 T: What type of angles are they? Are they right? Are they acute? Are they  
what? What type of angles are they? Fani
- 102 Fan: Right angles.
- 105 T: They are right angle.
- 106 Fan: They are right angles.
- 107 T: Class.
- 108 P's: They are right angles.
- 109 T: So the figure has four right angles.
- 110 P's: The figure has four right angles.
- 111 T: O K, let us name the angles. Let us name the angles. Nofusi.
- 112 Nof: Right angles.

- 113 T: Let us name the right angles. In this figure we have named the sides. Now let us name the angles.
- 114 Nof: Angle angle angle side AB right angle ABC
- 115 T: Angle, we have angle ABC. What angle is she talking about if she is talking of LABC? That is L what? LABC, what angle is she talking about? Babby.
- 116 - Bab: LB
- 117 T: LB. Very good. LB, another angle? Another angle Malongwe.
- 118 Mal: LB0.
- 120 T: Angle---?
- 121 Mal: LBDC.
- 122 T: LBDC. That is L what? Nosisa.
- 123 Nos: LC.
- 124 T: That is LC. Another angle? Lusakhanya.
- 125 Lus: LBDC.
- 126 T: Angle---? Do we have LBDC here?
- 127 P's No.
- 128 T: No, we don't have LBDC. Mthuthu.
- 129 Mthu: CBA.
- 130 T: Angle---?
- 131 Mthu: CBA.
- 132 T: LCBA.
- 133 Mthu: LCBA.
- 134 T: LCBA. That is angle what? Nontuthu.
- 135 Nont: LD
- 136 T: LD? Mhm. Antennae?
- 137 Ant: LDAB
- 138 T: Angle---?
- 139 Ant: LDAB
- 140 T: LADB. That is angle---? Fundelwa.
- 141 Fun: LA.
- 142 T: That is LA that is LA. So we said these angles are right angles. What is the size of a right angle?
- 143 P's: The size of a right angle is 90 degrees.
- 144 T: The size of a right angle is 90 degrees. So we say this figure has four right angles. So what is the sum of of all the right angles of the figure? If we say they are right angles and they are four what is the sum of the angles?
- 145 P: The sum the sum of the angles is 360 degrees.
- 146 T: Very good. Class.
- 147 P's: The sum of the angles is 360 degrees.
- 148 T: How do we get this 360 degrees? How do we get 360 degrees? Who can tell us? How do we get 360 degrees? Moni?
- 149 Mon: We multiply 90 by 4.

- 150 T: We multiply 90 by 4. Another way of getting this 350 degrees? Another way of getting this 390 degrees? Another way? Other than multiplying 90 by 4. Which is the long method? Because this is the short method. How do we get the 360 degrees? Thembela.
- 153 The: We multiply by we add 90 by 90.
- 154 -T: We add 90 four times. We add 90. So it's  $90+90+90+90$ . So we get---? We get --?
- 155 P's 360 degrees.
- 156 T: So who can guess what is this figure? If it has these properties: 4 sides equal all equal- $AB=BC$ ,  $BC=CD$ ,  $CD=Ad$ . So if the four sides are equal what is the special name of this figure? This 4-sided figure, not a rectangle. What is it? Who can guess? The figure which has four equal sides, who can guess? Who can guess? The figure with four equal sides? Macici.
- 157 Mac: A square.
- 158 T: We call it a square.
- 159 P's We call it a square.
- 160 T: Again?
- 161 P's: We call it a square.
- 162 T: We call it a square. So what you do you take out your books, write down the date, a square, then the diagram. You must make sure that when you measure the sides they are all equal.
- 163 P's: Yes.
- 164 T: Right. So if you measure this 3cm also this must be 3, this 3 and the other one 3 it should be and then you write the properties of a square. Right.

## APPENDIX 2.2

## MATHEMATICS

## LESSON 2

The transcript begins after the teacher has introduced her lesson. She is discussing with the class a figure on the board and naming the sides of the figure. On being asked to name one of the sides a pupil commits an error of content and the teacher reacts by revising what they have done and then redirects the question to the class.

- 1 P: Side A  
 2 T: Side A? No,no,no, we don't have side A. We have side AD, we have CD, we have no we don't have BC. We have AD, we have CD. What are the two remaining sides? Nelly.  
 3 Nel: Side BD  
 4 T: Side BD. Very good. Another side? Xhala.  
 5 Xh: Side AB  
 6 T: This is side AB or what? Falasi.  
 7 F: DC  
 8 T: CD or? Lunga.  
 9 Lun: DC  
 10 T: DB or? Nqala.  
 11 Nqa: BD  
 12 T: AD or? Nofele.  
 13 Nof: DA  
 14 T: DA. Now let us try and name the angles as we have done with the triangle. Let us try and name the angles of that figure of that four-sided figure we have. What are the names of the angles? We said it has four right angles. What are the names? Lunga.  
 15 Lun: Angle A, angle B, angle C and angle D.  
 16 T&P's:(simultaneously) We have angle A, angle B, angle C and angle D.  
 17 T: What is another way of naming angle A? Who can try? Another way of naming angle A? As we have done with the triangle. Thembela.  
 18 The: Angle BAC.  
 19 T: Angle BAC. We can call angle A angle BAC, or what? Xha- oh, Siyabulela.  
 20 Siy: CAB.  
 21 T: Angle BAC, Siyabulela. Who can name angle B? Nelly.  
 22 Nel: Angle DBC.  
 23 T: A-a, we can't say DBC because DBC moves from here to BDC. So we cannot name it DBC. Nondlala.  
 24 Non: Angle CBA.  
 25 T: Mh-mh. Ha-a. Nyamalala.

- 26 Nya: Angle ABC.
- 27 T: Mh-m. Loyisa.
- 28 Loy: Angle ABD. Very good. Angle ABD. We have angle ABD, because this is the structure of this figure. It's A,B,D and C. So to name the angle you can say ABD or what? Angle ABD or what? (Noise) Sh-sh! Siphelale.
- 29 Sip: DB DBA.
- 24 T: Angle DBA. Angle DBA. To name angle C , what can you say? To name angle C. Yes sisi.
- 25 Si: AC angle ACD.
- 26 T: Angle ACD or? Khanyo.
- 27 Kha: Angle DCA.
- 28 T: Angle DCA, angle DCA. To name angle D what can you say? To name angle D. Mgcobisi.
- 29 Mgc: Angle CDB.
- 30 T: Angle CDB or what? CDB or what? Zama.
- 31 Zam: Angle DBC
- 32 T: Again?
- 33 Zam: Angle DBC.
- 34 T: No, we said the (inaudible ) of the angle must be in the middle. Zama.
- 35 Zam: Angle BDC.
- 36 T: Angle BDC. Good girl. (Sounds of protest from the class because Zama is a boy.) Good girl Zama  
a. Angle BDC. OK. Who can give us the name of this figure? It has these properties: two longer sides, two shorter sides. All the angles are right angles. It's a four-sided figure and the sum of the angles is 360 degrees because we know that the right angle is---?
- 37 P's: 90 degrees.
- 38 T: So who can give us a special name for this figure with these properties?  
Themba.
- 39 The: It is a square.
- 40 T: Mh-m, not a square because it has two longer sides and it has two shorter sides. Khula.
- 41 Khu: It is a rectangle.
- 42 T: Very good. It is a rectangle. Class.
- 43 P's: It is a rectangle.
- 44 T: It is a rectangle not a square. So a rectangle is a four-sided figure with 2 longer sides and---?
- 45 P's: Two shorter sides.
- 46 T: O.K?
- 47 P's: Yes.
- 48 T: So let's read the properties.

- 49 P: 2 longer sides, 2 shorter sides, 4 right angles, sum of Ls is 360 degrees, 4 sides.
- 50 T: So this is a 4-sided figure with 2 lengths and 2 breadths. OK?
- 51 P's: Yes.
- 52 T: Any questions so far?
- 53 P's: No.
- 54 T: Any questions Mgcobisi?
- 55 Mgc: No questions.
- 56 T: Any questions?
- 57 P's: No.
- 58 T: O.K. Take out your classwork books and write down the the rectangle  
You draw the diagram and then you write down the properties of a  
rectangle.

## Appendix 2.3

GENERAL SCIENCELESSON ONE

- 1 T: Good morning class.
- 2 P's: Good morning sir.
- 3 T: Now energy. Right. When we talk about energy, that is , when we define energy, we say energy is the ability to do the work. Right, What is energy.
- 4 P's: Energy is the ability to do the work.
- 5 T: (Writing on the board) The ability to do the work. Right. Right. Right we see there are various work that we have. eg we have the machines the machines do the work. Right. We have human beings. Human beings do the work. eg. for taking the stones. taking the stones and put them there. Right , this is need energy, right?
- 6 P's: Yes teacher.
- 7 T: That is we need an energy to in order to move the stone and put it in another place. Say I take this stone and put it in another place, for example I take a big stone from this place and I go to put it in this place. That is, I need small energy. Right?
- 8 P's: Yes teacher.
- 9 T: Alright for example we have the machines. The machines must work or do its work. They need of course the the energy. Right?
- 10 P's: Yes teacher.
- 11 T: For example we have the motor cars. The motor cars cannot move without the energy. Right?
- 12 P's: Yes teacher.
- 13 T: The motor car need some petrol in order to move.. The motor car need petrol to move from one place to -?
- 14 P's: to move to other place.
- 15 T: To move to other place right. It needed oil in order to move from one place to an-?
- 16 P's: to another place.
- 17 T: Right. That is that movement from one place to another place is, therefore, called the ener-?
- 18 P's: the energy.
- 19 T: the energy. Right. Okay, that is the energy that helps that machine to do its wor-?
- 20 P's: it's work.
- 21 T: Right. Now we say that the energy we can find the energy from the fuel ie the fuel who maintain the energy in the machine, right. Okay?
- 22 P's: Yes teacher.
- 23 T: There are many fuels that we know. Which are what is the fuels that you know? Yes Makhosi.
- 24 Mak: Petrol.
- 25 T: The petrol . Another? Yes Magadu.
- 26 Mag: Paraffin.

- 27 T: Paraffin paraffin paraffin petrol. Yes Thoko.  
28 Tho: Diesel.  
29 T: Diesel. Lunga.  
30 Lun: Oil.  
31 T: Oil. Right. And then now we said that these fuel help the machine in order to do its work. For example the engine of a motor car need petrol. Right, in order the motor car can move. Right. And then also the paraffin is needed in order a heater can give out heat. Right?
- 32 P's: Yes Teacher.  
33 T: And then even a diesel in order the diesel or the diesel train to move from another station to another. Right?
- 34 P's: Yes teacher.  
35 T: Okay right, these are the fuels that even the motor car need in order to move. Right, these are the fuels that help the energy that are needed in the energy that maintain the energy in the machines. Right?
- 36 P's: Yes.  
37 T: Right.  
38 P's: Yes.  
39 T: Okay, right the other forms of energy. The other forms of energy, the other forms of energy that we have, the other forms of e-?
- 40 P's: energy.  
41 T: energy. They are the forms of energy right? As we have said that er we talk about the heat in order for- the are other sources of it. What are the other sources of heat? Yes.
- 42 P: The sun.  
43 T: The sun.  
44 P: The moon  
45 T: No.  
46 P: Electricity.  
47 T: Electricity.  
48 P: Friction.  
49 T: Friction.  
50 P: Light.  
51 T: Light. Light. Okay, light. And then now we say that now the heat is another form of energy. Right, the heat energy is the form of the energy. We said that the heat for instance the heat can make a substance to move, for example, the heat is formed from the fuel. Right. We talk about the steam engine. The steam engine needs the heat in order to move.

