

**THE COMPARATIVE CASE STUDY OF THE USE OF ENGLISH
AND ISIXHOSA AS MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION IN A GRADE
FIVE CLASS**

THESIS

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to compare the quality of oral interaction between a grade 5 class and their teacher when either English or isiXhosa was used as medium of instruction in two different lessons and of their writing which arose out of the lessons. The research was carried out within the interpretive paradigm and took the form of a case study. The researcher took the stance of being a non-participant observer. A variety of techniques were used to collect data, namely, piloting, video recording and transcribing lessons, observing and making field notes, questionnaires and an interview. The interview was recorded and transcribed by the researcher. The two lessons were transcribed and analysed. Also the learners' writing was analysed. The findings of this study showed that learners have little competence in English compared to isiXhosa. As a result most of them used short and vague sentences when responding to and discussing pictures in English. They also used short and simple sentences when writing in English compared to isiXhosa. Although this is a small-scale study it is recommended that the school's language policy is revised and teachers are equipped with necessary skills, which would help them teach English to second language learners effectively. It is also recommended that the learners' first language continue to be well taught even if it is no longer the classroom language.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ACRONYM/ ABBREVIATION	MEANING
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CUP	Common Underlying Proficiency
ESL	English as a Second Language
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LiEP	Language in Education Policy
LEP	Limited English Proficiency
LoLT	Language of Learning and Teaching
MOI	Medium of Instruction
PRAESA	Project for the study of Alternative Education in South Africa
SUP	Separate Underlying Proficiency
TPR	Total Physical Response
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

CHAPTER 1

1.1 INTRODUCTION

South Africa is a diverse country of many people with different languages. Some of these languages are similar to each other (for example, English and Afrikaans; isiXhosa and isiZulu) but others (English and isiXhosa) are not, they are non-cognate.

The new language in education policy of 1997 promotes multilingualism and an additive approach to bilingualism, whereby an additional language is developed without replacing the first language (L1). According to the policy document (1997), learners have the right to choose the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) and school governing bodies are the key partners in the pursuit of this goal. It also requires each school governing body to formulate its own school language policy.

According to the report of a research team from Rhodes and Fort Hare Universities into school language policy in four districts in the Eastern Cape Province (Zinn et al 2002), it was discovered that over 75% of the schools had heard about the language in education policy (LiEP). However, slightly more than half (52%) of the schools had discussed the question of language policy and less than half (37%) had decided on a formal policy. With regard to the language of learning and teaching, the majority of schools have taken isiXhosa as LoLT in the Foundation Phase (Grade 1 to Grade 3), switching to English in Grade 4, the beginning of the Intermediate Phase. The switch to English medium is thus occurring a year earlier than under previous LiEP.

The situation in the school where the research described in this thesis took place is different. During the time of the research the school had not decided on a formal language policy. It was still using the old LiEP. Up to and including grade 4, learners only used English during English periods. After grade 4 English was the official medium of instruction (MOI) but there was a lot of code switching into isiXhosa.

This research was motivated by my experience of teaching through the medium of English to isiXhosa speaking learners where I observed that they struggled to express themselves and they found it difficult to write in English. So it was my concern as to how these learners would cope with learning many subjects in English.

The school is located in an area close to the centre of Berlin, about 30km from East London. It is co-educational and caters for learners from grade 1 to grade 7. The school is equipped with old classroom furniture. It is physically divided into two blocks. The first block has five classes and the second block has two classes. The school has electricity but has no staff room or office. The principal shares a classroom with the grade 5 or sometimes the grade 1 class. There is no library in the school.

All learners in the school are isiXhosa-speaking children living with isiXhosa-speaking guardians. At home these learners do not have the chance to use English because most of them live with their grandparents, who cannot speak English nor can they read or write. Outside the school when playing they communicate in isiXhosa. The teachers, too, are isiXhosa speakers and English is their second language (L2). They use isiXhosa when communicating with each other and in staff meetings.

The following are the goals of my research:-

- to compare the nature of classroom interaction when English is used as LoLT with that where learners' home language (isiXhosa) is used as LoLT,
- to explore the quality of learners' writing in both English and their home language in these different settings.

This thesis consists of five chapters and is organised in the following format:- The first chapter provides an introduction to the research. The goals are outlined and the structure of the thesis is provided. Chapter 2 is a review of selected literature on bilingualism as

well as biliteracy. Chapter 3 describes the research methods employed. Chapter 4 features data collected in the study and the data are analysed. Findings are also discussed. Chapter 5 attempts to draw conclusions from the findings and contains some recommendations. Appendices are also included together with a list of references.

CHAPTER 2

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and discusses literature on bilingual education. Because the focus is on bilingual children, I will start by explaining bi/multilingualism and the South African language in education policy, which supports additive bilingualism. I will also refer to literature on biliteracy, since in addition to investigating classroom interaction in two languages, I will also be comparing learners' writing in English and in isiXhosa.

2.2 BI/ MULTILINGUALISM

2.2.1 What is bi/ multilingualism?

Bilingualism or multilingualism is a world-wide phenomenon. Bloomfield (1933) refers to bilingualism as native-like control of two languages whereas Williams and Snipper (1990: 33) define bilingualism as "a person's ability to process two languages." Edwards (1994) and Khan (1994) pay attention to the different functions which the two languages tend to serve in different contexts. Ellis (1994: 11) argues that, "Many learners are multilingual in the sense that in addition to their first language they have acquired some competence in more than one non-primary language." South Africa is a good example of a country that promotes multilingualism. Many black learners acquire many languages besides their primary language (their mother tongue). So it is the second, third or additional language/s that makes them multilingual. MacNamara (1967) proposes that learners need only possess a minimal competence in their additional language in one of the four language skills: listening comprehension, speaking, reading and writing. I will now turn to the question of bi/multilingualism in education.

2.2.2 Bi/ multilingualism in education

Children gain a deeper understanding of language and how to use it effectively if they continue to develop their abilities in more than one language throughout their primary years. According to Wong Fillmore (1991), children who have the opportunity to speak two languages should be encouraged to maintain both, so they can enjoy the benefits that may accompany bilingual status. Children from homes where English is not the native language should be encouraged to cultivate their home language as well as English. If children do not maintain their home language, they risk losing the ability to communicate well with their family members.

Ruiz (1988) distinguishes three orientations towards multilingualism, which he refers to as language as problem, language as right and, lastly, language as resource. The last orientation is evident in the current South African language policy. In it, individuals view multilingualism as a social and individual resource that can reap economic, political, social and individual benefits. In the South African context, the orientation to language as a resource refers to the preservation of languages other than English. This clearly means that all children who speak languages other than English have home languages that can be used as a resource, particularly at school.

The current Language in Education Policy (Department of Education, 1997) that was announced by the then Minister of Education in South Africa gives support to multilingualism. By multilingualism the minister meant “the learning of more than one language rather than more than two languages” and also the maintenance “of home language(s) while providing access to the acquisition of additional language(s)” (Bhengu 1997:1). The policy rests upon the right of the learner to choose the language of learning and teaching.

2.3 CURRENT LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION POLICY

The emphasis of the new Language in Education Policy (Department of Education, 1997) is that it promotes multilingualism and recognises diversity in education in accordance with the principles of the new Constitution. It also promotes the official status of the eleven languages used in South Africa. According to the new Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), the eleven official languages are:- English, Afrikaans, isiZulu, isiXhosa, isiNdebele, seSotho, seTswana, SePedi, siSwati, tshiVenda and xiTsonga. This gives every person the right to basic education in the language of his/her choice where this is reasonably practical.

The policy states that, "... the underlying principle is to maintain home language(s) while providing access to and the effective acquisition of additional language(s)...an additive approach to bilingualism is to be seen as a normal orientation of our language-in-education policy" (Department of Education 1997: 3). In other words the policy gives emphasis to the recognition of other languages while maintaining the home language.

The policy also states that schools may choose any of the country's official languages as the language(s) of instruction and the other language(s) as subjects. Although schools are not prevented from choosing English as MOI and Afrikaans as a subject, they are expected to implement their language programmes in ways that explore additive approaches to bilingualism and prevent mismatches occurring between the languages of the school and the children's home languages (Department of Education, 1997).

In South Africa many schools have not changed their language policies. In some formerly White, Indian and Coloured schools, African languages are only now being introduced as subjects. Brown (1998) in his study of schools in three heterogeneous language areas of KwaZulu Natal found out that in the former Model C schools which had large and increasing number of African pupils, they introduced isiZulu as a third language not as a LoLT. However, "as a result of resistance from African parents" (Brown 1998: 15) even

this was dropped. Although, Brown does not explore the reasons for this, it seems likely that parents may have considered it a waste of time for their children to learn their home language as a third language.

The de facto policies of schools are also influenced by perceptions of the value of English as a language of socio-economic power and mobility (Vinjevold 1999). According to Vinjevold, the Project for the Study of Alternative Education in South Africa (PRAESA) visits to township primary schools in the Western Cape confirm a widely reported drift towards the use of English the 'earlier the better'. She also quoted Sesati's study where she found that all six primary schools in her study in Gauteng had adopted English as language of learning throughout the school. She further quoted Sigabi's study of Grade 1 classes in the same province, in which it was found that teachers used one of the African languages as LoLT, but English was extensively used and encouraged.

In the report presented by Rhodes/Fort Hare research team into School Language Policy in four districts in the Eastern Cape Province (Zinn et al 2002), it was discovered that not all schools were implementing the new LiEP although three quarters of the schools were aware of this policy. This is also the case in the school where the research for this thesis took place. The school had heard about this new LiEP, but it had not decided yet on implementing it. It is still using the old language policy. Having looked at language in education policy, I now move on to bilingual education where I will talk about additive and subtractive bilingualism.

2.4 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

2.4.1 Additive and subtractive bilingualism

Additive bilingualism, as described by Lambert (1974) quoted in Ellis (1994), is where learners maintain their (L1), adding their L2 to their linguistic repertoire. This is supported by Luckett (1995) when she states that additive bilingualism means the gaining of competence in the L2 while the L1 is maintained. This clearly means that the L2 never replaces the home language in education; rather it is seen as complementary to the home

language throughout. Examples of additive bilingualism are those 'immersion' programmes in Canada where English-speaking children are taught through the medium of French. Although the children in school are immersed in French, their L1 is never replaced. It continues to be supported in education and the wider environment. Evaluation of immersion programmes, according to Baker (1993: 204) shows that "literacy in French is acquired at no cost to literacy in English. In this additive, majority language context, a child may acquire literacy through the second language at no cost to literacy in the first language."

It is better to follow the bilingual approach where the L2 is added to the home language. This approach enables children to express themselves in their home language as well as the L2, which in South Africa is generally English. In this approach children will not lose their home language, and they will have a strong foundation for learning their additional language.

Bloch (1999: 58) states that in South Africa, "The new language policy promotes additive approaches to bilingualism in the interests of facilitating access to meaningful education for all children." She continues by saying, "as schools and families think of these approaches, they would hopefully realise the need to commit themselves to sustaining and nurturing children's home languages in both their spoken and their written forms."

On the other hand, subtractive bilingualism, according to Lockett (1995) occurs when the L2 is learned at the expense of the child's L1. When the home language is replaced with the L2 (English), it is referred to as subtractive bilingualism. If, on the other hand, the child has a sound proficiency in the home language and is exposed to good quality English language teaching (as a subject) there is a good chance that the child will become a proficient learner of both languages.

In addition, Baker (1993: 204) asserts that, "in a subtractive environment, the transfer of literacy may more efficiently be acquired through the home, heritage, minority language." Literacy can be built up via the higher level of language skills in the home

language rather than through the weaker language (English). When literacy is attempted through the L2, the child's oracy skills in their home language may be insufficiently developed for such acquisition to occur.

I will now discuss in more detail the transfer of knowledge and skills from one language to another.

2.5 LANGUAGE TRANSFERABILITY

Transfer, according to Williams and Snipper (1990: 44) means "building on what students know in their native language to teach new skills in the second language." They continue by saying, "Transfer is a process that would take place over the entire time that it takes the preliterate student to become literate and the literate student to become biliterate" (Williams and Snipper 1990: 45). The underlying assumption in early work on bilingualism, according to Williams and Snipper, was that proficiency in the native language was separate from proficiency in the L2. Cummins (1981) cited in Williams and Snipper (1990) refers to this as Separate Underlying Proficiency model (SUP). According to this model, achievement in the L2 was unrelated to the native language and was based on L2 exposure. To replace this model, Cummins suggests that bilinguals have a Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) to their languages. Bilinguals express this underlying proficiency in both the native language and L2. According to the CUP model, the skills, concepts and knowledge learned in the L1 can be accessed in other languages, so there is no need to relearn the acquired knowledge. As Williams and Snipper (1990: 54) put it, "concepts known in one language are transferable to the other. If concepts are learned in the stronger language, they can later be expressed in the L2, not necessitating relearning." The CUP makes possible the transfer of cognitive and academic literacy related skills across languages (Cummins 1983).

Cummins (1988: 44), writing about Spanish-speaking children learning English says, "Spanish instruction that develops Spanish reading and writing skills (for either Spanish L1 or L2 speakers) is not just developing Spanish skills, it is also developing a deeper

conceptual and linguistic proficiency that is strongly related to the development of literacy in the majority language (English).” Based on this hypothesis Williams and Snipper (1990: 42) take this argument a step further by saying, “...as children master reading, they will be able to learn to read in the other language as well, without as much effort.”

Cummins (1988) further hypothesised that language proficiency can be classified into Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). He states that BICS are the skills required for oral fluency. They are basic in the sense that they develop naturally as a result of exposure to a language through communication. CALP, on the other hand, consists of the linguistic knowledge and literacy skills. Cummins contends that Limited English Proficiency (LEP) students first need to develop English skills in BICS, followed by CALP over a period of five to seven years. This, according to Baker (1993: 138), means that, “a child’s language-cognitive abilities need to be sufficiently well developed to cope with the curriculum processes of the classroom. This underlying ability could be developed in the first or the second language, but also in both languages simultaneously.”

The section below concentrates on the effects of bilingualism.

2.6 THE THRESHOLD THEORY

Originally, the threshold theory was proposed by Toukoma and Skutnabb-Kangas (1977). It was developed in an attempt to deal with the inconsistency in findings regarding bilingual children’s cognitive ability. It was later refined by Cummins (1978) and was based on their examination of issues relating to the education of minority children. It was concerned with establishing at what point bilingualism can be seen to lead to positive cognitive consequences. It represents the idea of two thresholds in the level of the bilinguals’ linguistic competence. The first level (lower threshold) must be reached in at least one language in order to avoid the negative effects of bilingualism and the second level (higher threshold) must be reached in both languages in order to accrue

positive benefits. If the child’s level of bilingualism in either one or both languages lies between the two levels then there are neither positive nor negative effects on cognitive abilities. Some studies show that if students do not reach certain threshold in their L1, including literacy, they may experience cognitive difficulties in their L2.

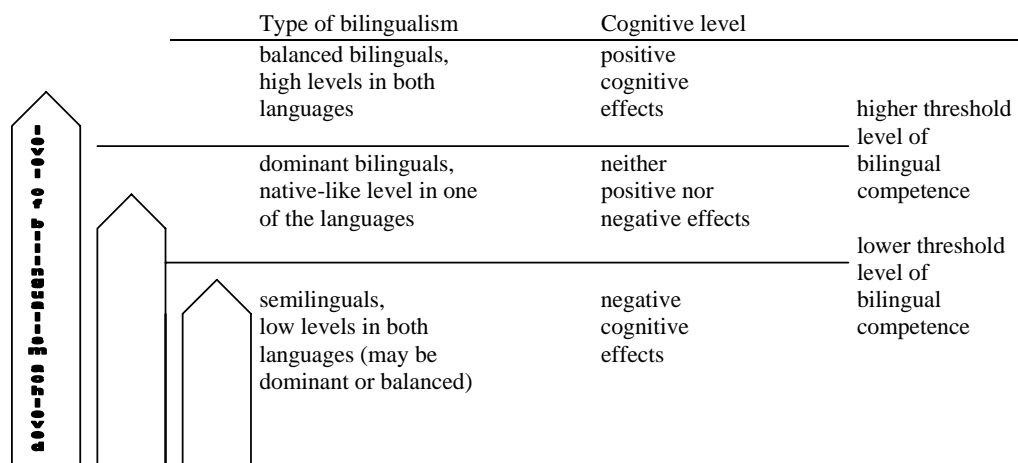


Figure 2.1. Schematic representation of the Threshold Hypothesis, showing cognitive effects of different types of bilingualism (adapted from Toukoma and Skutnab-Kangas 1977: 29)

When the children’s L1 has low prestige, as is generally the case with minority languages, language development is not stimulated outside the school, so this is the task of the education system. In South Africa, African languages are not minority languages in terms of numbers of speakers. However, they have a lower status than English. They tend to be used in the home and for everyday activities. English is the prestigious language used for higher status activities and, very importantly, it is the language of literacy and the language of record. African languages therefore have something in common with minority languages.

“Learning to read and write in one’s own language first seems to be the best possible way to allow the child’s language learning abilities to develop and flourish” (Macdonald 1991: 30). When minority children only learn to read and write in the majority language,

then the minority language “must almost inevitably be considered a second rate means of communication. It is not far from that conclusion to the conclusion that those who speak the home language are second rate people” (Christian 1976 quoted in Appel and Muysken 1987: 61). We can see this in South Africa. Poor, rural and working class people use African languages exclusively. Educated, wealthy people use both English and African languages in their lives and often mix the two.

The section below attempts to describe the interrelated development of both languages and the different levels of bilingual competence more comprehensively.

2.7 DEVELOPMENTAL INTERDEPENDENCE HYPOTHESIS

The developmental interdependence hypothesis accounts for successful L2 acquisition by children instructed in their L1 for a considerable part of the curriculum. Cummins (1979) was the first to posit that literacy abilities as well as content knowledge acquired in the mother tongue will transfer to the L2. He suggests that, “the level of L2 competence which a bilingual child attains is partially a function of the type of competence the child has developed in L1 at the time when intensive exposure to L2 begins” (Cummins 1979: 233). This means that once skills are learned, they will transfer globally from one language to another. The academic achievements of students from bilingual programmes will be higher than those of minority language students from monolingual schools.

In support of this hypothesis Lemmon & Goggin (1989) found that when bilinguals scored high on a reading test in their mother tongue they would also score high on cognitive tasks in both languages. “In addition to the higher level of language skills required to interpret written text, it is also important to recognise that academic success requires such strategies as listening or reading for the main point, generalising, ... they apparently transfer quite readily to academic tasks in a different language” (Saville-Troike 1991: 4).

Having dealt with the transfer of languages, I will now discuss the development of children who grow up as bilinguals.

2.8 BILINGUAL CHILDREN

It is important to realise that as a child is learning the L2, one language may predominate because the child is using that language more than the other at a given time. It is rare for bilinguals to have both languages in balance. Yet, most bilingual children will reach age-level proficiency in their dominant language given adequate exposure and opportunities for use.

Cook (1992) argues that all L2 learners access their L1 while processing the L2. According to him, “the L2 user does not effectively switch off the L1 while processing the L2, but has it constantly available” (1992: 571). He also maintains that when working with the L2 learners, teachers must not treat the L2 in isolation from the L1. According to Cook, one cannot do so. He states that “the L1 is present in the L2 learners’ minds, whether the teacher wants it to be there or not. The L2 knowledge that is being created in them is connected in all sorts of ways with their L1 knowledge” (1992: 584). Research suggests that bilingual children may develop more flexibility in their thinking as a result of processing information through the two languages.

McClure (1977) asserts that while some children acquiring a L2 appear at first to confuse the two languages, code switching is, in fact, a normal aspect of L2 acquisition. He continues by saying that young bilingual children tend to insert single items from one language into the other, primarily to resolve ambiguities and clarify statements.

