



North-West University
Mafikeng Campus Library

**ACADEMIC SKILLS AND LINGUISTIC POWER: NEGOTIATING A
SYLLABUS FOR THE ACQUISITION OF MULTI-FACETED
LITERACIES IN ENGLISH**

MUCHATIVUGWA LIBERTY HOVE (BA Hons, Grad CE, Dip. Ed., MA)

**A THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE DEGREE
OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

NORTH WEST UNIVERSITY, MAFIKENG CAMPUS

FIRST PROMOTER: PROFESSOR THEMBA L. NGWENYA

October 2012

619581269

LIBRARY MAFIKENG CAMPUS
Call No.: TH 415 2014 -11- 07 HOV
Acc. No.:
NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY

DECLARATION

I, **Muchativugwa Liberty Hove**, registration number 22055215, hereby declare that this thesis is my own original research work, and that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination to any other university, and that the sources I have used have been duly acknowledged by complete references. This thesis is submitted in fulfilment of the degree of **Doctor of Philosophy, English**, in the Department of English at the North-West University.

ACCEPTANCE OF THESIS

This thesis, **ACADEMIC SKILLS AND LINGUISTIC POWER: NEGOTIATING A SYLLABUS FOR THE ACQUISITION OF MULTI-FACETED LITERACIES IN ENGLISH** by **MUCHATIVUGWA LIBERTY HOVE**, has satisfied the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, English, at North-West university, and having passed the external assessment criteria, is herein submitted to the Department of English, Faculty of Human and Social Sciences.

PROFESSOR THEMBA LANCELOT NGWENYA, PROMOTER

PROFESSOR ISHMAEL KALULE SABITI, DIRECTOR

PROFESSOR BOTHA, DEAN

DATE

21 October, 2012

DECLARATION

I, **Muchativugwa Liberty Hove**, registration number 22055215, hereby declare that this thesis is my own original research work, and that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination to any other university, and that the sources I have used have been duly acknowledged by complete references. This thesis is submitted in fulfilment of the degree of **Doctor of Philosophy, English**, in the Department of English at the North-West University.



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITHI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
MAFIKENG CAMPUS

Private Bag X2046, Mmabatho
South Africa 2735

School of Undergraduate Studies
Tel: +27 18 389-2279/2081
Fax: +27 18 389-2342/2081
Email: Helen.Thomas@nwu.ac.za

Date 4 May 2011

CERTIFICATE OF LANGUAGE EDITING

The thesis entitled

**COMPETENCE AND LINGUISTIC POWER: A CASE STUDY OF LEARNER
AND EDUCATOR STRATEGIES IN THE ACQUISITION OF MULTI-
DISCOURSE LITERACIES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

Submitted by

MUCHATIVUGWA LIBERTY HOVE

For the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

In the

**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH
FACULTY OF HUMAN AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
MAFIKENG CAMPUS
NORTH WEST UNIVERSITY**

has been edited for language by

Mary Helen Thomas B.Sc.(Hons) P.G.C.E

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Helen Thomas".

Ms. Helen Thomas

Lecturer

School of Undergraduate Studies

Dedication

To the memory of my late father, *Vangowa* Joram ‘Major’ Hove, my late brother Melusi ‘Munodawafa’, my late sister, Sithokozile ‘Mutihimira,’ and in sincere gratitude to *mai*, Helia ‘*waJeke*’ Moyo.

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my gratitude to my principal promoter and supervisor, Professor Themba L. Ngwenya, for the meticulous scrutiny and prompt feedback that kept me abreast with the latest developments in this research. Professor Connie Zulu found anchor in another department, but I cherish the maternal aura of your input in the very early stages of this research. I also want to acknowledge the various signatures to documents that authorized this research – at department and faculty level. Without these, and especially the Telkom Foundation research participants, 2008-2012, this research would not have been possible.

To my wife, Viola and the boys, to *vatete* Dorcas, Duncan Mhakure, Phillip Baka, Paul Nkamta and Pelonomi – for the intellectual debts and depths – thank you all and one.

Abstract

From a purposive sample of thirty (30) previously disadvantaged learners sponsored by the Telkom Foundation and currently enrolled at an elite private secondary school in South Africa, this study undertook a baseline survey of the participants' writing and comprehension skills. The pen and pencil survey, including a questionnaire, identified their competency levels and the gaps in the participants' language skills.