LESSON TWO

(This lessons took place over an hour.)

- 1 T: Right. We are dealing about the mammals, that is the mammalia, the mammalia.
- 2 P's: Mammalia, mammalia
- 3 T: Other mammalia, let's take a rabbit as example of mammalia, right?
- 4 P's: Yes teacher
- 5 T: Right, into how many parts the body of a rabbit divided? Into how many parts? Yes Wade?
- 6 Wad: Four parts.
- 7 T: Into four parts. Which are these parts? Yes?
- 8 P: Neck
- 9 T: The neck. Yes?
- 10 P: The ears (laughter from the class)
- 11 P: The tail.
- 12 T: The tail, yes?
- 13 P: The tail of the rabbit, Yes Vic?
- 14 Vic: The head.
- 15 T: Yes the head and what?
- 16 P: The trunk.
- 17 T: The trunk. Yes they've got the four parts, that is the head, the neck, the trunk and also the tail (The pupils repeat after the teacher as he counts the parts of the body). Right, we said that that is the four parts of the body of a rabbit. Now, we talk about we talk about the form or the body or the type of the body covering, now we talk about the body form and about the type of the body covering. Right, we already said that er in the head we find the mouth, we find the ears, we find the eyes. Siyevana na? (meaning, do we understand each other?).
- 18 P's: Yes.
- 19 T: Right and then now, we speak about the body form and the type of the body covering. That means how the body or which thing covering the body of a rabbit. Right?
- 20 P's: Yes.
- 21 T: That is the rabbit is covered with hair it is covered with with hair. Right. And now the skin of a rabbit is divided into layers. Okay. It is divided into how many layers?
- 22 P: Into three layers.
- 23 T: It is divided into three layers. Right, they've got the first layer that is the skin, they've got er the epidermis. They've got which layer?
- 24 P's: The epidermis.

- 25 T: The epidermis. Which layer is epidermis? The inner layer, the middle layer or the outer layer? Yes er Sipho?
- 26 Sip: The outer layer.
- 27 T: It's the outer layer, that is the epidermis is the outer layer. Right?
- 28 P's: Yes.
- 29 T: Okay. And then now we find also the inner layer, that is the der-?
- 30 P's: the dermis.
- 31 T: the dermis, the dermis is the inner ?
- 32 P's: the inner layer.
- 33 T: The inner layer. Okay right, these are the layers that are found in the rabbit. Now we find the last one, that is it is new to us, that is the fatty layer, that is the fa-?
- 34 P's: the fatty layer.
- 35 T: The fa-?
- 36 P's: The fatty layer.
- 37 T: That is the fatty layer, right, the fatty layer. right. The fatty layer. Right we said that the the epidermis,, the dermis and the fatty layer. Right. We said that the skin is divided into three. Okay?
- 38 P's: Yes.
- 39 T: That is, these are the three layers, that is we find the inner layer, that is the der-?
- 40 P's: the dermis
- 41 T: the dermis. And then now we find the outer layer, that is the e-?
- 42 P's: the epidermis
- 43 T: That is the epidermis. Right? Okay. And then now we find the last one, on top of the of the epidermis, that is the fa-?
- 44 P's: the fatty layer.
- 45 T: the fatty layer. Right. The fatty layer the function of the fatty layer or the fatty layer who can distinguish the fatty layer right, the fatty layer is where we find the fat okay?
- 46 P's: Yes.
- 47 T: As you see when you buy a meat in a butchery you like the fatty meat, is it?
- 48 P's: Yes.
- 49 T: Right, xa utheng'inyama ubone laa nyama uyifunayo ingath'ityebile ubone inamanqatha right?
- 50 P's: Yes.
- 51 T: Right, these are the fatty layer, okay?
- 52 P's: Yes.
- 53 T: Right, and then now we find that er, we said that the hair we said that the rabbit is covered with a hair. Siyevana na. We said that the hair comes from the epidermis. Okay?
- 54 P's: Yes.

- 55 T: the hair come from?
- 56 P's: the epidermis.
- 57 T: the epidermis. The hair come from the epidermis, that is the hair come from the epidermis, whereby the hair come from or grow from the e-?
- 58 P's: the epidermis.
- 59 T: the epidermis. Right. They say that there are other mammals like the fox and the mink. Who can tell me the fox in Xhosa? Yes? The fox in Xhosa.
- 60 P: Ixhwili.
- 61 T: Mhm not ixhwili. Right, ifox ke yile nto sithi yingcuka. Niyayazi ingcuka? (Do you know a fox?)
- 62 P's: Yes.
- 63 P's: Ingcuka. Siyevana na?
- 64 P's: Yes.
- 65 T: Right. Ingcuka. Right, the hair the mammals like the fox and the mink - I don't know the mink in Xhosa. Right, they've got the long hair. Siyevana na? They've got the long hairs. And then now the long thick hair, they've got the long thick hair. They've got the long thick hair. Right. Kuthwa ke these long thick hair help these mam- help these animals during winter. Right. And also help the body help the body of these mammals so that the body can be warm. Even us the human beings like to wear the warm clothes so that our body become warm. You see that it is the hair keep the body warm and also keep the body temperature so that the body cannot be affected by cold. And then now, kuthwa the man or the human beings also like the skin of the mammals. Right?
- 66 P's: Yes.
- 67 T: Like the skins of the mammals or the pelts and those who do agriculture can know the pelts or the skins. By the pelts or the skins of the mammals we usually think or say er what we call the leather or the fur coats, right?
- 68 P's: Yes.
- 69 T: They wear, that is the fur coats that are usually wear by the old women or the old ladies. Right, okay?
- 70 P's: Yes.
- 71 T: Right, they wear that is the fur coats. By these fur coats they want to warm their bodies. Okay? Siyevana na?
- 72 P's: Yes.
- 73 T: Right. They wear the fur coats during winter days. Right, okay, Right?
- 74 P's: Yes.
- 75 T: Then now we find that, we said that the about the body form and the type of body covering which is, that the rabbit is covered with a hair. Right, okay. And

then now we said that in the they've got the four legs or the four limbs. In the end of these limbs you have got the fingers or the toes. For example in the fore limbs you've got the fingers, okay?

76 P's: Yes.

77 T: And then now in the hind limbs or the hind legs you've got the to- the toes. Right?

78 P's: Yes.

79 T: At the end of the toes or at the end of the of the fingers you find the claws or the nails, the claws or?

80 P's: Or the nails..

81 T: the nails, the claws or nails. Right, okay?

82 P's: Yes.

83 T: The function of the claws or the nails is to what you call the rabbit usually use the claws to dig the burrow. Right?

83 P's: Yes.

84 T: You have seen the dog digging?

85 P's: Yes.

86 T: Right. It use the the nails or the claws. Okay?

87 P's: Yes.

88 T: Right you can refer the nails to the human being but in the animals like the dog you talk about the claws, okay?

89 P's: Yes.

90 T: Right. And then now the mammals have some glands. Right?

91 P's: Yes.

92 T: In the body they've got some glands. Right. We find some glands in the mammals.

93 P's: Yes.

94 T: Like in the fish we say that they've got the mucous gland, right?

95 P's: Yes.

96 T: And in the bird we talk about the preen gland or?

97 P's: The oil gland.

98 T: or the oil gland, but in the mammal we have got some glands. These glands, they've got sweat glands, they've got the?

99 P's: sweat glands.

100 T: For example human beings we find the sweat glands in the arm pits. Right?

101 P's: Yes.

102 T: okay?

103 P's: Yes.

104 T: We find the sweat glands in the a- arm pits in human beings, okay?

105 P's: Yes.

106 T: Even in other animals like the sheep or the goat we find in their arm pits or in their arm leg, okay?

- 107 P's: Yes
- 108 T: the pit that is the leg pit you find the sweat glands. Right. And then now you also find the oil glands, the oil glands to secrete the oils from the body, okay? That's why ufuman'abany'abantu bevasa bangathambisi kodwa umntu angaxwebi, okay?
- 109 P's: Yes.
- 110 T: It's because of the oil glands, okay? Right, right. And then now we find also another gland, that is the mammary gland, the ma-?
- 111 P's: the mammary gland.
- 112 T: the mammary gland. Okay? The mammary gland. Right, the function of the mammary gland is to make what you call the milk the milk of the mammals. Okay?
- 113 P's: Yes.
- 114 T: At the time of reproduction the mammary gland functioning in order to make the milk right? Of the young one so that the young one can have the mi-?
- 115 P's: the milk.
- 116 T: the milk, right? That is the body form and or the type of the body covering okay? Of the mammal that is the ra- the rabbit. Okay?
- 117 P's: Yes.
- 118 T: Right, right now let's move to the locomotion now the locomotion of the ra- of the rabbit. Okay?
- 119 P's: Yes.
- 120 T: Where's the duster? (Finds it and cleans the board) Okay, the locomotion of the rabbit. right, what do you mean about the word locomotion? We talk about the word locomotion. What do we mean about that
- 121 P: The way of moving.
- 122 T: The way of mo...
- 123 P'S: ...of moving.
- 124 T: We've got to know now how the rabbit move or moves. The locomotion of a rabbit is by hopping or running O.K. i.e. the rabbit hopping. When the dog chasing the rabbit it can run as quickly as it can try. O.K. now,, Other mammals cannot only hop or running. Right they can walk. They can walk. As you say that as a human being we are kind of the mammals. We can walk,walk.. Right. They can walk. And also they can fly O.K. Other mammals can fl...
- 125 P'S: fly
- 126 T: They can fly. Right. For example which mammal fly?
- 127 P: Owl.
- 128 T: No-no, not an owl!! Mh? that is the example of a mammal that can fly is a bat. Right the bat in Xhosa. Who can tell me the bat in Xhosa?
- 129 P'S: Ilulwane.