The amount of exposure bilingual children get to English is an important issue. Some research has been carried out in Eastern Cape primary schools similar to the one in this study, which gives some indication of the amount of exposure children get to English at home and at school (Zinn et al 2002). The report states that languages are used in the schools for different purposes. It also states that the language that is most commonly used

in assembly is isiXhosa or a mixture of isiXhosa and English. In the playground, isiXhosa only is used in the interaction between learners. In interactions between teachers and learners a mixture of isiXhosa and English is more likely to be used. At home in interactions with parents, isiXhosa is the language most commonly used. This suggests that children get considerably more exposure to isiXhosa than to English. I will discuss exposure to English and isiXhosa at school in more detail in the next section.

2.9 SCHOOL LANGUAGE PRACTICES

With regard to the LoLT, according to the team of researchers into School Language Policy (Zinn et al 2002), the majority of schools in the Eastern Cape have taken isiXhosa as LoLT in the Foundation Phase (Grade 1 to 3), switching to English in Grade 4, the beginning of the Intermediate Phase. The switch to English medium is thus occurring a year earlier than under previous LiEPs.

The report reveals that isiXhosa is the dominant language of most primary schools. For example, in school meetings either isiXhosa or a mixture of isiXhosa and English is used. The less formal the meeting, the more likely isiXhosa is used.

The report also indicated that in the rural schools observed, isiXhosa was the language of communication outside the school, although English became the official language of the classroom after the first two or three years of school. In one of the rural districts observed it was discovered that in the classroom discourse learners and teachers sometimes code switch because learners' English is not good enough and learners do not understand. It is also indicated that learners have little opportunity to speak English outside their classroom, at school or at home.

The amount and quality of input learners get (which makes language learning possible) depends on the amount of exposure they get to the language and the quality of that exposure. The question of input is discussed in the next section.

2.10 THE INPUT HYPOTHESIS

Language learning cannot occur without some input. The Input Hypothesis is concerned with acquisition. L2 learners acquire language from interacting with other language users. Krashen (1982) claims that learners acquire language in one way, that is by understanding messages or by receiving what he calls 'comprehensible input'. He argues that a learner acquires by understanding language that contains structures a bit beyond his/her current level of competence through the help of extra-linguistic information such as context and knowledge of the world to help him/her understand the new items in the input. He refers to this input as 'i + 1' where 'i' is the current knowledge of a learner and '1' is slightly in advance of the current level. For example, if a learner is at a stage 'i', then acquisition takes place when he/she is exposed to 'Comprehensible Input' that belongs to level 'i+ 1'.

In Krashen's view, simplified codes, caretaker speech and teacher talk facilitate acquisition by making input more comprehensible. According to Krashen, the main task of a language teacher is to facilitate language acquisition by creating the right linguistic environment. Learners need to be exposed to meaningful language in and outside the classroom, by listening to and interacting with their teachers and peers in their L2. There is likely to be a good comprehensible input if there is plenty of learner talk as well as teacher talk, since negotiation of input is an important feature of comprehensible input. Huizenga (1990: 147) argues that teachers may use "expansions, repetitions or paraphrase; they may simplify their vocabulary, articulate more carefully than normal and so on". It may also be noted that the idea of comprehensible input comes from studies of home language acquisition and does not only apply to learners' new language.

The teacher can make use of Total Physical Response (TPR) method if the learners are still at stage 'i'. TPR, according to Asher (1977) quoted in Ellis (1994) is a method based mainly on the use of oral commands that students have to listen to and carry out. TPR allows learners to acquire vocabulary in a manner similar to how a child learns his or her L1. All language input is immediately comprehensible, often hands-on, and allows

learners to pass through a silent period whereby they build a comprehension base before ever being asked to speak. It can be concluded, therefore, that to become competent bilinguals children not only need a strong foundation of language and literacy in the home language, they also need comprehensible input (both oral and written) in their additional language. The section below discusses the value of mother tongue in education.

2.11 THE VALUE OF MOTHER TONGUE EDUCATION

Learning in the mother tongue provides a strong foundation for all other learning. Children who come to school with a strong foundation in their mother tongue develop stronger literacy abilities in the school language. Macdonald (1991: 30) states that, “a thorough first language course gets children off to a good start in education because the language provides a bridge between the child’s home and the demands of the new environment of the school.” She goes on to say that, at school children can say what they think if they are allowed to speak the language they know. They can express their own ideas and can be creative but if they have to learn a new language, they are put into a kind of prison. They cannot tell the teacher what they think because they do not have the words to say it.

“Once they are well equipped mentally in their first language, children can transfer their skills and knowledge to a second language with reasonable ease” (Macdonald 1991:31). Similarly, Cummins (1991) states that conceptual knowledge developed in one language help to make input in the other language comprehensibly. This clearly means that if a child already understands certain concepts in her own language, all she has to do is to acquire the label of those terms in English.

Saville-Troike (1991: 2) maintains that, “When students begin learning a second language, they do not start learning all over again, but interpret meaning in terms of what they already know-not just about language, but about the context in which it is being used, and about strategies for social interaction.” This clearly means that the process of

L2 learning depends on prior experience and also on the nature and level of the development of L1. Skutnab-Kangas (1994) argues that all people can identify positively with their mother tongue and have that identification accepted and respected by others whether their mother tongue is a minority language.

This leads to the next section, which deals with the discussion on instruction in the mother tongue.

2.12 MOTHER TONGUE INSTRUCTION

South African policy makers support mother tongue instruction for the early years (Bengu 1997). The research described above supports this policy. According to Rodseth (1995) quoted in Vinjevold (1999), it is not only European and American research which supports mother tongue instruction. He quotes south Nigeria as an example of a country that carried out research into the use of mother tongue instruction until secondary school; better results were produced in the schools that did this than with early-exit bilingualism.

Cummins and Corson (1997) in their Encyclopedia of Language and Education similarly, reported the Six Year Primary Ile Ife project in Nigeria, which investigated the issue of MOI. According to them the project proved that the child's L1 would not hinder the development of L2. Learners were grouped into experimental classes and a control group. In the former the children's mother tongue (Yoruba) was used throughout the primary grades and in the latter, the children's mother tongue was used in the first three years with the fourth year as the transitional year where either Yoruba or English was used. This project proved that the learners lost nothing but gained more cognitively and linguistically if they were exposed to the six years of primary education through the medium of Yoruba. The exposure to Yoruba as the MOI and English as L2 for the six years did not in any way adversely affect achievement in secondary and tertiary levels of education. "... the learners' exposure to English as a second language placed them at an advantage as compared with their peers who used English as a medium of instruction" (Cummins and Corson 1997: 29).

To support this research, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) report (1953) quoted in Appel and Muysken (1987: 61) states that, “The first language of the child must be used as the initial medium of instruction to ensure that academic progress is not hindered, while the majority language can be learned as a subject.” On the other hand the straight for English approach has negative effects on the child’s academic development. Zambia, for example has chosen this approach. Macdonald (1991) states that, in Zambia, right from grade one children learn everything in English. This includes how to read and write. Children are supposed to hear English in the class although they enter school without any knowledge of English. Research in Zambian schools, according to Macdonald (1991: 27) has shown that “children in the third year of school cannot read at all because they have to become literate in a language (English) which is not related with the language which they know.” She says that although these learners are educated in English, they find it difficult to explain in Bemba (their L1) what they have learned in English and that they cannot even express in English the ideas they know in Bemba. As a result of these findings, Zambia is now implementing a home language literacy programme in grade 1 in all primary schools using the Molteno Breakthrough to Literacy approach (Murray 2000).

2.13 THE RELATION BETWEEN L2 INDIVIDUAL’S READING AND WRITING ABILITIES TO L1

Before I tackle this part, I think it is worth explaining the meaning of writing. Newman (1984) sees writing as a complex activity in which a number of discrete processes and skills are ‘orchestrated’ simultaneously. Hamp-Lyons (1990) cited in O’Malley and Valdez Pierce (1996) refers to writing as a personal act in which writers take ideas or prompts and transform them into ‘self-initiated’ topics.

About reading and writing abilities Lanauze and Snow (1989: 337) state that, “language skills acquired in a first language can, at least if developed beyond a certain point in L1, be recruited at relatively early stages of L2 acquisition for relatively skilled performance

in L2, thus shortcutting the normal developmental progression in L2.” According to Macdonald (1991: 34) “...children can very easily learn to read and write in their mother tongue, and then transfer skills to the second language. It is much more difficult to start with the second language because children have to struggle with the meaning of words, and the forming of grammatical structures at the same time as learning to read and write.” She further states that reading and writing for young children is very demanding on their mental ‘space’ and so it is very difficult to combine this with learning L2 at the same time. To her, doing this is a slow process and children will experience few feelings of success. Learning to read and write in the mother tongue will bring a great feeling of success, and encourage children to continue in school.

Smith (1994) states that it is easier to learn to read in a familiar language. Once children learn to read in one language, they can read in general. Goodman et al (1979) quoted in Bloch (1999) support Smith by saying that learning to read in one’s home language will be easier than learning to read the L2, specifically. They say that it becomes possible to predict the written form as the learner brings to the task of learning to read his/her native language a syntactic and semantic knowledge of the language. The following section will concentrate on literacy of bilingual children.

2.14 BILINGUAL LITERACY

Literacy plays an important role in bilingual development. Both literacy and bilingual experience foster the development of metalinguistic awareness, which plays a crucial role in enhancing cognitive development. “Literacy must therefore be considered an important component in the cognitive development of bilingual children” (Hamers & Blanc 2000: 104-5). When a community values literacy, children learn to read more easily. Clay (1976) quoted in Hamers and Blanc (2000: 104) observes that “in New Zealand English medium schools Samoan children are more successful in learning to read than Maori children; the author attributes these results to the greater valorisation of literacy in the Samoan community.”

Auerbach (1993: 19) argues that, “Starting with the L1 provides a sense of security and validates the learners’ lived experiences, allowing them to express themselves. The learner is then willing to experiment and take risks with English.” Moreover, Cummins (1979) states that instruction that develops reading and writing in L1 is not just developing linguistic skills in that language, but it is also developing a deeper conceptual linguistic proficiency that can transfer to the L2.

Children perform better in school when the school effectively teaches the mother tongue and where appropriate develops literacy in that language. Literacy development and academic skills developed in L1 will all transfer to the L2. As students develop their written communication skills in the L2, they can demonstrate their knowledge base developed in the L1. According to Rodseth (1978: 101), “Without adequate vernacular literacy skills, second language teachers have a poor foundation on which to build and pupils are denied the advantage by being able to transfer their literacy skills.” He writes that when a child is engaged by early vernacular literacy work, s/he is bound to be eager to move to the L2 situation. But if a child lacks confidence in a vernacular literacy work s/he will be defeated before s/he starts L2 literacy work. According to him, “Feelings of confidence and power; a love of reading and writing; a clear understanding in the earliest stages that reading and writing are meaningful and exciting communication activities ... all these are surely transferable” (Rodseth 1978: 105).

Bloch (1999) has quoted a teacher who experimented with an isiXhosa speaking child who attended a white school. The child could not speak nor write English so the teacher allowed her to write her diary in isiXhosa of which she was comfortable. The teacher, because she could not read nor write isiXhosa, allowed the child to use her own language until she started to write in English. The point of departure for this teacher, according to Bloch was that the child was already fluent in isiXhosa. The teacher said that this (writing in isiXhosa) should be allowed for isiXhosa literate children who join schools where isiXhosa is not the language of teaching. The teacher also reported that, “when we have parent-teacher meetings, then we always encourage them to continue with their mother

tongue at home. That's very important that they give the kids some kind of cultural awareness of where they come from" Bloch (1999: 55).

Bloch says that parents should engender good and trusting relations with their children so as to promote multilingualism "... children with home languages which are not widely promoted will be provided with examples of different literacy practices as they see the languages they speak being used in different ways by the important adults in their lives" (1999: 58).

This chapter has tried to provide the theoretical content for the research undertaken in this study. It has provided literature on bilingual education and focussed on bilingual children. It has also referred to biliteracy. The following chapter presents an explanation of the research approach and methodology followed in this research.

CHAPTER 3

3 METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the description of the research process. It provides the rationale for why the study was carried out, deals with the reason for choosing the teacher observed and includes a detailed description of the participants, the apparatus used for collecting data and procedures.

3.2 RATIONALE FOR CONDUCTING CASE STUDY RESEARCH

I adopted the qualitative case study method for this research. In the qualitative case study, according to Denzin and Lincoln (1994), the researcher spends substantial time on the site, has personal contact with the activities and operations of the case and reflects and revises the interpretations of what takes place on a site. Bell (1993: 8) states that a case study “gives an opportunity for one aspect of a problem to be studied in some depth within a limited time scale.” The greatest advantage of the case study, according to Bell, is that it allows the researcher to concentrate on a specific situation and try to identify the various interactive processes at work. It also involves the “collection and recording of data about a case or cases, and preparation of a report or a presentation of the case” (Stenhouse 1988: 49). Eisner and Peshkin (1990: 29) assert that a case study puts emphasis on “practice, participation, reflection and interpretation.”

The study falls within the interpretive research paradigm which “is primarily concerned with human understanding, interpretation, intersubjectivity, lived truth (i.e. truth in human terms)” (Ernest 1994: 24). The interpreter wants to get close to the phenomenon he or she is studying in order to understand human experience. Therefore, the interpretive researcher, according to Cohen and Manion (1985: 40), “begins with the individual and sets out to understand his (sic) interpretations of the world around him.”

For the goals of this research, the English L2 grade 5 learners formed a case study within the interpretive paradigm. The reasons why I chose them with their teacher will be discussed in the next section.

3.3 DESCRIPTION OF THE POPULATION

3.3.1 Population in the study

Roscoe (cited in Mouton 1996: 134) defines the population as a “collection of objects, events and individuals having some common characteristics that the researcher is interested in studying.” The population in this study was chosen for the following reasons:- It was easier to conduct this small scale research in the research site, which is the school in which I teach. Nondwe, a pseudonym for the teacher, is a bilingual teacher fluent in both English and isiXhosa. I chose her because she teaches both isiXhosa and English in grade 5, which is a transitional class in the school. In this grade English starts to be used as LoLT for the first time rather than simply as a subject. The learners are also bilingual but they are more fluent in their mother tongue, isiXhosa, than in English. I also chose the teacher because she was willing to take part in the research.

3.3.2 The sample

For the purpose of observing and analysing oral interaction, the whole class of 37 learners (21 boys and 16 girls) was used. However, only 4 were selected for the analysis of their writing. They were chosen using a stratified random selection method in an attempt to obtain a sample that is representative of the whole class. Stratified sample, according to Nachmias and Nachmias (1986: 189) is used primarily “to ensure that different groups of a population are adequately represented in the sample...”. I used the school records and the teacher’s knowledge in doing this. The resultant sample comprised 3 boys and a girl. The average age of the sample was 12.

3.3.3 Rationale for establishing the research site

I chose the research site because I have worked in the school for quite a long time so it would be easier for me to conduct research there. Hitchcock and Hughes (1995: 124) state that “some difficulties fade away when the teacher is conducting field work in her own setting.”

3.4 RESEARCH METHODS USED IN THIS STUDY

This research was conducted in the natural setting of a classroom. According to Maykut and Morehouse (1994: 45) a natural setting is a “place where the researcher is most likely to discover, or uncover, what is to be known about the phenomenon of interest.” In a natural setting, human behaviours can be truly reflected and their meanings can be interpreted.

I wanted to explore the quality of classroom interaction and of the learners’ writing in both English and isiXhosa in these different settings. My main concern was to discover by comparing the nature of classroom interaction in an ESL classroom when English was used with that where learners’ home language, isiXhosa was used, and to establish what their competence in writing was in these two languages. I believed this would give me insight into the question of MOI or LoLT. By comparing learners’ ability to understand, interact and write in isiXhosa and English, I would be able to assess whether their English was adequate to be used as LoLT and to what extent it might disadvantage them.

Learners were taught two very similar lessons, one through the medium of isiXhosa and the other through the medium of English. The lessons took the following form:- Learners were given a set of pictures in an envelope which they discussed in pairs or groups (see Appendices A1 and A2)¹. They arranged the pictures to form a picture story. The teacher discussed the picture story with the class. She asked questions to draw out learners’

¹ A slightly different story was chosen in each case to ensure that knowledge was not carried over from one lesson to another.

knowledge of vocabulary and understanding of the story line. Learners were asked to use the pictures as the basis for writing a story.

I took the role of non-participant observer. I knew that I would not actively participate in the classroom interaction and I would not have a role to play other than being an observer. A non-participant observer, according to Cohen and Manion (1985: 122) should “stay aloof from the group activities he is investigating.” This means that I was going to observe what happened when the teacher taught without the distraction of becoming involved. Cohen and Manion (1985) hold that the non-participant observer is best illustrated when the researcher sits at the back of the classroom recording every verbal interaction between the teacher and the learners.

3.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

There are two major issues that I think are important to consider before conducting research. Such issues are: - provide information about the study and trustworthiness.

Bieger and Gerlach (1996: 228) state that, “The researcher must provide as much information as possible to allow participants to make a free and informed choice.” In this research, I tried to maintain the trust of the research subjects. I met with the language teacher who teaches English and isiXhosa in the intermediate phase. I informed her about the intentions of conducting the research in her grade 5 class. I wanted to make sure that her participation in the research was voluntary. I also gave her a full and detailed description of the research of which she agreed to take part. There was only one problem that she was going to take a four-month maternity leave. This meant that the research would take place in July, when she came back. This would be the time when the schools re-opened after the long winter holidays.

It was after the re-opening of the schools that I informed the manager of the school (the principal), the learners and the other teachers in the school so that they should know what would actually take place in their school. By doing all this, I wanted the teacher to trust

me because, according to Ely, Anzul, Friedman, Garner and McCormack Steinmetz (1991: 93-94), “Being trustworthy as a qualitative researcher means that at least the processes of research are being carried out fairly...”

I also made certain that the teacher had access to the lesson transcripts (see Appendix B1 and B2). I showed the teacher and her learners the video, which they found interesting. They watched it more than once and showed interest in having other lessons recorded as well.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

The researcher may select and use a number of methods of data collection. This is referred to as triangulation. Triangulation, according to Cohen and Manion (1985: 254), may be defined as the “use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour.” This is supported by Anderson (1998: 131) when he states that triangulation is “the use of multiple data sources, data collection methods and theories to validate research findings.” He further states that, “triangulation also helps eliminate bias and can help detect errors or anomalies in your discoveries.” For this research I triangulated by using a variety of techniques. Such techniques were:- piloting, video recording, lesson transcripts, field notes, semi-structured interviews, questionnaires and stimulated recall interviews.

3.6.1 Pilot study

Denzin and Lincoln (1994: 213) advise that: “Before devoting oneself to the arduous and significant time commitment of the qualitative study, it is a good idea to do a pilot study.” The purpose of the pilot study, according to Huysamen (1993: 205) quoted in De Vos (1998) is “an investigation of the feasibility of the planned project and to bring possible deficiencies in the measurement procedure to the fore.” De Vos (1998: 179) views the pilot study as “the dress rehearsal of the main investigation.” He continues by saying, the

pilot study “is similar to the researcher’s planned investigation but on a small scale.” (De Vos 1998: 179).

Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 184) have suggested that before data collection procedures are administered in the actual research, their quality should be tested so as to be able to make some changes and do some revisions where required. They recommend that the data collection procedures need to be ‘tried out’ in the pilot phase of the study to avoid problems during the ‘administration of the actual research.’ They also say that it would be the results of the pilot that can be used to revise the data collection procedures and the research as a whole. Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 195) have pointed out that it is of importance to ‘try out’ or pilot a research instrument on subjects other than the actual participants in the research. According to them this piloting allows the ‘quality of the instrument to be evaluated beforehand.’ For this research I piloted in the grade 6 class.

