

THE INFLUENCE OF TEACHER DISCOURSE MOVES ON
COMPREHENSIBILITY OF LANGUAGE CONTENT BY ENGLISH
FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE (EFAL) LEARNERS

by

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DECLARATION

I Elizabeth Tobana Masube, hereby declare that this dissertation for Masters in Language Education degree at the University of Limpopo, submitted by me, has not been previously submitted at this or any other institution and that this is my own work in design and execution, all reference materials contained therein have been duly acknowledged.

.....

Signature

.....

Date

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my late parents Beauty Thokozile and Andrew Puleng Masube for their insatiable support, encouragement and guidance. Bakwena!

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ABSTRACT

This study was intended to investigate how teacher discourse moves influence comprehensibility of language content by the English First Additional Language (EFAL) learner and promote active participation by the learner in classroom interaction. The research is a Case Study which was conducted at a primary school in the Greater Sekhukhune District in Limpopo Province.

The Qualitative research approach was applied in the Case Study since the research is concerned with experience as it is lived 'or felt' or 'undergone' by participants. the key concern of this research is understanding the phenomenon of interest, from the participants' perspectives, not the researcher's.

The situation in most Black schools is that first of all, teachers who teach English First Additional Language (EFAL) are not first speakers of English themselves. Secondly, learners have a problem of acquiring information through English as an additional language hence the question of comprehensibility of English language content. Teachers and especially learners are de-motivated as they lose interest in what goes on in English classroom interaction due to the comprehensibility of English First Additional Language content

As participant observer the researcher in this study concludes that the use of discourse moves by the teacher in classroom interaction enables the learner to comprehend the language content. Also that the teacher's code-switching and code-mixing into the learners' home language develops not only comprehensibility of EFAL language content but most of all promotes active learner participation in classroom interaction. This in turn helps the teacher to achieve the desired learning outcomes.

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APPENDIX 1: Lesson-plan of the lesson of study

APPENDIX 2: Verbatim transcript of the lesson of study

ACCOMPANIMENT: Audio tape of recorded classroom interaction of the lesson of study

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

When one looks at what goes on in the classroom, it is evident that language plays a central role in learning no matter what the subject area. The English First Additional Language (EFAL) learner has to attend to language input and figure out first what the utterance means as a whole and second, what particular parts of the utterances mean. In this case where English is a medium of teaching and learning, learners must develop listening strategies that will help them to segment and understand the input. To try to meet the learners' needs, the Indirect Method postulates that there should be a lot of interaction between teacher and learner since our learners' English proficiency is almost always below what is expected of them.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Learners display a lack of comprehensibility of language input as the teaching and learning of English First Additional Language (EFAL) is in progress in class. The result is that learners do not participate and do not get actively involved in classroom interaction.

1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY

To investigate teacher discourse "moves" in classroom interaction; to see how these develop comprehensibility of language input of English First Additional Language in the learner in turn promote and facilitate learner active involvement and participation in classroom interaction so as to enhance the achievement of desired learning outcomes.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This study seeks to achieve the following objectives:

- To observe how discourse “moves” used by the EFAL teacher in classroom interaction promote active learner participation which is indicative of comprehensibility of language input in the learner.
- To determine what contribution such an analysis offers the teacher to ensure purposeful and meaningful classroom interaction to the learner; resulting in active learner involvement and participation in the lesson.

1.5 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

For purposes of this study, the following concepts must be understood as explained below:

EFAL:

English First Additional Language (Curriculum 2005 Policy Document).

This is English taught to learners whose first language is not English which used to be called English Second Language before the advent of Outcomes Based Education.

Discourse

Language use, be it in writing or speaking (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2000: 7).

Discourse analysis

The examination of language use by members of a particular speech community (Eric Digest Sept. 2001: 1).

Conversation

The natural flow of language between speakers (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2000: 7).

Conversation analysis

Description of the sequences that are developed and the sequential constraints that are characteristic of the natural flow of conversation (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2000: 173).

Interaction

Acting reciprocally – acting upon each other through word or action (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2000: 7).

Interaction analysis

The examination and description of language used reciprocally by speakers (Stenstrom 1994: 30).

Classroom interaction

The teacher acting upon the class while the class reaction becomes in itself an action, evoking a reaction in the teacher which influences his subsequent action. There is a constant pattern of mutual influence and adjustment (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2000: 7).

The transaction

Consists of one or more exchanges usually between teacher and learner or between learner and learner dealing with one single topic, one or more transactions make up a conversation (Stensroom 1994: 30).

The exchange

It is the smallest interactive unit consisting, minimally, of two turns produced by two different speakers (Stenstrom 1994: 30).

The turn

Is everything the current speakers says before the next speaker takes over; it consists of one or more moves (Stenstroom 1994: 34).

The move:

Is what the speaker does in a turn in order to start, carry on and finish an exchange, i.e. the way he/she interacts; a “move” consists of one or more acts; it signals what the speaker wants to communicate (Stensroom 1994: 30).

The act

It is defined by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) as the smallest interactive unit which the speaker intends to communicate (Stenstroom 1994: 30).

Code-switching and code-mixing:

Ayeomoni (2006:91) defines code-switching according to Hymes (1974) as “A common term for alternative use of two or more languages, varieties of language or even speech styles.”

Code-mixing

Ayeomoni (2006: 91) refers to code-mixing as the embedding of various linguistic units such as affixes, words, phrases, and clauses from a co-operative activity where participants, in order to infer what is intended must reconcile what they hear with what they understand.

1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.6.1 Main Research Question

What hinders comprehensibility of English First Additional Language input in the learner?

1.6.2 Sub-Questions

- What prevents purposeful and meaningful teaching and learning in classroom interaction?
- Can teacher discourse “moves” facilitate and promote comprehensibility of English First Additional Language input in the learner to make the lesson purposeful and meaningful so as to meet the desired outcomes?

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study intends to appeal to policy developers and implementers to review procedures of classroom activities engaged in during teaching and learning. It is the researcher’s belief that this investigation will cast light into teaching as a profession to reconsider approaches and teaching strategies that will benefit the English First Additional Language teachers and learners in more ways than one.

1.8 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The researcher chose to confine the investigation to A CASE STUDY for purposes of intensity and in-depth analysis of how teacher discourse moves during classroom interaction (will be discussed in Chapter 3) can assist comprehensibility of language input in the EFAL learner and promote active participation by the learner in classroom interaction. Through active and meaningful learner involvement the teacher’s desired learning outcomes can therefore be achieved.

Only one classroom interaction of one teacher to a single group/class of learners is looked into and analyzed. The analysis is not age-and grade-specific. It covers the entire spectrum of the school-going English First Additional Language learner. The rationale is that the study is based on the assumption that teaching principles, methodology, methods, strategies and outcomes are basic to every teaching and learning encounter.

1.9 LITERATURE REVIEW

Conversation as an object of linguistic study is stated by Taylor and Cameron (1987:3) to have been recommended characteristically in the 1950's by Firth who, in "The technique of semantics" (1957: 32) observed that 'It is here' that we shall find the key to a better understanding of what language really is and how it works'. Taylor and Cameron are somewhat skeptical when they point out that in the mainstream of linguistic description, conversation was marginalized: the features typical of conversational interaction (ungrammaticality, discontinuity, context-dependence, interactivity) were idealized, which according to them (1987: 3), were ignored by Saussurean and Chomskyan paradigms with their insistence on studying 'langue' or 'competence'. This study will inadvertently look into the function of words and utterances in language.

1.10 RESEARCH METHOD

The research method in this study will be guided by the grammar of talk as laid down by the Birmingham model which stipulates that speech units in conversation are defined by their function in the discourse.

Babbie and Mouton (2001:172) define research design (method of research) as a plan of action or blueprint of how the researcher intends to conduct the research. According to them

the research design focuses on the end-product. This assertion is an affirmation of an earlier explanation by Yin (1994:19) that a research design is an action plan from here to there where “here” may be defined as the initial set of research questions to be answered, and “there” as some set of conclusions or answers about these questions. How the researcher structures his design is particularly crucial at this stage because the inquiry has to be compatible with the purpose of the study.

Leedy and Ormrod (2001: 91) describe research design as the complete strategy attack or the central research problem which provides the overall structure for the procedures that the research follows, the data he collects and the analysis that he conducts. Put differently, research design is planning.

The research design of the study will be complemented by the conversation analysis model developed by Coulthard and Sinclair which describes classroom interaction: In a grammar of talk we insist on a relatively small numbers of speech acts defined according to their function in the discourse and combination in predictable structures to form higher units (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975: 11)

The research design of this study will be based on Coulthard and Sinclair’s model as it similarly seeks to adopt the method of description which aims to analyze classroom verbal interaction. This will enable the study to find out something about the sort of teaching and learning going on as a result of teacher discourse “moves” in classroom interaction.

1.11 RATIONALE FOR USING THE OBSERVATION METHOD

The observation method will be used in this study to collect data by noting down people's behaviours, objects and occurrences. The advantage of this method is that the researcher does not have to rely on the willingness and ability of the participants to report information accurately but on the observation of behavior in its natural setting; on the natural flow of events and how subjects interpret them.

1.12 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

This study will be divided into the following chapters:

CHAPTER ONE

This chapter will be devoted to an orientation to the field of interactional /conversational analysis in the field of communication in language teaching and learning.

CHAPTER TWO

This chapter will concentrate on the literary works of scholars in the field and how their research findings have impacted and contributed to interactional analysis to date.

CHAPTER THREE

This chapter adopts a line of action for the study by outlining the research design and research approach adopted by the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

This chapter will confine itself to the collection of data through data collection strategies commensurate with the research design and research approach. It is also assigned to data analysis and interpretation.

CHAPTER FIVE

This chapter will sum up the findings, recommendations and concludes the study. Collecting, analyzing and reporting on the data through triangulation are to extend to issues of validity and reliability since the more grounded in supporting detail a researcher's findings are, the more credible and trustworthy they are.

1.13 CONCLUSION

This chapter (Chapter 1) provides a general overview of the research reported in this study. It touches on the introduction, states the problem of the study, aims and objectives, definition of key terms and delimitation of the study. The literature review is briefly outlined from which the conceptual framework of the study is derived. Research methodology and design of the study are set out together with data collection techniques and data analysis envisaged by the researcher. Chapter 4 investigates the teacher discourse moves in classroom interaction and examines how these can develop comprehensibility of language content by the English First Additional Language (EFAL) learner and how these promote active participation by the learner in classroom interaction.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The earliest attempts to model discourse and conversation in a systematic way were made precisely by two American structuralist linguists in the 1950's, viz. Zellig Harris and Kenneth Pike (Taylor and Cameron, 1987: 3) Harris in his article "Discourse analysis" (1952) tried to extend the strict formal principle of analysis to sketches longer than a simple sentence. This data however appears to have been more textual than conversational. He was able to set up discourse "equivalence" classes which captured generalizations about sequential and co-occurrence restrictions in a specific text but did not say anything more general about discourse nor did he make illuminating systematic predictions.

Taylor and Cameron state that Pike (1967) similarly extended his "tagmatic" grammatical model to analyze larger units including conversations. He invented a unit type, the 'behaviourism' or 'utterance' discussing the structure and its boundaries at length. Unlike Harris, his approach to analysis was not formal but functional and he attempted a 'slot and filler' account of talk. Unfortunately these are today, generally regarded obscure and bizarre. Contemporary models in their various ways however resemble principles not dissimilar to theirs.

2.2 CONTEMPORARY MODELS

Apart from the early work of Pike and Harris, it is probably true that the major impetus for the study of conversation has tended to come from outside linguistics. Conversation as an object of study was recommended characteristically by Firth (1957: 32) who observed that "It is here" in "The technique of semantics that we shall find the key to a better understanding of what language really is and how it works". There is therefore somewhat scepticism when

Taylor and Cameron (1987: 3) point out that in the mainstream of linguistic description conversation was marginalized; that the features typical to conversational interaction (ungrammatically, discontinuity, context-dependence, and interactivity) were idealized. These were according to them, ignored by Saussurean and Chomskyan paradigms with their insistence on studying “langue”.

2.2.1 The Emergence of Conversation/Discourse Analysis

Taylor and Cameron (1987: 3) maintain that conversational organization became a respectable area of linguistic research only recently. A great deal of work had already been done by speech act theorists working in philosophy, social psychologists and ethno methodologists.

Social scientists had, according to Taylor and Cameron (1987: 3), in the meantime been influenced, and in some cases inspired, by the prestige and success of Chomskyan linguistics, and that while not necessarily accepting the whole of Chomsky’s philosophy or his methodological structures. Social scientists were attracted by the notion of reducing human behaviour to sets of generative rules. A question asked is what, precisely, is conversational structure? Taylor and Cameron (1987:5) maintain that according to ethno methodologists, many **common place features of talk** display ‘precision, timing and orderliness’. They however caution that conversation takes place in linear time and as a rational human activity is therefore bound to be interpreted according to principles which take this into account.

This, in turn, engraves Harris’s (1981) notion of contemporality, that interlocutors often ‘know what to expect in various sorts of talk and manage to meet, on indefinitely many occasions, acceptable standards of relevance and politeness. They answer questions, they recognize greetings, they inform each other of things and so forth. The result is co-operative and non-bizarre talk, quite often involving the repetition of extremely predictable sequences. The task of analysts, as explained by Taylor and Cameron (1987:6), is to identify the forms of conversation, the basic components from which talk is constructed and then examine their patterning – the way they are sequenced.

Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 169), for example, point out that mastering question formation, using appropriate word order, placing proper stress on multisyllabic words, and so on, might facilitate conversation greatly or hinder it when these features are lacking. This notion is confirmed by Taylor and Cameron (1987: 46) when they say that discourse interaction is a matter of convention as opposed to strategy, technique, procedure or natural fact; that the utterance of such and such expressions under certain conditions counts as making what the speaker and hearers would like it to be.

McCarthy and Carter (1995) are also of the opinion that in order to be able to make proper choices in spoken discourse, the English First Additional Language learner needs to have acquired a threshold repertoire of language resources and to have developed some sensitivity to differences between the spoken and the written language.

Taylor and Cameron (1987: 34) further argue that given a reasonable command of methodology, the teacher, for example, can choose a form of activity which will convey his teaching point most effectively in his situation and thus achieve his objective. The particular classroom setting will affect his choice of form depending on the physical condition and resources and the particular time at which the learning event in question occurs. This argument is reiterated by Ralenala (2003: 11) who upholds the view that explicit instruction has the advantage of not only showing learners **what to do**, but also **why, how and when**. Pearson (1992: 22) as cited by Ralenala (2003:11) concluded that such instruction helps learners “to develop independent strategies for coping with the kinds of comprehension problems they are asked to solve in their lives at school”.

2.2.2 *The Birmingham Model on Discourse Analysis*

The area of discourse analysis as a form of interaction between speaker and hearer is usually associated with a group of linguists referred to as the ‘Birmingham School’. This “school” is made up of Coulthard, Sinclair, Montgomery, Stubbs and McTear. Their associates include the systemicist Margaret Berry and the intonation specialist, David Brazil. According to Taylor and Cameron (1987: 65):

The Birmingham discourse analysis and systematic functional grammar have a strong connection between them which is said to be still an important paradigm in Britain. Taylor and Cameron (1987: 65) report that the foundations of the Birmingham model, now associated with the English language research group at Birmingham were laid in two research projects of the early 1970’s which established the Birmingham approach within the field of conversation analysis: Sinclair and Coulthard’s ‘Towards An Analysis of Discourse’ which reported on the early research project ---‘The English Used by Teachers and Pupils’ (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). This study of corpus of classroom interaction draws heavily on Halliday’s ‘Scale and Category Grammar’.

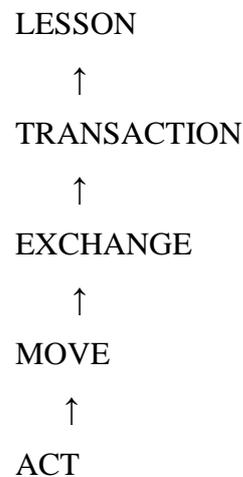
The most common criticism leveled against Coulthard, Montgomery and Brazil (1981: 1) is that when the study of discourse analysis became a topical issue, they behaved like there was virtually no relevant published research; that the three researchers seem to have been unaware of the work of earlier linguists. To them Zellig Harris was the only discourse analyst of note.

Taylor and Cameron (1987: 67) point out that when Coulthard, Montgomery and Brazil began to analyse classroom interaction, there were already many approaches to the subject. The grammatical orientation and predilections of the Birmingham School can be seen clearly not only in their remarks on their work but also in their criticism of other approaches. Taylor and Cameron (1987: 66) report that reviewing a collection of ethno methodologists’ articles on conversation, Coulthard (1984) points out the informal, ad.hoc character of much conversation analysis in the ethno methodological paradigm implying that this is not the kind of structural model he regards as helpful although he admits interesting. ‘**A grammar of talk**’, according to Coulthard, would consist of a very small number of categories which are

used to generate a very large number of structures. The same point is emphasized by his early exposition of the model he and Sinclair developed to describe classroom interaction:

The acts which constitute conversation in discourse analysis advocated by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) are 'defined by their function in the discourse. This is an important clue to the theoretical underpinnings of the Birmingham model which is essentially a form of functionalism and is heavily influenced by the work of Halliday. It is also a form of structuralism and distributionalism.

Taylor and Cameron (1987:12) maintain that a satisfactory model must incorporate principled and reliable criteria for dividing data into segments plus an exhaustive classificatory apparatus which does not leave segments. However, for Sinclair and Coulthard on the other hand, function is a matter of organizing the discourse and has a sequential or distributional character. Sinclair and Coulthard are informed by the distributional criteria of rank scale, which appears as follows:



According to which a stretch of discourse bounded by framing utterances such as 'Right,' 'OK,' 'Now', The teachers' use to mark a boundary in the lesson is referred to as: 'TRANSACTION,' which is in turn composed of EXCHANGES; that is, stretches that belong together because they evoke or respond to each other.

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) used classroom verbal interaction in their data for research into discourse analysis. To them classroom language provided a relatively simple and more structured type of discourse than normal everyday conversation. According to Malamah-Thomas (1987: 45), in their scheme for describing classroom data, Sinclair and Coulthard referred to ...'an act' as the smallest unit of description (interaction) whilst Bower's Categories of Verbal Behaviour In The Language Classroom (1980) refers to the same as "a move". It is maintained by Malamah-Thomas (1987: 48) that descriptive framework in the Interaction Analysis tradition analyzes classroom verbal interaction in order to find out something about the sort of teaching and learning going on.

Taylor and Cameron (1987: 75) maintain that it is a rule of linguistic structure which participants in classroom talk 'know' that exchanges have three slots, whether or not they are filled and if they are not, "the sequence is not unusual but deviant", a further indication that there is something structurally wrong with it.

It is evident that when conversational organization became a respectable area of linguistic research, a great deal of work had already been done also by speech act theorists working in philosophy, social scientists had in the meantime been influenced, and in some cases inspired by the prestige and success of Chomskyan linguistics.

2.3 CONVERSATIONAL STRUCTURE

A question to be posed is what, precisely is "conversational structure"? Many commonplace features of talk display "precision, timing and orderliness." At the same time, they caution that it must be recognized that conversation takes place in linear time and as a rational human activity and is therefore bound to be interpreted according to principles which take this into account- this which in turn engraves the notion of contemporality that interlocutors standardly "know what to expect in various sorts of talk and manage to meet on indefinitely many occasions acceptable standards of relevance and politeness which for example, reads them to be able to (answer questions recognize greetings, inform each other

of things). The result is co- operative and non- bizarre talk which to the researcher's mind is contrary to what Taylor and Cameron (1987) purpose it to be.

Celce - Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 169) for example, point out that mastering question formation, using appropriate word order and placing proper stress on multisyllabic words might facilitate conversation greatly or hinder it when these features are lacking. This notion confirms that discourse interaction is a matter of convention and not strategy, technique, procedure or natural fact that the utterance of such and such expressions under certain conditions counts as making what the speaker and hearers would like it to be. McCarthy and Carter (1995) also put it that in order to be able to make proper choices in spoken discourse, the learner needs to have acquired a threshold repertoire of language resources and to have developed some sensitivity to differences between the spoken and the written language.

When this happens the speakers' past experience prepares them for the conversation, enables them to think together and find common ground and solution to a problem. Shared knowledge forms part of "context" and in this way the contextual foundation is created for their talk. Shared understanding is better thought of as a configuration of available information that people use for making sense of language in particular situations. And that context is created in every interaction between a speaker and listener and writer and reader (Mercer 2000).

2.4 THE IMPACT OF CONVERSATION ON THE EFAL LEARNER

Given a reasonable command of methodology, the teacher, in particular the EFAL teacher has to choose a form of activity which will convey his teaching point most effectively in his situation and thus achieve his objective or learning outcome. This study agrees with the views of Mercer (2000) and of Celce - Murcia and Olshtain (2000) and further wishes to emphasize that the particular classroom setting will affect the teacher's choice of form depending on the physical conditions and resources and the particular time at which the learning event in question occurs. This argument is reiterated by Ralenala (2003: 11) who upholds the view

that explicit instruction has the advantage of not only showing learners what to do, but also why, how and when. Ralenala (2003:11) cites Pearson (1992) to have concluded that such instruction helps learners ‘to develop independent strategies for coping with the kinds of comprehension problems they are asked to solve in their lives at school.’

2.5 INTERACTION (CLASSROOM INTERACTION)

Interaction is a form of exchange between speaker and hearer; an exchange which could be aligned with the exchange structure approach associated with a group of linguists referred to as the “Birmingham School” whose best known representatives are Malcolm Coulthard, J.McH. Sinclair, Martin Montgomery, Michael Stubbs and Michael McTear. Important associates to these include the systemicist Margaret Berry and the intonation specialist David Brazil (Taylor and Cameron 1987: 55)

2.6 THE BIRMINGHAM MODEL ON DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

The Birmingham discourse analysis and systematic functional grammar have a strong connection between them which is said to be still an important paradigm in Britain. The foundations of the Birmingham approach now associated with the English language research group at Birmingham University were laid in the research projects of the early 1970’s which established the Birmingham approach within the field of conversation analysis. Sinclair and Coulthard’s “Towards an Analysis of Discourse” which reported on the early research projects “The English Used by Teachers and Pupils” (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975) is a corpus of classroom interaction which draws heavily on Halliday’s “Scale and Category Grammar”.

The second project, “The Structure of Verbal Interaction in Selected Situations” dealt mainly with doctor- patient interviews. A later project: “The Structure of Lectures” attempted to solve the problems of monologue which had suggested itself in the earlier work.

An argument is raised by Taylor and Cameron against Coulthard *et.al*; that when these three scientists' project began a decade ago it was as if there was virtually no relevant published research; that the three researchers seem to have been unaware of the work of Pike (1967) and cite only Zellig Harris as an earlier discourse analyst, that save for the oversight, their research would be a source of illumination for their work.

2.7 SINCLAIR AND COULTHARD'S RESEARCH

When Coulthard, Montgomery and Brazil (1981) began to analyse classroom interaction there were already many models to the subject. Nevertheless the grammatical orientation and predilections of the Birmingham approach is seen clearly not only in their remarks on their work but also in their criticism of their approaches.

When Coulthard reviewed a collection of ethnomethodologists' articles on conversation he discovered the informal, ad.hoc. Character of much conversation analysis in the ethnomethodological paradigm implying that this kind of structural model he regards as helpful although he admits interesting. A grammar of talk; according to Coulthard, would consist of a very small number of categories which are used to generate a very large number of structures.

Discourse analysis conducted by Sinclair and Coulthard views speech units as defined by their function in the discourse. Taylor and Cameron (1987: 66) assert that this is an important clue to the theoretical underpinnings of the Birmingham model which is essentially a form of functionalism and is heavily influenced by the work of Halliday. It is also a form of structuralism and distributionalism rather in the manner of Harris or especially Pike as is evident in Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) description of their framework that speech acts combine in predictable structure to perform higher units of speech.

In asking what the units of conversation are, raises the question of how to segment conversational data. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) provided a system for describing classroom verbal interaction as their data in research into discourse analysis. The instrument is based on the rationale that classroom language provided a relatively simple and more structured type of discourse than normal everyday conversation.

Criticism against Sinclair and Coulthard's approach to conversation analysis is considered by McCarthy (1991) to be rigid since turn-taking is very ordered under the control of the teacher; and pupils rarely speak out of turn.

2.8 CONCLUSION

The researcher in this study disagrees with McCarthy's view which is against Sinclair and Coulthard's choice of the classroom as their point of reference for conversation analysis. McCarthy (1991: 128) puts it that the traditional classroom has very ordered turn-taking under the control of the teacher; that pupils rarely speak out of turn. The researcher in this study argues that the context of the classroom is naturally formal; therefore whatever takes place within this context is structured in line with the natural demands of the situation.

The research method and design of this study will inadvertently be guided by the grammar of talk as laid down by the Birmingham model that speech units in conversation are defined by their function in the discourse of classroom interaction within the context of the Case Study of this investigation.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHOD AND DESIGN

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The review of literature in this study is informative of the dynamics of classroom conversation and interaction, amongst others, that it can be a positive state where the interactants feel that something worthwhile is being achieved as a result of interaction or it can be a negative one since every interaction situation has the potential for co-operation or conflict.

3.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

This study will be embedded in the Qualitative Approach. McMillan and Schumacher (1993: 372), regard the qualitative approach as a naturalistic inquiry wherein non-interfering data – collection strategies are used to discover the natural flow of events and processes and how subjects would interpret them. By approaching it in this manner, the researcher is able to describe and analyse the subjects' individual and collective social actions, beliefs, thoughts and perceptions.

Qualitative research is also more than a set of data gathering techniques – it is a way of approach. Bogdan and Biklem, (1992: 2) say that qualitative research is a way of approaching the empirical world. Qualitative researchers warn against overgeneralization about human behaviour. They argue that these can only be understood with a total context and therefore prediction is almost impossible.

The key philosophical assumption upon which this research is based is that reality is constructed by individuals interacting with their social worlds (Merriam, 1998: 59).

3.3 SAMPLING

Introduction

Leedy and Ormrod (2001: 129) maintain that a **sample** is the group of elements, or a single element, from which data are obtained; it is the grouping of subjects chosen from a larger group or population to which the findings are assumed to apply. If sampling is done correctly it will provide valid information representing the population. They indicate that there are several sampling methods that can be used to draw a representative sample from a population.

Best and Kahn (1993:19) are of the opinion that in Qualitative Research no one can say with absolute authority how small or how big the sample size should be even though they point out that the larger the sample size the more representative and the more accurate and generalizable the data will be.

They further argue that size largely depends on the amount of heterogeneity of the population being studied that: the greater the heterogeneity of the population being studied, the larger the sample needed; the more homogeneous the population being studied, the smaller the sample needed. However they do not commit themselves to specific numbers.

Sample selection in this study will be governed by the need to capture the teacher's discourse "moves" in the English First Additional Language classroom interaction to see how these promote and facilitate comprehensibility of Second Language input in the learner.