- 130 T: Ilulwane, that is a bat. That is the locomotion of a rabbit. The locomotion of a rabbit is by hopping or running. Let's move to the reproduction of the rabbit now or other mammals. And then now we come to fertilization. They have internal fertilization. What do you mean about internal fertilization? What type of fertilization? Where it take place?
- 131 P: Internal fertilization takes takes place outside the body.
- 132 T: No no we are talking about internal fertilization. What do you know about it?
- 133 P: Inside the body.
- 134 T: Inside the body. Internal means inside. Ilizala ithole layo liphila. Okay, they usually give birth to their young one alive. Ayiqhelekanga into yokuzalwa kwethole lifile. Yenzeka ngenxa yezinto ezithile. (It unusual for the young one to be dead when it is born. It does happen because of certain factors). Inside the body of the female. Siyevana na? Internal fertilization takes place right inside the body of a female. Right they say now, that after fertilization the embryo is attached to the body of the rabbit. The embryo,, that is the first word. The embryo is the developing baby in the body of the rabbit. Right?
- 135 P's: Yes.
- 136 T: They say that the embryo is attached to the body of the female by the placenta.
- 137 P's: by the placenta
- 138 T: By the placenta. Okay, okay?
- 139 P's: Yes.
- 140 T: Okay, lithwe attach xa liphaya kunina lithwe attach by the placenta, which is, lidibene phaya kugqongo. (It is attached to its mother it is attached by the placenta, which is it is attached to the navel). Okay?
- 141 P's: Yes.
- 142 T: And then now it has got the umbilical cord, that is umbilically cord. Right ikhona intambo phaya (shows them a diagram of the reproductive system of the rabbit) for example.. Okay yirabbit leya, okay. This is the body of the mother, right. Okay, that is now the embryo is is there. (pointing it out) Right. That is the umbilical cord to the - phaya. Kukho laa ntambo isukileyo pha kugqongo yakutsho phaya kwiembryo ithwe attach phaya by the umbilically cord, ugqongo lowa. Siyevanana? (There is that cord which extends from the navel to the embryo, it is attached there by the umbilical cord. Understand?)
- 143 P's: Yes.
- 144 T: Zifumana ukutya ngalaa umbilical cord, ugqongo lowa. (It gets its food through the umbilical cord, that navel). Right?

- 145 P's: Yes.
- 146 T: Iyatya ngonina, ikhupha iiwaste products ngonina, siyevana na?(It eats through the mother, it gets rid of waste through the mother, understand?)
- 147 P's: Yes.
- 148 T: It also gets oxygen from the mother.
- 148 P's: Yes.
- 149 T: It sucks to his mother or on his mother. Ziyancanca phaya kunina. (They suckle from the mother)
- 150 P's: Yes.
- 151 T: It is also said that the rabbit gives birth to nine young ones and these young ones get a chance to survive. Ziphile. Uba ziyithree zoyithree, uba ziyitwo zoyitwo, if ziyinine ziphile zoyinine. (They live. if there are three all three, if there are two both, if there are nine all nine live). Right?
- 152 P's: Yes.
- 153 T: That is the reproduction of a rabbit. Siyevana na?

## APPENDIX 2.5

AGRICULTURELESSON 1

After the teacher has greeted his class he tells them that the lesson is going to be on different types of vegetables.

- 1 T: Lettuce and cabbage. Lettuce, right. These are the leafy vegetables. Okay?  
 2 P's: Yes.  
 3 T: We eat the leaves from lettuce er vegetables. Okay? 4 P's: Yes.  
 5 T: We call them the leafy vegetables. The part we eat is the leaf, right of that particular vegetable. That's why we call it the it's a leafy vegetable. Right. They are usually green in colour, right. Okay now?  
 6 P's: Yes  
 7 T: Right and then now we find another class of the vegetables. That is now the tuberous vegetables,, right?  
 8 P's: Yes, the tuberous vegetables.  
 9 T: (Writes on the board). Right . The tuberous vegetables, they are like the tubes, right?  
 10 P's: Yes.  
 11 T: Right, the tuberous vegetables are like the tubes. What are the examples of the tuberous vegetables? Yes. Right.  
 12 P: Sweet potato.  
 13 T: Sweet potato,, sweet potato. Another example? Yes?  
 14 P: Potato.  
 15 T: Potato, potato potato, Right, we have the potato in our tuberous vegetables, that is the potato these are ?  
 16 P's: The potatoes.  
 17 T: Right. Potatoes, we find the sweet potato and also the potato. Right. Okay?  
 18 P's: Yes sir.  
 19 T: Fine, the potatoes are found on the ground. Right, Okay? They are found on the gro-?  
 20 P's: On the ground.  
 21 T: Fine, they are the examples of tuberous vegetables. They are like the tubes and then we find the sweet potato and the potato. Right?  
 22 P's: Yes.  
 23 T: Okay, isweet potato ke yile nto kuthwa yi-?  
 24 P's: yibhatata. (a Xhosa word for sweet potato)  
 25 T: I-bhatata. Sweet, it's sweet. It is different from the potato. Right?  
 26 P's: Yes.  
 27 T: No questions?  
 28 P's: No teacher.

- 29 T: Right, we move to another class , that is the root vegetables, root vegetables, root vegetables. What are the root vegetables? the examples of the root vegetables. Yes?
- 30 P: Beetroot.
- 31 T: Beetroot, it's a root vegetable. Ye-e-es?
- 32 P: Onion.
- 33 T: Onion? No, it's not a root vegetable. Yes Kleintjie?
- 34 Kle: Carrot.
- 35 T: Carrot,, carrot, it's a root vegetable, it's a root vegetable. Yes Francis?
- 36 Fra: Turnip.
- 37 T: Turnip, turnip, turnip, turnip, turnip. Right. Okay, right. (As he mounts a poster showing different types of vegetable groups). In our picture we've got er the beetroot,-
- 38 P's: the carrot, (while others are saying 'i-beetroot).
- 39 T: And then now we have also the ca-?
- 40 P's: The carrot.
- 41 T: The carrot right? These are the? What we call the root vegetables. Right?
- 42 P's: Yes teacher.
- 43 T: The carrot, the beetroot,, and also the turnip. Right? are the root ve-?
- 44 P's: Vegetables.
- 45 T: Right now, and then now these we say are the root vegetables because they are found underground. Right.
- 46 P's: Yes teacher.
- 47 T: They are found underground and then now wee eat the underground part. Okay?
- 48 P's: Yes teacher.
- 49 T: from the carrot we eat the underground part and then we leave the leaves. That's fine neh? Ndiyavakala na? (Am I understood?)
- 50 P's: Yes Teacher.
- 51 T: Right then let us see ukuba niyandiva na? Take out your classwork books and answer these questions. (The children take out their books while the teacher writes some questions on the board. The rest of the thirty-minute period is spent virtually going over the same lesson in the form of correcting the classwork. When the bell rings the teacher closes the lesson by telling the class that he will deal with other types of vegetables the following day).

## APPENDIX 2.6

AGRICULTURELESSON 2

(Continuation of the lesson on different types of vegetables)

After asking a few questions on the last lesson on the types of vegetables already dealt with the teacher continues thus:

- 1 T: We said that we have three types, ie. the leafy vegetables, the tuberous vegetables and the root vegeta-?
- 2 P's: Vegetables.
- 3 T: And then now we find the bulbous vegetables bulbous ve-?
- 4 P's: vegetables.
- 5 T: vegetables. Right. What are the examples of the bulbous vegetables? The examples of the bulbous vegetables. Chumisa.
- 6 Chu: Onion.
- 7 T: That is the onion right? The onion right, the onion.
- 8 P's: Yes teacher.
- 9 T: Yes Thembisile.
- 10 The: The pumpkin.
- 11 T: Not pumpkin. Yes?
- 12 P: The tomato.
- 13 T: No not the tomato. Yes Unani.
- 14 Una: Shallot.
- 15 T: Shallot, shallot, shallot.
- 16 P's: Ufumene (Mumbling in the background, saying that Unani had guessed the answer).
- 17 T: Don't make a noise, don't make a noise. Shallot, right, that is, those are the tuberous bulbous vegetables. They are like the bulbs you know. They are like the bulbs , not like the bulbs (pointing at the electric bulbs in the classroom) the bulbs of the electric electric light. They are like those bulbs (pointing at a cut-out of some of the vegetables being discussed). They are like those bulbs. That is the bulbs. Okay?
- 18 P's: Yes Teacher.
- 19 T: That is the bulbs. That is why they say that the bulbous ve-?
- 20 P's: Vegetables.
- 21 T: Right. That is the bulbous vegetables, ie. the onion is bulbous and also the shallot. Okay?
- 22 P's: Okay.

- 23 T: When you go home you must look at your garden and see if you got these vegetables. Okay? Right, now we find also another type of or another class of the vegetables, that is the leguminous -?
- 24 P's: vegetables.
- 25 T: leguminous vegetables. Right. What are the examples of the leguminous vegetables? The examples of the leguminous vegetables. Yes-Brian.
- 26 Bri: Peas.
- 27 T: Peas, er, you find the peas-- these are the peas, these are the peas, right? Right, Patho?
- 28 Pat: The beans.
- 29 T: Beans beans. The peas, the beans, Yes Kit.
- 30 Kit: Groundnuts.
- 31 T: The groundnuts and also the groundnuts. Right. There's peas, beans and also the gro-
- 32 P's: the groundnuts.
- 33 T: The groundnuts, the peas, the beans and the groundnuts are classified as the leguminous vegetables. Right?
- 34 P's: Yes.
- 35 T: These leguminous vegetables support or build our bodies by supporting with the? a protein. Okay?
- 36 P's: Yes.
- 37 T: Right we get the protein from the beans. Okay?
- 38 P's: Yes.
- 39 T: And now from the peas. Right? They are the leguminous vegetables. Okay?
- 40 P's: Yes teacher.
- 41 T: Right, they come from or they grow from the legumes, Okay?
- 42 P's: Yes teacher.
- 43 T: You know the legumes? The legumes is something like this this one (showing them the picture of a pod). Right these are the legumes, these are the legumes. They come from the legumes of the peas. Okay?
- 44 P's: Yes Teacher.
- 45 T: Or the beans inside. Le nto kuthwa ngumXhosa yimidumba (what the Xhosa refer to as pods). Right?
- 46 P's: Yes, teacher.
- 47 T: Allright?
- 48 P's: Yes teacher.
- 49 T: Ufumane phaya phakathi ilegumes, into ekuthwa ziilegumes, then ufumane phaa phakathi set inside iipeas. Xa ufuna iipeas or iimbotyi kufuneka uvule laa nto, laa mdumba. Right. Then ufumane iipeas right. (When you want peas or beans you have to open this thing, the pod and find set inside the peas. Then you get your peas). Right?
- 50 P's: Yes teacher.
- 51 T: Siyevana na?