Learners were taught two very similar lessons, one through the medium of isiXhosa and the other through the medium of English. The lessons took the following form:- Learners were given a set of pictures in an envelope which they discussed in pairs or groups. They arranged the pictures to form a picture story. The teacher discussed the picture story with the class. She asked questions to draw out learners’ knowledge of vocabulary and understanding of the story line. Learners were asked to use the pictures as the basis for writing a story. I also distributed a questionnaire to the pilot sample. I wanted to know exactly how long it would take them to finish completing the questions. I also wanted to check whether they would understand the questions.

3.6.2. Field notes

Anderson (1998: 128) maintains that field notes are “an indispensable data source”. Anderson (1998) quotes Patton (1990) who writes that field notes should contain a written comment of everything the researcher finds worthwhile; it is important not to leave it to recall. Jackson (1995: 135) states that field notes “provide descriptions and interpretations of individuals and events.” In this study I kept a diary where I recorded

what I observed in the class. I wrote some comments after the lesson because I was video recording the teacher and her learners during the lesson.

3.6.3 Video recording

I used a video recorder to collect data in the class. The aim of using a video recorder was to capture every part of the lesson and to obtain both an audio and a visual record of the lesson. I believed that using a video recorder would enable me view the same lessons repeatedly and that the interaction between the teacher and learners would be easily observed. I hoped that the transcription process would be easier with the video recordings but it was a time-consuming process.

To use a video recorder in the class was not going to give me problems because I sometimes record the learners when doing some activities in other learning areas I teach. So the learners knew that they had to act in the normal way during the lesson.

3.6.4 Lesson transcripts

The transcripts of the lessons were the most difficult part in my data collection. It was time-consuming in the sense that each and every part of the lesson was to be transcribed. I sometimes encountered some problems where I could not even read the lips of the learners from the videotape. According to my plan the transcription period was going to take a week after I had videotaped the lessons. I proved myself wrong when the process took a full three weeks.

As soon as I finished transcribing the lessons, I showed the grade 5 teacher the transcripts. I also showed her the video with the learners. By so doing I wanted her to trust me as I have mentioned earlier. I told her that I would use stimulated recall interviews with her and she agreed. Due to her busy teaching schedule, it was agreed that these interviews would take place after school.

3.6.5 Interviews and questionnaires

I used interviews as a means of collecting data for this research. The purpose of the interview, according to Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 166) is to “obtain information by actually talking to the subject.” Kvale (1996: 125) states that, “an interview is a form of human interaction in which knowledge evolves through a dialogue and the interviewer through further questions steers the course of the interview.”

I administered a semi-structured interview with the teacher where I used an interview schedule (see Appendix C). The great advantage of the semi-structured or non-directive interview is ‘its flexibility...’ as Markson and Gognalons-Caillard (cited in Stones 1988: 152) point out. With semi-structured interviews, the investigator has a set of questions on an interview schedule but the interview will be guided by the schedule rather than be dictated by it. In this type of interview the ordering of questions is less important and the interviewer is free to probe any interesting areas that arise.

I also conducted stimulated recall interviews. Stimulated recall as stated by Nunan (1992: 94) is a technique where the researcher records and transcribes part of the lesson and the teacher comments on what takes place during that particular lesson. The rationale for the stimulated recall interview is that a participant “may be enabled to relive an original situation with vividness and accuracy if s/he is presented with a large number of cues or stimuli which occurred during the original situation” (Bloom 1953: 161).

For this research I showed the teacher the video and allowed her to comment on some parts of the lesson. In this way the teacher’s voice would be heard. The interview was conducted in English.

For the learners, I made use of simple questionnaires but I did not initially distribute the questionnaires to the actual participants (grade 5 learners). I first piloted in grade 6 because according to Bell (1999: 128) questionnaires “should be tried out on a group similar to the one that will form the population of your study...” I wanted to know

exactly how long it would take them to complete the questions. I also wanted to check whether they would understand the questions.

In my pilot sample, I gave each learner the questionnaire (see Appendix D). Because the questions were in English and isiXhosa I thought they would understand, but this was not the case and the process was extremely time-consuming. In the research, I therefore administered the questionnaire by reading question by question and allowing the learners to fill in by ticking the answer that suited them. I thought that this would be easier than the pilot sample, but it still took a long time. I read the questions to the learners but I discovered that some learners did not see where I was reading. Some wanted me to show them where I was reading. What I did to overcome this problem was to read the questions with them at the same time. This was a little better because they finished at the same time although it was time consuming.

The following section will discuss the two most important criteria for assuring the quality of the data collection procedures: reliability and validity. Bell (1993) suggests that whatever procedure is to be chosen it must always be tested so as to be certain of when it is reliable or valid.

3.6.5.1 Reliability

The criterion of reliability, according to Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 185) “provides information on whether the data collection procedure is consistent and accurate.” Bell (1993: 64) states that reliability is the “extent to which a test or procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions.” The reliability of the results according to Anderson (1990: 154) depends solely on the reliability of the observer, who is the primary data collection instrument. To ensure the reliability of the information provided by the interviewee, I rephrased the questions when she did not understand the question clearly. I have also tried to explain the procedures used in the research clearly so that another researcher could replicate it, if they wished.

3.6.5.2 Validity

“Validity is the complement to reliability and refers to the extent to which we measure reflects what we expected to measure” (Anderson 1998: 13). Anderson continues by saying, “Validity to the qualitative researcher generally refers to the extent to which the stated interpretations are in fact true.” There are two forms of validity, which concern the researcher, namely internal, and external validity. Internal validity is the validity of “data measures” (Anderson 1998: 13).” Because the focus of this study is on what really happens in a natural setting, “the existence of a natural setting enhances validity over that which might be found in some contrived experiment” (Anderson 1990: 155). To ensure validity of the data collection procedure I showed the teacher the video and the lesson transcripts so that she could comment on some parts of the lesson. On the other hand external validity refers to the “generalizability of the obtained results.” (Anderson 1990: 13). However, it is never possible to generalise from a case study, and this is not its purpose.

3.7. ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Data analysis is the process where the researcher summarises and analyses the data collected. Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 201) describe data analysis as “sifting, organising, summarizing and synthesizing the data so as to arrive at the results and conclusions of the research”. For this research I transcribed the data collected from the two lessons I observed (English and isiXhosa). I arranged them and looked for regularities. My main focus was to understand the data. So by going through the transcripts I would be in a position to get to an understanding of what was really taking place in the ESL classroom. I also collected learners’ writing in both English and isiXhosa and compared it with regard to the linguistic and conceptual complexity of the language and its appropriateness to the context.

In order to present the data in the thesis, I selected representative extracts from different sections of the lessons. Times were indicated to show the point in each lesson that the extract occurred.

An attempt was made to support the quantitative interpretation with a qualitative analysis. For example, mean length of utterances was worked out and the grammatical complexity of sentences was analysed. However, this proved a difficult task because English and isiXhosa are non-cognate languages. A word has a different structure in isiXhosa from what it is in English; for example, 'Ndiyahamba' in isiXhosa translates into 'I am going' in English. Therefore the results of this analysis are open to doubt. A more sophisticated form of analysis is required. To my knowledge none has been developed yet for this purpose.

This chapter has looked at some aspects of case study research. It has also described the research methods used in this study and data collection procedures. The next chapter presents the analysis of the data collected in this study.

CHAPTER 4

4 DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter features the analysis of data collected in this study. The purpose of the analysis is to compare the quality of oral interaction of a grade 5 class with their teacher in two lessons, one where English is used and the other where isiXhosa is used as the MOI, and of the learners' writing which arises out of the lessons. I will first give the description of the school and the classroom where the research took place. In the second part I will analyse the data collected from classroom observation with reference to the transcripts, and also the learners' writing. In addition, questionnaires and interviews will be analysed. I will also include suggestions on how the interaction could be improved.

4.2 THE SCHOOL AND THE CLASS OBSERVED

The school is located near Berlin, not far from East London. It is a combined primary school, which starts from grade 1 to grade 7. The school has two blocks, one with five classes and the other with two classes. It has electricity but has no staff room or office.

Although English starts to be used as the MOI for the first time in grade 5, it is used as a subject from grade 2 to grade 4. All learners in the school are isiXhosa-speaking children living with isiXhosa-speaking guardians. Up to and including grade 4, they only use English in school during English periods. After grade 4 English is the official MOI but there is a lot of code switching into isiXhosa. At home these learners do not have the chance to use English because most of them live with their grandparents, who cannot speak English nor can they read or write. Outside the school when playing they communicate in isiXhosa. The teachers, too, are isiXhosa speakers and English is their L2. They use isiXhosa when communicating with each other and in staff meetings.

In this research I observed a grade 5 class of 37 learners, 21 boys and 16 girls in language lessons. The learners in the classroom were seated in groups. The class had six groups and each group had six learners except one that had seven learners. The classroom walls were decorated with the work done by the learners. The teacher encourages group work. Learners were taught two very similar lessons, one through the medium of isiXhosa and the other through the medium of English. The lessons took the following form:- Learners were given a set of pictures in an envelope which they discussed in groups (see Appendices A1 and A2). They arranged the pictures to form a picture story. The teacher discussed the picture story with the class. She asked questions to draw out learners' knowledge of vocabulary and understanding of the story line. Learners were then asked to use the pictures as the basis for writing a story.

The following extracts denote the interaction of the teacher with the learners in an English lesson. These transcription conventions are used:- T- Teacher, C- Whole class speaking in chorus, (*italics*)- Researcher's comments, []- Teacher calling learner by name, { }- Researcher's translation into English. (Also refer to Appendices B1 and B2).

4.3 CLASSROOM INTERACTION IN ENGLISH

The first two extracts come from the part of a lesson before the teacher gives out the pictures. The teacher is just setting the scene about the story so we would not expect her to be developing the narrative.

Extract 1 (1 minute 40 seconds into the lesson)

- T: His grandmother is sixty years old, *nhe*? OK. What does she like to do at home to keep her busy, mh? Ha-ha, *he*? What does she like to do at home, *he*, to keep her busy? *Bethunana, iinto ezibenza* busy *abazithandayo oomakhulu okanye ootatomkhulu man phaya endlini*. Yes, [Learner 33]. {People, the things they like that make them busy your grandmothers or grandfathers there at home.}
- L33: In a garden.
- T: *He*? {Pardon me}
- L33: A garden.

T: **Andiva!** {I cannot hear you}
 L33: In a garden.
 T: A garden? Is it your grandmother or your grandfather?
 L33: Grandmother
 T: **He?** {Pardon me}
 L33: Grandmother
 T: OK! Grandmother. Her, his grandmother likes to, to work in a garden.
 Ehe! Yes [Learner 3].
 L3: My grandmother like to make a medicine
 T: Eh, which medicine?
 L3: (*not responding*)
 T: **Amayeza, nhe? Amayeza antoni mhlawumbi?** {Medicines? Medicines for
 what, maybe}
 L3: **Amayeza amagqirha.** {Medicines for witchdoctors}
 T: O! Is your grandmother a witchdoctor? Oh! That's good. **Ya** (*pointing to
 learner 27*)

As can be observed in the above extract, the teacher uses both English and isiXhosa to interact with her learners. It can also be observed that as the teacher uses English, some of the learners seem not to understand what she requires. Even though she translates what she wants into isiXhosa, the learners' answers are unclear and short. The last learner (Learner 3) who responds knows that his grandmother likes to make medicine but he cannot express what he knows in English. He only responds when the teacher asks him in his home language, and he then expresses himself in isiXhosa with ease.

The teacher's questions, on the other hand and the discussion that they generate, do not really prepare learners to write about the picture story. She is just setting the scene for the story and is so desperate to get the children to speak. She is trying to draw on their everyday knowledge in order to get them to say anything at all. The discussion therefore strays from what the picture story is about.

The teacher focuses more on production (on learners speaking in English) than learners' comprehension of the story in English. I would say that what the learners need to do is to comprehend the story in English, if they are going to be able to write about it later. When learners do not understand and the teacher uses isiXhosa, this may be a short-cut, however it stops her from making her input comprehensible in English (for example by

means of repetition, gestures and rephrasing.). This may inhibit opportunities for them to acquire English.

In my interview with the teacher I asked her why she translates into the learners' mother tongue. She said she felt that some of the learners were "lost". So using their language, even if it is an English lesson, would help to facilitate learning. She also said that it is useless to continue with the lesson whilst some learners show confusion.

Extract 2 (3 minutes 40 seconds into the lesson; not directly after extract 1)

- T: Do you love your grandmother, mh? Do you love your grandmother or your grandfather? Yes [Learner 1].
- L1: Do you love your grandmother.
- T: **He?** {Pardon me}
- L1: Do you love your grandmother.
- T: Come again.
- L1: Do you love (*the teacher interrupting*)
- T: I, I love
- L1: I love grandmother
- T: I love my grandmother
- L1: I love my grandmother
- T: OK! Yes, [Learner 37]. Do you love your grandmother?
- L37: Yes
- T: Yes, I love my grandmother. Say it again
- L37: (*scratching his face*)
- T: **Phakama** [Learner 37] **mani uthethe**. Yes, I love my grandmother. {Stand up Learner 37 and talk.}
- L37: Yes, yes love my grandmother

Referring to the interaction above, it can be seen that the first child (Learner 1) the teacher asked had some difficulty in understanding the question. He did not answer the teacher. All he did was to repeat what the teacher had said. However, he changed his tone of voice as if he was reacting to the teacher's question. It is evident that although he understood that a question was being asked, he did not understand what it was. It was difficult even when the teacher tried to scaffold what to say for him.

What I also observed was that classroom instructions ('**Phakama** [Learner 37] **mani uthethe**') were given in isiXhosa, yet they provide the perfect opportunity for genuine

communication in English. If these instructions were given in English they would provide comprehensible input. They are simple and can easily be demonstrated; the learner can easily show understanding. They are a form of total physical response (TPR). I also observed that the discussion which took place in this interaction had very little to do with the picture story. I think the reason is that the teacher is trying to set the scene for the story and draw out learners' background knowledge.

In my interview with the teacher she said some learners become tense and it is difficult to express their views when English is used compared to what happens in an isiXhosa lesson. She also said that it is because of their limited English vocabulary so it becomes difficult to even try to express themselves. When I asked her why their vocabulary was so limited she said that the English they learn in grade 4 does not get learners to the level where they can use English as the medium of instruction in grade 5.

We now look at an extract from later on in the lesson. The teacher and learners are discussing the pictures.

Extract 3 (12 minutes into the lesson)

- T: What do you think the people in picture 2 are doing? There are people. Look at picture no. 2, *nhe?* Look at picture 2. Let us look at picture 2, *he?* What do you think the people in picture 2 are doing. Yes [Learner 18], *nithini kule* group? {... what do you say in this group?}
- L18: I see a ... I see grandmother cooking a food
- T: Grandmother cooking the food. What about these two, *he?* What about this little boy and his grandfather? Discuss, *he?* What are they doing in picture 2? (*pointing to learner 21*)
- L21: Grandmother is cooking in the milk.
- T: *He?* {Pardon me?}
- L21: Grandmother is cooking in the milk.
- T: Come again.
- L21: Grandmother is cooking in the milk.
- T: In the milk? Ha, where is the milk?
- L21: (*pointing*)
- T: *He!* Is this the milk? Can you cook in the milk, *he?* Can you cook?
- L21: No

- T: Why? Because the- the- the. *Ngumntu wegroup yenu lo*. You said that he is cooking in the milk, hhe! *He? Nithini kule* group, *ya*. (*learner 17 standing up and responding*). {This person belongs to your group ...What do you say in this group, yes?}
- L17: Pour the milk in the bucket
- T: If they pour the milk in the bucket, what are they doing? You see, they are busy doing something. What are they doing, *he?* Yes [Learner 10]
- L10: (*standing up but not responding*)
- T: *Thetha* [Learner 10] *mani le nto uyicingayo mani*. {Say Learner 10 what you think}
- L10: Grandmother cooking
- T: Grandmother is cooking. What about the boy and his grandfather?
- L10: Grandfather and ... Grandfather and...
- T: And the boy are
- L10: Are *seng* {Are milking}
- T: Are *seng?* Ee! What do you mean when you say they are *seng?* OK! They are milking the cow, *nhe?* {Are milk? ...milk?}
- L10: Yes

What is illustrated in the above extract is that all the learners did understand what the teacher required. Learner 18 tried her best, and the teacher provided corrective feedback by restating the learner's answer correctly. The problem of learner 21 and learner 10 was that they did not know how to express themselves in English. When learner 21 said, "the grandmother is cooking in the milk", this does not mean that he did not know what the picture was all about. Rather, he had limited vocabulary in English. He tried his best to tell the teacher what he thought was going on in the picture instead of keeping quiet.

Learner 10 really knew that the grandfather and the boy were milking the cows. She had the concept of 'milking' in her home language and she wanted to take some risks and speak this language hence she made use of the word 'seng'. So by taking a risk and using her home language to answer the teacher, she found out from the teacher how to express this in English. All she had to do was to transfer the concepts she knew in the home language to the second language. The teacher supported the child by providing the equivalent word for 'seng' in English but she did not write it on the board in English for the learners to use when writing.

What I also observed was that the child (Learner 10) did not simply use the isiXhosa word 'senga'; rather she shortened it to 'seng'. This may indicate that the child understands that whilst isiXhosa words always end in vowel, a consonant-vowel-consonant syllable structure would be more likely in English. This may be an aspect of the child's interlanguage.

The teacher, on the other hand was trying her best to draw out the story from the pictures. I can also say that learner 18 and learner 17 seemed to understand the teacher fairly well and they could go some way towards constructing simple sentences. However, Learner 10 was constrained by lack of vocabulary.

In the stimulated recall the teacher commented that learners sometimes mix the two languages especially when they want to express their views. She also said that she encouraged them to use some isiXhosa words which she then translates into English.

We now look at an extract a further fifteen minutes on into the lesson than the extract just discussed.

Extract 4 (27 minutes into the lesson)

- T: The hens. So the hens are hiding on a tree, *nhe?* OK. [Learner 16], what do you say? Where are the hens hiding?
- L16: The hens looking from the caterpillar
- T: From the caterpillar, *he?* Where is the caterpillar? (*the boy pointing at the branch of a tree*)
- T: *He!* OK. What is the caterpillar in Xhosa? Can you... *He?*
- L16: *Yinyosi.* {It's a bee}
- T: *He? Yintoni?* {What is it?}
- L16: *Yinyosi.* {It's a bee}
- T: *Yinyosi, iphi?* {It's a bee, where is it?}
- L16: *Linyiki.* {It's a caterpillar}
- T: *Linyiki! Liphi inyiki bantu bale* group? {A caterpillar! Where is a caterpillar people of this group?}
- L16: *Alikho.* {There's no caterpillar}

It can be seen in the above extract that the child has given the teacher a creative answer. He seems to have suggested that the reason the hens are in the tree is because they are looking for the caterpillars to eat. The teacher did not grasp what he was saying. Perhaps it is because it was a creative rather than an obvious answer. It may also be because she is attending more to how learners are expressing their ideas in English rather than what they are trying to say.

It has been shown in the above extracts how the teacher interacts with her learners in an English lesson. Let us now look at what happened when the interaction was in isiXhosa and when isiXhosa was used as the MOI. I am going to give all the extracts and then discuss them together.