Purposive Sampling

In purposive sampling, the researcher selects particular elements from the population that will be representative or informative about the topic. Merriam (1998: 61) states that purposive sampling is based on the assumption that the investigator wants to discover, understand and gain insight and must therefore select a sample from which the most can be learned.

The manner in which subjects are selected has important implications for identifying factors that affect subject performance and for generalizing the results. Hence it is necessary to understand who the subjects are and how they were selected. A purposive sampling was deemed appropriate for this study. Based on the researcher's knowledge of the population, judgement is made about which cases should be selected to provide the best information to address the purpose of the research:

- To select a sample from which most can be learned.
- A sample which is representative of the teaching and learning population.

This will be a sample from the population that will be representative or informative about the topic.

Description of the sample

The selected sample comprises of a teacher engaged in English First Additional Language (EFAL) classroom interaction with a class of Grade 3 learners on a given topic. Such a choice was based on the rationale that the sample is likely to be knowledgeable about teacher discourse "moves" in classroom interaction of which is indicative of a choice from which most can be learned. After negotiations, permission was sought from the head-master of the school.

Data collection:

Observation of a lesson by the researcher as participant-observer. The lesson comprises of an English First Additional Language teacher engaged in classroom interaction with a class of learners on a context and core knowledge selected for the particular grade.

Knowledgeability of the sample

A point to be emphasized is that in order to make proper choices in spoken discourse, the learner needs to have acquired a threshold repertoire of language resources and to have developed some sensitivity to differences between spoken and written language. It is the speaker's past experience that prepares them well for the conversation and indeed using the specialized language of their speech community enables them to think together and find common ground and solution to a problem.

Ralenala (2003) supports this notion by noting that learners approach their academic tasks in ways that are largely influenced by their previous academic background and learning environment that it is therefore through instruction that learners can be shown not only what to do , but also why, how and when. Such instruction helps learners to develop independent strategies for coping with the kinds of comprehension problems they are asked to solve in their lives at school.

Before embarking on any research methodology the researcher in this study finds it imperative to once more mention factors which will identify and guide areas of inquiry in what to note in the field of observation in order to consider:

- What the teacher's discourse "moves" say about the lesson which is being analysed.
- What precisely can such an analysis of classroom interaction do to help the teacher teach better and the learners to learn and understand better.

The present chapter therefore discusses how data was collected, analysed and consolidated i.e. when a particular phenomenon of teaching and learning was explored, namely, how teacher discourse "moves" in classroom interaction encourage learners into active participation in the lesson.

3.4 THIS STUDY: A CASE STUDY

This study has the characteristics of a case study. Yin (1994) observes the case study as a design particularly suited to situations in which it is impossible to separate the phenomenon's variables from their context. Miles and Huberman (1994:25) put it that for a phenomenon to qualify as a case, it should be intrinsically bounded; guided by a finite time for observations, a limit to the number of people who could be interviewed or to observations.

It follows therefore that by concentrating on a single phenomenon or entity, the researcher in this study aims to uncover the interaction of significant features characteristic of the phenomenon based on holistic description and explanation. The researcher will 'fence in' what she is going to study because the case is a thing, a single entity around which there are boundaries because the case is a thing, a single entity around which there are boundaries.

Merriam (1998:29) advances special characteristics of a case study as:

- Particularistic: it focuses on a particular situation, event, program or phenomenon.
- Descriptive: the end product of a case study is a rich "thick" description of the phenomenon under study.
- Heuristic: it illuminates the researcher's understanding of the phenomena under study. It can bring about the discovery of new meaning, extend the researcher's experience or confirm what is known.

The case of this study has been selected for its very uniqueness for what it can reveal about a phenomenon; to bring to light knowledge we would otherwise have no access to.

Despite the present study being embedded in the research design of case study, it needs to be mentioned that the special features of case study research that provide the rationale for its selection also present certain limitations in its usage.

Whilst the researcher in this study alludes to perceptions as indicated herein nevertheless concedes that anchored in real-life situations, the case study forms a rich and holistic account of a phenomenon. It offers insights and illuminates meanings that expand its readers' experiences. Its strengths supersede and outweigh its weaknesses by far and it is as a result of its strengths that case study is a particularly appealing research design. Based thereupon educational processes, problems and programs can be examined to bring about understanding that in turn can affect and perhaps even improve practice.

This perception is reiterated by Merriam (1998:1) that research focused on discovery, insight, and understanding from the perspectives of those being studied offers the greatest promise of making significant contributions to the knowledge base and practice of education. It is the aim of this study to put the research design of case study to test to look into how teacher discourse "moves" in classroom interaction gauge learners into active classroom participation.

3.5 THE POPULATION OF THE STUDY

This study concerns a black EFAL teacher with a black EFAL class of learners randomly selected which, to the researcher's mind is representative of the black teaching and learning population in the Limpopo province.

This study is therefore rooted in purposive sampling because the researcher will select particular elements from the population that will be representative of the population and informative about the topic of the study: EFAL teachers engaged in EFAL classroom interaction with a class of learners on a particular topic are representative of the teaching and learning population.

The decision on purposive sampling for this study is based on the researcher's assumption to discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore select a sample from which the most can be learned.

The sampling procedure used in this study is also based on the researcher's consideration of certain research guidelines as outlined by Ralenala (2003:153):

- What data do you need?
- Where is the data located?
- How do you intend to get the data?
- What do you intend to do with the data?

Pre-empted the research approach adopted by the study, namely, qualitative research approach.

3.6 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACH

Qualitative researchers are interested in understanding the meaning people have constructed, i.e. how they make sense of their world and the experiences they have in the world. Qualitative research usually involves the researcher physically going to the people, setting or site. In order to observe behavior in its natural setting this necessitates the researcher becoming intimately familiar with the phenomenon being studied and therefore entering an interpretative circle and becoming an instrument of data collection.

Qualitative research is therefore seen as context-sensitive in that it accepts that human behavior is always bound to the context in which it occurs and that social reality cannot be reduced to variables as quantitative researchers would have it.

Since qualitative inquiry focuses on meaning in context it requires a data collection instrument that is sensitive to underlying meaning when gathering and interpreting data.

3.7 DATA COLLECTION

The researcher in this research approach constitutes the human instrument through which data are mediated because the researcher is responsive to the context. In assuming such a stance

the researcher can process data immediately, can clarify and summarize as the study evolves, and can explore anomalous responses. (Guba and Lincoln 1981:7)

Data collection for the study took place at a primary school in the Dennilton district in Limpopo Province. Permission to conduct the research was sought from the school's headmaster.

The setting under scrutiny comprised of an EFAL teacher engaged in EFAL classroom interaction with a class of 40 learners on a particular topic for a single teaching and learning period with duration of thirty-five minutes (35 minutes.). The school and classroom setting were natural. No other prior arrangements as far as data collection were entered into with the school or with the research subjects except at the time of the researcher's arrival.

The choice of such a sample is based on the rationale that the researcher found them to be likely knowledgeable about teacher discourse "moves" in classroom interaction indicative of choosing a sample from which most can be learned After establishing the naturalness of the context the researcher set off to collect data.

3.8 DATA GATHERING INSTRUMENTS (RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS)

Data collection instruments used in this study involved:

- Observation by the researcher as participant observer of an ESL teacher engaged in classroom interaction with a class of learners on a particular topic. This was to enable the researcher to obtain on-the-spot information about how teacher discourse "moves" in classroom interaction gauge and enhance learners' active participation in the lesson.
- An audio-tape to record the proceedings of the lesson in progress.
- The researcher's anecdotal notes on the classroom context.
- A "verbatim" transcript of the recorded lesson

According to the researcher, these categories could however be supplemented by others.

Schumacher and McMillan (1993:256) recommend that as a participant observer the researcher should first make judgment before entering the observation field (that is, high inference observation, and then, in the field: record the specific behaviors and context that led to the inference implied in judgment).

In the present study, this refers to the teacher's discourse "moves" in classroom interaction and how these encourage the learners into active participation in the lesson.

The researcher of this study became engaged in the actual situation in order to draw out and document the subjects' reaction in the actual context by recording and noting people's behaviors, objects and occurrences.

As a technique for gathering information, the observational method relies on a researcher seeing and hearing things and recording these observations, rather than relying on subjects' self-report, responses to questions or statements. In Ralenala's (2003:170) view, the advantage of this method is that the researcher does not have to rely on the willingness and ability of the participants to report information accurately but on human behavior always bound to the context in which it occurs and that social reality cannot be reduced to variables as quantitative researchers would have it.

3.9 CONCLUSION

The case of this study is interactive and holistic. The researcher merged the audio-recorded classroom interaction with the documented observed overt behavior which ensued as the lesson progressed as well as the verbatim transcript of the recorded lesson.

These were triangulated to ensure reliability of the proceedings within the observed context which would validate the results of the research through a process of understanding and

describing the phenomenon of teacher discourse “moves” in classroom interaction; how they encourage learners into active participation in the lesson.

By its very nature, qualitative and naturalistic, the data gathered in this study and analyzed is envisaged to provide a comprehensive and deeper understanding of how teacher discourse “moves” influence comprehensibility of language content by the EFAL learner, which enhances active and meaningful involvement and participation by the learner in classroom interaction.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The ability of learners to draw upon the system of language in order to express meanings by means of speech is essential for communication, and thus learning, in and out of school. The range of purposes or functions for which learners and teachers use language reflect both the intentions of the communication and the social and cognitive processes underlying the formation and exchange of meanings in the communicative context.

4.2 RESEARCHER AS PARTICIPANT- OBSERVER

While participating in the work of the class, the observer kept notes to provide a record of the activities of the classroom. Learner - learner and learner-teacher interactions as well as turn-taking sequences in the class were also recorded by means of observations.

An audio-tape recording provided permanent and a full record of learners' oral interaction and enabled the re-examination of the data necessary for the construction of the transcripts. The intonation and volume of the speakers' voices on the tape were taken into account in analyzing the meanings and functions underlying learners' language use.

Constructing written transcripts was a painstaking procedure although it proved invaluable in the functional analysis of learners' talk and teacher talk.

Data for this study was collected as follows:

- EFAL classroom interaction between teacher and learners was recorded on audio-tape by the researcher as participant –observer.

- A post-lesson discussion between researcher and the teacher enabled the former to obtain a holistic view and understanding of the teacher- discourse moves during classroom interaction.
- Anecdotal notes by the researcher as participant observer (taken concurrently with the lesson in progress).

4.3 THE CASE STUDY

The case was selected as follows:

District	:	Greater Sekhukhune District
Circuit	:	Rakgoadi Circuit
Village	:	Mohlalaotwane Village
Name of school	:	Matsedi Lower Primary School
Grade	:	3 (Three)
Age-group	:	8-9 years (Eight to Nine years)
Number of learners	:	35 (Thirty-Five)
Gender (Boys)	:	15 (Fifteen)
Gender (Girls)	:	20 (Twenty)

Rationale for the selection of the Case Study

The case of the study was selected because of its rural environment and situation. Unlike learners in an urban or semi-urban context, learners in this study are not exposed to English communication in their everyday life except at school with their teachers.

To the researcher's mind this dynamic fits into the profile of the aim of this study, to look into how teacher discourse "moves" influence comprehensibility of language content by English First Additional Language learners.

The school visit

After negotiations with the circuit office through the Circuit Manager, permission was obtained from the school's head-master for the researcher to visit the school. Prior to the visit the school was phoned a number of times to confirm details, to keep the school principal informed of the pending undertaking and to make sure that the researcher had the school's location and directions to the school correct as well as the school hours.

On arrival, the researcher introduced herself to the school's head-master.

Timing of the observation

The school visit concentrated on one teacher with a single group of learners engaged in EFAL classroom interaction. The lesson observation took place within the first hour of the instructional school day. The rationale for the timing of the lesson observation is that the first two hours of the teaching day are assumed to be the most productive in terms of literacy and numeracy teaching (Human Sciences Research Council 2008:26).

This argument confirms the assertion made by Taylor and Cameron (1987:34) that, amongst other factors, the particular classroom setting will affect the teacher's choice of form depending on the physical condition and resources and the particular time which the learning event in question occurs.

Audio – recording of the lesson

Permission was obtained from the circuit manager, the school principal and the teacher in this study to audio research the EFAL classroom discourse between teacher and learners. This was done through an audio-tape which was placed at a position which facilitated the capturing of the classroom discourse from everyone engaged in the classroom interaction. Anecdotal notes by the researcher as participant observer were taken concurrently with the classroom interaction in progress. The researcher used a pencil to write the notes using

erasers when adjustments/amendments needed to be made as the observation progressed.

Based on the researcher's knowledge of the population a judgment was made about which cases should be selected to provide the best information to address the purpose of the research.

The teacher's preparedness

Malamah-Thomas (1987) views a classroom lesson as naturally based on a plan and the success thereof is therefore dependent on the kind of planning that has gone into it. According to him a good plan for classroom interaction is a first step to success. If a teacher does not have a clear idea of the aim of the lesson and if learners cannot help to determine a line of action then nothing can be achieved at all.

Having a sound plan of action means that the teacher has something to communicate to the learners, and in order to achieve this plan of action it must be carried out in a context of interaction.

The teacher in this study fits the profile as laid out by Malamah-Thomas which relates to her twenty-two years – experience of teaching English First Additional Language. This is evidenced by how she addresses the aspects of her lesson based on the Revised National Curriculum Statement Policy document for the grade, viz; the context on Reading and Viewing, the core knowledge, learning outcome and assessment standards. The effect of these is seen in the level of participation demonstrated by the learners in classroom interaction under study that only where there is cooperation between both sides involved in the interaction can communication effectively take place and learning occur.