- 52 P's: Yes Sir.
- 53 T: Okay,-
- 54 P: Icucumber yilegume? (Is cucumber a legume?)
- 55 T: Icucumber icucumber icucumber, cucumber is a fruit a fruit. Cucumber is a fruit. Right, okay. These are the legumes, okay? They come from the legumes. That's why we say they are the leguminous ve-?
- 56 -P's: vegetables.
- 57 T: vegetables. Right. And then now we come to another type of er, that is, er, the fifth one, that is the fruit part of the vegetable, that is the fruit vegetable or the fruit part. Right? Examples of the fruit--. Yes?
- 58 P: Tomato
- 59 T: Tomatoes. Good. Yes er
- 60 P: Carrot.
- 61 T: Carrot? No no, the carrot is a root vegetable. Yes Frank.
- 62 Fra: Pumpkin.
- 63 T: Pumpkin, yes.
- 64 P: Cucumber.
- 65 T: Cucumber, yes.
- 66 P: Pumpkin.
- 67 T: Pumpkin, tomatoes and also cucumber. Yes. This is the example of a pumpkin. Right, this is a pumpkin, that is fruit vegetable, right. Okay, that is the pumpkin, tomato, cucumber, are the fruit ve-?
- 68 P's vegetables.
- 69 T: Right?
- 70 P's: Yes teacher.
- 71 T: Pumpkin. You must eat a pumpkin. You must not say boys don't eat a pumpkin. Right that is pumpkin is a fruit vegetables. Right?
- 72 P's: Yes.
- 73 T: These are the classes of the vegetable. Right?
- 74 P's: Yes.
- 75 T: Right. Let's name the class what is the first class of the vegetable?
- 76 P's: Leafy vegetables.
- 77 T: The second one.
- 78 P's: Tuberous vegetables.
- 79 T: The third one.
- 80 P's: Root vegetables.
- 81 T: The fourth one.
- 82 P's: Bulbous vegetables.
- 83 T: The fifth one.
- 84 P's: Leguminous vegetables.
- 85 T: The sixth one.
- 86 P's: Fruit vegetables.
- 87 T: Right, these are the classes of the-?
- 88 P's: the vegetables.
- 89 T: The vegetables. Right?

- 90 P's: Yes.
- 91 T: Right, so now when you see the carrot, when you see the beetroot you must know this the roo-?
- 92 P's: root vegetables.
- 93 T: Right. Now when you see the potato, when you see the sweet potato you must know it is the tu-?
- 94 P's: the tuberous vegetable.
- 95 T: Right, the tuberous vegetable. And then now when you see the onion and the shallot you must know it is the bu-?
- 96 P's: the bulbous vegetables.
- 97 T: Now, the peas and the beans are the?
- 98 P's: leguminous vegetables.
- 99 T: You must know from now onwards that if you think about leguminous vegetables you must think about the peas and the beans. And now the fruit vegetables, you must think about
- 100 P's: the fruity vegetables.
- 101 T: And then now the leafy vegetables you must think about the spinach and the ca-?
- 102 P's: cabbage.
- 103 T: Right, these vegetables are classified according to their food, their usage. Right, for example the cabbage. If we take the leaves, we must think of the cabbage, the cabbage is made up of leaves.
- 103 P's: Yes.
- 104 T: In the carrot we eat the root.
- 105 P's: The root.
- 106 T: No questions?
- 107 P'S: No.
- 108 T: Right, take out your classwork books. Write down two classes of vegetables. (After a few minutes) Yes Loyiso. The first one.
- 109 Loy: Leafy vegetables.
- 110 T: Leafy vegetables. Kuthwe (You were told to) give two examples in each class. Thombos.
- 111 Tho: Cabbage.
- 112 T: Cabbage. Ntantayo.
- 113 Nta: (No answer)
- 114 T: Come on, mxelele tell him, (pointing at another pupil).
- 115 P: Spinach.
- 116 T: Spinach or?
- 117 P: Lettuce.
- 118 T: Lettuce. Another one?
- 119 P: Root vegetable.
- 120 T: Examples of root vegetables.
- 121 P: Carrot.
- 122 T: carrot. Another one?
- 123 P: Beetroot.
- 124 T: Right, okay. You must not forget the classes of vegetables.  
(The bell rings and the teacher stops abruptly).

## APPENDIX 2.7

GEOGRAPHYLESSON 1

- 1 T: Good morning class.
- 2 P's: Good morning sir.
- 3 T: Right class, we are dealing with the seasons of the year. So now we have been saying that we are experiencing summer in the northern hemisphere because more sunrays heat the greater part of the northern hemisphere. Right?
- 4 P's: Yes.
- 5 T: So it is summer in the northern hemisphere. Okay, if it summer in the northern hemisphere what season is it in the southern hemisphere? Yes Andy?
- 6 And: Winter.
- 7 T: It is winter. In full sentence, it is winter.
- 8 And: It is winter.
- 9 T: Class?
- 10 P's: It is winter.
- 11 T: in the southern hemisphere, right, okay. That is now the position or that is the case in our area. So now we say that OK now in, in in C (pointing at C in a diagram on the board) we have more sunrays heating or shining at the southern hemisphere. Then what season is it in southern hemisphere? Yes er Anne.
- 12 Ann: It is summer in the southern hemisphere.
- 13 T: Yes it is summer in the southern hemisphere. Okay if it is summer in the southern hemisphere, what season is it in the northern hemisphere because the sunrays are weaker there. Yes Tony.
- 14 Ton: It is winter in the north hemisphere.
- 15 T: northern hemisphere.
- 16 Ton: It is winter northern hemisphere.
- 17 T: Yes class.
- 18 P's: It is winter northern hemisphere. (Others: It is winter in the northern hemisphere.)
- 19 T: Right, so now the power is at D. Now we say the sunrays heats or shines equally in the northern hemisphere and at the or in D and C, I mean in in in in B and in D. So now we get what we call er-r equinot e-- (writes the word on the board). In other words we are getting equal day and equal night. Neh?
- 20 P's: Yes.
- 21 T: That is now I think it's on the 22nd/23rd September neh?
- 22 P's: Yes.
- 23 T: Right. So now we say, okay, it is summer in the northern hemishpere at A and winter in the northern hemisphere at C. Therefore, it is autumn in the northern hemisphere at at D neh? So here we are getting one of the seasons we said we are getting summer in the southern hemisphere when the sun is shining a lot in in the southern hemisphere, therefore now we say at t D we are getting on of oiur seasons that is au- autumn. So if it is autumn at ... what season is it at... Yes Siphesihle.

- 24 Sip: It is spring.
- 25 T: It is spring. it is spring.. So now all in all how many seasons do we have in one year? Ndulana?
- 26 Ndu: (No response from nominated pupil.)
- 27 T: How many seasons do we have in one year? (inaudible response from same pupil) Come again.
- 28 Ndu: In one year we have four seasons.
- 29 T: (Laughs) We have four seasons in (together with the pupils) one year. We have only four seasons. And they are?
- 30 Ps: They are summer, winter, autumn and spring.
- 31 T: They are summer, winter, autumn and spring. Good. now get out your classwork books and draw the diagram on the board and label it. Neh?
- 32 Ps: Yes sir.

The class responds by doing as their teacher instructed them.

## APPENDIX 2.8

HISTORYLESSON 1

- 1 T: Good morning class.
- 2 P'S: Good morning sir.
- 3 T: Sit down , thank you. Er, our lesson today is about the development of printing. Which place is our printing press here at Alice? Yes.
- 4 P: Lovedale Press
- 5 T: Lovedale Press. Where is Lovedale Press? Where is Lovedale Press? Yes?
- 6 P: Lovedale Press is at Alice.
- 7 T: At Alice? Which place?
- 8 P: (inaudible)
- 9 T: Or the place near Lovedale Press. Yes?
- 10 P: It was Lovedale College, Its near Lovedale College.
- 11 T: It was near Lovedale College but is in town today, next to Frasers and which cafe?
- 12 P: Ramona cafe.
- 13 T: That is the Ramona.
- 14 P: Yes.
- 15 T: What is a printing press? Who can tell us what is a printing press? Yes? try.
- 16 P: The printing press is where books are made.
- 17 T: A printing press is a place where books are ....
- 18 P'S: made.
- 19 T: are printed. A printing press is a place where books are? are printed. They are printed by machines not by hand. That is a printing press. Right. The development of printing . We are going to take the events leading to the development of printing. (As he writes on the board) events leading to the development of printing. What is the meaning of the word events? Hands up. That's simple English. Events. Happenings. Heh.
- 20 P'S: Yes.
- 21 T: Things that occurred. Happe..?
- 22 P'S: Happenings.
- 23 T: Right. The events leading to the development of printing . One, the fall of the Roman Empire in AD473. Right. The fall of the Roman Empire in AD473. What happened? Uncivilised tribes invaded the Roman Empire. Beautiful cities were destroyed. Civilisation came to a standstill, and that period is known as Dark Ages. So the first event which led to the development of the p-printing is the fall of the Roman Empire. When civilisation came to a standstill no development. The church played an important part to keep civilisation alive. Monasteries were built. That is the places where monks and nuns live. They wrote books by hand.

They copied all the important writing by hand. Seeing that this method of writing books by hand was slow, people tried to develop er to make things er, that is er to make it write quick. Right. In these monasteries the monks copied those writings by by hand, right The Germans. One German John Guttenberg developed a printing machine. John Johan Gutternberg developed a printing press in Germany because the method of copying the books by hand it was too slow so they invented machines to make thee printing quicker.. So the first man John Guttenberg in Germany. Is that clear?

24 - P's: Yes.

25 T: Right. Another country followed Germany. William Turksten the second man in England (Writes on the board) he made a printing press at Westiminister (sic). The third man came from Holland, Lawrence Costa developed a printing pra press at Holland. Right . The results of printing. The books were no longer copied by ha- (writes on the board) They were written by the (sic) machines. So the results of the invention of the machines (writes on the board). One, the books were printed at (sic) a large scale (writes on the board). What do I mean about the part of this sentence: the books were printed at a large scale? Ja Ndyola?  
(No answer from Ndyola) Yes? (nominating another pupil)

26 P: The books were printed in a large place.

27 T: The books became plentiful. The books became many. That sentence means the books became many plentiful. Everybody was able to get the books. That is the results of The books were cheaper. Before the development of the pri-printing they were expensive, they were chained because the people were stealing the books but when the printing was developed they became became plenty and they became cheaper. Everybody was able to read the books. Many books were studied. Many books were studied. Even now we study many books Xhosa books,, Afrikaans books Sotho books, History books, Geography books , we read newspapers. Four,increased knowledge to the people (writes on the board) So people studied many books and their knowledge increased. So these are the results of the development of printing. Right. What is a printing press? Yes ntombi?

28 P: A printing press is where books are printed.

29 T: Is a place where books are ?

30 P's: are printed.

31 T: are printed. Where is our printing press here at Alice or what is our printing press here at Alice? Everybody hands up please. Yes Frank.

32 Fra: Is Lovedale Press.

33 T: Lovedale Press, Lovedale Press is our printing press.

What do you get when you go there? What do you see? Yes?