4.4 CLASSROOM INTERACTION IN ISIXHOSA

Extract 5 (8 minutes into the lesson)

- T: Khanindixelele mani inokuba bancokola ngantoni, he? Inokuba bancokola ngantoni? Nantsiya inkwenkwe nentonbazana phaya. ... {**Tell me what they are talking about? What are they talking about? There's a boy and a girl over there...**}
- L7: Bancokola ngedonki ukuba idonki iyashiywa yimoto. {**They are talking about the donkey that the donkey is being overtaken by the car**}
- T: Andiva {**I cannot hear you**}
- L7: Bancokola ngedonki ukuba idonki iyashiywa yimoto. {**They are talking about the donkey that the donkey is being overtaken by the car**}
- T: E-e. Batsho kule *group*. Nithini nina apho? (*pointing at learner 16*). {**Yes. They say so in this group. What do you say over there?**}
- L16: Kuba apha aba 'ntwana bafuna ukujonga oza kufika kuqala edolophini, idonki neteksi. {**Because here these children want to see which is going to get to the town first, the donkey or the taxi**}

Extract 6 (14 minutes into the lesson)

- T: Ucinga ukuba isiphakamisele ntoni esa sandla? Mh! [Learner 20]. {**Why do you think he is raising his hand?...**}

- L20: Ikwekwe iyabhabhayisa. **{The boy is saluting}**
 T: Kuthiwa apha iyabhabhayisa. Hhe! [Learner 19]. **{They say here he is saluting...}**
 L19: Ndinganga ukuba ithi nantso ke, nantso ke, siyayishiya idonki yenu. **{I think he says there it is, there it is, we are overtaking your donkey}**

Extract 7 (17 minutes 33 seconds into the lesson)

- T: Inokuba kwenzeka ntoni kula mfanekiso wesine? ...**{What do you think is happening in picture no. 4?}**
 L34: Inoba ngeli xesha kulunga le tekisi bona abale donki ibihamba ngoku yafunyanwa yile tekisi wathi lowa sinifumene soze nishiyiye. **{Maybe by the time the taxi was fixed the owners of the donkey which was already on the way then the taxi overtakes the donkey then he said that we've got you, you will never overtake us}**

Extract 8 (21 minutes 10 seconds into the lesson)

- T: Heke! Ucinga ukuba kwenzeka ntoni phaya? Uthini [Learner 35]. Nithini [Learner 35] kulo *group*? **{That's it! What do you think is happening over there? What do you say [Learner 35]. What do you say [Learner 35] in that group?}**
 L35: Uxolo misi sithi, sithi. Uxolo misi sithi imoto itshayise ibhokhwe, la tata webhokhwe ulwa nala mntu uqhuba itekisi. **{Sorry miss we say, we say. Sorry miss we say the car hits the goats. The owner of the goats is fighting with that person who is driving the taxi}**
 L29: Ngoku umntu wetekisi ebeqhuba itekisi ngoku watshayisa ibhokhwe. Uthi umntu webhokhwe uthi ufuna ibhokhwe yakhe ngoku wehlika unotekisi wathi uyocela uxolo. **{Then the taxi owner was driving the taxi then he hits the goat. The owner of the goat says he wants his goat then the taxi man got out of the car to say sorry}**

As can be seen in the above extracts, there is much less preliminary discussion to set the scene. The teacher says less and the learners have more to say than in the English extracts. The teacher is able to encourage the learners to develop the narrative much better than in English. Discussion is much more focused on the narrative. The teacher is able to ask questions to get the learners to explore what is happening for example

‘Ucinga ukuba isiphakamisele ntoni esa sandla?’ (Extract 6). The learners are able to use the language to conceptualise; for example, to deal with cause and effect, as in ‘Kuba apha aba ’ntwana bafuna ukujonga oza kufika kuqala edolophini, idonki neteksi’ (Extract 5). There is much less repetition than in the English lesson.

The teacher employed various types of questions during isiXhosa lesson. Such questions are managerial and open-ended. She used managerial questions to keep the classroom operation moving, for example extract 5 (Khanindixelele mani inoba bancokola ngantoni ...) and extract 6 (Ucinga ukuba isiphakamisele ntoni esa sandla?). These questions are also open-ended questions. They promote discussion and learners can say whatever they want because they are not restricting them to say anything. In contrast, the teacher mostly used closed questions during an English lesson.

The learners’ utterances are grammatically well formed, and they provide appropriate responses to the teacher’s questions. They are longer than in English and they are much more complex, containing main and subordinate clauses. The complexity of language used by learners is also shown by the use of adverbs whereas in English sentences are often unclear and short.

Most learners made errors when speaking with the teacher. An analysis of these errors reveals that the most common error types are: - the omission of a grammatical morpheme as in extract 1, learner 3 ‘My grandmother like to make a medicine.’ (My grandmother likes to make medicine); production error as in extract 3, learner 17 ‘Pour the milk in the bucket.’ (The sentence has no subject) and the absence of an item that should appear in a well-formed utterance as in extract 3, learner 10 ‘Grandmother cooking.’ (Grandmother is cooking). Errors occur because the child does not know what to say. Learners appear to use a wider range of vocabulary than in English. They showed a greater range of self-expression than those produced in English. They also show creativity by using direct and reported speech compared to the English interaction. Extract 7 and 8 are the best examples of this. Learners are able to offer hypotheses about what might be happening for example ‘Inoba ngeli xesha kulunga le teksi bona abale donki ibihamba ngoku

yafunyanwa yile teksi wathi lowa sinifumene soze nisishiye' (Extract 7). Learners take a very active part in discussion. They seem eager to offer their opinions.

A quantitative analysis was carried out of the lesson transcripts to establish whether the analysis of these extracts held true for the lessons in general. It was found that:

- The mean length of learners' utterances in isiXhosa was 5.17 words whereas in English it was 5.23.
- The shortest utterance that learners made in isiXhosa was one word and the same for English.
- The longest utterance that learners made in isiXhosa was 22 words whereas in English it was 17 words.

It was surprising that the mean length of utterances was longer in English than in isiXhosa. However, it must be borne in mind that English utterances were often repetitions and quite often difficult to comprehend. Difficulties relating to quantitative, comparative analysis of two non-cognate languages are discussed later in this chapter.

What was clear was that the teacher spoke more in the English lesson and had to work harder to communicate meaning. This was supported by a quantitative analysis. The mean length of the teacher's utterances was 9.14 in isiXhosa and in English it was 14.68. The teacher produced a total of 1 655 words in the isiXhosa lesson and 1 968 in the English lesson. Learners, on the other side produced 497 words in the English lesson and 481 words in the isiXhosa lesson. Again, though one must bear in mind that the unit of measurement, the word is not necessarily equivalent in the two languages.

I discussed the learners' apparent ease with isiXhosa in my interview with the teacher. She said it becomes easier for learners to cope when their language is used because it is their own language, the language they use in their everyday lives. She also said that even though they have to express imaginative predictions and abstract concepts they still find it quite easy because they are using their first language.

A small point worth noting is that the responses 'yes' and 'no' were used in English in the isiXhosa lesson by both learners and the teacher. They do not appear in the extracts but are apparent in the lesson transcript. My own experience bears out that this is normal practice in a classroom context.

The following section compares the quality of the classroom interaction in the two lessons (English and isiXhosa). I will draw on the video footage to discuss the emotional climate in the classroom, learners' body language, their facial expressions and eye contact.

4.5 QUALITY OF THE CLASSROOM INTERACTION

The first question the teacher asked as the introduction to the English lesson was very easy. It only required the learners to agree or say they had grandmothers or grandfathers. But instead of raising their hands and responding they looked at one another as if they were lost. This was demonstrated by learners' facial expression and eye contact in the video footage. A look of confusion and bewilderment in their faces proved this point. Some learners hesitated to make eye contact for fear they would be called on by the teacher. It was after the teacher spoke in isiXhosa and said "Abantu abanamakhulu bethuna?" that a few hands were up. In the third question the teacher had to call learners by name. One learner she called shook his head and said nothing. The use of his body language (shaking of his head) showed that he did not know what to say. No one in the class was willing to speak during the introduction to the English lesson whilst in the introduction to the isiXhosa lesson every learner was eager to talk. This was shown by their facial expression and eye contact. Their faces were clear this time. They looked at the teacher with great interest. According to Xhosa custom a young person is not supposed to make eye contact with an older person. This shows disrespect and it is rude but in the classroom situation it is not the case. Eye contact is one of the most important non-verbal cues in classroom interaction. Visual contact signals that the subject is willing to communicate. Sometimes the teacher did not know whom to choose because everyone's hand was up.

It is surprising that the actual number of learners who spoke in the introduction to the English lesson was 11 (29.7%) compared to the introduction to isiXhosa lesson with 9 learners (24.3%). These percentages refer to the percentages of learners in class. The reason for English to have quite a number of learners was that the teacher allowed more than one learner to respond to the same question. For example, in the first question learners did not volunteer to speak so the teacher asked several learners to respond to the same question and that increased the number of learners who actually spoke in the introduction to the English lesson. The second question required them to give the ages of their grandparents and three learners were chosen in the same way.

During the group discussion of pictures in the English lesson most learners used isiXhosa. They took a long time because they had to translate what they had discussed into English in order to answer the teacher's questions in the classroom discussion. As a result few of them volunteered to speak. But as the lesson continued a sizeable number of 18 (48.6%) learners actually spoke up. However, a larger number of 27 (73%) learners spoke in the isiXhosa lesson. Furthermore, they did not take long to discuss the pictures. They used gestures to reinforce what they were saying. They were even bold to show that they were really confident to what they were saying.

4.6 LEARNERS' WRITING

Now that I have analysed the classroom interaction between the teacher and her learners in the two lessons, the reader has a good sense of what took place. I now proceed to the next step of my research, the analysis of the learners' writing in the two languages. I am not going to analyse all the scripts in detail here. Four were chosen using a stratified random selection method in an attempt to obtain a sample that is representative of the whole class. I used the school records and the teacher's knowledge in doing this. The resultant sample comprised of three boys and a girl. I used the same scripts of the same learners in both languages. Learners were not taught the same lessons but these lessons were very similar, one through the medium of isiXhosa and the other through the medium

of English.

The following procedure led to the learners writing their own stories. Learners were given a sequence of pictures to discuss in groups. They then discussed them with their teacher. They finally wrote stories based on the picture sequence. The following are what the learners wrote. For my analysis I will first write the English originals of their writing, followed by isiXhosa originals with their translations into English.²

4.6.1 Sample 1

English original

the boy

fatha and Mathaand bhratha and a boy. fatha and a boy at seng and onthe caw Mathar cooking. fatha and a boy ithing. fatha and a boy bhilding and a fenc. Mathar in a gadn. the boy et stic drayvi the caws. the boy lok the tree. fatha and a boy lok ina tree.

What I have noticed in the above sample is that the learner is able to communicate what is going on in each picture but the language is very weak. Because of his limited English vocabulary it became difficult to express himself in written English. He has misspelt words in different ways. He could not even spell fairly common words like mother and father. Most spelling errors he made are of a phonetic nature. Such errors are ‘bratha’ for ‘brother’, ‘caw’ for ‘cow’. It is interesting that the child is using isiXhosa phonology to spell English words (‘ithing’ for ‘eating’ and ‘bhilding’ for ‘building’). Not all sentences start with capital letters. In some sentences some words are not separated and there are sentences that do not make sense. The first sentence has no predicate. It only has a subject. There is no indication of what the subject is doing so as to become a complete sentence. The child also used the word (seng) from his mother tongue because he did not know what to write in English. It is also noticed that the child does not know how to insert correct prepositions. I think this error appears to be explained by the fact that

² This approach follows that of Desai (1999). The translations into English are literal. They reflect the differences between two non-cognate languages. No attempt has been made to turn them into idiomatic English.

isiXhosa does not have prepositions, but they are embedded in other parts of speech (locatives), for example the word 'etafileni' can be translated as either 'on the table' or 'at the table' in English. I also noticed that the child is not able to tell a story in English. The sentences just describe a static situation and they do not lead on from each other.

Xhosa original

iidonki. nemoto

intombi nekwewe sizakujonga ozakufikakuqala etawuni. iidonkiziyatsiywa yimoto. imotoiyatsiywa yidonki. imotoimotsakeleiyalungiswa intomgi Iyavuyaiyibhabhayisa. imotoiyayitsiyaiidonki intombiigqumbile. imoto igilizeibhokhwelatatawanomsindwathiufuna Ibhokhweyakhe wahlikaunotekisiwacelauxolo. zaphindaiidonkizayitsiyaitekisi yyavuyaintombi yabhabhayisa

English translation

the donkeys and a car

the girl and a boy we are going to look at which is going to arrive in town first. the donkeys are being left behind by the car. the taxi is being left behind by the donkey. The car broke down and it is repaired the girl is happy so she is waving. the car is being left behind by the donkey the girl is cross. the car hit a goat that man became angry he says he wants his goat the car driver got out of the taxi saying he is sorry. again the donkeys left the taxi behind the girl is happy she is waving

The child is clearly able to describe what is happening in the pictures. He has been able to write an appropriate title for the story. However, he does not tell the story in the past tense. This may be because he is unfamiliar with the use of pictures as the stimulus for telling a story. As can be observed in the isiXhosa original the learner does not seem to know where words and sentences begin and end. This makes the meaning of what he writes unclear. Not all sentences start with capital letters, showing a poor grasp of punctuation. The child uses a dialogue in his writing but does not put inverted commas to show that they are proper words said by the speaker. Most words and some word groups within sentences are not separated. It seems that the problems of word, phrase and sentence structure and punctuation are related. At least he uses a variety of sentence

styles. All sentences are complete sentences. There is also a proof of subordinate clauses in some sentences where they depend on the main clauses. The child has a problem with spelling. He cannot spell some words correctly. For example 'ziyatsiywa' for 'ziyashiywa' and 'intomgi' for 'intombi'. There is little cohesion or coherence in the writing.

4.6.2 Sample 2

English original

The Title is the grad Mothe is grad father is boy
The boy cams School to grad Mothe and grade father. The grade father is a boy is a milk of peil. the grad Mothe is. cooking a food is semp. the boy is eat a food a grad father is eat food. The grad mothe is pet a garden the grad father a boy a fens. the boy a cous a drive. the boy is a the look of the chinken. the boy is a grad Mothe is look a wooff.

In this sample the learner has very similar problems to the one who wrote sample 1. Her language is weak. She has a problem with English sentence structure compounded by weak punctuation. Sentences do not always have verbs. Word order is another problem. In one sentence she writes four nouns one after another as objects of the sentence. Such a sentence is: 'The grad mothe is pet a garden the grad father a boy a fens.' In the same sentence she uses isiXhosa word 'pet' for 'peta' as a verb because she does not know what to write in English. The English translation of the word 'pet' is 'dig'. The child is unable to spell commonly used words like grandmother correctly. I also observed that the learner writes some words the way she pronounces them. Such words are 'semp' for 'samp' and 'fens' for 'fence'. The child has made the same error as mentioned in the previous sentence. Such an error is 'cams' for 'comes'. These errors are commonly acknowledged to have phonetic causes (Jessop 1994). The child also has difficulty with prepositions. She uses wrong prepositions. Some sentences do not start with capital letters and she inserts them anywhere in a sentence. It is also observed that the child is not in a position to recount a story.

Xhosa original

Mhla nda yaleka

ndibona aba izindlu kuhlula indoki nemoto. ndibona abantu bakhwele imoto nendoki kwindoki kukhwele abantu ababini bakhwele indoki abantu ndibona imoto abantu bandlekile emotweni nomama ahle bhantsi nge mbundu nendoki idlula ecamkwe moto. imoto indlula indoki umtwana ubabayisa abantu abakhwele iindiki. Iindoki iyamgcotha. umqubiwe emoto wohlekile umqubi wemoto ucela uxolo kumnikazi webhokhwe nebhokhwe eziseca mkwe moto. itesi iyashiywa indoki umtana uyababayisa yabe iyabhumblela. liyaphela ibali

English translation

The day I learned my lesson

I see houses the donkey and the taxi pass by. I see people riding on the taxi and the donkey cart I see fat people in the taxi with a woman sitting down on her buttocks and the taxi passes by the donkey cart. The taxi passes the donkey cart the girl waves at the people riding the donkey cart The donkey cart is moving slowly the taxi driver got out of the taxi he is saying he is sorry to the owner of the goat and the goats are near the taxi the donkey cart is leaving the taxi behind and the girl is waving so she won. the story ends

This is written better than sample 1 although the learner tells the story in the present tense. She describes what she can see in the pictures rather than narrating a story. However, at least there is coherence to what she writes, the events follow one another, and they are interesting. The learner has used an appropriate title which provides a message or moral for the story. However, she has a problem with punctuation and spelling, for example 'imbundu' for 'impundu' (buttocks) and 'wohlekkile' for 'wondlekile' (fat). Translation of the same text makes the writing look better than it is, since it is difficult to show the nature of errors in translated texts. The learner knows how to end a story 'liyaphela ibali' although she did not start it in an appropriate way. She uses long and complex sentences with a wide range of vocabulary because she uses her own language. Most sentences contain main and subordinate clauses. What the learner writes is interesting as it contains some grammatical classes of words with their functions. Such grammatical classes are adjectives and adverbs. For example '... abantu bondlekile emotweni nomama uhleli bhantsi ngembundu...' (... fat people in the taxi with the woman sitting down on her buttocks...). In this sentence the word 'bondlekile' describes the noun 'abantu'. The woman sitting on her buttocks is also described.

4.6.3 Sample 3

English original

GrandMother and Grand fother

Pich Nemba one Grond fother and Grand Mother The boy coming to the school. Grand Mother coukng fruo food and Grand father and the boy coming the milk of cow.

Grand fother and the boy It fruo food.

The boy chased the stis.

Grand Mother wek to the garden.

The boy goul tree

Grand fother and the bay look the chlinkn

This is similar to the other two English samples though the learner starts each sentence on a new line. This suggests that he has not been taught thoroughly how to use paragraphs when writing. In the first sentence the learner writes a long sentence with many subjects following one another. This makes the sentence unclear because it has one verb, which is in the continuous tense (however, without the auxiliary verb 'is'). The child is not able to narrate a story in English. All he does is to describe what is happening in each picture. This can be seen by 'Pich Nemba one ...' (Picture number one ...). The learner borrows words from isiXhosa where he does not know the English word (for example 'goul' which means 'chop'). He also has a problem with spelling. He misspells a few words but he self-corrects them as he writes. Such words are 'grond fother' (grandfather). The child seems to confuse English with isiXhosa orthography, for example 'It' for 'eat'; 'nemba' for 'number'. It is very likely that he pronounces English words with an isiXhosa accent and therefore spells them wrongly, for example 'wek' for 'work'. Accurate pronunciation supports correct spelling even in a language like English with irregular spelling. Words that are mispronounced are likely to be misspelt as well. The learner also has difficulty with longer words with unfamiliar consonant/orthographic combinations for example 'chicken'.

Xhosa original

Ngenye imini ndadonwabile

kwakukho idonki netesi

ngenye imini kwakukho abantwana ababini bebuzana ngokuba Uzakukhwela ntoni athi omnye oyikwenkwe ndizakukhwela itesi omnye oyintombi mna ndizakukhwela idonki. Bahamba bayokukhwela omnye wakhwela itesi omnye wakhwela idonki kwareyisiswa idonki yashiywa yitesi lomntana uyikwenkwe uBhaBhayisa oyintombi lo uyikwenkwe wanemincili lo uyintombi waziva edanile. ababakhwele idoki bayavu ngokuba bayayi shiya itesi lo uyintombi uyaBhaBhayisa lo uyikwenkwe wadana lo uyinkwenkwe lo uyikwe uBhaBhayisa lo uyintombi lo uyintombi wandana sukuba beshiyi yitesi lo ungumqhubi utshayise ibhokhwe umntu webhokhwe wamisa itesi wafuna ukulwanaye ngoku itesi yashiywa yidonki

English translation

One day I was happy

There was a donkey cart and a taxi

one day there were two children asking each other about who is going to ride what the boy said I am going to ride a taxi and the girl said I am going to ride a donkey cart. They went to ride the other rode a donkey cart they raced and the donkey cart was left behind by the taxi the boy waved at the girl and the boy was happy but the girl was angry. The people who were riding a donkey cart were happy because they were overtaking the taxi the girl waved at the girl and the boy was unhappy. The boy is waving at the girl and the girl is unhappy because the taxi is leaving them behind. The taxi driver hit a goat and the owner of the goat stopped the taxi now he wants to fight with him so the donkey cart is leaving the taxi behind

This is much better than the English version. The learner knows how to commence a narrative. This can be illustrated by ‘ngenye imini ...’. This makes his story interesting. He also includes a dialogue in his narrative although he does not use quotation marks. The learner uses a wide range of vocabulary and the sentences are as long and complex as the ones in the other isiXhosa samples. Punctuation is still hazy. There are few capitals and where they are inserted, they are put anywhere in a sentence. Another thing that is interesting is that the child knows how to use a paragraph when writing though his paragraph is long.