The success of any lesson can best be judged by the learners' reaction to the teacher's action. If a teacher knows a class well, which seemed to be the case from the researcher's observation of the lesson, he or she may be able to predict the learner reaction to the different

activities to be used in the classroom although human reaction can sometimes be quite unpredictable and unexpected. If the teacher is more preoccupied with teaching than with learning, he or she may take learners' reactions for granted and not trouble to predict what they might be or find what they really are as they occur in the course of a lesson.

In Hansen's view (2008:64) teaching as a practice involves assisting students to broaden their horizons---helping students to become more knowledgeable rather than less so, more interested in learning and communication rather than less so, and more expansive in the thinking in their human sympathies than less so.

Teacher discourse" moves" as the focus of observation

Since the focus of this study is to highlight discourse moves used by the teacher in encouraging learners to active participation in classroom interaction, it is imperative to identify particular features of classroom interaction and the acknowledgement that there are consequences for learners, some of which can be anticipated in advance while others remain unknown and further highlights the significance of teacher moves in classroom interaction. The ways teachers conduct moment-to-moment, day-to-day interaction with learners over innumerable issues are of significance. Knowing one's learners enables the teacher to organize them into a functional class, to interact with them more sensitively and to teach them more effectively.

Givon (1984:92) points out that the social aspect of face-to-face communication is not an objective external entity. Much like other kinds of information available to the organism the current speech situation of an (EFAL classroom) must be selectively extracted from the "external" situation and converted into a mental representation. It is only this on-going mental process of the speech situation that is relevant to face-to-face communication and is the most fundamental model of human language. Givon further explains that it is ontologically prior in child language acquisition and it is distributionally most frequent in everyday human communication excepting perhaps the highly specialized genres practiced by academics.

The researcher in this study agrees with Ralenala (2003:11) who confirms Givon's view and argues that lack of cognitive and metacognitive strategies are not "traits" of the learner under discussion, but rather that these strategies can be taught, learned and brought under control of the learner. He maintains that explicit instruction has the advantage of not only showing learners what to do, but also why, how and when. Ralenala (2003:11) reiterates the conclusion by Pearson (1992:22) that such instruction helps learners to "develop strategies for coping with the kinds of comprehension problems they are asked to solve in their lives at school." Jones (1987:14) advances a similar notion that through guided practice the learner engages in what he refers to as "independent practice" which implies that a learner is not only able to typically perform correctly but also to discriminate error during self performance and self correct.

Ralenala (2003:116) further confirms this view by putting it that Bruner (1990) and Halliday (1993) unconditionally support Vygotsky's notion of language and thought by showing how young children's individual development is shaped by their communication with people around them. According to Ralenala (2003) they too agree that when children learn language, they are doing more than just learning language; they are learning the foundation of learning itself and that this relationship does not remain constant. The reason is that the two aspects are constantly changing and will influence the child's linguistic competence, thinking ability and his social development as he continues to grow and interact with others in his environment.

For the teacher, therefore, knowing what you want to do, what you want to communicate to your learners in the classroom is not good enough. In fact, achieving communication requires a lot more effort and experience.

Malamah-Thomas (1987:8) cautions however that since interaction is a two-way process, it can proceed harmoniously or it can be fraught with tensions. It can be a positive state where the interactants feel that something worthwhile is being achieved as a result of interaction, or it can be a negative one because evidently every interaction situation has the potential for

co-operation or conflict. How the situation actually develops depends on the attitudes and intentions of the people involved and on their interpretation of each other's attitudes and intentions.

Communication and Purpose in the classroom

The primary purpose of classroom communication is a pedagogical one. The teacher is in command of a body of knowledge and of skills that he/she is required to transmit to the learners. In the EFAL classroom the teacher knows the language; the learners do not. The learners inasmuch as they are speakers of their native languages know something about language-learning and about the way language works in general. There is therefore sufficient common ground for teacher-learner interaction to take place with the purpose of learning the new language.

The following are viewed by Malamah-Thomas (1987:14) as the teacher's fairly clear pedagogic reasons for undertaking communication in the classroom:

- to present a new structure, to provide the learners with practice in using that structure;
- to explain a new word.
- to provide a model for pronunciation, to correct an error, and so on. He poses the question: But what about the learners? According to him, if on the one hand the teacher has his pedagogic reasons for communicating with the learners in class, what reasons, on the other hand, do learners have for communication in the classroom learning. In the context of this study the reason will be, learning the new language.

Another reason for classroom communication stems from the formal nature of the classroom situation itself, and the need to organize it for learning purposes especially when looking at the learner-teacher and learner-learner relationship.

Individual learners form different sorts of relationships with each other, and take up different attitudes towards the teacher. The teacher has to establish rapport with the class and with the individuals of which the class is composed.

The use of language in the classroom

Since language is an important factor in pedagogic communication learners spend a lot of time talking, asking questions, giving definitions, repeat or write down what they hear in classes and instructions, talk to each other in activities and projects set up by the teacher. Such and many others are an affirmation that: language is a primary resource for social communication between teacher and learners, and vice versa whilst methodology is the resource for pedagogic communication between teacher and class. The methodological device employed can be verbal in nature, but can equally well be of a non-verbal variety.

4.4 VERBATIM TRANSCRIPT OF THE LESSON UNDER STUDY

A verbatim transcript of the lesson under study portrays what was witnessed by the researcher as participant-observer. Students' classroom interactions that are illuminated in this study are part of the learning in which learners have participated. Consequently the setting and activities investigated are embedded within the wider pedagogical practices of the classroom under study.

4.5 TEACHER AND LEARNER DISCOURSE

4.5.1 Introduction

This study sets out to consider how forms of discourse serve to facilitate comprehensibility of language input in the learner and the nature and extent of learners' participation in learning activities, what they learn and how they learn.

4.5.2 Classroom Interaction as Observed in the Lesson under Study

Going through the lesson's transcript, the context of the teacher's utterances are studied in order to classify the moves according to their (intended) function. Words, units of meaning or syntactical cues with which the teacher organized the exchange of meanings in her talk are picked out from the transcript in order to use them as consistent semantic markers "moves" for the functions identified.

The analysis in this study sought to look into the 'teacher's oral questions and repetition' and the impact these two aspects of teaching have on comprehensibility of EFAL input on learners as well as on learner active participation in the lesson.

Repetition and Oral Questions

The teaching method(s) in the observed lesson:

Teaching method refers to the deliberate manner in which the teacher approaches his teaching and delivery of information to the learners with a specific objective or objectives in mind.

The following are guides to the analysis of the lesson:

T	=	Teacher
C	=	Class
EFAL	=	English First Additional Language
Q	=	Question
TQ	=	Teacher's Question
A	=	Answer
L	=	Learner
TL/TC	=	Teacher and Learner(s) / Class

The Rationale: Repetition and Oral Questioning as “moves”

When observing and listening to the lesson in progress the researcher observed that of the many basic classroom techniques “repetition’ and “oral questions” of any form, refined by the teacher and their impact on classroom interaction could be an interesting and important aspect of teacher discourse moves to isolate and analyze.

The analysis in this study will inadvertently seek to look into the teacher’s oral questions and repetition as discourse moves during classroom interaction and the impact these two have on learner active participation in the lesson. The singling-out of oral questioning and repetition for analysis in this study is to delimit the wide range of discourse moves for the purpose of depth to ensure validity and reliability.

The Teacher’s Code-Switching and Code-mixing in the Observed Lesson

Several scholars have attempted to define code-switching and code-mixing. Among them are Amuda (1989), Atoye (1994) and Belly (1976). Hymes (1974) in Ayeomoni (2006:91) defines code-switching as “a common term for alternative use of two or more languages, varieties of language or even speech styles” while Bokamba in Ayeomoni refers to code-mixing as the embedding of various linguistic units such as affixes (bound morphemes), words (unbound morphemes), phrases and clauses from a co-operative activity where the participants, in order to infer what is intended must reconcile what they hear with what they understand.

The situational implications of code-switching and code-mixing in respect of the acquisition of language in childhood.

Before children in a speech community attain the school age, many of them are monolinguals and Sepedi in the case of the present study is the only language of communication for most of them. At the primary school age here English starts to play a role in their communicative

lives, while Sepedi is still being acquired as the First Language (FL or L1) in addition to being taught as a school subject.

According to Ayeomoni (2006) it is to be emphasized that right from the primary school, two languages, for example, Sepedi and English in the present Case Study, start to co-exist in the speech stock of the average child in the community. In effect, the child starts to become bilingual right from the primary school stage of education.

Since, at this stage, the grammar of the First Language has not been thoroughly grasped, and the child would naturally want to express himself using all the linguistic resources at his disposal, it is likely that the process of “grammatical coalescence” of Sepedi and English would have begun at this level. This, in effect, makes code-switching and code-mixing manifest in the child’s linguistic performance right from his early age.

Studies appear to have shown that code-switching and code-mixing correlate positively with the educational attainment of individuals. Ralenala (2003:148) states that in countries where the language of instruction is a former colonial language, the scholastic performance of the learners is highly influenced by their competence in the language of learning and teaching. Ralenala’s (2003) view is that in South Africa, this language happens to be English and that the expectation is therefore that learning and teaching must be conducted solely in English. According to him some researchers, for example, (Heugh, 2001) expressed doubts about the exclusive use of, in this instance, English in English language teaching and learning and suggest activities where teachers and learners could code-switch from English to first language or any other language known to or spoken by the learners.

4.6 THE ANALYSIS OF THE LESSON OBSERVED

The case under study begins with the teacher code-switching into the learners’ mother tongue when giving the assessment instruction so as to make sure that the learners understand and can follow the instruction fully. The teacher informs the learners about the intentions of

teaching and learning, in this particular lesson, namely, that learners should read a story. The teacher explains to the learners what is to happen in the lesson and what is expected of them; firstly, to read the story silently and then aloud; to read with understanding and comprehension in order to be able to answer questions based on what they have just read

Instructional planning by the teacher

The introduction to the lesson by the teacher in this case study falls within “the teacher’s preparedness” and what Cruickshank, Metcalf and Jenkins (1999: 307) refers to as instructional planning which is a process a teacher uses to decide how best to select, organize and deliver a learning experience to maximize both teacher and learner achievement and satisfaction so that teaching and learning are worthwhile for all.

Jones (1987:9) refers to raising the level of concern as the motivational “kickoff” of the lesson which can be either brief and simple or lengthy and complex, depending on the circumstances. This may be the pivotal section of the lesson in which people are being asked to abandon old and comfortable habits in favor of new ways of doing things.

In this regard Ralenala (2003:148) states that some researchers like (Heugh, 2001) have expressed doubts about the exclusive use of , for example, English in English Second language teaching and learning and suggest activities where teachers and students could code-switch and code-mix from English to first language. This practice has been observed to have become common among teachers and learners who are not proficient in the language of learning and teaching as is confirmed by the context of the case of this study.

In the lesson of this study “teacher preparedness” is evident at the beginning of the lesson when the teacher code-switches and code-mixes as she poses a question first in the learners’ first language and then switches over to English (EFAL: English First Additional Language);

she then gives learners time to think about an answer to the question posed and still repeats the question three times in the learners' mother tongue after which she repeats it in English as follows:

(Line 1) T: "Why is the man standing under the tree?" after which the teacher proceeds to the next question with:

(Line 2) T: "What is he doing?"

This question too is repeated three times in varying modification in order to put the message across to the learners.

The importance of pauses taken by the teacher

By allowing the learners time to ponder over the question asked as well as code-switching to the language which they know best is evidence that the teacher knows and understands her learners which confirms what scholars have said that when the teacher takes time to think seriously about what their students should know and be able to do and how such learning should take place, the result is likely to be greater creativity and the elimination of "dry as dust" teaching because knowing your learners is extremely important if you want to become an expert teacher. At the beginning of the lesson under study there is repetition of questions by the teacher, in some cases even more than twice, whilst adapting and modifying them during the repeats in an attempt to make it easier for the learners to understand.

A functional class

Knowing your students enables you to organize them into a functional class, to interact with them more sensitively and to teach them more effectively affirming that the most important aspect of affective teaching is the fact that effective teachers are able to help learners learn as is the case in the lesson at hand. Shavelson (1987) expresses a similar notion that decisions teachers make during instructional planning have a profound influence on their classroom behavior and on the nature and outcomes of the education their learners receive.

For example, in this classroom interaction the teacher goes on with her questioning, repeating the question, adapting and modifying it as follows:

(Line 2) TQ: “Why is the man standing under the tree?”

(Line 3) TQ: “What is he doing under the tree?”

Whilst (line 2) is a repetition of (line 1); in the teacher’s next utterance in (line 3) it is to be noted that the question (repeated in the 2nd line) is repeated by extension in the next line (line 3) with modification of an extra detail to it:

(Line 3) TQ: “What is he doing under the tree?” the addition of extra information not only extends the question but also turns it into a powerful and a more effective discourse move which gives the learners clearer understanding of the question and closer focus.

Furthermore, the teacher, like in the first question once more, repeats the “move” three times in mother tongue and one more time in English after which then points out at a particular learner and still repeats the question in English. The teacher confirms the learner’s correct answer through the use of yet another move “good!” which expresses acceptance and confirmation of the learner’s correct answer through the use of yet another move “good” and repeats the learner’s answer, viz.,

“He is eating”

Lines 7-10 comprise repetition of the same question and answers by the learners which are punctuated by the teacher's assurance to her class:

(Line 10) T: "Beautiful!"

The teacher continues with her questions, in

(Line 11) T: "What is he eating? O jaang?" The teacher points at another learner and repeats the question; gives the learner chance to think in order to come up with an answer. The teacher continues to gauge the learner to give an answer then:

(Line 12) T: "Yes my boy?"