34 P: I see many books.

35 T: Many books and the machines. You see many books.

You see the machines. That is a printing pares. Right. Who developed a

- printing press in Germany? The first man to develop a printing press in Germany. The first man to develop a printing press in Germany. Yes?
- 36 P: Johan Guttenberg developed a printing press in Germany.
- 37 T: Johan Guttenberg developed a printing press in Germany. Who developed a printing press at Westminster in England? Who developed a printing press at Westminster (sic) in England? Ja?
- 38 P: It was William Turksten.
- 39 T: William Turksten. Right. What are the results of the Printing? Yes?
- 40 P: Books were cheaper.
- 41 T: Books were cheaper. So we are able to buy the books now. Eh?
- 42 P's: Yes.
- 43 T: No 2.
- 44 P: Books were printed at a large scale.
- 45 T: Books were printed at a large scale. There are many books now. Books are available to everybody. No 3? Yes?
- 46 P: Many books were studied.
- 47 T: Many books were studied. We study History books, we study Geography, Mathematics Science, many books were studied. Then what else? Yes?
- 48 P: Increased knowledge.
- 49 T: Increased knowledge to the people. We read books we buy newspapers. We read newspapers, magazines everything. We get knowledge from them. Thank you.

## APPENDIX 2.9

ENGLISHLESSON 1

- 1 T: P44 - The Nurse's Story.
- 2 P's: P44 - The Nurse's Story.
- 3 T: This is what is said by the nurse. She says,----
- 4 P's: This is what is said by the nurse. She says,----
- 5 T: "My name is Mirriam Mazana.
- 6 P's: "My name is Mirriam Mazana.
- 7 T: I am a nurse and I work in a hospital.
- 8 P's: I am a nurse and I work in a hospital.
- 9 T: The hospital is a big one.
- 10 P's: The hospital is a big one.
- 11 T: Nurses are always busy.
- 12 P's: Nurses are always busy.
- 13 T: Sometimes I work in the hospital all night.
- 14 P's: Sometimes I work in the hospital all night.
- 15 T: But I like nursing.
- 16 P's: But I like nursing.
- 17 T: I like helping people.
- 18 P's: I like helping people.
- 19 T: I live in a home for nurses near the hospital.
- 20 P's: I live in a home for nurses near the hospital.
- 21 T: About fifty nurses live there.
- 22 P's: About fifty nurses live in the hospital.
- 23 T: Next year I am going to be married.
- 24 P's: Next year I am going to live in the hospital.
- 25 T: Then I will live in my own house.
- 26 P's: Then I will live in my own house.
- 27 T: But I will still go to ,the hospital to work.
- 28 P's: But I will still go to the hospital to work".
- 29 T: Right, can you name any hospital you know around?
- 30 P: Victoria hospital.
- 31 T: Victoria hospital. Victoria hospital. That was named after somebody. That was named after somebody. After whom was it named? Victoria hospital, after whom was it named? Yes? After whom was it named? Yes?
- 32 P: It named after
- 33 T: After whom was it named?
- 34 P: It was named after Victoria.
- 35 T: Who was Victoria?
- 36 P: Victoria was a nurse.
- 37 T: -was a nurse? (Laughs). Yes Mgcana.
- 38 Mgc: It was named after Queen Victoria.

- 39 T: Yes, it was named after Queen Victoria. Who is Queen Victoria? Where was she from? Is she from Ciskei, South Africa? Where is she from? You must know the history of your place. It was named after Queen Victoria.  
Yes?
- 40 P: From Britain.
- 41 T: from Britain. Queen Victoria was from Britain. Britain is in London. Right? E-er, Mirriam says, I live in a home for nurses near the hospital. What do we call a home for nurses in a hospital? Yes.
- 42 P: Nurses' home.
- 43 T: We call it -----?
- 44 P: We call it nurses' home.
- 45 T: We call it nurses' home. We call it ---?
- 46 P's: We call it nurses' home.
- 47 T: Right. Let us pass on. The lorry driver's story.
- 48 P's: This is the lorry driver's story.
- 49 T: He said,
- 50 P's: He said,
- 51 T: "My name is Tom Lova.
- 52 P's: "My name is Tom Lova.
- 53 T: I am a lorry driver. My lorry is a big one and it can carry a heavy load, more than 20 tons.
- 54 P's: I am a lorry driver. My lorry is a big one and it can carry a heavy load, more than twenty times.
- 55 T: TONS
- 56 P's: tons..
- 57 T: more than twenty tons.
- 58 P's: more than twenty tons..
- 59 T: Sometimes I drive it on very long journeys.
- 60 P's: Sometimes I drive it on very long journeys.
- 61 T: Then I am away from my home for six or seven days.
- 62 P's: Then I am away from my home for six or seven days.
- 63 T: Driving a big lorry is hard work.
- 64 P's: Driving a big lorry is hard work.
- 65 T: Sometimes I get very tired.
- 66 P's: Sometimes I get very tired.
- 67 T: That is dangerous.
- 68 P's: That is dangerous.
- 69 T: I might fall asleep while I am driving and have an accident.
- 70 P's: I might fall asleep while I am driving and have an accident.
- 71 T: When I feel tired I stop driving and rest.
- 72 P's: When I feel tired I stop driving and rest.
- 73 T: On very long journeys I sleep in my lorry.
- 74 P's: On very long journeys I sleep in my lorry.
- 75 T: I don't like to leave by itself.
- 76 P's: I don't like it by itself.

- 77 T: Thieves might steal things from the lorry.  
 78 P's: Thieves might steal things from the lorry.  
 79 T: When I get home I eat a lot of food.  
 80 P's: When I get home I eat a lot of food.  
 81 T: Then I go to bed and sleep.  
 82 P's: Then I go to bed and sleep.  
 83 T: Sometimes I sleep for more than twelve hours.  
 84 P's: Sometimes I sleep for more than twelve hours.  
 85 T: Now, who is telling this story? Who is telling this story? Yes. (nominates one of the pupils).  
 86 P: The lorry the lorry the lorry driver tell us about  
 87 T: Who is telling this story, who is telling this story?  
 88 P: The lorry driver tells the story.  
 89 T: Who is telling this story who is telling this story? Yes.  
 90 P: The lorry the lorry driver is telling this story.  
 91 T: Yes! The lorry driver is telling this story. All of us.  
 92 P's: The lorry driver is telling this story.  
 93 T: Can anyone summarize or tell us the nurse's story? Just in short. What Mirriam Mazana said. Anyone just in short. Will Sonny read for us?  
 94 Son: My name is Mirriam Mazana. I am a nurse and I work in a hospital. The hospital is a big one. Nursing people is hard work. Nurses are always busy. Sometimes I work in the hospital all night. But I like nursing. I like helping people. I live in a home for nurse near the hospital. About fifty nurses live there. Next year I am going to be married. Then I will live in my own house. But I will still go to the hospital to work.  
 95 T: Now, who can tell us in short the nurse's story? Yes?  
 96 P: He he work in hospital.  
 97 T: He? He?  
 98 P: She work in hospital.  
 99 T: She works in the hospital.  
 100 P: She going to marry.  
 101 T: Mh? Yes? What else did she say?  
 102 P: She say he live in nurse's home.  
 103 T: She says he--? Yes?  
 104 P: She says she --  
 105 T: She lives-- Yes. Can anyone read for us again? (One of the girls reads). Thanks Nelly. Nolutho. (Nolutho reads). Can anyone tell us about what was said by Tom Loza the lorry driver? Francis.  
 106 Fran: Tom Loza is a lorry driver.  
 107 T: I don't want you to read it from the book. I just want you to tell us just in short what the lorry driver said.  
 108 Fran: Tom Loza is a lorry driver. She said his his lorry his lorry his --  
 109 T: Right, go on.  
 110 Fran: His lorry his lorry carry a load, a heavy load.  
 111 T: Yes.

- 112 Fran: And he says the lorry driver a lorry driver work hard.  
 113 T: Works hard works hard. Yes help him. Who's going to help him? Bonkolo.  
 114 Bonk: When he get home  
 115 T: When he gets  
 116 Bonk: When he gets home he eat he ate a lot of food  
 117 T: When he gets home he?  
 118 Bonk: When he gets home he ate a lot of food  
 119 T: When he gets home he eats a lot of food.  
 120 Bonk: When he gets home he eats a lot of food. His lorry is the big one and his lorry he carry heavy loads more than twenty tons.  
 122 T: Carries  
 123 Bonk: His lorry carries a heavy load more than twenty tons  
 124 T: Where does he sleep on long journeys?  
 125 Bonk: On long journeys he sleep he sleeps in his lorry.  
 126 T: Yes. Right , thanks. Thank you. Thank you very much. What is the name what is the name of the woman who is talking? What is the name of the woman who is talking? Siphe.  
 127 What is the name of the woman who is talking? Heh?  
 128 Sip: The name of woman who is talking is Mirriam Mazana.  
 129 T: Again?  
 130 Sip: The name of the name of woman  
 131 T: The name of the woman who is talking  
 132 Sip: The name of the name of the woman who is talking is Mirriam Mazana.  
 133 T: All of us.  
 134 P's: The name of the woman who is talking is Mirriam Mazana.  
 135 T: What work does she do? What work does she do? Noxie.  
 136 Nox: She work she work she work she work in she work in she work in hospital.  
 137 T: What work what work does she do?  
 138 Nox: She work  
 139 T: What type of work does she do?  
 140 Nox: She nursing people is hard work.  
 141 T: Mh. No. Yes. What work does she do? Yes.  
 142 P: She does nursing.  
 143 T: Yes. She does nursing. Or? Or? Yes?  
 144 P: Or she help the people.  
 145 T: She is --?  
 146 P: She is help, she is help  
 147 T: Yes? Okay.  
 148 P: She is a nurse.  
 149 T: She is a nurse. She is a nurse. All of us.  
 150 P's: She is a nurse.  
 151 T: Where does she work? Where does she work? Manzi.  
 152 Man: She work in hospital.  
 153 T: Where does she work? Mh?  
 154 Man: She she works in hospital.

- 155 T: Yes. She works in the hospital. All of us.
- 156 P's: She works in the hospital.
- 157 T: Where does she live? Nosizwe.
- 158 Nos: She lives in hospital in nurses' home.
- 159 T: Yes she lives in nurses' home or in a home for nurses. Would you write Miss or Mrs before her name? Would you write Miss or Mrs before her name? Scolo?
- 160 Sco: I will write
- 161 T: Would you write Mr or Mrs before her name?
- 162 Sco: I will write--
- 163 T: WOULD you write--?
- 164 Sco: I will write (inaudible)
- 165 T: Tyhini! Utheni na Scolo uthethela phantsi nje singakuva?
- 166 Sco: I will I would write Miss before--
- 167 T: Yes! --before her name.
- 168 Sco: I would write Miss before her name.
- 169 T: I would write miss before her name. All of us.
- 170 P's: I would write Miss before her name.
- 171 T: Okay. Why would you write Miss before her name? Vuyo.
- 172 Vuy: Because she said that she will be marry she will be married next year.
- 173 T: Because she says she will be married next year. So she is not yet married. Why will she live in her own house next year? Why would she live in her own house next year? Nqabomzi?
- 174 Nqa: Because she will marry.
- 175 T: Why would she live in her own house next year? Why would she live in her own house next year?
- 176 Nqa: Because he will marry.
- 177 P's: SHE
- 178 T: I beg your pardon?
- 179 Nqa: Because she will get married.
- 180 T: Why WOULD, she why WOULD she live in her own house next year? You say 'She will be married or she will get married'. My question was, 'Why WOULD she live in her own house next year?' Why WOULD--- Can you help him?
- 181 P: Because she would be married next next year.
- 182 T: Because she would be married next year. Because she would be married next year. All of us.
- 183 P's: Because she would be married next year.
- 184 T: Again?
- 185 P's: Because she would be married next year.
- 186 T: What is the man's name? Geleza.
- 187 Gel: The man's name is Tom Loza.
- 188 T: The man's name is Tom Loza. All of us.
- 189 P's: The man's name is Tom Loza.
- 190 T: What work does he do?