4.6.4 Sample 4

English original

theboy coming fromthe school.
Grand father is seng in a milk is a Caw.
is grand mother is cucing in a food.
grand father is a boy eat food. grandmother is wek ina gadnn boyis grand father is fans.
the boy cha sed in a caw. the boy is lookeng to the dog. The dog is grafathe is look ha
to the tree

This learner has similar problems to the other learners whose English writing is included in the samples. This child has problems with sentence structure, punctuation and spelling. Some words in the sentences are not separated. The learner does not know where and when to put capital letters when writing. There are also a lot of spelling mistakes in his writing. He first spells 'grandfather' correctly then he makes a mistake and spells it wrongly. There is evidence of errors of phonetic nature. Such errors are 'caw' for 'cow', 'cucing' for 'cooking' and 'wek' for 'work'. There is very limited grammar and vocabulary and as a result he inserts the word 'seng' from his home language. He starts by putting sentences on separate lines and then moves into paragraph mode.

Xhosa original

Umdyarho
Lomtu uqhuba Inqwela uyabuza ukuba yeyiphi enokushiywe Idonkinenqwela wathi masendzeumdyarho. yaqalayashiywaIdonk. Lonayikwekwe bonaukuba iyashiywa Idonki wababhayibayisa. Yagqabhukelwalivili inqwela ngoku yashiywa inqwela. ngokuyaphindayashiywa Idonki ngokulonauyikwekwe uyaphinda uyabhayibhayisa. ngoku umqhubi wenqwla watshayisa Ibhokhwe ngoku umqhubi wenqlauxabananomtu webhokhwe. ngokuiywa ziidonkiIinqenqezaphambili ngoku lona uyintombazana uyabhayibhayisa. unemincili

English translation

The race
This person who is driving a taxi he is asking which one can lose between the donkey

cart and the taxi then he said let's make a race. at first the donkey cart was left behind. This boy saw that the donkey cart is being left behind so he waved at them then the taxi tyre exploded then the donkey cart was left behind by the taxi then again the taxi left the donkey cart behind again now this boy is waving at them again. now the taxi driver hits a goat then the taxi driver is arguing with the owner of the goat now the donkey cart is overtaking the taxi now the girl is waving she is happy

In this sample the learner has similar problems to the other isiXhosa samples. He inserts capital letters anywhere in a sentence. He uses long sentences but some words within sentences are not separated. However he is able to depict what he wants because he uses his own language. It is also noticed that the learner understands the function of a title in a story and he gives it a good one. He includes dialogue but does not punctuate it. Maybe he has not been taught to put quotation marks to set off the exact words people say.

4.7 ANALYSIS OF LEARNERS' WRITING

The following comments are the results of what I observed in the learners' writing in the samples:

4.7.1 English originals

4.7.1.1 The sign of comprehension

As I analysed the four scripts of the learners I discovered that at least they had an idea of what was going on in the pictures. This was facilitated by the discussion of the pictures with the teacher prior their writing. Although they used short and vague sentences, a bilingual teacher who understands both English and isiXhosa would agree that the learners understood what was going on in the pictures. The problem was that they were unable to express themselves clearly in written English.

4.7.1.2 Mixing languages

When learners are uncertain of what to write in the second language, they tend to insert words and phrases from their home language. This is evident in sample 1, “fatha and and a boy at *seng* ...” (father and the boy are milking ...); sample 2, “ The grad mothe is *pet* a garden ...” (The grandmother is digging the garden ...) and sample 3, “ The boy *goul* tree” (The boy chops the tree).

The isiXhosa originals of the words in bold italics are:- seng- senga (milk); pet- peta (dig) and goul- gawula (chop).

4.7.1.3 Spelling and phonetic errors

In all the samples the learners struggled to spell words correctly. It is of concern that in grade 5 they cannot spell fairly common English words like mother and father correctly. Most spelling errors that are common in all samples are of phonetic nature. As a result of this spelling problem, at times one cannot understand what the writer wants to say. There are many words used in the samples that have no meaning at all. I think the learners do not really know the words in English.

4.7.1.4 Prepositions and the use of capital letters

Prepositions are another source of difficulty. Learners do not know how to insert correct prepositions. Some do not use prepositions at all. Examples are sample 1, “the boy look the tree. fatha and a boy look in a tree”; sample 2, “The boy cams school to grad Mothe. the boy is a the look of the chinken”. I think the problem with prepositions is that isiXhosa describes position in a syntactically different way from English by means of locatives (for example ‘edesikeni’ can be translated as ‘in/on the desk’ in English). IsiXhosa also has fewer words denoting positions compared to English. Incorrect use of

capital letters is also observed in the learners' writing. They insert capital letters anywhere in a sentence.

4.7.1.5 Sentence structure

In order for writing to be interesting, one needs to vary the styles of sentences. The use of simple, compound and complex sentences make writing interesting. Referring to all the samples of learners' writing in English it was discovered that the only style of writing that was common was the simple sentence. There is evidence of the subject and a verb in almost all sentences though some are short.

4.7.1.6 Genre recount or narrative

In order to tell a story one needs to use the genre of recount or narrative. Recount involves past tense and sequence of actions whereas narrative involves past tense, setting and characters, sequence of actions, problem or complication and resolution. Learners were not able to manage this in English.

4.7.2 Xhosa originals

4.7.2.1 The sign of comprehension

As I have already analysed the four scripts of the learners in isiXhosa I discovered that all four of them really knew what was going on in the pictures and they were able to express this in writing. They used long and complex sentences. What they wrote has meaning even though they wrote the stories in the present tense. They also wrote what they wanted to write with ease.

4.7.2.2 Vocabulary and sentence structure

Referring to all the samples of the learners' writing in isiXhosa, it is evident that learners used a fairly wide range of vocabulary because they were using their own language. They are able to depict whatever they want with relative ease. All sentences are complete sentences. There is evidence of the subject and a predicate in each sentence. Other forms of sentences are also used by learners in the samples. Such sentences are longer and more complex than English. They consist of the main and subordinate clauses. Learners are able to show their creativity by using direct and reported speech although they do not insert quotation marks for direct speech. Sample 3 and sample 4 best illustrate this point. Sample 3:- "... athi omnye oyikwenkwe ndizakukhwela itesi omnye oyintombi mna ndizakukhwela idonki." (... the boy said I am going to ride a taxi and the girl said I am going to ride a donkey cart.); sample 4:- "Lomntu uqhuba inqwelo uyabuza ukuba yeyiphi enokushiywa idonkinenqwela wathi masenze umdyarho." (This person who is driving a taxi he is asking which one can lose between the donkey cart and the taxi then he said let's make a race.)

4.7.2.3 Tense aspect

As I observed the sample scripts of learners I discovered that not all of them wrote their stories in the past tense. It seems as if they are not used to making stories from pictures. Sample 1 and sample 2 are the best to show this. In these samples learners used simple present tense while sample 4 used a mixture of simple and past tense. It was only sample 3 that used past tense. In this sample the child managed to write the whole paragraph in the past which is interesting.

4.7.2.4 Spelling

As I observed the four scripts of the learners in the samples I discovered that all learners had some spelling problems. They cannot spell words correctly. This shows that the

learners are not strong enough even in their home language.

4.7.2.5 Grammatical classes

In all the sample scripts observed, learners managed to use different aspects of grammar. Besides nouns, verbs and conjunctions, they also used adjectives and adverbs with their functions.

4.7.2.6 Punctuation

Punctuation marks are used in written language as a courtesy to the reader so that he/ she may easily understand the writer. In all the sample scripts observed, learners only used a full stop. Although they used dialogue in their writing they never punctuate it. They also show difficulty in inserting correct capitals in sentences. They tend to put capitals anywhere in a sentence.

4.7.2.7 Genre-recount or narrative

Learners are better able to approximate the genre of recount or narrative in isiXhosa. In almost all the samples the events are arranged in a chronological manner. However, they are not able to do this consistently and confidently.

4.8 COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF LEARNERS' WRITING

In this section I will give a comparative analysis of the 37 learners' writing in the two languages.

4.8.1 Sentence length and complexity

When writing, it is interesting to use a variety of sentence structure. All sentences should be complete sentences with a subject and a predicate. As I observed all the learners' writing in English I discovered that none of them used complex sentences. They used short and simple sentences. The sentences were not always constructed completely and accurately. Within the learners there are 9 (24,3%) of them who also used compound sentences. In contrast, learners used simple, compound and complex sentences when writing in isiXhosa. A large number of 29 (78,3%) learners used long and complex sentences. These sentences are complex in the sense that they consist of dependent and independent clauses.

4.8.2 Range of vocabulary

I have not carried out a quantitative analysis of vocabulary because of the difficulties of defining a small or large vocabulary.³ Subjectively, however, learners' vocabulary in isiXhosa appear to be much greater than that in English. In English learners sometimes have to resort to isiXhosa words.

4.8.3 Punctuation and spelling

The only punctuation mark used by learners in all the scripts in both languages is a full stop. Only 2,7% of learners used correct punctuation in the English scripts compared to isiXhosa scripts with 89,2%. Though most learners used dialogue when writing in isiXhosa they failed to insert quotation marks. Spelling is another source of difficulty in the learners' writing. In the English scripts all learners have spelling mistakes whilst only 18,9% of learners showed spelling mistakes in isiXhosa scripts. This quantitative analysis was done on all the learners' scripts.

³ I discussed the quantitative analysis of vocabulary with Dr Eddie Williams of Reading University at the SAALA Conference in July 2001. I tried to follow this up by email, but he is very busy and I was not able to take it further.

4.8.4 Grammatical classes

These are the individual parts that make up a sentence. They each have a special job. The complexity of language used is made more interesting by the use of these classes.

Referring to all the English scripts all learners failed to use various grammatical classes whereas most learners managed to use these classes with their functions in isiXhosa.

4.9 ANALYSIS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

There were nine questions in the questionnaire schedule (see Appendix E) for learners and all the questionnaires were returned at the same time. One of the questions asked them to tick which language they enjoyed at school between English and isiXhosa. Their responses were interesting. Out of thirty-seven learners, only 27% seemed to enjoy isiXhosa. The rest (73%) of the class ticked English. This surprised me because the learners did not perform well in the English lesson. Another question required them to choose whether isiXhosa should be used in the English lesson. A high percentage (83.8%) of the learners wanted isiXhosa to be used in the English class. Learners were also asked the reason why they preferred the use of isiXhosa in an English lesson. A noticeable 40.5% and 46% of the learners chose the following two responses: they are less tense and they feel less lost. A smaller number (13.5%) feel that it is more comfortable to use isiXhosa in an English lesson.

When asked whether their teacher uses English in isiXhosa lessons, they all responded 'no'. When asked on what occasions their teacher uses English in isiXhosa lesson, all responded that she does not use any English. However, as observed earlier, both teacher and learners spontaneously used the English words 'yes' and 'no' in the isiXhosa lesson. The last question required them to say when they think it is appropriate to use isiXhosa in the English class. All agreed that it helps to explain difficult concepts.

4.10 ANALYSIS OF THE INTERVIEW

There were nine questions in the interview schedule (see also Appendix C). When I asked the teacher why learners are not performing in the same way in the two languages (English and isiXhosa) she said that they could not because the two languages are non-cognate. She also said that isiXhosa is the language they use in their daily lives. She continued by saying that even though learners have to express imaginative predictions and abstract concepts, they still find it quite easy because they are using their home language. She said English is their second language and they do not use it at home, though at school it is used as the MOI. I asked her why they do not use English at home. She said that they do not live with English speaking people and in most homes there are no amenities like English reading materials or television where they can be exposed to English. The third question required her to give her view on whether she thinks it is worth using the learners' home language to teach them. Her response was that when their home language is used it becomes easier for them to cope because it is their own language. Responding to the fourth question, which asked whether it might be effective to use some isiXhosa in the English lesson, she said, "It may be effective especially for them because English is used as medium of instruction. So it becomes difficult for some of them to understand. To use their own language helps those who do not understand to track what is happening in the lesson."

The other question required her to give the reason why she translated some expressions into the learners' home language. Responding to this question she said she felt that some of the learners showed confusion. I also asked her why learners are withdrawn and feel so tense in the English lesson that they sometimes do not respond totally to her questions. The following aspects were identified by the teacher:- "They are tense because it is difficult to express their views in English. They tend to first think in their home language and then translate into English. Now because of their limited English vocabulary it is difficult to try." I then asked why learners' vocabulary is so limited. Her response was that the English they learn in grade 4 'does not provide learners the opportunity to learn English as medium in grade 5'.

I lastly asked for her general feeling about the use of English as medium of instruction in grade 5 for the first time. The following was her response:- “I think it has a negative effect. Learners are faced with a challenge of learning many learning areas in English. As a teacher you become frustrated because your duty is to make these learners understand and be able to use this language.”

4.11 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

What emerges in the classroom interaction during the English lesson is that a number of learners find it difficult to understand easy cues. They cannot express themselves explicitly. Their vocabulary is limited and as a result it becomes difficult for them to take part in a lesson. They feel uncomfortable and anxious. This is evident in the video:- they tend to look at one another or scratch their faces when called by the teacher to respond. Some keep silent; they shut their mouths and stop responding or sometimes use gestures to show that they do not know what to say. Macdonald (1991) states that when learners have to learn a new language, they are put into a kind of prison. They cannot tell the teacher what they think because they do not have words to say it. In this case it is not that learners do not have anything to say but their problem is their vocabulary, it is limited. Those who speak use short and vague sentences. It is worrying that these learners have made a little progress in learning English. According to the teacher the reason for learners' limited vocabulary is that the English they use in grade 4 (as a subject) does not provide them with the level of English they need to learn through the medium of English in grade 5. Another possibility is that the teacher herself misses opportunities to provide comprehensible input in real communicative contexts, for example, classroom management. However, she did great efforts to communicate meaning when discussing the pictures.

It has also been found that at the beginning of the English lesson the teacher's questions did not generate a narrative, which is the main aim of discussing the pictures in the lesson. The reason is that the teacher was just setting the scene for the story about

grandparents. I may say that in this lesson she really does try to draw out the story from the pictures. I think she is relatively successful in getting discussion going and she used a lot of English but, as mentioned above, she gave classroom instructions in isiXhosa whereas it would be useful if she gave them in English because they are simple and can be easily understood.

The findings also demonstrated that when the interaction was in isiXhosa learners participated much more actively than in the case where the interaction was in English. Discussion was more focused on narrative. The teacher was able to ask questions to get learners to explore what is happening. She said less and the learners had more to say. Their attitude was positive. They were all uninhibited and wanted to take part in the lesson as Macdonald (1991) puts it. She said learners can express their own ideas and can be creative if they are allowed to speak the language they know. Similarly, Skutnab-Kangas (1994) says all people can identify positively with their mother tongue. This resulted in positive results. No one in the class was lost, bewildered or confused instead they all wanted to be chosen to respond. They developed confidence and in this way their self-learning ability was enhanced. The lesson was alive and learners contributed more in class. Another finding is that learning in the mother tongue improves the student-teacher relationship and active student participation. Macdonald (1991) states that when children use their L1 in the classroom, they can talk about their interests, their needs and their thoughts.

It may also be noted that the teacher finds herself having to use the learners' home language in order to facilitate learning, even in an English lesson. When she uses the learners' home language in the English lesson it becomes easier for some of them to respond or to take part in the classroom activity. As Lin (2000: 158) puts it, this kind of bilingual classroom practice represents a "local, pragmatic solution" to the problems created by the choice of a second (or foreign) language as the MOI despite the fact that teacher and learners have a common home language. These practices, according to Lin, alleviate the painful dilemmas brought about by the symbolic domination of English in the society. The dilemmas that the children and their teacher face are highlighted by the

fact that although the learners struggle in English, they want it to be the medium of instruction. They, too, see code switching as a means of alleviating the dilemma, because they want isiXhosa to be used in the English lesson.

Another finding is that during the discussion of pictures by the learners in their groups some used isiXhosa but reported in English. They took long because they had to translate what they had discussed in isiXhosa into English. In this case, although the home language played a role as a resource for learning, it also slowed down communication and was, in this way, an obstacle. So in this case the use of their home language may have advantages and disadvantages but allowing for the exploration of ideas in the L1 serves to enhance learners' English L2 acquisition. Macdonald (1991) says if learners are well equipped in their L1 mentally, they can transfer their skills and knowledge to the L2 with reasonable ease.

The findings also reveal that the use of L1 by the teacher in the L2 lesson reduces anxiety and enhances the affective environment for learning. It is also in my findings that when learners' L1 is utilised in the L2 lesson, learners feel freer and express themselves. But the other side of the coin is that it may delay learners in feeling comfortable when immersed in their L2. The goal of the L2 class is to ensure that learners feel comfortable in using their L2.

The findings also demonstrate that some learners take risks during the interaction of the English lesson. They try to speak the language (English); as a result they insert some words from their L1. McClure (1997) asserts that while some children acquiring L2 appear at first to confuse the two languages, code switching is, in fact, a normal aspect of L2 acquisition. But in this case it is not that learners are confusing the two languages. The problem is that they want to express themselves but they have no words to say it. They use isiXhosa words to avoid keeping quiet. Because they know these concepts in their stronger language (isiXhosa). Williams and Snipper (1990: 30) say the concepts can be expressed in the L2, 'not necessitating relearning.' All the teacher has to do is to write the

English translation of these words on the chalkboard so that learners are able to use them when writing.

The findings reveal that most learners use short and simple sentences when writing in English compared to isiXhosa where they use longer and more complex sentences. This is because they are unable to express themselves clearly in written English. As a result some of them take some words from their home language and use them when writing in English. The most common word used by the learners is 'seng' (milk). If the teacher had written new vocabulary on the chalkboard learners would have been able to use it when writing.

Another finding is that most learners have spelling mistakes when writing in English. This suggests that they do not do much reading in this language. I believe that reading and writing go together. If the child does not read much s/he will not be able to write well. The learners' writing in isiXhosa also shows some weakness. There is evidence of some learners not being able to separate words. A few of them have spelling problems. Besides spelling, punctuation and the use of capital letters are still a problem in both languages. It is from the findings that in isiXhosa some learners used direct speech but they never punctuated it. This shows that the teacher does not give learners ample opportunity to write in this language. It is also apparent that learners are not really able to write a narrative. This task could also be realised as a recount.

A problem that was encountered in analysing data was the difficulty of quantifying differences in the use of two non-cognate languages. I was not able to find appropriate methods to do this. There is a need to develop such methods in educational linguistics in South Africa.

This chapter has presented the analysis of the data collected in this study. Learners' oral interaction with their teacher in English and isiXhosa with regard to their writing in both languages was analysed and compared. Questionnaires and interview were also analysed.

The following chapter discusses and attempts to draw conclusions from the main findings that arise from this chapter.

CHAPTER 5

5 CONCLUSION

5.1 SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The main focus of this thesis has been on the nature of classroom interaction and of learners' writing, when English and isiXhosa were used as MOI in two different lessons. The purpose has been to explore how learners cope with English as LoLT and whether this is a reasonable choice for a school's language policy.