After the learner's reluctant but correct answer the teacher follows up with reassurance:

(Line 14) T: "He is eating his lunch" the teacher puts emphasis on the word "lunch". There is repetition of this sentence by both the teacher and learners from (lines 14-21) which is punctuated by the teacher in:

(Line 22) T: "Beautiful."

Affirmation of the correct answer and repetition of the question by the teacher is observed in:

(Line 25) T: "Beautiful." Now what is it? Look at it and tell me what it is"

The learners respond in a chorus:

(Line 26): C: "Monkey:"

The teacher's repetition of the question and learners' response follow in (lines 28-36) and brought to an end by the teacher's approval in:

(Line 37) T: "Right".

The teacher's emphasis through Repetition and Oral Questioning leads to comprehensibility of EFAL language input in the learner

After the teacher's affirmation of the learners' correct response, repetition of questions by the teacher is persistent and:

(Line 38) brings to light the teacher's intention to emphasize. The teacher, whilst demonstrating to the learners how the word 'monkey' is spelled and written, also says the word loud enough so as to help learners to be able to pronounce it correctly. The teacher's discourse 'move' of emphasis through repetition surfaces once more in

(Line 42) the teacher code-switches into the learners' mother tongue in order to ensure learners' absolute understanding of what is going on and beckons the learners to 'look' carefully and conscientiously at what the monkey is doing. When one of the learners tries to give an answer in (Line 43):

L: (Attempts): "He is eating 'the' orange." (Lines 44)

T: "No. It has not started eating". (code-switches: "A se a ba ya thoma go ja. E lebelele, ke seo sebatana se, e se a ba sa thoma go ja, hmm?"")

The tone, mood and atmosphere which the teacher has built so far in the development of the lesson is that of suspense and apprehension in the learners; with the teacher dramatizing to the learners how excited the monkey looked after it had stolen an orange. the monkey's mixed emotions of joy, anticipation of possible apprehension by the wronged party, excitement over the accomplished mission and the ultimate enjoyment of the delicious and juicy orange.

The climax of the teaching and learning experience:

The teacher seems to manage to depict a situation for the learners which are highly contagious with the monkey's tricks. This marks the climax of the lesson:

(Line 51) T: "The monkey stole an orange". Repetition of the question by the teacher follows in:

(Line 52) T: "Right. So what will the man do?" a question which is repeated by the teacher in various forms in:

(Lines 52-63) Repetition of the question by the teacher and response thereupon by the learners are again found in (Lines 69-75)

In (Line 69) T: "What is the monkey going to do with the orange? eh Riki, will you tell us?"

Riki: (Line 70) "The monkey 'they'" (the teacher quickly intercepts): " 'is' eating..." continues in (Line72) "The monkey is going..."(Riki hesitates for a moment and continues "...to..." (the teacher intervenes) T:"...eat..." (then after hesitating Riki goes on to say) "orange". The teacher acknowledges Riki's answer and makes her aware that her answer is incomplete (Line 73) T: "Eh---you left one word." (then silence)

The silence from the learner is broken by the teacher's remediation (Line 74) T: "The monkey is going to eat an orange."

From (Lines 153-180) evidence of repetition by both the teacher and learners of three conspicuously independent words: "Happening", "Stolen", and "Orange" as well as repetition of an assortment of independent words with the emphasis on pronunciation, and spelling of both the spoken as well as written forms of words from (Lines 180-248): **monkey, lunch, stolen, happening, orange, angry.**

Learners' attempts at reading

When the teacher was satisfied that the learners have demonstrated comprehension of the story, in (Line 78) the teacher leads the class in reading and the class read after her. This is a variation in the teacher's discourse "move" which takes the lesson to yet another level. (Line 84) and then:

(Line 85) T: "Will you read the first word?"

The learners' response to the teacher's request is marked by sounds of confusion from amongst the learners some of whom seemed to be saying: ('Angry' whilst others were saying 'happening') hence this is followed by the teacher:

(Line 87) T: "Wait a bit, 'happening'."

Learners seem to grasp what they are doing as they move over to the next line unaided by the teacher. Encouraged and supported by the teacher more words (Lines 92-198) and sentences from the story are brought to the learner's attention and repeated again and again by the teacher to drive the message home to the learners. A change in emphasis from the spoken form as in oral pronunciation of words to the written form of language is evidenced by the teacher's opening two sentences of (Line 200).

The Writing Skill is tapped on by the teacher

(Line 200) T: "Now I want you to write down the word lunch. I want you to write down the word lunch correctly. Now let's see how we are going to write it down; come **Ela**, wait a bit, I'll tell you, **Ela**."

There is evident development and added emphasis in the lesson through integration of the basic skills by listening at how words are pronounced, followed by articulating them correctly through reading(127-196) and then the skill of writing (Line 197). In which the teacher moves on to another level of teaching; namely, a reading lesson for the learners; a stage which signifies a ramification of teaching strategies by the teacher.

Learners demonstrate their grasp of what the teacher is conveying to them. Because of the teacher's support of their attempts to learn demonstrated in Lines 228 to the end of the lesson.

The single lesson taken as the object of study shows that methods of instruction were used that minimize experiences of failure and discouragement for the learner while maximizing time on task, learning, and the experience of personal adequacy. The lesson was well structured, properly taught and found its fulfillment in performance, the transfer of a competency from the teacher to the learner. Jones (1987) attests that: yet performance, correct performance, is only the midpoint of mastery, ultimately we must create the capacity for correct independent performance in which learners are able to continue learning and correct their own errors by themselves and

This is found to be the case in the lesson under study (Lines 54 - 57)

If not, the lesson would .have failed in preparing learners to leave the classroom and succeed on their own.

The significance of questioning and repetition by the teacher

Questioning helps to direct and bring the learners' thinking into closer focus whilst uninterrupted repeated questioning within the lesson demonstrated emphasis as well as a build-up of understanding, a form of scaffolding of knowledge and ideas from simple to complex demonstrated through the entire lesson.

Scaffolding by the teacher

In (Lines 127) the teacher starts off by demanding that learners should read, in turn to emphasize learners' comprehension of what takes place in the story in as well as pronunciation as articulated in learners' repetitions in trying to imitate the teacher (Line191) The teacher puts emphasis on the **'u-sound'** of **'lu'** in (lunch) and carries on:
(Line193) T: "Wrong! You are just shouting. No don't shout. Please be gentle, say 'lunch' not **'LLUUNNCCHH,**' hm...Come on."

Development of the lesson and scaffolding by the teacher goes on in (Line 197) T: "Now I want you to write down the word 'lunch'. I want you to write down the word 'lunch' correctly. Now let' see how we are going to write it down."

There is evident escalation and added emphasis in the lesson and an integration of the basic skills by listening at how words are pronounced, followed by articulating them correctly through reading (Line: 187) and then writing (Line: 200). The teacher moves on to another level of teaching; namely, a reading lesson for the learners. The lesson up to this stage signifies a ramification of teaching strategies by the teacher.

The teacher's "explanation" presents the learner with verbal input for skill performance or concept building. Explanation is greatly aided by any form of activity which can periodically wake the learners up, draw a response from them, and help them to integrate new input as is the case in the study at hand. The whole class responds to the teacher's question in (Line 93) T: "...Oh what is happening?" the class follows up in (Line 94) C: "Hooh! Something has jumped out of the tree!"(The teacher asks them to repeat their response; some learners literally jumping as they repeat the word: "jumped")

Asking questions of the group and having them give answers accompanied by motor activity if possible constructed a dialogue rather than a monologue out of explanation and heightened the learners' level of attentiveness.

Active classroom interaction is demonstrated between teacher and learners

The case under study demonstrates that in teaching a few simple sentences the teacher began the lesson by telling learners exactly what she wants them to do next in clear, understandable terms; even code-switched to the learners' mother tongue so that they can perform the next step of the skill sequence with confidence. Using questions and prompts the teacher proceeded one step at a time whilst constantly repeating the questions and prompts and explaining where necessary.

Repetition is evident in: (Lines 101; 103; 107; 117): T: "Look, it is a monkey". Three words, namely, 'Happening', 'Orange' and 'Stolen' are interchangeably repeated as "moves" by the teacher in (Lines 153) T: " Now let's look at this word – 'happening', Will you read?" The teacher's repetition of the three words is found in: (Lines: 155) T: "Number 2,- 'orange'" (Lines 157) T: "orange"; (Lines 159) T: "number 3 – 'stolen'";(Lines 161) T: "stolen" (Lines 163) T: "Aha let me hold it (a poster) in front of you like this and read for you. 'Happening'" (Line 165) T: "Wait a bit, a bit. 'Happening', 'happening'. Now look at me, look at the poster and read". The class follows the instruction in (Lines 166) C: "'Happening', 'happening,' 'happening'". Persuasion through questioning by the teacher follows: (Lines: 105; 115; 125) T: "Are you looking into the book?" The teacher uses the discourse move of repeated questioning to beckon and persuade the learners to participate actively in the lesson.

(Line 153) T: "Now lets look at this word – 'happening', Will you read?"

(Line 165) T: "Wait a bit, just wait a bit, a bit, 'happening,' 'happening.' Now look at me, look at the poster and read.

(Line 167) T: "Very good. Now we put it here (pastes it on the chalkboard) here it is. Will you read the word again?" The teacher carries on with the beckoning tone:

(Line 170) T: "'Stolen,' (teacher reads slowly) 'stolen', 'stolen' Now let's read."

(Line 172) T: "Will you read!"

(Line 176) T: "Beautiful. Now let's look for another one – where is that orange hmm? Now look: 'orange' will you read?"

Learners given praise and encouragement by the teacher

The teacher gives praise to the learners' attempts whilst at the same time beckons and urges them to take active participation in the lesson:

(Line 178) T: "Beautiful people. Now let's write it down on the board: 'orange'. Right, read again!"

(Line 185) T: "What is this? Monkey?" and

(Line 187) T: "Will you read?"

The teacher continues with the repetitive beckoning questioning:

(Line 191) T: "Let's say 'LUNCH'. 'LUNCH' (teacher laying stress on the 'u-sound' of lu in lunch), "Will you read?"

Learners' demonstration of independence and confidence in their learning

The teacher conveys to the learners that she cares and is concerned about the process and content of this activity and for them as individuals engaged in this activity with her.

In (Line 127) it is seen how the teacher guides the children in an inquiry process while gradually shifting some of the responsibility of the activity to the children:

"Point at these words with your finger and say (the teacher emphasizing the words: 'oh, it has stolen an orange') will you point at these words?"

4.7 CONCLUSION

Having structured the activity for the learners using questions, the teacher shifts the responsibility for part of the activity over to the learners. In a Vygotskian sense, Buzzelli and Johnston (2002:23) put it that the teacher hands over more responsibility for and control of the activity to the learners.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 FINDINGS

5.1.1 Introduction

Certain forms and patterns of classroom discourse promote certain types of learning which engages learners as active and eager learners. The significance of the choices the teacher makes is that they reflect and convey moral beliefs about teaching. Further, the choices the teacher made about what to say and do in the classroom ultimately influence the quality and extent of learners' participation in the activity. Most of all, the teacher, in her participation, signaled and made it explicit to the classroom community that she enjoyed and found pleasure in being a member thereof.

Comprehensibility of EFAL content evident in the learners:

The teacher gives praise to the learners' attempts whilst at the same time beckons and urges them to take active participation in the lesson:

(Line 178) T: "Beautiful people. Now let's write it down on the board: 'orange'. Right. Read again!"

(Line 185) T: "What is this? monkey?" and

(Line 187) T: "Will you read?"

The teacher continues with the repetitive beckoning and questioning:

(Line 191) T: "Let's say 'LUNCH'. 'LUNCH' (teacher laying stress on the 'u-sound' of lu in lunch), "Will you read?"

Learners' demonstration of independence and confidence in their learning

The teacher conveys to the learners that she cares and is concerned about the process and content of this activity and for them as individuals engaged in this activity with her. In (Line 127) it is seen how the teacher guides the children in an inquiry process while gradually shifting some of the responsibility of the activity to the children:” Point at these words with your finger and say (the teacher emphasizing the words: 'oh, it has stolen an orange') will you point at these words?”

Learners are given praise and encouragement by the teacher

The teacher gives praise to the learners' attempts whilst at the same time beckons and urges them to take active involvement in the lesson:

(Line 178) T: “Beautiful people. Now let's write it down on the board: 'orange'. Right. Read again!”

5.1.2 “Repetition” and “Oral Questions” as Discourse “moves” in EFAL Classroom Interaction

The teacher's discourse moves of 'questioning' and 'repetition' are persistent and cut across the entire lesson for example, repetition is evident in: (Lines 101;103; 107;117):T: ”Look, it is a monkey”. Three words, namely, 'Happening', 'Orange' and 'Stolen' are interchangeably repeated as “moves” by the teacher in (Lines 153) T: “ Now let's look at this word – 'happening', Will you read?” The teacher's repetition of the three words is found in:(Lines: 155) T: “Number 2,- 'orange'” (Lines 157) T: “orange”; (Lines 159) T: “number 3 – 'stolen'”; (Lines 161) T: “'stolen'” (Lines 163) T: “Aha let me hold it (a poster) in front of you like this and read for you. 'Happening'” (Line 165) T: “Wait a bit, a bit. 'happening', 'happening'. Now look at me, look at the poster and read”. The class follows the instruction in (Lines 166) C: “'Happening', 'happening,' 'happening'”.

Persuasion through questioning by the teacher follows: (Lines: 105; 115; 125) T: “Are you looking into the book?” The teacher uses the discourse move of repeated questioning

to beckon and persuade the learners to participate actively in the lesson

(Line 153;) T: “Now lets look at this word – ‘happening’., Will you read?””