- 191 P: He drives a lorry.
- 192 T: He drives a lorry . Or? Yes?
- 193 P: He is the lorry driver.
- 194 T: Yes. What does he think is dangerous? What does he think is dangerous?  
What does he think is dangerous?
- 195 P: He thinks sleeping while driving is very dangerous.
- 196 T: He thinks sleeping while driving is very dangerous. All of us.
- 197 P's: He thinks sleeping while driving is very dangerous.
- 198 T: He thinks sleeping while driving is very dangerous. Why doesn't he like  
leaving his lorry by itself? Why doesn't he like leaving his lorry by itself.  
Why doesn't he like leaving his lorry by itself? Lunga.
- 199 Lun: Because thieves might steal things from his lorry.
- 200 T: Yes, because thieves might steal things from his lorry. All of us?
- 201 P's: Because thieves might steal things from his lorry.
- 202 T: What is the plural for thieves thief thieves thief okay.(Laughter from both  
teacher and the class at the obvious mistake) Okay, what does he do when  
he gets home?
- 203 P: When he return home he eat a--
- 204 T: What does he do when he RETURNS home?
- 205 P: When she
- 206 P's: When HE--
- 207 P: When he returned home he eats a lot of food.
- 208 T: Look at the question. What does he do when he returns home? Yes? --  
when he returns home? Give us your answer.
- 209 P: When he returns--
- 210 T: Yes?
- 211 P: He eats a lot of food.
- 212 T: All of us?
- 213 P's: When he returns home he eats a lot of food.
- 214 T: When he returns home he eats a lot of food. Good. Take out your books.

COMPREHENSION.

After a pronunciation drill done under the guidance of the teacher, a vocabulary session with the class follows thus:-

- 1 T: Right, let's see who will guess the meaning of these words. I am going to write the meanings on the board, then you take the word and put next to the correct meaning. (The words are written on flashcards and are displayed on the teacher's table):
- To come together (as she writes on the board) to come together. Can anyone come and get the correct word from the table that means to come together, and put it next to that meaning? ---to come together (calls a pupil) Yes, come quickly. (A pupil comes forward and selects an incorrect word). Is that right?
- 2 P's: No.
- 3 T: Mh?
- 4 P's: No.
- 5 T: They say 'no'. Yes--? come and try. (Another pupil is nominated and comes forward and chooses another word which turns out to be incorrect.) Take it back. (Another pupil is called forth and still does not get the answer right.) Is that right? No! They say 'no'. Let us try again, quickly. No hands? O.K. (Another pupil comes forward without either raising his hand or being nominated. He gets the answer right.) Is that right?
- 6 P's: Yes.
- 7 T: Yes! to come together is to gather. To come together---?
- 8 P's: To come together is to gather.
- 9 T: Again.
- 10 P's: To come together is to gather.
- 11 T: Right. What is a person who is in a strange place?  
(There is no response from the class.) What is a stranger? A stranger is---
- 12 P's: A stranger is a person in strange place that he does not know.
- 13 T: Again.
- 14 P's: A stranger is a person in a strange place he does not know.
- 15 T: A stranger is a person in a strange place he does not know. (Inaudible as she writes on the board).
- 16 P: A peel?
- 17 T: Yes. A peel. Do we only get a peel from fruit? Heh?
- 18 P's: No.
- 19 T: Where else do we get a peel? Yes Nokholo? Which vegetable? Heh?
- 20 Nok: Cabbage.

- 21 P's: No! (giving a voluntary response)
- 22 T: Heh? Does a cabbage have a peel? Heh? Yes. (pointing at a pupil)
- 23 P: A pumpkin.
- 24 T: Pumpkin yes.
- 25 P: Potato.
- 26 T: Yes, potato, we peel potatoes. Which other vegetable?
- 27 P: Carrot (answer inaudible)
- 28 T: Yes. What else?
- 29 P: Beetroot.
- 30 T: Beetroot. Yes?
- 31 P: Tomatoes. Good. Er, to rush violently . I wonder if anyone will know this one, violently or quickly to rush violently or quickly. Yes.
- 32 P: (answer inaudible)
- 33 T: Is that right?
- 34 P: (without answering puts on the board the word 'aggressively')
- 35 T: Is that right?
- 36 P's: No.
- 37 T: This is wrong. (Laughs) O K, let us try again. So aggressively is wrong.
- 38 P: (Another pupil comes to the board and gets the correct answer.
- 39 T: Correct?
- 40 P's: Yes. (Puts up the correct word).
- 41 T: Yes. Hurtled - to rush violently or quickly. Right. Which one? About to attack. When someone is about to attack we say he is -- Yes Gcogco.
- 42 Gco: Aggressively.
- 43 T: Aggressively. Yes, correct. Aggressively. What?
- 44 P's: Aggressively.
- 45 T: Again.
- 46 P's: Aggressively.
- 47 T: Right. What is the last word?
- 48 P's: It's stiffened.
- 49 T: Obviously moss good people neh?
- 50 P's: Yes.
- 51 T: Er--- it's stiffened, okay, it's stiffened. For instance when I laugh my face is not stiff but immediately I (inaudible) I look like this (Shows the class a face with deep furrows and wrinkles on the forehead) I I I'm stiffening my face, Kude kubekho eza nto, laa ndaw'ishwabeneyo phaya. (such that there is that wrinkled part there). Neh?
- 52 P's: Yes.
- 53 T: Good. He stiffened his face, he stiffened his face. Okay let us read now.. Page 22, Banana Peel. (The pupils open their books on the page indicated) I'm going to read to you the first five lines, then we read together. The moment I undid the handkerchief and the stranger set eyes on the bananas, his face stiffened and he jerked quickly to his feet. (The children repeat after

the teacher as she reads along each sentence.) When I actually offered him one his eyes opened wide in terror and his shoulders rose aggressively. 'Bananas,' he grunted. 'Ah. Bananas everywhere. Ah.' And he walked quickly out of the railway station where we unemployed used to gather. I looked again at the rich, golden yellow bunch beside me on the bench to make sure there was nothing wrong with them. of course, there wasn't! Of course, and just to prove it I buried my teeth in the soft fat fruit. Right. (inaudible) Right. Who did not like bananas? who did not like bananas? Yes? (Nominating a pupil).

- 54 P: The stranger did not like bananas.  
 55 T: Yes. The stranger did not like bananas. What makes you know that he did not like bananas? Only from those few lines. What makes you to know that this stranger did not like bananas? Heh? Everybody bethuna everybody, everybody. What makes you say this stranger did not like bananas? Cinga?
- 56 Cin: It's because his face stiffened and he jerked quickly to his feet.  
 57 T: Yes. Yes. Someone else. Yes, Vuyani?  
 58 Vuy: Because when he saw bananas his face stiffened.  
 59 T: Because when he saw bananas his face stiffened. All of us.  
 60 P's: Because when he saw bananas his face stiffened.  
 61 T: To show that he does not like thhesee banmanas. Mhh.  
 His face his face stiffened. 'Okay, can you have a banana?' 'Mh-m,mh-m'. To show that he did not like the bananas. Right. Where did these men who were unemployed gather? Where did these men who were unemployed gather? Did they gather in their homes? Where did they gather? Heh? Phakamile.
- 62 Pha: On the railway station.  
 63 T: They gathered--?  
 64 Pha: They gathered on the railway station.  
 65 T: They gathered AT the railway station. Where did they gather?  
 66 P's: They gathered on the railway station.  
 67 T: Where did they gather?  
 68 P's: They gathered on the railway station.  
 69 T: They gathered AT the railway station. What is the colour of a banana? What is the colour of a banana? Is it brown? Is it red in colour? What is the colour of a banana? Mbombo?
- 70 Mbo: The colour of a banana is yellow.  
 71 T: The colour of a banana is yellow. All of us.  
 72 P's: The colour of a banana is yellow.  
 73 T: Right. Okay, let us go on. There were eight of them to eat and I took my time. For one thing there was no hurry, as a man who is down and out has time on his hands. I soon finished however, put the peels back in the handkerchief and went to join the stranger. Again, finished, we say finished.

(the pupils repeat the whole sentence as directed by the teacher.) On the stone steps one of the peels fell on the floor. As i bent down to pick it up, the hand carrying the handkerchief struck my knee and in a second the stone steps were a mass of banana peels. Right, will you all say, 'struck'?

- 74 P's: Struck.  
 75 T: Again.  
 76 P's: Struck.  
 77 T: Again.  
 78 P's: Struck.  
 79 T: As I bent down to pick it up the hand carrying the handkerchief struck my knee and in a second the stone steps were a mass of banana peels. Right, quickly. How many bananas were there? How many bananas did this man eat? Yes? How many bananas did this man eat? Mango?
- 80 Man: The man eat the man eat the man eat---
- 81 T: Hayi, hayi go on.
- 82 Man: The man eat two bananas.
- 83 T: She says 'The man eat two bananas'. Who can correct her? Who can correct her?
- 84 P: The man eat eight bananas.
- 85 T: Thank you. She says 'The man eat eight bananas'. Right that was correct but there's something wrong with that sentence - the man eat eight bananas. Can you correct her? Mh? Yes. (Nominating a pupil by pointing at him.)
- 86 P: The man ate eight bananas.
- 87 T: Yes, the man ate eight bananas. The man ate eight bananas. Yes. Yes?
- 88 P's: The man ate eight bananas.
- 89 T: Again.
- 90 P's: The man ate eight bananas.
- 91 T: Again.
- 92 P's: The man ate eight bananas.
- 93 T: The man ate eight bananas. Yes, the man--
- 94 P's: The man ate eight bananas.
- 95 T: Right, the man ate eight bananas. The man says, 'As a man who is down and out has time on his hands, hey, the e-e-r the a man who is down and out has time on his hands'. What does he mean by that? As a man who is down and out, Does he mean as a man who is sitting down? 'down and out' as a man who is down and out has time on his hands. Yes? Who can guess? As a man who is down and outhas time on his hands, what did he mean by that?
- 96 P: The man who had no money and who work
- 97 T: The man who had no money and who work utsho uNolutho (so says Nolutho) What do you say?
- 98 P: The man who is not (inaudible)
- 99 T: The man who is not (inaudible) Hee abakhumshi abantwana bam (Whoe! Aren't my kids speaking sophisticated English!) The man who is not rushing for something. The man who is not rushing for something. What do you say? (pointing at another member of the class).