Over a three-year period, the study examined and extended the participants' writing styles in their comprehension and composition scripts on three genres – expository, narrative and descriptive. From the three genre texts, it was established that their sentence structures ranged from the simple, compound to the complex variety. Using the Hypotaxis Index as a quantitative measure to analyse the written texts, which is the count of subordinated clauses, appropriate linking devices and the successful co-ordination of ideas in sentences calculated as a percentage of the total clauses making the composition, it was established that the higher the Hypotaxis Index, the more accomplished and successful the writing (Horning, 1998; Balfour, 2007; Allison, 2002). Discursive and expository compositions that displayed the characteristics of appropriately projected thoughts, and an awareness of the perceived audience, were more successful than those that relied on simple subject and verb concord sentence structures.

A major challenge in the analysis of the compositions stemmed from incidents where incomplete clauses were used, with no evident subject-verb pattern or concord. There were also some relatively successful compositions that depended on simple and compound sentence structures only.

It was derived from this three-year longitudinal study that an attempt to improve the writing quality and strength of the secondary school learners would be through a deliberate focus on developing their cognitive academic literacy (CALP) skills through the design, development and implementation of a task-based syllabus based on the specifications of Breen (1999), Long and Crookes (2006) and the ecological factors of the International School of South Africa. Explicit grammar instruction, particularly the structural patterning of the sentences that learners used in their writing, was decided upon as a practical reinforcement for language skills that the learners needed in order to develop academic literacy proficiency skills in English. The Hypotaxis Index, if correctly calculated, should be a significant indicator of what intervention could be effected in order to improve learners' skills.

Table of Contents

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH	1
1.1.Introduction	1
1.2.Statement of the problem	7
1.3.Objectives of the research	11
1.4.Research question	12
1.5.Significance of the study	12
1.6.Justification and rationale of the study	13
1.7.Definition of terms	17
1.8.Division of chapters	17
1.8.1. Chapter one: Introduction and background to the research	17
1.8.2. Chapter two: Literature review 1: Language acquisition	17
1.8.3. Chapter three: Literature review 2: Models of syllabus design	18
1.8.4. Chapter four: Research methodology	18
1.8.5. Chapter five: Presentation of results and analysis	18
1.8.6. Chapter six: Framework for the proposed syllabus	18
1.8.7. Chapter seven: The proposed syllabus	19
1.8.8. Chapter eight: Recommendations and conclusion	19
CHAPTER 2 : LITERATURE REVIEW 1: LANGUAGE ACQUISITION	20
2.1. Introduction	20
2.2.1. Grammar-translation method	21
2.2.2. The audio-lingual method	22
2.2.3. Contrastive analysis and its contribution to the study	23
2.2.4. Error analysis and its contribution to the current study	24
2.2.5. Input and interaction as factors in language development	26

2.2.6. Psychological foundations of second language acquisition	29
2.3. Integrative and instrumental motivation for language learning	30
2.4. Problematising language acquisition, teaching and critical awareness	33
2.3.2. Anderson's stages of language production	36
2.6. Lexical retrieval in writing: The automaticity challenge	38
2.7.1. Cognitively demanding academic language proficiency skills	40
2.7.2. Reading skills	42
2.7.3. Writing skills	45
2.8. Social constructivist reading theory and implications for the classroom	47
2.9. Theoretical framework and philosophical orientation of the study	48
2.10. Critical social theory and its contribution to the current study	53
2.11. Conclusion	54

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW II: MODELS OF SYLLABUS DESIGN

3.1. Introduction	55
3.1. Generic syllabus prototypes	56
3.1.1.2. The procedural syllabus	56
3.1.1.3. The process syllabus (Breen, 1983)	57
3.1.1.4. The task-based model of Long and Crookes (1983)	58
3.1.3. A working definition of a syllabus	60
3.1.4. Purpose of a syllabus	61
3.2. The framework of Curriculum 2005 (revised)	61
3.2.1. The additive approach to multilingualism anticipated in RNCS	63
3.2.2. The International General Certificate of Secondary Education Syllabus	68
3.2.3. The IGCSE assessment objectives	68

3.3. Critiquing some tenets in the syllabus models	70
3.4. Centrality of the learner in task-based syllabus design	73
3.5.1. The epistemological basis of the task-based syllabus	80
3.5.2. Locating theoretical and philosophical orientations of task-based syllabus	81
3.6.1. Curriculum evaluation	83
3.6.2. Some challenges and observations	86
3.7. Conclusion	87
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	88
4.1. Introduction	88
4.2. The qualitative and quantitative paradigms	88
4.3. Insights into a case study	89
4.4. Description of the population and sample	91
4.4.1. Demographic patterns of the research participants	95
4.4.2. Description of the instruments: design, trial-out and validation	99
4.4.2.1. The diagnostic placement tests	100
4.4.2.2. The questionnaire administered to the research participants	100
4.4.2.3. Document analysis	100
4.4.2.4. Semi-structured interviews with the research participants	100
4.4.2.5. Unstructured and informal interviews with research participants	100
4.4.2.6. Focus-group interviews with participants' parents	101
4.4.2.7. Researcher immersion and observation	102
4.4.2.8. Written assessments	103
4.4.2.9. End of term parent-consulting consultations	104