(Line 165) T: “Wait a bit, just wait a bit, a bit, ‘happening,’ ‘happening.’ Now look at me, look at the poster and read.

(Line 167) T: “Very good. Now we put it here (pastes it on the chalkboard) here it is. Will you read the word again?” The teacher carries on with the beckoning tone:

(Line 170) T: “‘Stolen,’ (teacher reads slowly) ‘stolen’, ‘stolen’ Now let’s read.”

(Line 172) T: “Will you read!”

(Line 176) T: “Beautiful. Now let’s look for another one – where is that orange hmm ? Now look: ‘orange’ will you read?”

5.1.3 Comprehensibility of EFAL Language Content and Active Learner Participation and Involvement in the Lesson

Bassett and Smythe (1979) assert that investigation of the process of interpersonal influence have shown that, to be successful, persuaders must be perceived in positive ways by those whom they wish to persuade. Amongst others this pertains to classroom interaction wherein to be effective in promoting learning, teachers must frequently persuade learners that the learning goals (or methods of learning) they advocate are worthwhile. The case study at hand is a case in point where amongst others an example hereof is found where learners even without being asked to do so; conscientiously on their own accord respond to the teacher’s question by demonstrating learning through physical activity:

(Line 93) T: “Oh what is happening?”

Then the learners’ response:

(Line 94) C: “Hooh! Something has jumped out of the tree!” (some literally jumping as they repeat the word ‘jumped’)

5.1.4 Significance of “Repetition” and “Oral Questioning” as Teacher Discourse Moves

From the analysis of classroom interaction in this case study it is to be noted how repetition and oral questions by the teacher accomplish a number of important functions in discourse. Pedagogically repetition and oral questions help individuals to comprehend the material being discussed and to make connections among the various components of the discussion.

- It is evident that the redundancy in spoken discourse that occurs from repetition gives learners the opportunity to receive information more slowly, thus making it easier to process and comprehend. Repetition also provides a means of linking new information with information previously introduced in the discourse. By doing so learners can see how ideas are related to one another.
- Further, repeated sections are intensified, which allows learners to take more notice of the particular similarities and differences in the words uttered.
- Repetition by the figure in authority, the teacher, acts to sanction the knowledge as important.
- Repetition can be used to create new meanings because, through its use, the language and meanings that are repeated by the teacher come to have a shared significance and meaning for all participants in the activity. Through repetition and other linguistic patterns, the teacher marks certain information as shared and common knowledge and certain forms of inquiry as shared forms of practice in a particular classroom (Edwards and Mercer 1987).
- It is evident how the teacher guides the learners in an inquiry process while gradually shifting some of the responsibility of the activity to the learners. (Line 127) learners are urged and encouraged to learn to read the words yet in (Line 178 learners are asked to practice writing the words; (Line 191) learners are beckoned by the teacher

- to practice pronunciation of the words. Buzzelli *et.al* (2002:23) assert that perhaps most important is that repetition shows learners that someone is listening to them and hear what they are saying.
- Since the teacher repeats parts of what they say, the teacher engages in a type of participatory listening which conveys to the learners in the class not only that the teacher is listening but that she cares about them, values their contributions, and is concerned about the way she is creating and maintaining social relationships with them..

5.1.5 Varied Strategies used by the Teacher in the Facilitation of EFAL Classroom Interaction

From the situated strategies the teacher was observed to use when facilitating classroom interaction were:

- Re-voicing questions and interpretations, modeling and monitoring reasoning processes, and passing on culturally established knowledge and practices code-switching to mother tongue by the teacher in order to ensure that the message is carried across to every learner. The latter has been highlighted with the active use of cultural metaphors that gave the classroom community tools to approach and conceptualize abstract entities from their own perspectives.
- The nature of the teacher's facilitation of classroom interaction demonstrates that the interpretative authority of ideas and solutions was distributed in the classroom; with all members of the classroom community responsible for negotiating and evaluating the process and outcomes of joint problem – solving.

The use of scaffolding by the teacher

In this lesson, the teacher did not appear to be an agent whose task was to instill new skills and understanding into the learners. In fact, the nature of scaffolding in this classroom

was more reciprocal and bi-directional and meanings were socially negotiated, shaped by the learners' views and perspectives.

Collectiveness in the teacher's facilitation of EFAL classroom interaction

Among the strategies the teacher was found to use for strengthening collectiveness in the classroom were orchestrating turns for the learners to speak which were evident as the lesson progressed, promoting collective responsibility and active, as well as recalling the rules of participation in the community of enquiry. In addition to ensuring the learners' equal participation in classroom interaction the teacher's collective mode of participation served as an important tool for promoting the students' view of themselves as legitimate members of the learning community

The teacher's Appreciative Mode

The teacher's appreciative mode of participation was instrumental in community building and scaffolding the learners' reasoning processes. Another feature relating to the teacher's sensitiveness towards the learners was that she paced the tempo of interaction according to the needs of the learners. Further, the choices the teacher made about what to say and do in the classroom ultimately influences the quality and extent of learners' participation in the activity.

5.1.6 Conclusion

The analysis of this classroom interaction brings to light two important points about the significance of the roles that comprehensibility of language content plays in classroom discourse:

- That teachers make choices about the way they conduct classroom discussion which are realized through the use of particular discourse moves.

- That teachers make choices is of particular importance to the moral dimensions of classroom discourse.

The fine-grained analysis of the learners' social interaction in this study illuminates the processes and conditions for meaning-making, and knowledge construction in whole-class interaction. The case study and its pedagogical solutions place a specific value on shared experience, voluntary communication and joint meaning-making. Most of the time the learners were given the opportunity to take an active role in exploring issues they find meaningful in relation to their earlier experiences and everyday life.

The learners were given opportunities to engage in reasoning, questioning, inferring consequences and defining concepts. From the social viewpoint researchers maintain that such changes in emphasis bring with them fresh methodological questions concerning the analysis of classroom interaction. Questions to which researchers have begun to try to find answers include:

- How can the qualitative features in classroom interactions characteristic of a range of learning contexts and classroom cultures be revealed?
- Against which criteria should judgements about the effectiveness of these learning interactions be made?
- How are the various potential characteristics of classroom interaction related to their effectiveness in terms of learning in the learner?

Understanding reasoning and meaning-making processes in classroom interaction is seen as requiring attention, to be given to the evolving social interactions among classroom members as well as to the role of the teacher in scaffolding learner's learning together with upholding academic standards and requirements (Hogan, Nastasi, and Pressley, 2000)

5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

Answers to the points raised by Hogan, Nastasi and Pressley, (2000) on the effectiveness of the learning interactions have been located in the analysis of the classroom interaction in the lesson under study.

It is recommended that teachers engage in teacher “discourse moves” in order to maximize comprehensibility of language input in the learner which leads to heightened learners’ desire to learn witnessed in the inevitable learners’ active participation in classroom interaction.

It is necessary to look at lesson design, lesson presentation and the systematic management of the quantity (diligence) and quality (excellence) of work produced during a typical lesson in the classroom. Viewed objectively, within a positive classroom it is the overall pattern and interrelatedness of the parts that places such an increase in instructional power within the teacher’s grasp.

A lesson plan which dwells on detail and precision examines the moment-to-moment learner-teacher interactions that determine whether the learner understands what to do, has the motivation and confidence to try, and works independently in one lesson after another throughout the school day.

In all fairness a situation such as the one depicted in this study leaves no room for passive participation by learners which in more ways than one has resulted in learner s’ dragging their feet and unruliness whilst a lesson is in progress due to incomprehensibility of EFAL input in the learner.

One very prominent error of teachers in leading a discussion is talking too much. In a typical classroom discussion the teacher does well over half the talking, and some teachers talk as much as 80 to 90 percent of the time which naturally affects learner talk in a number of ways; some of which are identifiable as follows:

1. Teacher talk consumes the time available for learner talk. Jones (1987:81) puts it that research has indicated that the learners talk during a classroom discussion is extremely variable, ranging from as low as 2 percent with highly ineffective facilitators to as high as 65 percent. On the average learners talk about 25 percent of the time during a group discussion, a rate which is about half as high as it should be.
2. The more the teacher talks the more passive the learners become as their role is defined by the teacher talk as one of observer rather than participant.
3. The more the teacher talks, the more he or she dominates idea building.
4. The more the teacher talks, the more the learners perceive the so-called discussion as information-giving in which they are expected to remember new input rather than to actively participate in information-building.
5. As the teacher dominates the discussion, the use of higher mental processes by learners disappears.

It cannot be overemphasized how important it is that learners should have positive images of their teachers. One of the most consistent findings of learning research is that people differ in the way they learn. Regrettably instruction cannot be individualized. The teacher should therefore expect diverse responses from learners. In view of the teacher's intended responses from the learners Bassett *et al* (1979) put it that principles from the learning theory have been proven valuable in achieving the persuasive objective:

1. reward responses to establish them.
2. the more often a response is rewarded, the more likely it is to become established, the implication being that to maintain change, you must continue to reward.
3. the shorter the time between the response and the reward, the more likely that the response will occur again: the more closely the reward follows the response, the better. A delay between the two events may lead the learner to

4. associating the reward with responses other than the one the teacher wished to increase.

This study cautions that the meanings attached to the acts described herein are dependent upon the situation. In the same vein Malamah-Thomas (1987: 8) advances the notion that not all collaborative interactions in the classroom will automatically lead to meaningful learning activities and experience; that in fact, in some cases classroom interaction may entail deficient or even counterproductive learning processes (which is apparently one of the factors which prompted the present study).

The teacher's primary responsibility in the classroom interaction is to promote learning gains in his/her learners. The teacher's awareness of the implications of social environments for learning increases his/her chances of achieving that level of effectiveness and implications for teacher-learner relationships are not far to seek.

The more empathic the teacher is, also as evidenced in the case of this study, the more likely he/she will be able to communicate accurately with his/her learners, thereby avoiding the misperceptions that lead to frequent conflict..

One of the cornerstones of comprehensibility of EFAL input in the learner and learner active participation in classroom interaction according to the findings of this study is that whilst engaging learners in the lesson 'questioning' and 'repetition,' as discourse "moves" your willingness as a teacher to provide unconditional acceptance of your learners as individuals, even to the extent of code-switching and code-mixing during discourse, sharply affects. Their willingness to trust you.

Let your students see from the outset that, regardless of their personal and/or academic characteristics, you acknowledge their unique individuality and grant them the regard for feelings and dignity that you expect from them. Social and economic changes in today's society have compelled educators to rethink the goals of education in terms of the skills learners are likely to need in their future lives.

Conventional forms of teaching in which learners have rather passively received knowledge from the teacher or from other authorized materials (Sfard, 1998) have been found inadequate in supporting the development of learners' thinking and learning skills, which need to be applied outside of the school situation, in a society full of complex information and problem solving. A huge need has developed to make the activity of learning and instruction meaningful and challenging for the learner, so that more value is placed on the learners' natural inquiring mind, curiosity and excitement in learning.

Whether direct instruction, discovery learning or other teaching strategy, the fundamental objective of classroom interaction is always the same; as succinctly put by Jones (1987:13), to get a group of learners to do what needs to be done diligently, conscientiously and independently. This is evident in the object of this study. Until we can consistently succeed in this basic exercise most attempts to accelerate learning in the classroom are futile and not worth the while.

5.2.1 The downside (lows) of the classroom interaction under study

Classroom interaction can provide valuable immediate feedback about learner achievement, communication skills and social skills as indicated by the lesson under study. In the same vein, the researcher in this study as participant observer noted that while classroom interaction can be a valuable tool for learning, it does not necessarily lead to useful learning and that the lesson under study is no exception to this. It has its flaws: the most outstanding feature in this lesson is that teacher talk dominated classroom discourse.

Learner engagement in complementary activity

The teacher in this lesson did not engage learners in an activity complementary to the reading that was going on in class. Learners were, for example, not given a chance to share their thoughts with each other about what they were reading.

The more the teacher talked, the more the learners perceived the so-called discussion as information-giving in which they are expected to remember new input rather than to actively participate in information-building.

To the researcher's mind, learners would learn more and retain more when they are actually involved in an activity. In this way the comprehension will be of a higher quality.

Reassurance to come back to learners' attempts at giving answers

The teacher did not consider some of the learners as they were attempting to give answers. When two or more learners raised their hands at the same time the teacher did not reassure those not selected that she will not forget to come back to them in a moment for their questions or answers.

The more the teacher talked the more passive the learners became as their role is defined by the teacher talk as one of observer rather than participant. Such 'apparent' oversight by the teacher might discourage the learners to try again.

Incorporation of learners' ideas

Learners were not allowed to make presentations which would encourage peer review. Allowing learners to present their ideas gives them a chance to learn from each other. As the teacher dominates the discussion, the use of higher mental processes by learners disappears and the more the teacher talks, the more he or she dominates idea building.

Such an exercise engages the learners more than the teacher doing a solo (one-way) act.

Learner-learner interaction

Teaching went on with learners sitting down throughout the lesson. This made them seem to be “passive” even though they were responsive to the teacher. The researcher strongly feels that the teacher is expected to do everything possible to transform the learners from “passive” observers to active learners. They could be allowed to get out of their seats frequently to work in twos or threes alternating in their reading according to the teacher’s instruction. A pair could, for example, be asked to alternate in their reading of the paragraphs. This would build in an element of responsibility, accountability, cooperation and mutual respect in the learners.