- 100 P: The man who out of luck.
- 101 T: -who is out of luck. Thhe the man who is out of luck, mh? Anyone with another answer? Yes.
- 102 P: The man is unemployed.
- 103 T: The man is unemployed. Yes! As a man who is unemployed is down and out and not underemployed has no money is not in a rush for something, so siyazidibanisa zonke moss ezo answers (So we combine all those answers) neh! Can you read for us, Kleintjie? The moment I undid ... Start from there.
- 104 Kle: The moment I undid---
- 105 T: (interrupts) Lift up your voice please so that we can all hear. Yes--?
- 106 P: (As the pupil reads he mispronounces 'offered')
- 107 T: ...when I actually offered offered (providing correct pronunciation)...
- 108 P: (The pupil continues reading and mispronounces 'grunted')...
- 109 T: grunted, grunted. Right. Er, yes, sermon.
- 110 P: I look again at the ---
- 111 T: I looked...
- 112 P: I looked again at the --
- 113 T: Raise your book Sermon, hold your book like this. (Shows him.) Yes.
- 114 P: (Holding the book correctly) I looked again at at the rich golden yellow bench (for bunch) beside me--
- 115 P's: BUNCH!
- 116 T: Bunch
- 117 P: ...golden yellow bunch beside(be- pronounced as in'bed')
- 118 P's: (provide correct pronunciation)
- 119 T: O K. I looked again at the rich golden yellow bunch (with emphasis on bunch) beside me, on the bench (emphasis on this word) to make sure there was nothing wrong with them.
- 120 P: ...golden--
- 121 T: (teacher interrupts and indicates where the pupil should start reading) I looked...
- 122 P: I looked again at the golden yellow bench--
- 123 P'S (in chorus) BUNCH!
- 124 T: Bunch.
- 125 P: I looked again at the golden yellow be-be- bunch beside me (mumbling from the rest of the class)
- 126 T: OK, OK, OK. Give him a chance.
- 127 P: ...beside me on the bench to make sure that there was nothing wrong with them.
- 128 T: OK, (inaudible) Let us all say 'bunch'.
- 129 P's: Bunch.
- 130 T: Again.
- 131 P's: Bunch
- 132 T: Siyabulela? (Nominating the pupil who had difficulty with the pronunciation of the words)

- 133 Siy: Bunch.
- 134 T: Again.
- 135 Siy: Again.
- 136 T: Right. read this one.
- 137 P's: Bench.
- 138 T: Again. (pointing at Siyabulela).
- 139 Siy: Bench.
- 140 T: Right can you spell this one? Spell it.
- 141 Siy: B-U-N-C-H
- 142 T: B-U-N-C-H Can you spell this one? (Pointing at 'bench')
- 143 Siy: (Hesitates)
- 144 T: Yes.
- 145 Siy: B-E-N-C-H
- 146 T: Right, read this one.
- 147 Siy: Bunch
- 148 T: Again
- 149 Siy: Bunch
- 150 T: This one
- 151 Siy: Bench
- 152 T: Again
- 153 Siy: Bench
- 154 T: Can you repeat the sentence : I looked again...?
- 155 Siy: I looked again at the rich golden yellow bench beside me (both bunch and beside mispronounced)
- 156 P's: Bunch
- 157 T: ...golden yellow bunch... (sounds of impatience from the rest of the class)  
OK give him a chance.
- 158 Siy: I looked again at the rich golden yellow bench (giggling mixed with correction from the class) beside me
- 159 T: Bunch. (More mumbling from classmates), I said give him a chance. Bunch. Again say 'bunch'.
- 160 Siy: Bunch
- 161 T: Again, look at the word.
- 162 Siy: Bunch
- 163 T: Again
- 164 Siy: Bunch
- 165 T: Read the sentence.
- 166 Siy: I looked again at the golden yellow bunch beside me on the bench to make sure there was nothing wrong with them.
- 167 T: Of course....
- 168 Siy: Of course there wasn't. Of course and just to prove it bury--(teacher interrupts to, point out words the pupil had left out)
- 169 T: ...I buried my teeth...

- 170 Siy: ...just to prove it I buried my teeth deep in the soft (inaudible).. fruit)  
 171 T: Read the whole sentence again. Of course...  
 172 Siy: Of course and just to prove it I buried my teeth in the soft (inaudible) fruit.  
 173 T: Read the whole sentence again. Of course,---  
 174 Siy: Of course, just to prove it I buried my teeth deep in the soft fat fruit.  
 175 T: Good next.  
 176 P: (Reads one sentence from the book).  
 177 T: Yes Nolutho?  
 178 Nol: (Reads another sentence from the book).  
 179 T: Okay, Kholekile?  
 180 Kho: (Reads another sentence).  
 181 T: Yes. Okay. Er-r. Yes, (Name inaudible)  
 182 P: (Reads two sentences and as he reads he mispronounces 'carrying').  
 183 T: Carrying, say 'carrying, carrying'  
 184 P: carrying (Teacher takes the child through a drill exercise till he pronounces the word to her satisfaction).  
 185 T: Again read the sentence: As I bent down-  
 186 P: As I bent down to pick it up, the hand carrying the handkerchief struck my knee and in a second the stone steps were a mass of banana peel.  
 187 T: Right. Er Nqala. There were eight of them-  
 188 Nqa: There were eight of them and I took my time for one thing there-  
 189 T: There's a full stop there.  
 190 Nqa: There were eight of them and I took my time. For one thing there was no hurry asaman-  
 191 T: as a man  
 192 Nqa: as as a man who is down and out has time in his hands-  
 193 T: has some time on his hands  
 194 Nqa: as as a man who is down and out has time on his hands  
 195 T: Can you read the whole sentence again?  
 196 Nqa: (Reads the sentence to the teacher's satisfaction).  
 197 T: Right. Er-r. Sipheke? I soon finished...?  
 198 Sip: I soon finished how- however put the peels back-  
 199 T: There's a comma there.  
 200 Sip: I soon finished ho- I soon finished however-  
 201 T: I soon finished, however, and put -  
 202 Sip: I soon finished, however, and put the peels back in the handkerchief and went to join the stranger on the stone-  
 203 T: There's a full stop there. (Inaudible).  
 204 Sip: I soon finished, however, and put the peels back in the handkerchief and went to join the stranger. On the st-on the sto- stone steps steps- (pronounces 'step' as if it's a verb)  
 205 T: Ha-!a Ha-!a. On the stone-  
 206 Sip: On the stone steps steps (same error of pronunciation) one of the peels fell (for 'fell') on the floor.

- 207 P's: Fell.  
208 Sip: Fell on the-  
209 T: FELL  
210 Sip: Fell  
211 T: Again.  
212 Sip: On the sto-  
213 T: AGAIN!  
214 Sip: Fell  
215 T: Yes. Read the same sentence again on the stone-  
216 Sip: (reads the sentence till the teacher is satisfied or rather tells him to stop. The same pronunciation problem with 'steps' persists, however. The same pupil also experiences a problem with differentiating the pronunciation of were and where and the teacher takes him through a pronunciation drill of the two words). The bell rings.  
217 T: Okay. I'll see you next time.

**APPENDIX 3****LISTS OF ERRORS PER TEACHER****APPENDIX 3.1    TEACHER A**

Utterance numbers indicate where errors are to be located in the text)

**Content Errors:        Maths Lesson 1**

20: 1 is a rectangle  
 28: The table  
 46: Cup- cu- cupboard has a rectangular shape  
 48: The wall has a ---  
 74: AB  
 79: Moni points out Point B instead of Side AB  
 112: Right angles  
 118: LB  
 125: LBDC  
 135: LD

**Maths Lesson 2**

1: Side A  
 20: CAB  
 22: Angle DBC  
 24: Angle CBA  
 25: Angle ABC  
 30: DB DBA  
 40: Angle DBC  
 46: It is a square

**Linguistic Errors : Maths Lesson 1**

16: We call it a breadth or width  
 24: The blackboard  
 28: The table  
 30: The top of the table it is a rectangular shape  
 32: The top of the table it has a rectangular shape  
 46: Cup-cu-cupboard has a rectangular shape  
 52: All th sides are not equal  
 70: There are four sides  
 74: AB  
 78: Or side AB  
 80: Side BC  
 82: CB

84: Side DC  
86: Side DC  
88: Side CD  
92: Side AD  
94: Side DA  
96: There are four angles  
98: The figure have four angles  
104: Right angles  
116: LB  
118: LB  
123: LC  
125: LBDC  
129: CBA  
131: CBA  
133: LCBA  
135: LD  
137: LDBA  
139: LDAB  
141: LA  
153: ...we add 90 by 90  
155: 360 degrees  
157: A square

**APPENDIX 3.2 TEACHER B****Content Errors : Agriculture :Lesson 1**

32: Onion.

**Lesson 2**

10: The pumpkin

12: The tomato

60: Carrot

**Linguistic Errors : Agriculture Lesson 1**

14: Potato

16: The potatoes

20: On the ground

**Lesson 2**

28: The beans

58: Tomato

88: the vegetables

94: the tuberous vegetable

100: the fruity vegetables

119: Root vegetable

**Content Errors : General Science : Lesson 1**

43: The moon

**Lesson 2**

127: Owl

131: Internal fertilization takes takes place outside the body

**Linguistic Errors : General Science : Lesson 1**

4: Energy is the ability to do the work

15: to move to other place

17: the energy

**Lesson 2**

8: Neck

60: Ixhwili

127: Owl

**APPENDIX 3.3: TEACHER C****Content Errors : Geography**

(None)

**Content Errors : History**

10: ... It's near Lovedale College.

**Linguistic Errors : Geography**

6: Winter. (??)

14: It is winter in the north hemisphere.

18: It is winter northern hemisphere (errors)

28: In one year we have four seasons.

**Linguistic Errors : History**

17: The printing press is where books are made.

26: The books were printed in a large place.

31: Is Lovedale Press

43: Books were printed at a large scale.

## APPENDIX 3.4 : TEACHER D

Content Errors : English : Lesson 1

36: Victoria was a nurse.

Lesson 2

20: Cabbage

82: The man eat two bananas.

Linguistic Errors : Lesson 1

32: it named after---

44: we call it nurses' home

54: My lorry is a big one and it can carry a heavy load,  
more than twenty times

86: The lorry the lorry the lorry driver tell us about---

88: The lorry driver tells the story

96: He he work in hospital

98: She work in hospital

100: She going to marry.

102: She say he live in nurses' home

108: Tom Loza is a lorry driver. She said his his lorry his--

110: His lorry his lorry carry a load, a heavy load.

112: And he says the lorry driver a lorry driver work hard

114: When he get home

116: When he gets home he eat he ate a lot of food.

118: when he getshome he ate a lot of food.