4.5.2. The hypotaxis index	105
4.6. Classroom delivery strategies	105
4.7. Issues of validation	107
4.8. Threats to internal validity	107
4.8.1.2. Instrument error	108
4.8.1.3. Single group threats	108
4.8.1.4. Maturation threat	108
4.9. Data analysis procedures	108
4.10. Conclusion	110

CHAPTER 5: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

5.1. Introduction	112
5.1.1. The results of the proficiency test: Qualitative data	112
5.1.2. Proficiency assessment results: Quantitative data	113
5.1.2.1. Writing: Qualitative data	113
5.1.2.2. Problems identified in composing in the second language	114
5.1.2.1.(i) Learner errors as indicators of needs	116
5.1.2.2.(ii) Learner errors as feedback: Educator strategies	123
5.1.3. (i) Questionnaire: Quantitative data	124
5.1.3.(ii) Questionnaire: Qualitative classification	126
5.1.3.(iii) The interviews with learners: Interpretive qualitative data	127
5.1.3.(iv) Hypotaxis index as a measure of developed CALP skills	127
5.1.3.(v) Hypotaxis index in learners' writing	136
5.1.3.(vi) Writing processes and learners' strategy transfer	138

5.2.1. Qualitative data from interviews with parents	139
5.2.2. Emerging patterns: Researcher observations	143
5.3.1. Reading strategies and challenges	143
5.3.2. Global reading needs	144
5.3.3. Word-formation strategies: Explicitly directed strategies	148
5.3.4. Synonyms	149
5.3.5. Antonyms	150
5.4. Some learner tasks in retrospect	150
5.4.1. Comprehension	152
5.4.2. Summary writing: Qualitative data	153
5.4.3. Punctuating direct speech	155
5.4.4. Development of composition: Qualitative data	156
5.5.1. Progress assessment: Extensive reading	157
5.5.1.1. Progress assessment in writing: Writer's effects	158
5.5.1.2. Synonymy and degree of emotive words	159
5.5.2. Building an argument using persuasive techniques	160
5.5.3. Dictionary work	161
5.6. Document analysis: Comparability of curriculum standards	162
5.6.1. Findings on what CIE and OBE (South Africa) assess in English	163
5.6.3. Implications about CALP derived from the mark schemes	165
5.6.4. Comparable curriculum outcomes versus comparable proficiency	172
5.6.5. Passing scores	172
5.7.1. Observations from the classroom: Three years of design/implementation	173
5.7.2. Literary texts used to teach composition and other language features	176
5.7.3. Lexical items to describe emotion, attitude and feeling	181

5.7.4. Point of view, reporting, bias and authenticity	184
5.7.5. Strategies for developing discursive and argumentative writing	188
5.7.6. Average retention rate of learners after 24 hours	193
5.7.7. Vignettes from the research participants	195
5.7.8. Feedback to parents and sponsors: Qualitative data	196
5.7.9. Strategies for teaching, learning and assessment	198
5.7.9. Conclusion	200

CHAPTER 6 : FRAMEWORK FOR THE PROPOSED SYLLABUS

6.1. Introduction	201
6.2. Sustainable programmes of action	202
6.3. The relevance of the syllabus	203
6.4. The effectiveness of the syllabus	204
6.5. Diversity and hybridity	205
6.6. Conclusion	211

CHAPTER 7: THE PROPOSED SYLLABUS

7.1. Introduction	212
7.1.2. Prior knowledge assumed	212
7.1.3. Competencies anticipated	214
7.1.4. Form 3: Reading curriculum component	214
7.2. Unit one: Skimming and scanning a text (Part one)	215
7.3. Unit two - Cohesion (Part two)	216

7.4.2. Extensive reading – Cohesion (Part two)	217
7.4.3. Coherence	218
7.4.4. Unit three – Vocabulary	219
7.5. Unit four – Direct meaning and inferences	220
7.6. Unit five – Levels of formality	221
7.7. Unit six – Summarising information from texts	222
7.8. Unit seven –Grammar (Part one) – Sentence type and variety	222
7.9. Unit eight – Paragraphing (Part one)	224
7.10. Paragraphing (Part two)	225
7.10.1. Non-verbal features of a text	226
7.10.2. Skimming and scanning a text (Part two)	227
7.11. The writing curriculum component	228
7.12. Writing narratives	229
7.14. Writing descriptions	230
7.15. Writing to persuade	232
7.16. Writing letters of complaints and compliment	233
7.17. Writing reports and memos	234
7.18. Writing reviews and commentaries	235
7.19. Writing autobiography and biography	236
7.20. Using a dictionary and other references	237
7.21. Grammar (Part two)	239
7.22. Spelling and the morphology of lexical verbs	239
7.22. Conclusion	240