Whilst acknowledging the downside of the lesson under study, the researcher of this study agrees with McKeachie, (1999:154) that there is no “best” or “most effective” instructional approach which works well for all teachers and learners; that the most effective instructional approach will be the one that reflects a combination of sound instructional strategies, knowledge of the content subject, enthusiasm for teaching, and sensitivity to one’s personal characteristics.

It is in vain hope to imagine that any great improvement will occur within the educational process if EFAL lessons are taught the way they have always been taught; not taking stock and act upon the comprehensibility of EFAL input to the learner. Again it is equally futile to think that teachers will master new methods of instruction if they are taught through superficial in-service presentations as they have traditionally.

In today’s society, the teacher’s role is defined as a sensitive coach or an expert partner who participates in communal learning by orchestrating and scaffolding classroom

interaction, amongst others, the use of discourse “moves” towards a shared understanding.

5.3 CONCLUSION

Despite the existence of rather stable interaction patterns present in classroom contexts, each interaction situation is still a unique and complex phenomenon. Consequently, the nature of classroom interaction and the ways in which language is used in a given situation are also related to the participants’ socio-cognitive and emotional processes, including their perceptions of the aims of the activity in question. The teacher’s skill in monitoring learners’ classroom interactions, timing interventions and providing the right level of assistance are highly significant and urgently need further investigation.

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APPENDIX 1

LESSON PLAN

SECTION A

Grade: THREE	Learning area: ENGLISH	School: MATSEDI PRIMARY SCHOOL
Date: AUGUST 2007	Duration: 30 MINUTES	Phase: FOUNDATION PHASE

SECTION B

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Content: READING AND VIEWING
Core Knowledge: "THE MAN IN THE CAR" Part 2.
Critical Outcomes: Communicate effectively using visual, mathematical and/or language skills in the modes of oral and written presentation.
Learning outcomes: The learner is able to read and view for information and enjoyment and respond critically to the aesthetic, cultural and emotional values in texts..
Assessment standards: 1. Describes how the story makes oneself feel: 2. Answers oral questions about the story. 3. Predicts what the story is about from the title. 4. Reads fluently.

SECTION C

Teaching & Learning activities	Assessment strategy and task	Teaching strategies	Resources	Integration (within the learning area) AND/OR with other learning areas
1. The learners read the title and predict what the	Teacher assessment	I write learners' answers on the chalkboard.	Story books; Flash-cards; Chalkboard;	EFAL. LO2: Speaking Giving of instructions

story is about.	Teacher assessment	Learners encouraged to contribute their ideas.	“The” fruit (an orange)	Attending to pronunciation as part of reading.
2. I relate the story and ask learners questions on the story.	Peer assessment			
3. I introduce new words	Teacher assessment	Writing words on the chalkboard		
4. Learners read line by line after me.	Teacher assessment	Reading aloud with correct pronunciation.		
5. Single learners read.	Peer assessment	I use flash-cards		
6. Spelling of new words.	Teacher assessment			

SECTION D

Barriers to learning and how to deal with them:

A shortage of story books however forces learners to sit in pairs, sometimes in trio's when they read. When they hear about the monkey tricks, their noise becomes uncontrollable.

SECTION E

Reflection:

This is an interesting story, learners participated as the lesson continued. The slow learners were accommodated in their pace. I shall give my learners a chance to go through the lesson once more in order to speed up reading and fluency to focus on correct pronunciation.

APPENDIX II

VERBATIM TRANSCRIPT OF THE LESSON UNDER STUDY

- 1 T: The man is standing under the tree
- 2 T: “Why is the man standing under the tree? what is he doing?”
- 3 T: “What is he doing under the tree?”
(Repeats the question three times in mother-tongue and one more time in English; points at Sesi a learner and repeats the question)
- 4 Sesi: “He is eating.”
- 5 T.: “Good! He is eating.”
- 6 T: (repeats the question: twice to the whole class)
- 7 C: “He is eating.”
- 8 T: “Again,”
- 9 C: “He is eating.”
- 10 T: “Beautiful.”
- 11 T: “What is he eating? O jaang?
Lesogana? What is he eating?”(gives him chance to think before coming up with an answer)
- 12 T: “Yes my boy?”
- 13 L: (hesitantly and softly)”He is--- (then clearly) Eating (softly again):
- 14 T: “He is eating his lunch(teacher puts emphasis on lunch) he is
eating his ‘lunch’”
- 15 T: “He is eating his.....”
- 16 C ...“Lunch”
(teacher repeats once, twice, thrice with learners giving the response each time.)
- 17 T: “What is he eating?”
(Some learners respond in a chorus with the one word: LUNCH whilst others among them try to give the full sentence: ‘He is eating his lunch’”(together with the teacher)
- 18 T: “Say the whole sentence please!”
- 19 T&C: “He is eating his lunch.”
- 20 T: “What is he eating?”

- 21 C: (in a chorus)"He is eating his lunch."
- 22 T: "Beautiful!"
- 23 T: "Can you see something on top of the roof?"
(There is a pause and hesitation in between from the learners,.
teacher repeats the question twice THEN)
- 24 C: (in a chorus)"Yes."
- 25 T: "Beautiful. Now what is it? Look at it and tell me what it is.(teacher switches
over to 1st language) ke eng yona yela ka mo godimo ga koloi, ke eng?"
- 26 C: (in a chorus)"monkey."
- 27 T: "My girl?"(directing the question to a specific learner)
- 28 L: "Monkey."
- 29 T: "Monkey."
- 30 T: (in 1st language):"Kana monkey ke eng?"
- 31 C: (also in mother tongue): "Kgabo"(monkey)
- 32 T: (explains in mother tongue "Ke tshwene ye e nnyane e
botsananyana ga kere?)
- 33 T: "Everybody : ' monkey' what is it?"
- 34 C: "A monkey!"
- 35 T: "What is it?"
- 36 C: "A monkey."
- 37 T: "Right".
- 38 T: (A pause as the teacher writes the word on the chalkboard whilst
saying it aloud at the same time)
"A.....m.....o.....n.....k.....e.....y; right!"(pause)
- 39 T: (Reads): "The man is in the car. The man is eating. He is eating
his...' (some learners join in):' lunch.' "(a short pause)
- 40 T: "Now, what is the monkey doing? (code-switches to mother tongue
(Na sebatanyana se sona se dira eng moo?")
- 41 T: (With emphasis):" what is the monkey doing? "{(pause)
- 42 T: "Look,,(code-switches still emphasizing: E - le - be - le - le). Look at it"
- 43 L: (Attempts):" He is eating 'the' orange."

- 44 T: “No. It has not started eating.(code-switches: A se a ba ya thoma go ja. E---
e lebelele, ke seo sebatana se e se a ba sa thoma go ja, hmm?)”
- 45 C: (Respond in a chorus in mother tongue: “E utswitse”)
- 46 T: (Repeats learners’ response:” E utswitse, a ke re?”
- 47 C: (In a chorus): (“Yes ma’ m, e utswitse.”)
- 48 T: (Some learners join in with the teacher): “The monkey stole an orange.”
- 49 T: “What did the monkey do?”
- 50 C: “The monkey stole an orange.”
- 51 T: (Affirming learners’ response): “The monkey stole an orange.”
- 52 T: “Right. So, what will the man do? (emphatically): what – will – the –
man – do? (code-switches into 1st language): monna o tla dirang ka ge
tshwenyana ye, kgabonyana ye e utswitse namune? Monna o tla dirang,
hmm....?” (teacher repeats the same question twice)
- 53 T: “What do you think the man will do?”
- 54 L: (one learner responds hesitantly and speaks rather softly):
‘hit - eh – hungry’.
- 55 T: “No, not hungry.”(the learner realizes her mistake and tries to correct it).
- 56 L: (intervening the teacher): ‘Angry.’
- 57 T: “Ye- - -s. The man is angry”.(learners join in to repeating the
answer together with the teacher:”The man is angry.” “The man is angry.”
- 58 T: “How is the man?”
- 59 L: (One stray learner shouts): ‘Angry.’ (while the whole class responds in a full
sentence):
- 60 C: (In chorus) “The man is angry (some sound like saying): A man is angry.”
- 61 T: “Ja. Now say:’the man is angry’.”
- 62 C “The man is angry.”
- 63 T: “What will the man do?”
- 64 C: (different opinions are given, with some saying):” ‘ - - -hit with a stone.”
- 65 T: (intervenes):”The man was angry and started scolding the monkey (teacher
changing her tone and speaking harder): ‘You silly monkey, you stole my orange!’”
- 66 T: “Then the man is just angry. What will the man do?.....hmm?”
- 67 C: “The man is angry.”

- 68 T: “The man is angry but there is nothing he can do.(code-switches to 1st language: ‘E utswitse e utswitse’) What’s done is done.” (learners begin to discuss amongst themselves)
- 69 T: “What is the monkey going to do with the orange? eh- - -? Riki, will you tell us?”
- 70 R: “The monkey ‘they’ (then the teacher quickly intervenes): ’ is ‘ eating...”
- 71 T: “Hm- - - - - you are right my girl but speak aloud,the monkey is going....”
- 72 R: “The monkey is going, - - - (hesitation) to,- - -(teacher intervenes): ‘eat’ (hesitation) ‘orange’”.
- 73 T: “Eh - - - you left out one word.”
(silence)
- 74 T: “The monkey is going to eat an orange.”
- 75 T: “What is the monkey going to do?”
- 76 C: “The monkey is going to eat an orange “(there are sounds of confusion and uncertainty in the learners’ response, however the teacher continues)
- 77 T: “Beautiful! Right! - - - -Tricks.”
- 78 T: “Mmm - - - - tricks - - -page 9.”
(teacher leads class in reading and class reads after her):
- 79 T: “Page 9.”
- 80 C: “Page 9.”
- 81 T: “The man in the car.”
- 82 C: “The man in the car.”
- 83 T: “Part Two.”
- 84 C: “Part Two”.
- 85 T: “Will you read the first word?”
- 86 C: (Sounds of confusion some seem to be saying ‘ Angry’ whilst others say ‘happening’)
- 87 T: “Wait a bit, ‘ happening’.”
- 88 C: “happening.”
- 89 T: “happening.”
- 90 C: “happening (Some learners decide to go to the next word: ‘orange’ as they read in a chorus but are on the right track) ‘orange’”

- 91 T: “Good! Number three?”
- 92 C: “Stolen.”
- 93 T: “Weetsa? Line number 1:
The man is still sitting in the car. He is eating his lunch. Oh what is happening?”
- 94 C: “Hooh! something has jumped out of the tree!”(teacher makes them repeat this; Some literally jumping as they repeat the word: “jumped.”)
- 95 T: “E - - e - - my girl, my boy, don’t be lazy. Say, ‘something has jumped’; `and wait for me there (code-switches to 1st language): A re yeng”.
- 96 C: “Something has jumped”
- 97 T: “Go on and say: ‘Out of the tree’ “.
- 98 C: “Out of the tree.”
- 99 T: “Good! It is sitting on the roof of the car”.
- 100 C: (repeats after the teacher)
- 101 T: “Look, it is a monkey.”
- 102 C: (repeats after the teacher)
- 103 T: “Look, it is a monkey.”
- 104 C: (class repeats)
- 105 T: “Are you looking into your book?”
- 106 C: “Yes.”
- 107 T: “Look, it is a monkey.”
- 108 C: (class repeats)
- 109 T: “What is it doing?”
- 110 C: (repeats)
- 111 T: “Oh, (pause) it has stolen an orange”
- 112 C: (Repeats but confusion is evident in their response)
- 113 T: “Thank you. say ‘oh, it has stolen an orange’. (Code-switches to 1st language): O tle feela fauwe. (Teacher realizes the problem); say ‘oh, it has stolen an orange’. will you read?”
- 114 C: “Oh, it has stolen an orange. “(There is still confusion in most learners and the teacher is aware that learners are experiencing difficulty)
- 115 T: “Are you looking into the book?”

116 C: "Yes."

117 T: "Look, it is a monkey."

118 C: Repeats.

119 T: "What is it doing?"

120 C: Repeats.

121 T: "Oh, (pauses) it has stolen an orange."

122 C: Repeats (but there are still audible traces of confusion and uncertainty amongst them)

123 T: "Thank you. say 'oh, it has stolen an orange'. (Code-switches to 1st language: O tle feela fauwe) say 'oh, it has stolen an orange'. will you read?"

124 C: (Repeats): 'oh, it has stolen an orange '(Some confusion still lingers among them).

125 T: "Are you looking into the book?"

126 C: "Yes."

127 T: "Point at these words with your finger and say (the teacher emphasizing the words: oh, it has stolen an orange') will you point at the words? "

128 C: "It has stolen an orange".

129 T: "Go on with the rest of the sentence".

130 C: (Lots of hesitation)

131 T: (Code-switching to 1st language): Hmm - - -ganthe ga o sa fetsa motswala; hmm - - - ? (Expressing surprise at their failure to read on. At the teacher's remark some learners try hard to carry on but still there is a lot of confusion.)

132 T: "Oh- - - - - O.K. Thank you very much. Oh, 'it has stolen an orange'. You rest a bit (Code-switches to 1st language): wa khutsa gannyane wa tswela pele wa re: "from the man in the car". Now let's read: "oh, it has stolen an orange".