The findings indicated that during the English lesson a number of learners found it difficult to understand easy cues. They could not express themselves explicitly. Their vocabulary was limited as a result they used short and vague sentences when speaking. During the group discussion of pictures in the English lesson most learners used isiXhosa. They took a long time because they had to translate what they had discussed in English in order to answer the teacher's question in the classroom discussion. This was also the case when they had to write their own stories in English. They used short and vague sentences because they did not have words to communicate their meaning in English. But the case was different when the interaction was in isiXhosa, their home language. They were free and were eager to talk because they were using their own language. When they wrote in isiXhosa they used longer and more complex sentences.

What I have also seen in my study was that the teacher found herself code switching to negotiate the dilemma of using English only in an English lesson. So when she used learners' home language in an English lesson it became easier for some of them to respond or take part in the classroom activity. Learners, too, see code switching as a means of dealing with this dilemma because they want isiXhosa to be used in the lesson.

This shows that learners do not even possess enough BICS capability in English yet they are required to learn all learning areas through the medium of English. Their English language proficiency falls far short of the CALP necessary for coping in an academic

learning environment. Although learners show some weakness when writing in isiXhosa, I suggest that they should continue to learn isiXhosa as LoLT and English as a subject throughout the primary school. This would provide them with strong foundation to learn all other learning areas with reasonable ease. A thorough first language course, according to Macdonald (1991: 30), provides “a bridge between the child’s home language and the demands of the new environment of the school”. If the child has sound proficiency in his/her language and is exposed to good quality English language teaching (as a subject) there is good chance that the child will become a proficient learner in both languages.

It was already stated in the preceding chapters that the school where this research took place had not decided on the formal language policy. It was still using the old policy. I recommend that teachers, together with parents be engaged in discussing this policy as it was written in the LiEP. In this way they should be able to select the LoLT of their choice.

The South African Language policy promotes additive bilingualism and the maintenance of home language(s), so parents can choose isiXhosa to be used as LoLT. But many parents prefer English as LoLT because of its socio-economic power. And even learners seemed to enjoy English more than isiXhosa (responses from the questionnaire-Appendix D). I think it is the duty of the Department of Education to educate all parents by making them aware of the benefit of home language maintenance.

If the school chooses English as LoLT, the learners will still have to cope with all the written work and assessment in English, yet they cannot write English well. I think learners need to be assessed in both languages because when assessed in English only, that could never be a true reflection of learners’ ability. If parents and teachers think of the additive bilingualism approach, they will realise the need to commit themselves to cultivating the children’s home language in both oral and written forms.

5.2 LIMITATIONS

This case study is based on the observation of the nature of the quality of oral interaction of a grade 5 class with their teacher when either English or isiXhosa is used as MOI in different lessons and of the learners' writing arising out of the lessons. There are limitations to the research. The most obvious limitation of my study is that of being a small-scale research involving few participants. Only one teacher with her class of 37 learners was used for the study and it is difficult to generalize from it.

A further limitation relates to the data analysis. I attempted to support my qualitative analysis with a quantitative one. However, I was not able to find an appropriate method of comparing English and isiXhosa, two non-cognate languages. I believe more work needs to be done in educational linguistics in South Africa to develop such methods.

5.3 EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The data presented in this research points to the following implications and recommendations. The findings suggest that learners would have written better stories if they had kept vocabulary books where they could write new words. They need to be given more reading texts that interest them. This will help them acquire more vocabulary. The teacher needs to give attention to phonetics/phonology when teaching English. The school language policy needs to be revised and the school needs to develop a clear bilingual language policy that would take account of literacy issues. Language teachers should be well equipped with necessary skills for teaching English to L2 learners. Learners' L1 should also be well taught in accordance with the curriculum. This should be the case even if it is no longer the classroom language. Finally, there is a lack of an appropriate means of analysis of comparing data in two non-cognate languages. This suggests that there should be more collaborative research between educationists and African linguists.

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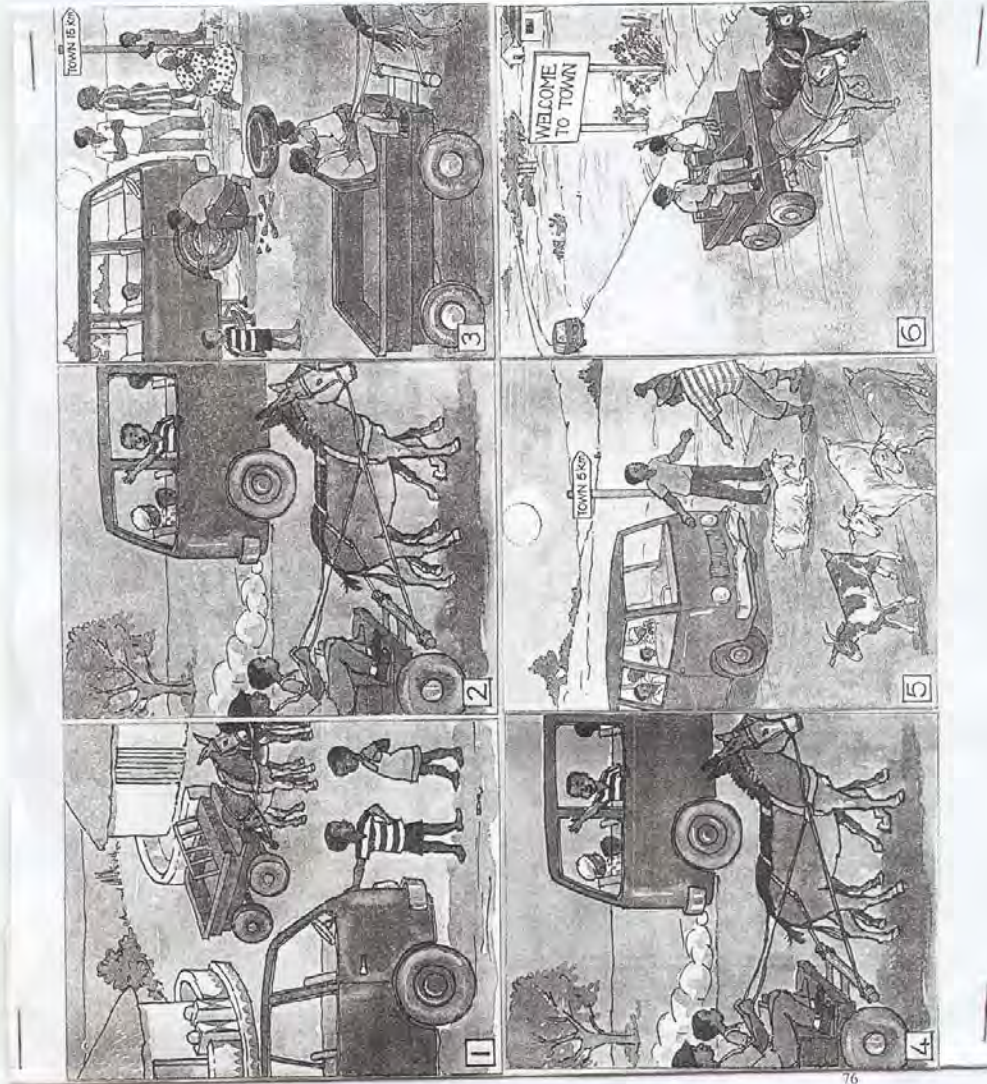
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APPENDIX A I





APPENDIX A 2



APPENDIX B 1

ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE (ESL) LESSON TRANSCRIPT

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

T- Teacher, C- Whole class speaking in chorus, L- Learner, (*italics*)- Researcher's comments, [] –Teacher called learner by name, { }- Researcher's translation into English

- T: Good morning class.
C: Good morning teacher.
T: How are you?
C: We are very well, thank you teacher and how are you teacher?
T: I'm very fine, thank you. Sit down.
C: Thank you teacher (*sitting down*).
T: Eh! Who has a grandmother or a grandfather, mh? Who has a grandmother or a grandfather, mh? Hhe! Hhe! **He? Abantu abanamakhulu bethuna?** Who has a grandmother or a grandfather, mh? Do you have a grandfather? (*pointing to learner 23*).
L23: Yes
T: [Learner 3]
L3: A grandmother.
T: A grandmother! OK. **Ya**, who has a grandfather? (*pointing to learner 25*)
L25: A grandmother
T: A grandmother! Who has a grandfather? **Ya!** (*pointing to learner 30*)
L30: Grandmother and grandfather
T: OK! Grandmother and grandfather
T: How old is your grandmother, mh? How old is your grandmother or your grandfather, **he?** Yes [Learner 7].
L7: Fifty six, my grandmother.
T: My grandmother is fifty six years old, **he?**
L7: My grandmother is fifty six years old
T: OK. His grandmother is fifty six years old. **Ya** (*pointing to learner 28*)
L28: My grandmother is seventy two years old
T: Mhh! Her grandmother is seventy two years old. Yes, [Learner 9]
L9: My grandmother is sixty years old
T: **He?**
L9: My grandmother is sixty years old
T: His grandmother is sixty years old, **nhe?** OK. What does she like to do at home to keep her busy, mh? Ha-ha, **he?** What does she like to do at home, **he** to keep her busy? **Bethunana, iinto ezibenza busy abazithandayo oomakhulu okanye ootatomkhulu man phaya endlini.** Yes, [Learner 33].
L33: In a garden
T: **He?**
L33: A garden.

T: **Andiva!**
L33: In a garden.
T: A garden? Is it your grandmother or your grandfather?
L33: Grandmother
T: **He?**
L33: Grandmother
T: OK! Grandmother. Her, his grandmother likes to, to work in a garden.
Ehe! Yes [Learner 3].
L3: My grandmother like to make a medicine
T: Eh, Which medicine?
L3: *(not responding)*
T: **Amayeza, nhe? Amayeza antoni mhlawumbi?**
L3: **Amayeza amagqirha**
T: O! Is your grandmother a witchdoctor? Oh! That's good. **Ya** *(pointing to learner 27)*
L27: My grandfather like to build a fence
T: OK. His grandfather likes to build a fence. Hhe! **Abany'abantu abana-**
grandmother **bethuna** or grandfather. Hhe! **Ya**, Yes [Learner 2]
L2: *(not responding)*
T: Yes [Learner 18]
L18: I like to make a tea for my grandmother
T: **He?**
L18: I like to make a tea for my grandmother
T: [Learner 18] likes to make tea for her grandmother, **nhe?** OK. That's nice
[Learner18]
T: Do you love your grandmother, mh? Do you love your grandmother or
your grandfather? Yes, [Learner 1].
L1: Do you love your grandmother.
T: **He?**
L1: Do you love your grandmother.
T: Come again.
L1: Do you love *(the teacher interrupting)*
T: I, I love
L1: I love grandmother
T: I love my grandmother
L1: I love my grandmother
T: OK! Yes [Learner 37]. Do you love your grandmother?
L37: Yes
T: Yes, I love my grandmother. Say it again
L37: *(scratching his face)*
T: **Phakama** [Learner37] **mani uthethe**. Yes, I love my grandmother
L37: Yes, yes love my grandmother
T: **Eyi!** Yes *(pointing to learner 26)*
L26: I love my grandmother
T: Yes, I love my grandmother, **Ya**
L26: Yes I love my grandmother

T: *Ya* (pointing to learner 30)

L30: Yes, I love my grandmother with all my heart

T: *Iyo!* With all his heart *bethuna*. That's good. Let us clap hands. (*learners clapping hands*). OK. OK. OK.

T: I have some pictures, *nhe*. I'm going to give each group (*giving the groups envelopes*). There are pictures inside. Open the envelopes. What I want you to do. I want you to arrange the pictures to form a picture story. You must arrange them in order to form a picture story (*helping groups that have difficulty in arranging the pictures*)

T: Alright. Alright, let us look at picture no. 1, *nhe*. How many people are there in picture no. 1, *he?* How many people are there in picture 1? You must discuss the answer in your group. How many people are there, *he?* Yes [Learner 18]

L18: There are four picture in a ... There are four people in a first picture.

T: There are four people in picture no. 1. *He?* Is she right?

C: Yes

T: *He?*

C: Yes

T: How many people? (*pointing to learner 36*)

L36: There are four people

T: OK, how many people (*to a certain group*). What do you say. How many people? Would you please count them for me.

L36: (*counting*)

T: OK. Where do you think. Still in picture no.1, *nhe*. Where do you think the boy is coming from? There's a boy in picture no. 1, *nhe?* Where do you think this boy is coming from, *he?* Do you see that boy?

C: Yes

T: Where is that boy coming from? *Cingani, nank'umfanekiso phambi kwenu nize nependulo, he?* Where do you think that boy is coming from? Where is the boy, *hayi* in picture no. 1. Where is the boy coming from? *Phakama bhuti uthethe* (*pointing to learner 29*).

L29: This boy is coming from town

T: Yes. They say that this boy is coming from town, *nhe?*

C: Yes

T: *Heke! Ya*. What do you say in this group? (*learner 4 responding*)

L4: The boy is coming to the Cambridge

T: Where is he coming from, *he?* *Usuka phi?*

L4: *Etown*

T: *He*. He is coming from town. Ehe! Yes [Learner 5].

L5: The boy was coming from home

T: Coming from home. He is coming from home. Yes, [Learner 15]

L15: He is coming from town

T: *He?*

L15: He is coming from town

T: He is coming from town. Ehe! OK! OK. O! Yes (*pointing to learner 21*)

L21: The boy is coming from the school

- T: They say that the boy is coming from school. *Nhe?* Other group say this boy is coming from town, this boy is coming from school. This boy is coming from his home. OK. Eh!
- T: Who are the two people welcoming the boy. Who are the two people welcoming the boy, *he?* Still in picture no. 1. *He, he.* Still in picture no. 1 *nhe?* There are people that are welcoming the boy. Who are these two people, *he?* (*talking to the other group*). *Mayixoxwe* egroupini. *Ngoobani aba bantu* (*pointing to the picture*), *he?* Who are these two people welcoming the boy, *he.* What do you think, *he?* (*pointing to learner 35*)
- L35: Grandmother and grandfather
- T: His grandmother and his grandfather. *Ya.* OK. Yes [Learner 32]. *Nithini nina apha?* (*learner 32 standing up and responding*)
- L32: I think her grandfather and grandmother
- T: His grandfather and his grandmother, *nhe?*
- C: Yes
- T: So, do you all say that is the boy's grandmother and grandfather? OK
- T: What do you think the people in picture 2 are doing? There are people. Look at picture no.2, *nhe?* Look at picture 2. Let us look at picture 2, *he?* What do you think the people in picture 2 are doing. Yes [Learner 18], *nithini kule* group?
- L18: I see a... I see grandmother cooking a food
- T: Grandmother cooking the food. What about these two, *he?* What about this little boy and his grandfather? Discuss, *he?* What are they doing in picture 2? (*pointing to learner 21*)
- L21: Grandmother is cooking in the milk
- T: *He?*
- L21: Grandmother is cooking in the milk
- T: Come again
- L21: Grandmother is cooking in the milk
- T: In the milk? Ha, where is the milk?
- L21: (*pointing*)
- T: *He!* Is this the milk? Can you cook in the milk, *he?* Can you cook?
- L21: No
- T: Why? Because the- the- the. *Ngumntu we*group *yenu lo.* You said that he is cooking in the milk, hhe ! *He? Nithini kule* group, *ya?* (*learner 17 standing up and responding*)
- L17: Pour the milk in the bucket
- T: If they pour the milk in the bucket, what are they doing? You see, they are busy doing something. What are they doing, *he?* Yes [Learner 10] (*standing up but not responding*)
- L10: *Thetha* [Learner 10] *mani le nto uyicingayo mani*
- L10: Grandmother cooking
- T: Grandmother is cooking. What about the boy and his grandfather?
- L10: Grandfather and ... Grandfather and
- T: And the boy are
- L10: Are *seng*

T: Are *seng*? Ee! What do you mean when you say they are *seng*? OK! They are milking the cow, *nhe*?

L10: Yes

T: They are milking the cow, *nhe*?

C: Yes

T: Eh! The boy and his grandfather are milking the cow. Not they *seng, neh*? OK. OK. What do you think the old woman is going to do with the food she is cooking? You see, that old woman is busy cooking food, *nhe*? What is she going to do with the food, mh? *He*? The old woman is cooking. What is she going to do, *he*? The old woman is cooking. What is he going to do? *He*, [Learner 19], *he*?

L19: (*speaking softly*)

T: Come again

L19: She is going to eat the food

T: She is going to eat the food, *nhe*? Ehe! What is she going to do with the food? (*pointing at learner 25*)

L25: Gr- Grandmother is cooking in the milk, in the man's mill. In the man's mill

T: What is he going to do with the food that he is cooking. *Uzakwenza ntoni ngokwa kutya* (*pointing to learner 32*)

L32: Grandmother is going to eat the food

T: Hee, eh. He is going to feed his family, her family, *he*? (*pointing to learner 8*)

L8: Grandmother cook samp

T: What is he going to do with samp, yes (*pointing to learner 25*)

L25: He is going to with her family

T: Yes, good. He is going to eat the food with her family, *nhe*?

C: Yes

T: OK! What is happening in picture no.3? Do you see picture no.3? You must discuss what is happening in picture no.3. (*learner 17 standing up and responding*)

L17: The boy eat food (*speaking in a low voice*)

T: Come again

L17: The boy eat food

T: The boy is eating food, *nhe*? What about the grandfather?

T: What is happening in picture no.3? Where is picture no.3? What is happening? Yes [Learner 2]

L2: Grandfather and boy eating food

T: The grandfather and the boy are eating food, *nhe*? OK. Yes. *Nithini apha* [Learner 19]?

L19: I see boy and her grand (*teacher interrupting*)

T: And his

L19: And his grandfather sitting in a chair. They were eating

T: OK. OK. This group say that the boy and his grandfather are sitting on the table, *nhe*? They are eating food, *nhe*? Yes (*pointing to learner 31*)

L31: Grandfather and the boy eating eating, eating the food

T: Yes, they are eating food, *nhe*? OK. Let us look at picture no.4. Do you see picture no.4?

C: Yes

T: Discuss, discuss, discuss your answer. What is happening in picture no.4? [Learner 12], *khwaza*

L12: Grandmother and grandfather making a fence

T: Is the grandmother making a fence?

L12: Grandmother and boy making a fence

T: The boy and his grandfather are making *ntoni*? Are making a fence. Yes [Learner 18]

L18: I see a boy helping his grandfather built a fence

T: Hhe, ehe! They are making a fence. A boy and his grandfather. Hhe! Yes [Learner 6]

L6: Grandfather and a boy building in fence

T: *He?*

L6: Grandfather and boy building in fence

T: Grandfather and a boy are building the fence (*pointing to learner 23*)

L23: Grandmother work in garden

T: Grandmother works in the garden, *nhe*? OK. OK. OK. In picture no.5. Do you see picture no.5?

C: Yes

T: Do you see the stick. What do you think the boy. What is the boy doing with the stick in his hand. What is the boy doing with the stick in his hand? This boy is carrying a stick

C: Yes

T: Do you see a stick? (*pointing to learner 29*)

L29: Yes

T: What is he doing? What is he doing? Yes [Learner 9]

L9: A boy chased the cows

T: Come again

L9: The boy is chased the cows

T: The boy chased the cows. Hhe! OK. Yes [Learner 34]

L34: The boy is beat the cow get from the camp

T: Oh! The boy is beating the cows with a stick. OK

T: In this group, what do you say? What does the boy doing with the stick in his hand (*learners looking at the teacher as if they are confused*). *He?* Yes, yes [Learner 7]. What is he doing with the stick?

L7: (*not responding*)

T: Yes [Learner 2]

L2: The boy chase the cows

T: The boy is

L2: Chase the cows

T: Is chasing the cows. Hhe, *he?* Yes (*pointing at learner 30*)

L30: The boy pushing the cows.

T: Hhe *Hayi khange ndize kule* group

T: Yes, what do you say in this group. What is he doing with the stick in his hand? (*pointing at learner 24*)

L24: The boy was chase away the cows

T: Eh, hhe! The boy is chasing the cows away

L24: The boy chasing the cows

T: OK. OK. I think the boy is driving the cows, *nhe? Andithi bethuna?*

C: Yes

T: Yes. OK. Let us look at picture no.6. Do you see picture no.6?