120: ... His lorry is the big oneand his lorry he carry  
heavy loads...

128: the name of woman

136: She work she work she work she work in she work in hospital

140: She nursing people is hard work

144: Or she help the people

146: She is help she is help-

152: She work in hospital

154: She she works in hospital

158: She lives in hpospital in nurses' home.

160: I will write

172: Because she said that she will be marry...

174: Because she will marry

176: Because he will marry

- 179: Because she will get married (the teacher would like them to use 'would' instead of 'will').  
 193: He is the lorry driver  
 203: When he return home he eat a---  
 205: When she---

### Lesson 2

- 1: (Pupil selects incorrect word for 'to come together')  
 5: (A second pupil does the same)  
 5: (The same thing happens for the third time)  
 34: (Incorrect meaning for aggressively given)  
 62: On the railway station (Pupil repeats error; class repeats same error twice more)  
 80: The man eat...  
 84: The man eat eight bananas  
 96: The man who had no money and who work  
 100: The man who out of luck  
 106: (Mispronunciation of 'offered')  
 108: (pupil mispronounces 'grunted')  
 110: I look again at the...  
 114: (P mispronounces 'bunch')  
 115: ('beside' is mispronounced)  
 (Despite treatment the two words are mispronounced several times)  
 168: .... Of course and just to prove it bury---  
 182: (The teacher is unhappy about the pronunciation of 'carrying')  
 188: (As the pupil reads he ignores a full stop)  
 190: .... For one thing there was no hurry asaman (no word division as the pupil reads)  
 191: as a man who is down and out has time in his hands---  
 198: (As the pupil reads he ignores commas, twice)  
 202: (Pupil ignores a full stop as he reads)  
 204: (stress on the wrong word, making the the word read as if it was a verb instead of a noun)  
 206: On the stone steps steps ...one of the peels feel (for fell) on the floor  
 216: (as the pupil is reading he mixes up the pronunciation of 'were' and 'where')

## APPENDIX 4

INTERVIEW GUIDES

In the interview schedules "R" stands for researcher and "T" for teacher.

The questions put to the teacher are basically the same as they were all involved in the same kind of activity, and differ only slightly here and there. For instance one of the differences is in the questions put to them with reference to their handling of errors.

## APPENDIX 4.1 : INTERVIEW WITH TEACHER A

R: Well Maam, we have both listened to the tape recording of your lessons. As I said to you before it played, I wanted us to listen specifically to the mistakes made by your pupils. Also, I said I am interested in the way you dealt with those mistakes. Fine?

T: Fine, Maam.

R: As you were listening to the tape did you notice any errors that you did not 'correct'?

T: Yes, there were some.

R: Did you notice whether they were content or language errors?

T: Well I noticed some language ones that I didn't correct, but I didn't notice the content ones.

R: Yes, I also noticed that it was errors that had to do with language that you did not always pay attention to. For instance, sometimes you wanted the pupils to use full sentences, or call parts of the figures on the board by their names, sometimes not. Would you agree with me that those were the errors you neglected sometimes in your lessons?

T: That's true, Maam. I don't always correct mistakes like that when the pupils make them.

R: Do you have any special reason for this?

T: I do not regard these errors as serious for most of the pupils, that is why I don't concentrate on them all the time. Another thing is that in Maths you are not expected to use sentences most of the time. It is important for them to know and to name the figures and

- their parts correctly, however. They must know their proper names in order to do this. So when they don't say their names I become worried and feel that I should correct them.
- R: When you pay attention to language mistakes, do you have any specific reason to do so as a content subject teacher?
- T: Well, I think language is important in content subjects as well, because the children learn their content subjects in English. In order for them to understand these, for instance, Maths, I think they have to know English, because it is taught in this language. Another thing with me, I trained as an English teacher at college, so maybe that's why I think it is important for the children to learn it even in content subjects.
- R: I also noticed that when you corrected mistakes you did this in different ways. Tell me, did you get any training in this when you trained as a teacher?
- T: No, I did not get any special training at all, but er I think er in subjects like Maths, the teacher must make sure the children are not afraid because if they are frightened of the teacher they cannot think. Another thing, I believe that when one way fails you must try another one.
- R: Maam, can you tell me how long you have been teaching at this school, and if you taught at other schools before coming here?
- T: Well, er-r, I've been here for about five years now, and it was the first school I taught at after training
- R: Finally, are you aware of the fact that although you teach a content subject you are expected to help with the teaching of English through your own subject?
- T: As I have already said, Maam, I have been an English teacher before, and I know that, at least teachers of content subjects should help the teachers of English, because the children only learn English at school.
- R: Well, Maam, thank you for letting me talk to you about your classes and what takes place there. I wish you luck with your teaching.

APPENDIX 4.2 : INTERVIEW WITH TEACHER B

- R: Mfundisi, if you remember, before we started listening to the tape I asked that you should try and listen to the pupils as they talked in your class, and if you notice that there are mistakes that you missed while you were teaching the lesson, you should please mention them to me. Now, are there any that you noticed you had missed?
- T: No, Maam, I did not notice any that I did not hear at first.
- R: Tishala (Xhosa for Teacher), when you teach and your pupils make language and content mistakes what do you normally do about it?
- T: You know Maam, I I I always think that it is my duty to to correct them when they make mistakes in the content, because they will not get any chance to know their subject if I don't tell them the correct thing. So I try to correct their mistakes all the time.
- R: Alright now, What about language errors? Would you regard the correction of language errors in the subjects you teach in English as being of particular importance?
- T: Not really.
- R: Why would you say this when your own subject is taught through the medium of English?
- T: Well, well, well Maam, You see, I don't think all teachers are going to correct children well. Another thing the children can say the facts correctly although the English is not very correct.
- R: I notice that when you teach you often explain things to the children in Xhosa, although they are supposed to learn your subject in English. Why do you do this?
- T: As I said before the children must know er er these subjects in order to pass examinations. Sometimes they don't understand in English, and, therefore, I explain in Xhosa. After this they they understand and they use their English to answer the questions.
- R: Are you aware that one of the requirements of stated in the Std V English Syllabus is that you should help the pupils to improve their English through your subject?

T: No. Also there is not enough time to to teach English during my periods because er er when the children fail my subjects the parents and the government will blame me if I didn't finish the syllabus.

R: But don't you think that if your children could learn English in your subjects, especially that language which is mostly used in these subjects, they could do even better in them?

T: Well, er maybe. But still they pass because they understand better in their own language.

R: Did dealing with the pupils' errors in your class form part of your teacher training?

T: No, it did not.

R: Tishala, thank you very much for your time and for letting me sit in your class.

APPENDIX 4.4 : INTERVIEW WITH TEACHER C

R: Sir, I hope that you were able to notice if there were any errors that you missed perhaps, which occurred during your History and Geography lessons when you listened to the tape.

T: Well in the first place they did not have much time to make mistakes because the answers to most questions were in the lesson they were taught.

R: I noticed in the History lesson that you asked pupils questions to see if they understood meanings of certain words. Is this of special importance to you?

T: Yes, I can say it is. For instance, if they don't understand certain terms they may not get a clear picture of what I am talking about. Let's let's say for example, when they think about a scale, like when I asked them what I mean when I say, 'Books were printed at a large scale', they think about the scale for weighing things. It is important that they know what this means. That is why I told them when they answered incorrectly.

R: Now, tell me, sir, do you regard that as a language error or as a content one?

T: It is a language error, but it will affect the content if I do not pay attention to it.

R: How important do you feel correcting language errors is in your content classroom?

T: I think it is very important that we as teachers of content subjects must correct the children's language mistakes because this can only be done at school. Also the English teacher cannot know all the mistakes that the pupils make in our classes because she is not there when they make them. Our children sometimes fail exams because they are not good at English. Sometimes even we as teachers do not always correct them because of time. But we must try our best to do this.

R: There is something I noticed when you were teaching. when you were presenting your lessons for Geography and History, I noticed that you asked more questions and the children were more involved in Geography than in History.. Could you tell me why this is so?

T: Well, I think when I when I teach History I feel there must be fewer questions so that the children can hear the events that were taking place continuously. History is like a story. On the other hand in Geography there is no need for this. Geography is a science subject and it has a lot of facts.

R: I noticed that there were a few errors that you did not correct when you were teaching, are there any special reasons why you did this?

T: Well, I can say that there are different reasons for this. Sometimes I do not even notice that the child has made a mistake because I am concentrating on whether he understands the facts. Sometimes I am not aware that what the child has said is incorrect when it comes to language because English is not my mother tongue.

R: When you trained as a teacher did you happen to receive any training in the treatment or correction of errors?

T: No, I did not receive any training that is what you mean on teaching.

R: Well, Sir thank you very much for your time and your openness in your answers.

APPENDIX 4.4 : INTERVIEW WITH TEACHER D

- R: Miss, I hope you were able to see if there were errors that you did not pay attention to during your teaching, that is, those you either missed or did not correct intentionally. Did you observe any?
- T: Ye-es. In fact I left out some errors because sometimes I found that the pupil had a number of errors at the same time. So sometimes I pretend not to notice other errors while I am concentrate on others. If I try to correct many mistakes at the same time I find that it confuses the pupils. Some of the mistakes that I did not worry about I am always trying to correct because they keep on appearing in the children's language.
- R: I found in your lessons for comprehension that when you were asking a question on the content of the passage, even when the answer was correct, if the language was not quite correct, you would ask the class or the child to correct the language. Why is this important when you are dealing with content?
- T: Since this is a language class I always feel that I have to correct language mistakes, but I don't always correct all of them. Sometimes you will notice that if the language in the answer is not correct, the content is also affected. So I think it is important to correct language errors even when I am dealing with content.
- R: One of the things I noticed when you attended to errors in your class, you used different methods of correction. For instance you encouraged your pupils to correct their own mistakes. Do you think there is something to be gained by this method?
- T: I believe that when the pupils correct their own mistakes they think more about them and, therefore, they will not forget easily what you tell them. Also, I have found that sometimes when they commit errors it is not because they don't know the right answer, but they are just careless. So when you give them another chance to answer the question they say the correct thing. Also, if they know what is wrong with their answers they can remember the rule later.
- R: I have noticed that you also let others correct the errors made by their classmates. Is there any special reason for this?

- T: This gives me an opportunity to see if the problem affect other members of the class or just the pupil who made the mistake. What I usually do is that if others still don't know correct answer, I explained to the whole class . Sometimes even stop what I was teaching so that I can try and help them to understand the structure that is a problem.
- R: Can you tell me if your professional training included being trained to correct errors when they occurred in your class?
- T: No, I didn't have any special training in error-treatment.
- R: So where did you acquire your skills for reacting to your pupils' errs as you do, because I have noticed that you use different ways of correction.
- T: Most of what I do is from experience. I have used trial and error in whatever I do in class. Also I usually try to correct errors the way my teachers used to do with me, both when I was at school and when I was in training school.
- R: Well, Miss, thank you very much for your time and patience.