133 C: "oh, it has stolen an orange".

134 T: "From the man in the car".

135 C: Repeats.

136 T: "Look," (pauses) "it is jumping back into the tree".

137 C: Repeats (there's confusion again)

138 T: "And it is eating the orange".

139 C: (Repeats)

140 T: Right, we go on - - - "The man is very angry".

- 141 C: (Repeats)
- 142 T: “He can’t catch the monkey.”
- 143 C: (Repeats)
- 144 T: (Code-switches to 1st language) “O tla kgona go e tshwara or go ka se kgonege?”
- 145 C: “A ka se kgone. “
- 146 T: “Ke ka baka lang a ka se kgone?”
- 147 C: (Learners answer in a chorus each one giving their individual answers
- 148 T: “E dia bjang ganthe! Batho?”
- 149 C: “E dio tshaba.....”
- 150 T: “Aowa e dio kadiela kwa motlhareng”
- 151 C: “Ee”.
- 152 T: “Ja. The man is angry but he cannot catch the monkey. Thank you very much. Right!”
- 153 T: “Now let’s look at this word – ‘happening’, Will you read?”
- 154 C: “happening.”
- 155 T: “Number 2, - ‘orange.’”
- 156 C: “Orange.”
- 157 T: “Orange”.
- 158 C: “Orange.”
- 159 T: “Number 3. – ‘stolen’”
- 160 C: “Stolen.”
- 161 T: “Stolen”.
- 162 C: “Stolen”.
- 163 T: “Aha...let me hold it (a poster) in front of you like this and read for you. ‘Happening’”.
- 164 C: “Happening.”
- 165 T: “Wait a bit, just wait a bit, a bit. ‘happening’, ‘happening’. Now look at me, look at the poster and read”.
- 166 C: “Happening, happening, happening”
- 167 T: “Very good. Now we put it here (pastes it on the chalkboard) Here it is. Will you read the word again?”
- 168 C: “Happening”.

- 169 T: “Beautiful. Now let’s look for the second one. The second one (learners sound eager to give what they think it is) : wait a bit. hm....”(pause).
- 170 T: “Stolen (teacher reads slowly) stolen, stolen. Now let’s read:”
- 171 C: (repeat, but not all of them)
- 172 T: “Will you read!”
- 173 C: “Stolen, stolen, stolen”.
- 174 T: “Good. Beautiful! Now the last time?”
- 175 C: “Stolen.”
- 176 T: “Beautiful. Now let’s look for another one – where is that orange hmm...? where’s. my orange, did the monkey steal it? No, the monkey cannot steal my orange. Now look: ‘orange’. will you read?”
- 177 C: “Orange. orange, orange.”
- 178 T: “Beautiful people. Now let’s write it down on the board: ‘orange.’ right. read again!”
- 179 C: “Orange”.
- 180 T: “Beautiful. (continues by saying: the man cannot catch the monkey. The man is just (pause) very angry (with emphasis in her voice) how is the man?”
- 181 C: “The man is very angry”
- 182 T: “Promise me – ‘angry’, ‘angry’; re-read:
- 183 C: “Angry, angry, angry.”
- 184 T: “Beautiful! hm...beautiful. Right!”(in between some learners in the background can be heard trying to help one another on a point in the lesson)
- 185 T: “What is this:? monkey?”
- 186 C: “Monkey.”
- 187 T: “Will you read?”
- 188 C: “Monkey, monkey, monkey”.
- 189 T: “Monkey, thank you. Weetsa,” (calls out a learner)
- 190 L: (responds):”monkey, monkey,monkey.”
- 191 T: “Now what was the man eating? The man was eating his lunch. Let’s say LUNCH, LUNCH “(teacher puts emphasis on the ‘**u-sound**’ sound of **lu** (lunch).”Will you read?”
- 195 C: “Lunch, lunch, lunch” (utterly loud)
- 196 T: “Wrong! You are just shouting. No don’t shout. Please be gentle, say lunch not LLUUNNCCHH. hm....Come on”.

197 C: (softer now)"lunch, lunch, lunch".

198 T: "Beautiful people! (holding one learner by hand) I'll put you here."

199 L: "Lunch, lunch."

200 T: "Now I want you to write down the word lunch I want you to write down the word lunch correctly. Now let's see how we are going to write it down. come, Ela, wait a bit, wait a bit, Ela I'll tell you: Ela, L.U.N.C.H – lunch come on."

201 Ela: "L U N C H Lunch."

202 T: "Right. Now let's do this one: 'happening'"

203 C: "Happening".

204 T: "Spell the word 'happening.'"

205 C: (in a chorus):"h a p p e n i n g – happening".

206 T: "You are too slow" (then learners try to correct their mistake)

207 C: "happening, happening, happening."

208 T: "Good!. now read this one"(pointing at the word)

209 C: (majority in the class manage to say): "STOLEN."

210 T: "Spell the word 'stolen'"

211 C: "S T O L E N: stolen."

212 T: "Right! thank you. Bradley, you stand up my boy (Bradley is sort of shy; takes some time to stand up) Bradley, now read this word."

213 Brad.: "ODANGE."

214 T: "Spell the word 'orange'".

215 Brad.: "ODANGE."
(The rest of the class laughs)

216 T: "O.K Bradley spell the word 'Orange'"(teacher code-switches to 1st language)
"Bradley, peleta lentsu le 'Orange' leleterere ka leleterere. Come on my boy."

217 Brad.: "O R A N G E ...Orange."

218 T: "Orange. Beautiful! orange. orange. Right!.hm.... Moseletha, read this word"

219 Mos.: "Angry."

220 T: "Ready? beautiful. my boy!,spell the word : 'angry.'"

221 Mos.: "A N G R I "

222 T: (intervenes:)"y""y"(with the other learners in the classroom coming in to help:)"angry"

223 T: "'Angry'. don't say 'angri' little boy, say 'angry'; repeat,repeat,repeat;come

- on!”.
- 224 Mos.: (interrupts the teacher):”A T N”...
- 225 T: “No”(the rest of the class laughs,there’s confusion within.and the teacher code-switches to1st language)”se ke la sega.”(teacher calls out on another learner) “Tshepanang,: spell the word ‘Angry’”
- 226 Tsh.: “Angry”(without spelling it)
- 227 T: (code-switching)”A wena o wa mahlatse, o a o supetsa”(the teacher has just realized that learners are experiencing problems)
- 228 T: (pointing at the word for the learner to spell, the teacher leads the learner):
 “A – N –“(the learner continues from there):”-G – R –“(hesitates, then):-‘I’ –
 “(other learners try to help):”-‘Y ‘-“
- 229 T: “Yes. thank you. Lucky, Lucky wait a minute, Lucky, Lucky I’m looking for you,,call it out, say it . stand on your feet! (code-switches) dira ka pela tu my boy. Now read the word and spell it: m – o – n – k – e – y”
- 230 Luck.: “m – o - n – k – e – y”(Lucky is too soft)
- 231 T: (in 1st language)”Ga re go utlwe”(other learners too say ‘ga re go utlwe” a ke re:speak aloud):” M – O ...a re ye, a re ye my boy; feleletsa ngwanaka: - M – O...”
- 232 Luck.: (still soft)”M – O –N –“(Other learners come in and then):
- 233 T: “sh....say –‘k’–“
- 234 Luck.: “-k –“
- 235 T: “say - ‘E’ –“
- 236 Luck.: “-E-“
- 237 T: “-E-“
- 238 Luck.: “-E-“(other learners say’-Y-‘)
- 239 T: “No don’t laugh (code-switches: se ka wa sega ke nyaka go mo thusa a ke re)”Let’s go on. come on, spell the word monkey – M -O –“
- 240 Luck.: “m . o . n . k . e . y’ (he does it faster and louder)
- 241 T: “You are right my boy. Now say –‘lunch’”
- 242 Luck.: “lonch” (other learners laugh)
- 243 T: “But don’t say ‘lonch’: say, ‘lunch’ hm?...”
- 244 Luck.: (repeats three times)
- 245 T: Good. Now read the last word, Bradley, say the whole of it. Come on. (pause) read the word.

- 246 Brad.: “Lunch.”
- 247 T: “Now spell the word.”
- 248 Brad.: “L . u . n . c . h = lunch”
- 249 T: “Thank you very much. Now let’s carry on.(long pause)
Now I just want to write down the word: lunch (repeats the word with emphasis) ‘lunch’.hm? this. this will be my lunch; the perfect lunch. O.K, now write down the word : ‘lunch’ hm....who will do this? Ehe. now write down the word: ‘lunch’ (gives them an activity) and you are going to complete this word because I’ve got only...’N’_There is nothing here (indicates on the chalkboard for learners to see) I’ve got an ‘N’ and there’s nothing here and I’ve got an **H**. Kindly help me, I’d like to write down the word lunch but I have forgotten some of the letters. Will you please help me.(code-switches) Nthuseng Bakone.”
- 250 C: “Right!”(seemingly imitating the teacher)
- 251 T: “Remember, you are going to write the whole word, (code-switches) ga kere?”
- 252 C: “Yes.”
- 253 T: “Don’t hide what you are writing (code-switches: o se ke wa kupetsa)
(learners are busy with the Activity to write the word : lunch. Discussions take place amongst learners some individuals in their groups try to remember the spelling of the word: lunch by saying it out aloud e.g ‘lunch’, ‘lunch’, ‘lunch.’(Teacher moves around learners’ seats, supervises and monitors the discussions. Learners are given approximately seven to ten minutes (7-10 mins.) to come up with an answer.)
- 254 T: “Finished neh?(pointing to a learner’s work) is she correct?”
- 255 C: “Yes.’
- 256 T: “Good! Beautiful! “Shaya!” (class clap hands for the successful learner)
Right! now the lunch is ready. Thank you. hm....! (then softer) Now i just want you to write down the word: ‘orange.’ the very object that was stolen by our friend. Our friend has stolen. Our friend has stolen an orange.
Now come and choose the correct letter....(learners intervene by scurrying and compete to reach the chalkboard first in order to choose the word the teacher is referring to)
- 257 T: “You are being silly little boy! (remarks at some learner’s behavior) you are being naughty hm.....? sh....sh....close your mouth! Just look at me; hm! this

one has been playing all along (referring to some learner) Come and write the word “orange” (pause) choose the word. Sh....! close your mouth. Just look at me and be ready to help her. Yes, do I look for another one? Please be faster. (a learner willingly goes up to the chalkboard and writes the word)

- 258 T: “Is it complete? Is she correct?”
- 259 C: ‘Yes.’
- 260 T: “Beautiful! Shaya! Stop that! (teacher reprimands a learner for clapping hands longer than necessary) Now a monkey stole an orange and the man is very angry. Please write down the word ‘angry’ for me. ‘Angry’. Mogotsi, (teacher approaches a learner who seems completely lost from what is to be done), write down the word ‘Angry’. Write just this one word (then teacher code-switches: A! Mogotsi, wa re ditela jwatso, wa re ditela; jo- jo...wa re ditela...!) ‘Angry’, my little girl! (teacher pauses). Yes, go on, go on, go on please.(teacher code-switches: Tiger,dira kapela tu ngwanaka!) Go on, go on.”(learner tries and makes a mistake. Others express disapproval and also laugh at their classmate)
- 261 T: (intervenes) “O.K. wait a bit. (giving the learner a chance) He’s, he nearly got it right (code-switches: o a bona, o nyakile a e kgona!)”
- 262 C: “Yes.”{however, one learner in the class shouts out in mother tongue: (“o maaka, he is lying”)}
- 263 T: “He committed just a small mistake, please correct the mistake for her. yes, faster please! (a long pause) can we be faster please?”
- 264 T: “Right! Thank you very much. Shaya!”
- 265 C: (Clap hands.)
- 266 T: “Well done. Just keep your mouth shut.”(pause)
- 267 T: “Alright my little boys and girls, you’ve got lunch; you’ve got an orange. The man is angry, the monkey stole an orange, oh, what a silly monkey!! The monkey stole an orange. I want you to write down the word ‘stolen’ for me. Come, my little boy, be fast and walk like a soldier. Are you looking at him? Are...are you looking at him?”
- 268 C: (Only part of the class)”Yes.”
- 260 T: “Oh....! go little boy,”(a long pause as the learner tries to get his task right on the chalkboard)
- 261 T: “Is he correct?”

- 262 C: “Yes.”
- 263 T: “Hm....what a cunning animal! It is very silly (code-switches: e na le makoko ankere?) What is this animal? what is that animal? it’s very cunning, it’s very silly, hm ? what is that animal? yes my little girl?”
- 264 L: “The monkey.”
- 265 T: “Right. Collins can you write the word monkey correctly?(learner makes an attempt and the teacher intervenes) my little boy, you are cheating hm....?”
- 266 T: “Right, that second one? (after a long , long trial) Is he correct?, is he correct?”
- 267 C: (softly) “No, ma’m. (loudly) Yes, yes.”
- 268 T: “Oh, some say ‘yes’, others say ‘no’. I just want to know if he is correct.” (putting stress on the word ‘correct’)
- 269 C: “Yes.”
- 270 T: “Right. Now let’s read the last paragraph; the last three lines; the last three lines, come: the man is very angry....Look into your book and read. The man is very angry. Will you read?”
- 271 C: “The man is very angry.”
- 272 T: “He has jumped out of the car.”
- 273 C: (Repeats: some are fumbling and the teacher takes note of it)
- 274 T: “You my dear boy,...no, maaan! Come on, wake up! He has jumped out of the car.”(with emphasis on jumped out)
- 275 C: (still in disharmony try to repeat after the teacher, some missing the man’s gender: “she” has jumpedwhilst others get it right.)
- 276 T: “Look into the book okay? The last three lines say: the man is very angry. How is the man?”
- 277 C: “The man is very angry. (some miss the article “the” man is very angry, instead they use the indefinite article “a”: a man is very angry.(A) man jumped out of the car instead of:(The) man jumped out of the car.)
- 278 T: “He can’t catch the monkey.’
- 279 C: (not so clear, some repeat correctly whilst others’ response goes):
“He can’t catch (a) monkey.”
- 280 T: “Thank you very much clever boys and girls and close your books please.”

END OF LESSON.