C: Yes

T: What is the boy looking for? What is the boy looking for in picture no.6, *he?* The boy is busy looking for something in picture 6, *hey?* The boy is looking for something in picture no.6, *he?* What is he looking for? He is looking for something. Yes [Learner 16]

L16: He looking for his doing (*speaking softly*)

T: He is looking for his dog

C: Yes

T: Hhe! *Ya* (*pointing at learner 33*)

L33: The look wolf

T: *He?*

L33: They look wolf

T: Wolf? Oh! Where is a wolf? Oh! Is it a wolf (*pointing at the picture*)

C: Yes

T: Hhe. Ehe! Yes. What is the boy looking for? Yes [Learner 14]

L14: The boy is looking a dog

T: Is looking for

L14: A dog

T: For his dog, *nhe?* OK. Is it a dog or a wolf

C: A wolf

T: *He?*

C: Wolf

T: O! Wolf. This is a dog *nhe?* Yes because there are houses in there, *nhe?* How can a wolf. *Ingahlala njani mani iwolf phakathi kwabantu.* This is a dog, *nhe?* OK. *Nithini nina* {learner 19]

L19: The dog wanted his dog look the hens

T: He is looking for his dog, *nhe?* OK. The boy is looking for his dog, *nhe?*

C: Yes

T: Do you say that?

C: Yes

T: Do you agree?

C: Yes

T: He is looking for his dog *nhe?*

T: Where were the hens hiding in picture no.7. Now look at picture no.7. Where were the hens hiding. The hens were hiding somewhere, where? Where were the hens hiding? Do you see the hens? Where were they hiding? [Learner 20] *nithini kule* group?

L20: The hens hiding the tree

T: The hens are
L20: The hens are hiding the tree
T: The hens are hiding on a tree. *Nithini* [Learner 13]?
L13: The hens are hiding on a tree
T: The hens are hiding on a tree. Mm (*pointing at learner 28*)
L28: The boy is see, is see the hens hiding on a tree
T: The hens. So the hens are hiding on a tree, *nhe*? OK. [Learner 16], what do you say? Where are the hens hiding?
L16: The hens looking from the caterpillar
T: From the caterpillar, *he*? Where is the caterpillar? (*the boy pointing at the branch of a tree*)
T: *He!* OK. What is the caterpillar in Xhosa? Can you... *He*?
L16: *Yinyosi*
T: *He? Yintoni?*
L16: *Yinyosi*
T: *Yinyosi, iphi?*
L16: *Linyiki*
T: *Linyiki! Liphi inyiki bantu bale* group?
L16: *Alikho*
T: Ehe! *Ya*. Last group, [Learner 3]
L3: Grandmother and the boy
L3: Grandmother and the look the chicken sitting on the tree because the wolf want to eat chicken
T: The wolf or the dog? The dog
L3: Want to eat the chickens
T: OK. So the chickens are hiding on a tree, *nhe*? OK. OK. The boy. OK. Listen very careful. The boy, the boy and his grandfather look happy in picture no.7, *nhe*?
C: Yes
T: Why are they happy in picture no.7. The boy and his grandfather look so happy in picture no.7. Why are they happy, *he*? Why? Discuss. Why are they happy? They look so happy in picture no.7, why? *He? Hayi bethuna. Hayi hayi.* Why are they happy? They are happy here in picture no.7. You see, he is clapping hands. Why are they happy, why? *Kutheni bevuya nje*, why? Hhe, *he!* Why. Yes [learner 15]
L15: Because they fetched the hens
T: Because they fetched. Because they see these hens. So in all they see the hens not the dog, *nhe? Andithi na bethuna?* They were looking for their hens. Now they were so happy because they see the hens hiding on a tree. Yes [Learner 11]
L11: They were looking for the hens on a tree
T: *He?*
L11: They were looking in the hens in a tree
T: Because they... That's why they are happy because they see hens. Do you see the hens?
C: Yes

- T: They were busy looking for the hens not the dog. **Ya**, [Learner 3]
- L3: Grandfather and the boy they are happy because the dog didn't eat the chickens
- T: Yes because didn't eat the chickens, **nhe**? So they are happy now. O. **He!** That's wonderful
- T: Now you are going to write your own story. (*reprimanding at someone for making noise*) You are now going to write your own story, **nhe!** **Siyavana bethuna?**
- C: Yes
- T: **Heke. Khawume kancinci.** You must give the story a title, **nhe** and write about what happens to a boy when he visits his grandparents. You must use the pictures to help you, **nhe?**
- C: Yes
- T: **Siyavana bethunana?**
- C: Yes
- T: You write your story now about what happened to a boy when he came to visit his grandparents, **nhe?** His grandparents. **Siyavana bethuna.** Give your story a title. Use the pictures to help you starting from picture no.1

APPENDIX B2

ISIXHOSA FIRST LANGUAGE LESSON TRANSCRIPT

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

T- Teacher, C- Whole class speaking in chorus, L- Learner, G- Whole group speaking together, (*italics*)- Researcher's comments, [] –Teacher called learner by name

- T: Ngubani owakha wayibona imbongolo? Niyayazi imbongolo?
C: *Yes*
T: Imbongolo ke yintoni kanene. Yintoni [Learner 5]?
L: Yidonki
T: Yidonki. Ngoobani abakhe bayibona idonki bethuna? O! Hhe! Zikhona iidonki apha eDongwe bethuna?
C: *Yes*
T: *Alright*. Khanindixelele ke, inoba sisilwanyana esinjani bethuna esi siyidonki. Hhe! *Yes* [Learner 19].
L19: Sifana nehashe
T: Sifana nantoni?
C: **Nehashe**
T: Sikhulu njengehashe?
C: *No*
T: **Sincinci kunehashe, nhe?**
C: *Yes*
T: *OK!* Mamela ke apho iidonki sizifumana khona, sizifumana phi? Hhe! Sizifumana phi iidonki. Hhe! Phaya *etown* eBerlin bethuna zikhona iidonki?
C: *No*
T: He?
C: *No*
T: Sizifumana phi iidonki? Apho sizifumana khona. *Yes* [Learner 11]
L11: Sizifumana endle
T: Endle?
C: *Yes*
T: O! Sizifumana endle bethuna?
C: *Yes*
T: Bathi sizifumana endle. Uthini wena [Learner 12]?
L12: Sizifumana emakhaya

- T: Sizifumana emakhaya? Kwawaphi amakhaya mhlawumbi? Akukho donki ekhaya. Akho donki, mna ndihlala eMdantsane mna. Akukho donki ekhaya. Sizifumana phi. **Yes** [Learner 29]
- L29: Iidonki sizifumana elalini
- T: Sizifumana phi?
- C: Elalini**
- T: Ezilalini. Siyavumelana no [Learner 29]?
- C: Yes**
- T: He?
- C: Yes**
- T: Zikhona mos apha eDongwe, andithi na bethuna?
- C: Yes**
- T: Zikhona eMdantsane?
- C: No**
- T: Zikhona eBisho?
- C: No**
- T: Zikhona eBerlin phaya *etown*?
- C: No**
- T: **OK.** Mamela ke ukuba ke uthi sizifumana apha ezilalini ucinga ukuba ziluncedo luni idonki. Zinceda entweni? **Yes** [Learner 35]
- L35: Zinceda kwiimpahla
- T: Njani [Learner 35]?
- L35: Xa sisiya kude sikhwelisa iimpahla**
- T: Sikhwelisa iimpahla ezinjani, ezi zokunxiba?
- L35: **No**
- T: Yimpahla enjani leyo?**
- L35: Imili- mili, ukutya
- T: Ukutya imili- mili. Silayisha ntoni? I- i- i- i ukutya okanye **igrocery**, nhe? Uthini wena [Learner 29]
- L29: Silayisha nezitena phaya kuyo
- T: Izitena zethu. Khawume bethuna, sizibeka emqolo apha edonkini?
- C: No**
- T: Kwenzeka ntoni?
- L29: Sizilayisha esikhojini sayo
- T: Esikhojini kule nqwelo yedonki nhe?
- C: Yes**
- T: **OK.** E- e. Uthini wena [Learner 2]?
- L2: Uxolo misi naxa uthutha amanzi
- T: Naxa sithutha amanzi sisebenzisa, sisebenzisa i- i idonki, andithi na bethunana?
- C: Yes**
- T: Mamela ke. Kusedolophini, kusezilalini, nhe? Ucinga ukuba mhlawumbi idonki isebenza kakhulu phi, ezilalini okanye edolophini? **Yes** [Learner 5]
- L5: Edolophini
- T: Isebenza kakhulu edolophini idonki?
- L5: **Yes**

T: O! Asithuthi manzi thina edolophini yethu, nhe? Asithuthi nkuni. Uthini wena (*pointing at learner 17*)

L17: Isebenza ezilalini

T: Isebenza kakhulu phi?

C & T: Ezilalini

T: Ngoba kaloku sigawula iinkuni nitshilo sizifake kwinqwelo yedonki, andithi? Sikha amanzi ngamadramsi siwafake enqweleni yedonki. Siyavana bethuna.

C: **Yes**

T: Khawume ke, kuyaphangelwa ezidolophini, andithi na bethuna?

C: **Yes**

T: **So**, ucinga ukuba singazisebenzisa iidonki siphangele ngazo?

C: **No**

T: He?

C: **No**

T: Kukho iidonki, mamela. Kukho idonki, kukho iteksi, inqwelo le yokuthutha abantu. Yeyiphi esebenza kakhulu edolophini kwezo nto zimbini, [Learner 33]?

L33: Yiteksi

T: Andiva ke

L33: Yiteksi

T: Yile nqwelo ithutha abantu. Kutheni le nto singenakuzisebenzisa nje iidonki sikhwele kuzo. Siyaphangela, sikhwele ezidonkini. Kutheni, **yes** (*pointing to learner 10*)

L10: Kuba iyacotha

T: Ihamba kancinci, andithi na bethunana?

C: **Yes**

T: Ukuba umke apha ngosix inene uyakufika eBerlin ngoo- **eight** ufike ugxothwe emsebenzini kuba kaloku ithatha ixesha layo ayifani neteksi, andithi na?

C: **Yes**

T: **OK**. Mamela ke ngoku. Apha kum ndinale mifanekiso, siyavana.

C: **Yes**

T: Iqela ngalinye liza kufumana imifanekiso pha ngaphakathi. Into endifuna siyenzile ke, siza kuyivula sikhuphe le mifanekiso ipha ngaphakathi, siyavana

C: **Yes**

T: Le mifanekiso ke ngoku siyibeke ngendlela ngokulandelelana kwayo izokwenzela ibali lethu lihambe ngendlela. Yikhuphe, yikhuphe mntwana'm ukhuphe imifanekiso ngaphakathi.

T: Masisebenzeni wonk'umntu siyibeke ngendlela imifanekiso. Ewe makusetyenzwe bethuna. Sizakwenza ibali apha. **Alright**, nigqibile nhe?

C: **Yes**

T: **He?**

C: **Yes**

- T: Ucinga ke into yokubana eli bali lethu liqhubeka phi ngokujonga pha kula mfanekiso wokuqala, he? Liqhubeka phi eli bali. Niyathetha ke niyaxoxa niyig**group** ninike impendulo efanayo. Siyavana bethuna, e, he? **Yes**
[Learner 11] liqhubeka phi?
- L11: Eli bali liqhubeka **etown**
- T: **Etown?** He! Hayi ke batsho abantu bale **group**. Nithini nina apha, liqhubeka phi eli bali (*pointing to learner 15*).
- L15: Ezilalini
- T: Ezilalini, nithini nina apha [Learner 2]?
- L2: Edolophini
- T: Edolophini? Hhe! Apha kuthiwani bethuna?
- C: Ezilalini
- T: Apha
- C: Ezilalini
- T: Apha
- C: Ezilalini
- T: Mamela ke, yintoni ebangela ukuba nithi eli bali liqhubeka ezilalini, he? Yintoni ebangela uthi liqhubeka ezilalini eli bali, [Learner 35]
- L35: Kukho oorontawuli (*pointing*)
- T: Sibona izindlu, uhlobo lwezindlu. Yabona , izindlu ezifana phi, ezilalini. Ewe. Yeyiphi enye into mhlawumbi eniyiqaphelayo, he? [Learner 19] niqaphela ntoni apha kule **group** yenu nina?
- L19: Neebhokhwe
- T: Andiva ke
- L19: Sibona neebhokhwe
- T: Nibona iibhokhwe? Kula mfanekiso wokuqala ziphi iibhokhwe kanene, he?
- L19: Nazi (*pointing at the picture*)
- T: Makhe sijonge kulo mfanekiso wokuqala. Apha kulo wokuqala umfanekiso.
- C: Sibona ooronta
- T: Nani nibona izindlu, nhe?
- C: **Yes**
- T: Yiyo loonto nisithi liqhubekela ezilalini. Nani nitsho?
- C: **Yes**
- T: Yeyiphi enye into eniyibonileyo nina? (*pointing to learner 6*)
- L6: Iidonki
- T: Iidonki. Zifumaneka phi? Ezilalini. OK. Batsho kula **group** bathi needonki zifumaneka ezilalini. **So** yiyo loo nto sisithi eli bali lethu liqhubekela ezilalini. Siyavana bethuna
- C: **Yes**
- T: Jonga kwakula mfanekiso wokuqala, nhe.
- C: **Yes**
- T: Pha kukho inkwenkwe. Niyayibona le nkwenkwe?
- C: **Yes**

- T: Incokola nantoni? Nentombazana. Siyavana bethuna?
 C: **Yes**
 T: Khandixelele mani inokuba bancokola ngantoni, he? Inokuba bancokola ngantoni? Nantsiya inkwenkwe nentombazana phaya. Inokuba bancokola ngantoni? Makuthethwe kuvunyelwane ngempendulo efanayo. Inokuba bancokola ngantoni, he? (*pointing to learner 7*)
- L7: Bancokola ngedonki ukuba idonki iyashiywa yimoto
 T: Andiva
 L7: Bancokola ngedonki ukuba idonki iyashiywa yimoto
 T: **OK**. Kule **group** bathi kuncokolwa ngedonki. Bathi kuncokolwa ngedonki kuba idonki itheni?
 C: Iyashiywa yimoto
 T: Iyashiywa yiteksi nhe?
 C: **Yes**
 T: E-e. Batsho kule **group**. Nithini nina apho? (*pointing at learner 16*)
 L16: Kuba apha bathi aba ntwana bafuna ukujonga ozakufika kuqala edolophini, idonki neteksi
 T: Bathi bazakujonga ozakufika kuqala idonki nantoni, neteksi, Hhe, nithini [Learner 19] apho kulo **group**?
 L19: Yeyiphi eshiywayo idonki neteksi
 T: Yeyiphi eshiywayo nantoni neteksi. Nineny'into apho [Learner 5]. Nithini nina?
 L5: Idonki, ilantuka, idonki iyashiywa yiteksi
 T: Idonki iyashiywa yintoni? Iyashiywa yiteksi. OK. Makhe sijonge lo mfanekiso wesibini. Siyawubona bethuna umfanekiso wesibini?
 C: **Yes**
 T: Kuqhubeka ntoni kula mfanekiso wesibini, he? Kuqhubeka ntoni kumfanekiso wesibini,he? Makuthethwe bethuna **egroup**ini. Makuthethwe, makuthethwe. Sanukuhlala nje thethani, thethani ndifuna impendulo, he. [Learner 22]
- L22: Bayareyisisa
 T: Kuyareyisiswa, Hhe! Kutshiwo kule **group** kuthiwa kuyareyisiswa (*learner 15 standing and responding*)
- L15: Bayabona ukuba idonki ishiyiwe yiteksi ngoku bayabhabhayisa
 T: Idonki ishiyiwe ngoku yintoni?
 C: Yiteksi
 T: Ngoku kwenziwa ntoni?
 C: Bayabhabhayisa
 T: Ngoobani noobani? Baninzi aba bantu babhabhayisayo phaya?
 C: **No**
 T: O, nitsho nani [Learner 19], nithini nina?
 L19: **No**, apha le ntombi ithe ayinakushiywa idonki yile teksi ngoku yashiywa idonki
 T: Kuthiwa apha kule **group** bethunana, intombi ibithe thina le nqwelo yethu ayinakushiywa yiteksi masireyisiseni nantso ke iteksi yatsho yabashiya. Siyavana bethuna?

C: *Yes*
T: Hhe! Makhe sive okokugqibela apha. Kuthiwani apha? (*pointing at learner 17*)
L17: Itekisi ishiya idonki
T: Itekisi ishiya ntoni?
L17: Idonki
T: E-e, itekisi ishiya idonki. He bethunana! OK. Mamela ke mamela, ukuba ndithi apha kuwe apha kukho umdyarho wenqwelo yedonki kunye nenqwelo leya ithutha abantu, itekisi. Siyavana?
C: *Yes*
T: Ingaba uyandivumela xa ndisitsho?
C: *Yes*
T: Uyandivumela ukuba ndithi ngumdyarho lowa?
C: *Yes*
T: Kutheni nindivumela nje? Kungoba kutheni, he? Kutheni undivumela nje, he? Kutheni nindivumela nje xa ndisithi ngumdyarho wenqwelo yedonki nenqwelo le ithutha abantu, itekisi. Nithi ewe miss siyavuma kutheni nisitsho nje, he? Hhe! Kuthiwani apha [Learner 18]?
L18: Kuba ziyashiya- shiyana
T: Ziyashiya- shiyana, iintoni?
C: Idonki netekisi
T: Zishiya- shiyana phi bethuna? Siphethe umfanekiso wesibini andithi?
C: *Yes*
T: E-e andiva ke ngoku tu
C: Idonki iyashiywa
T: Idonki iyashiywa?
C: *Yes*
T: O, *so* ngumdyarho ke ngoku kuba idonki iyashiywa?
C: *Yes*
T: Hhe, mh! Makuthethwe bethuna makuthethwe. Niyavuma kuqala nani kule **group** ukuba ngumdyarho lo. Yintoni ebangela ukuba nivume ndifuna loo nto. Yintoni ebangela ukuba nivume nindingqinele nithi ngumdyarho lo? (*learner 33 responding*)
L33: Kungokuba itekisi iyayishiya idonki
T: Andiva
L33: Kuba itekisi iyayishiya idonki
T: E- e. Nithini [Learner 16]?
L16: Ngokubana idonki iyashiywa yitekisi
T: **OK**. Masimele ke. Khawujonge kumfanekiso wesithathu. Siyavana?
C: *Yes*
T: Uyawubona umfanekiso wesithathu?
C: *Yes*
T: Kwakulo mfanekiso, khawume kancinci. Kwakulo mfanekiso wesibini ikwekwe phaya iphakamise isandla. Uyayibona la kwekwe?
C: *Yes*
T: Ucinga ukuba isiphakamisele ntoni esa sandla? Mh! [Learner 20]

L20: Ikwenkwe iyabhayibhayisa
T: Kuthiwa apha iyabhayibhayisa. Hhe! [Learner 19]
L19: Ndinga ukuba ithi nantso ke, nantso ke, siyayishiya idonki yenu
T: Hhe! Bathi itsho ithi nantso ke, nantso ke siyayishiya idonki yenu. Yenzani, iyaguya andithi?
C: **Yes**
T: E..., nithini apha? (*pointing to learner 21*)
L21: Iyabhabhayisa kuba ishiywa idonki
T: Ewe i-iyabhabhayisa i-iyaguya into ethetha ukuba njengokuba iphakamisa esa sandla inemincili iyavuya, andithi na bethuna?
C: **Yes**
T: **OK**, e masijonge umfanekiso wesithathu. Uyawubona umfanekiso wesithathu? Kuqhubeka ntoni ke ngoku kula tekisi pha kula mfanekiso wesithathu, he? Kwenzeka ntoni ngoku kula mfanekiso wesithathu. Jonga inqwelo leya. Kwenzeka ntoni ke ngoku pha, he? **Yes** [Learner 9]
L9: Itekisi iyalungiswa
T: Kulungiswa itekisi, itheni?
L9: Ivili layo liphumile
T: Igqajukelwe yintoni?
C: Livili
T: Ewe, nithini apho nina? (*pointing to learner 30*)
L30: **Miss** mna ndicinga ukuba apha lo mntana ubhabhayisa le tekisi kuba igqajukelwe livili
T: Owuphi umntana ke ngoku?
L30: (*pointing*) Lo mntu lo
T: Kuba igqajukelwe livili
L30: **Yes**, bayayishiya
T: E, apha eteksini kuqhubeka ntoni kanye? Yintoni le iqhubekayo? (*pointing to learner 26*)
L26: Kulungiswa imoto
T: Itheni?
L26: Kufakelwa itayi letekisi
T: Kutheni selifakelwa nje, kwenzeke ntoni? **Yes** [Learner 11]
L11: Inoba belipoqile
T: Lipoqile
L11: **Yes**
T: Okanye ligqabhukile
L11: **Yes**
T: Ligqabhukile nhe?
L11: **Yes**
T: Itekisi phaya igqajukelwe yintoni?
C: Livili
T: Nani nitsho apha (*pointing*)
C: **Yes**
T: Yintoni, ucinga ukuba yintoni isizathu sokuba ligqabhuke ivili, he?

- Kutheni igqajukelwe livili nje inoba bekusenzeka ntoni? Niyaxoxa kaloku andibuzi mntu omnye ndifuna niyixoxe niyig**group** nithethe impendulo enye. He, he nithini apha nina? (*pointing to learner 31*)
- L31: Ibibaleka kakhulu ngenxa yokuba ifuna ukushiya idonki
T: Ewe, nithini apha [Learner 19?]
- L19: Uxolo miss inokuba bekukho iingceba zebhotile phantsi yagqajukelwa livili kwehla umoya
T: Nani mos nitsho?
C: **Yes**
T: Nithini nina, he? **Yes**, thetha [Learner 9]
- L9: Inoba ibibaleka kakhulu kwatoka eza nto zo-zo-zokuqinisa itayi, amaqhaga okuqinisa itayi
T: Athini, apoqa?
L9: **Yes**
T: Yiyo loo nto ibaleka kakhulu?
L9: **Yes**
T: **Alright**, mamela ke. Kwalapha kulo mfanekiso, siyavana?
C: **Yes**
T: Lo wesine ke ngoku masijonge wona. Niyawubona umfanekiso wesine?
C: **Yes**
T: Inokuba kwenzeka ntoni kula mfanekiso wesine? Nanku umfanekiso wesine. Kwenzeka ntoni phaya, he? Kwenzeka ntoni kumfanekiso wesine bethuna? E-e uthi kwenzeka ntoni? (*pointing to learner 17*)
- L17: Lo uyinkwenkwe ubhabhayisa aba bakhwele apha kule donki. Ngoku iteksi ilungile bayayishiya
T: Bayayishiya ngoku i-i-i-idonki, nhe?
C: **Yes**
T: E-e nithini [Learner 3] nina kule **group**?
L3: Imoto iyayisha idonki ngoba kuqala idonki ibiyishiya iteksi kuba itayi beligqabhukile, ngoku lo mntwana uyinkwenkwe uyayibhabhayisa idonki
T: E, ubhabhayisa kuba evuya inqwelo yabo iyayishiya idonki. E masiv'apha okokugqibela kuthiwani apha? (*pointing to learner 34*)
- L34: Inoba ngeli xesha kulunga le teksi bona abale donki ibihamba ngoku yafunyanwa yile teksi wathi lowa sinifumene soze nisishiye
T: **Alright**, mamela ke. Khawundixelele mani, la nkwenkwe iziva njani kula mfanekiso wesine. Iziva njani la nkwenkwe, he? Iziva njani la kwenkwe kula mfanekiso wesine, he? **Yes** [Learner 36], iziva njani?
- L36: Iziva inemincili
T: Iziva inemincili nhe? Yonwabile, siyavana bethuna. Kanti intombazana ngokuya...Masive apha, andithi. Thetha [Learner 4]
- L4: Iziva ivuya kuba ifumane idonki
T: Iziva ifumane bani?
L4: Idonki
T: Ewe iyavuya la nkwenkwe nasiya isandla bethuna ngokuba kaloku baphinde bayifumana intoni?
C: Idonki

T: La-la kari yedonki siyavana.
C: **Yes**
T: Iziva njani yona la ntombazana? Nantsiya intombazana nayo pha kula mfanekiso wesine. Iziva njani, he? He nithini apha nina? (*learner 28 standing up and responding*)
L28: Ayiziva mnandi, iqumbile
T: Iqumbile nhe? OK, nithini nina? (*learner 18 responding*)
L18: Iziva buhlungu
T: Andiva ke
L18: Iziva buhlungu kuba iidonki ziyashiywa yiteksi
T: Iziva kubuhlungu kuyo ngokuba kutheni?
L18: Ngokuba idonki iyashiywa yiteksi
T: Hhe! Makhe sive apha okokugqibela, he? (*pointing to learner 25*)
L25: Iziva idanile ngokuba iteksi izishiyile iidonki
T: Iziva idanile ngokuba inqwelo yabo yedonki ishiywe yintoni?
L25: Yiteksi
T: Siyavana bethuna? Makhe sijonge umfanekiso wokugqibela, umfanekiso wesihlanu. Siyawubona sonke?
C: **Yes**
T: Siyawubona?
C: **Yes**
T: Heke! ucinga ukuba kwenzeka ntoni phaya? Uthini [Learner 35]. Nithini [Learner 35] kulo **group**?
L35: Uxolo misi sithi, sithi. Uxolo misi sithi imoto itshayise iibhokhwe, la tata weebhokhwe ulwa nala mntu uqhuba iteksi
T: Ewe, niyeva bethuna, bathini apha?
C: **Yes**
T: Hhe! nithini ke nina ke. Nani nitsho?
C: **Yes**
T: Hhe! [Learner 36], hayi-hayi. [Learner 11] kuthiwani, kuthiwani kule **group** yakho?
L36: Uxolo misi sithi le bhokhwe itshayiswe yile teksi
T: Ibhokhwe itshayiswe yiteksi. Nitsho nina apha?
G: **Yes**
T: Nithini nina [Learner 8]?
L8: Uxolo misi iteksi ibihamba ngoku yatshayisa ibhokhwe ngoku bayaxabana umntu weebhokhwe uxabana nala mntu uqhuba iteksi
T: Hhe kuthiwa apha kule **group** bethuna iteksi ibihamba yatshayisa ntoni?
C: Ibhokhwe
T: Umntu weebhokhwe ngoku uxabana nomqhubi weteksi, [Learner 29]
L29: Uxolo misi umntu webhokhwe ebeqhuba iteksi
T: Umntu webhokhwe ebeqhuba iteksi?
L29: Ngoku umntu weteksi ebeqhuba iteksi ngoku watshayisa ibhokhwe. Uthi umntu webhokhwe uthi ufuna ibhokhwe yakhe ngoku wehlika unoteksi wathi uyocela uxolo.
T: O! ucela uxolo kulo mntu webhokhwe

- C: *Yes*
- T: OK. Mamela ke. Ucinga ukuba la madoda mabini ancokola ngantoni kula mfanekiso wesihlanu,he? Yintoni bathetha ngayo? Uyabona okokuba bayathetha aba bantu. Andithi na bethuna?
- C: *Yes*
- T: E-e bathetha ngantoni? Yintoni le bancokola ngayo aba bantu abayana, he? Hhe! He-he [Learner 37]?
- L37: La madoda mabini athetha ngale bhokhwe. Lo tata ufuna ibhokhwe yakhe ivuke. Ebekhaphela iibhokhwe ngoku yathi gqi le tekisi yatshayisa le bhokhwe
- T: Siyamva bethuna? Hayi bethuna mamela kaloku umntu we**group** xa ethetha mmamele le nto ayithethisi. Thetha [Learner 37]
- L37: Uxolo misi la madoda ebethetha ngebhokhwe ngoku lo tata ufuna ibhokhwe yakhe ivuke uthetha nalo noteksi
- T: Ufuna ibhokhwe yakhe ivuke?
- L37: *Yes*
- T: Uyifuna kubani?
- L37: Kulo noteksi
- T: Kulo noteksi , Hhe! Uthini wena [Learner 18]?
- L18: Uxolo misi inoba la madoda mabini athetha ngale bhokhwe itshayisiweyo
- T: Athetha ngale bhokhwe
- L18: *Yes*
- T: Hhe! Mh! Kuthiwani apha khe ndizokuva kuthiwani? (*learner 33 standing up and responding*)
- L33: Uxoxa nomnikazi weteksi kuba ibhokhwe yakhe itshayisiwe ngoku unoteksi ucela uxolo
- T: Ngoku unoteksi ucela uxolo
- L33: *Yes*
- T: **Alright**, mamela ke. Kuqhubeka ntoni phaya kula mfanekiso wokugqibela, la mfanekiso wesithandathu? Kuqhubeka ntoni, he? Kuqhubeka ntoni kula mfanekiso wesithandathu,he? [Learner 15], khanitsho nithini apha kule **group**?
- L15: Uxolo *miss* sithi thina iteksi iyashiywa yidonki
- T: Iteksi itheni?
- L15: Iyashiywa yidonki
- T: Iteksi ishiywe yintoni, yidonki (*learner 12 responding*)
- L12: Kuba ilityazisiwe ngula mntu webhokhwe ngoku nala ntombi iyavuya
- T: O! Tyhi! Hhe ! ndiyazibona ke ngoku, he. Nithini nina? (*learner 27 responding*)
- L27: Uxolo *miss* iteksi ishiyiwe yidonki uyavuya lo mntana
- T: Uyavuya. Hhe! Kutshiwo nalapha? (*pointing to learner 25*)
- L25: Iteksi ishiyiwe yidonki
- T: Iteksi ishiyiwe yintoni?
- L25: Yidonki
- T: Yidonki, eh masive apha owokugqibela (*pointing to learner 30*)
- L30: Iteksi ishiywe yidonki kuba lo noteksi ulityaziswe ngumntu webhokhwe

- T: Ulityaziswe ngumntu webhokhwe, yashiyek'idlula inqwelo yantoni?
 C: Yedonki
 T: Sitsho sonke bethuna?
 C: **Yes**
 T: Ilityaziswe yintoni inqwelo le yabantu, iteksi?
 C: Ilityaziswe yidonki
 T: Mamela ke, kwakhona khawujonge kwalapha kulo mfanekiso wesithandathu siyavana? La mfanekiso wokugqibela. Nantsiya intombazana pha iphakamise ntoni?
 C & T: Isandla.
 T: Iziva njani le ntombi mani. He-he iphakamise isandla. Ayijonganga nendlela ebheka phambili imehlo lipha eteksini yenjenje (elinganisa) iphakamise isandla. Iziva njani la ntombi? Mh! [Learner 11]
 L11: Iziva yonwabile
 T: Iziva yonwabile. Nithini nina? (*learner 18 responding*)
 L18: Iziva yonwabile kuba iteksi ishiyiwe yidonki
 T: Yonwabile kuba bayishiyile iteksi. Nithini nina? (*learner 22 responding*)
 L22: Iziva yonwabile kuba bashiye iteksi, bayivulela **igap**
 T: Yho! kuthiwa ide yavulelwa i-i-i, hayi andiyazi ukuba yintoni **igap** yintoni na! **Yes** (*learner 31 responding*)
 L31: Inokuba iyavuya ishiyiwe iteksi kuba kwezinye iimini ibishiywa idonki
 T: Ewe nhe. **Alright**, mamela ke mamela. Ngoku into endifuna undenzele yona uza kubhala ibali lakho. Siyavana?
 C: **Yes**
 T: Awuzokusebenza nabantu **begroup** uzakusebenza wedwa ngoku ubhale, undibhalele ibali. Siyavana?
 C: **Yes**
 T: Eli bali uzakulinika isihloko. Siyavana bethuna?
 C: **Yes**
 T: Nawe mos uyayazi xa ubalisa ibali, 'Mhla ndayaleka', utsho, utsho ubalise, vetye-vetye-vetye-vetye-vetye-vetye, nhe? 'Imini endandonwabe kakhulu ngayo' ubalise, vetye-vetye-vetye. Nawe ke ndifuna ibali lakho ozandenzela lona libe nesihloko, siyavana? Emveni koko ngoku undibalisele yonke into eyaqhubeka phakathi kwenqwelo yedonki kunye nenqwelo le yamafutha le iteksi, siyavana bethuna? Endleleni ebheka phi edolophini, siyavana bethunana? Siyazibona mos ukuba zazibheka phi, zazisiya phi, edolophini. Nankuya umfanekiso uthi, 'Welcome to town' into ethetha ukuba, 'Wamkelekile edolophini', siyavana bethuna? Uza kundibalisele usebenzise le mifanekiso ngolu hlobo, siyavana. Yonke into eyaqhubekayo endleleni ebheka edolophini phakathi kwenqwelo yedonki kunye nala teksi. Siyavana ke?

APPENDIX C

TRANSCRIPT OF INTERVIEW WITH NONDWE

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

R- Researcher, T- Teacher

R: As I have been observing your two lessons (i.e. English and isiXhosa) I discovered that the learners did not perform in the same way. Can you comment on this?

T: Yes, they did not. These two languages are not similar to each other. Xhosa is their home language and they use it in their daily lives. Even though learners have to express imaginative predictions and abstract concepts they still find it quite easy because they are using their home language. English, on the other hand is their second language. They do not use it at home and in school they use it as medium of instruction.

R: Why don't they use English at home?

T: They don't live with English speaking people and in their homes there are no amenities like English reading materials or television.

R: Do you think it is worth to use the learners' home language to teach them?

T: Of course it is. When their home language is used it becomes easier for them to cope because it is their own language.

R: Do you think it may be more effective to use some Xhosa in your English lesson?

T: It may be effective, especially for them because English is used as medium of instruction. So it becomes difficult for some of them to understand. To use their own language help those who do not understand to track what is happening in the lesson.

R: During the English lesson you tend to translate some expressions in their mother tongue (isiXhosa) like, "*Bethuna iinto ezibenza busy abazithandayo oomakhulu okanye ootatomkhulu man phaya endlini.*" Why?

- T: I felt that some of the learners got lost. I believed that to use their first language would help to facilitate learning. It is useless to continue with the lesson while some learners show confusion.
- R: I have discovered that the learners used long, complete sentences when they answer in their first language compared to their second language. What do you think is the reason for that?
- T: As I have mentioned earlier, English is not their home language and it is used as medium of instruction for the first time. This clearly shows that they have limited vocabulary. They cannot express themselves fully in this language.
- R: Some learners felt tense during the English lesson. Sometimes they do not respond totally to your questions. Can you explain why?
- T: They are tense because it is difficult to express their views in English. They tend to first think in their language and then translate in English. Now because of their limited English vocabulary it becomes difficult to even try to express themselves.
- R: Why do they have limited vocabulary?
- T: The English they learn in grade 4 does not get learners to the level where they can use English as medium of instruction in grade 5.
- R: There was an instance where you asked your learners, “What are the people in the picture doing.” The response from one of the learners was that, “They *seng*.” Can you comment on this?
- T: The learner had an understanding of the question. The problem is the same as the one in the previous question. Instead of shutting his mouth saying nothing, he answered by inserting a word from his home language.
- R: What is your general feeling about the use of English as medium of instruction in grade 5 class for the first time?
- T: I think it has a negative effect. Learners are faced with a challenge of learning many learning areas in English. As a teacher you become frustrated because your duty is to make these learners understand and be able to use this language. But as time goes by they become all right. You know what, they say they like English.
- R: Thank you very much Nondwe for your willingness to take part in this research.

APPENDIX D

Questionnaire for grade five learners on the use of isiXhosa and English in the English Second Language (ESL) and isiXhosa First Language classroom

Please tick the appropriate box or boxes/ Nceda phawula ibhokisi okanye iibhokisi ezifanelekileyo:

1. How many languages do you learn at school? / Zingaphi iilwimi ozifundayo esikolweni?
 One/ nye two/ zimbini three/ zintathu

2. Which languages do you learn at school? / Ziziphi iilwimi ozifundayo esikolweni?
 Xhosa First Language only/ IsiXhosa Ulwimi Lokuqala kuphela
 English Second Language only/ IsiNgesi Ulwimi Lwesibini kuphela
 Both Xhosa First Language and English Second Language/ SisiXhosa Ulwimi Lokuqala kwakunye nesiNgesi Ulwimi Lwesibini

3. Which language do you enjoy at school? / Luluphi ulwimi olonwabelayo esikolweni?
 IsiXhosa English/ isiNgesi

4. Should isiXhosa be used in English lesson? / Ingaba isiXhosa sinokusetyenziswa xa kufundiswa isiNgesi?
 Yes/ Ewe No/Hayi

5. If you prefer the use of isiXhosa in an English lesson, why? / Ukuba ukhetha kusetyenziswe isiXhosa xa kufundiswa isiNgesi, kungoba kutheni?
 It is more comfortable/ Kumnandi
 I am less tense/ Ndiyakhululeka
 I feel less lost/ Andiziva ndilahleke kakhulu

Does your teacher use English in Xhosa lesson? / Ingaba utitshala wakho uyasisebenzisa isiNgesi xa efundisa isiXhosa?
 Yes/ Ewe No/ Hayi

6. When does your teacher use English in Xhosa lesson? / Kuxa kutheni ukuze utitshala wakho asebenzise isiNgesi xa efundisa isiXhosa?
 To make jokes/ xa efuna sihleke
 When explaining Xhosa work to us/ Xa esicacisela umsebenzi wesiXhosa
 She does not use any English/ Akasebenzisi siNgesi konke- konke

7. When do you think it is appropriate to use isiXhosa in English class? / Ucinga ukuba kubaluleke ngantoni ukusebenzisa isiXhosa xa kufundiswa isiNgesi?
 To explain difficult concepts/ Ukucacisa amagama anzima
 To joke around with students/ Ukuqhula nabafundi

- To help students feel comfortable and confident/ Ukunceda abafundi bazive bekhululekile yaye bezithemba
- To check for comprehension/ Ukukhangela okokuba bazi kangakanani na abafundi
- To define new vocabulary items/ Ukuchaza uluhlu lwamagama amatsha

APPENDIX E

Summary of the grade 5 learners' questionnaire on the use of isiXhosa and English in the English Second Language (ESL) and isiXhosa First Language classroom.

1. How many languages do you learn at school?
One : 0%
Two : 0%
Three: 100%

2. Which languages do you learn at school?
Xhosa First Language only : 0%
English Second Language only : 0%
Both Xhosa First Language and English Second Language: 100%

3. Which language do you enjoy at school?
IsiXhosa : 27%
English : 73%

4. Should isiXhosa be used in English lesson?
Yes : 83.8%
No : 16.2%

5. If you prefer the use of isiXhosa in an English lesson, why?
It is more comfortable : 13.5%
I am less tense : 40.5%
I feel less lost : 46%

6. Do you like or would you like your teacher to use isiXhosa in English lesson?
Not at all : 5.4%
A little : 94.6%
A lot : 0%

7. Does your teacher use English in Xhosa lesson?
Yes : 0%
No : 100%

8. When does your teacher use English in Xhosa lesson?
To make jokes : 0%
When explaining Xhosa work to us : 0%
She does not use any English : 100%

9. When do you think it is appropriate to use isiXhosa in English lesson?
To explain difficult concepts : 100%
To joke around with learners : 0%
To make learners feel comfortable and confident : 0%

To check for comprehension : 0%
To define new vocabulary items : 0%