CHAPTER 8 : RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPLEMENTATION

8.1. The proposed course	241
8.2. Limitations of the study	246
8.3. Guidelines for implementation	248
8.4. Further research	249

BIBLIOGRAPHY	251
---------------------	------------

APPENDICES

Questionnaire for Telkom Foundation students	273
Semi-structured interview with parents and guardians of the learners	277
Appendix (i)	
Frameworks for argumentative writing	279
Argumentative framework not provided	281
Individual written submission: Exemplar script	283
Appendix (ii)	
Qualitative set of individual written work: Learners' compositions	286
Appendix (iii)	
English language formative assessment	295
Summative assessment instrument	298
Appendix (iv)	
Language use and the effects created by the writer	303
Appendix (v)	
Language at work: Opinion, style and effects	307
Appendix (vi)	
Comprehension tasks 2009	310
Appendix (vii)	
Comprehension tasks (2)	318
Form three cycle summative assessment	319
Drama in Plet: Heiress missing	319
Appendix (viii)	
Social life in the insect world	321
Appendix (x)	
No smoking: Argumentative text	323
The horror returns : Descriptive text	323
Comprehension and mark scheme(Summative)	327
Appendix (xi)	
Excerpt from the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Provisions on Language)	347

Table of figures

Figure 1: CALP skills acquisition strategies: A Model	16
Figure 2: CALP skills at secondary school	44
Figure 3: Institutional ecology	92
Figure 4: Research participants' home languages	95
Figure 5: Proficiency assessment results	112
Figure 6: Learner indicators of language needs	124
Figure 7: Writer's effects response process	146
Figure 8: Summary writing conceptual mapping	153
Figure 9: Narrative writing: Suggested processes	156
Figure 10: Suggested processes for descriptive tasks	160
Figure 11: Comparative performance across subjects	174
Figure 12: Research participants' aggregate performance	175
Figure 13: Average retention rate of learners	191
Figure 14: Proposed model for the development of CALP skills	208

TABLES

Table 1: Theoretical perspectives and practices of SLA	50
Table 2: The task-based syllabus: Based on Breen	72
Table 3: Learner achievement: national descriptor codes	113
Table 4: The analytic mark scheme developed at ISSA	114
Table 6: Participants' hypotaxis index	128
Table 7: Table showing the hypotaxis index in learners' writing –Exam scripts	135
Table 8: Table showing prefixial and suffixial word-derivation	147
Table 9: Word emotive scale: A practical task	158
Table 10: Features of CIE and OBE mark schemes compared	163
Table 11: CIE performance distribution by grade	170
Table 12: DoE performance distribution	170
Table 13: CIE defended grade cut-off points	172
Table 14: Worksheet task used to facilitate word-meaning	177
Table 15: Lexical items used to describe emotion, attitude and feeling	181
Table 16: Learner results on contextualized vocabulary task	187
Table 17: Persuasive style graphic organizer developed by participants	188
Table 18: November 2010 CIE results of research participants	196

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

Page | 1

1.1. Introduction

The Telkom Foundation (TF), Beacon of Hope Schools Project is the Corporate Social Investment (CSI) arm of Telkom South Africa (Ltd). Its primary aim is to bridge the educational as well as the digital divides between the urban and rural communities as well as between the boy and girl learners within the disadvantaged communities in South Africa. In its goal to further the development of historically disadvantaged rural communities, the Telkom Foundation Beacon of Hope Schools Project, in partnership with provincial Departments of Education, selected twenty learners (boys and girls) from various schools in the nine provinces of South Africa to be part of this initiative. The first group of twenty learners was selected from Toronto School and Northam School in Limpopo Province in 2007. The second group of thirty learners was selected in 2008 from the North-West and Northern Cape provinces. Learners in the second group were previously enrolled at the following schools: Gontse, Bopepa, Ragogang and Boinele (North-West Province); St Boniface, Kimkgolo, Zingita, Moleabangwe and St Patrick's Kimberly (Northern Cape Province). This pilot project took place at the International School of South Africa (ISSA), situated in the North-West Province.

The TF applies for admission to the International School of South Africa (ISSA) for all the identified learners and commits itself to taking responsibility for the following payments:

- full tuition and boarding fees for each learner,
- school uniforms,
- books and stationery,
- educational trips and excursions,
- transport,
- toiletries,
- allowances for clothing and necessities, including pocket money,
- emergency expenses (when a parent/sibling is deceased) and

- medical costs/expenses (when the learner takes ill).

This study seeks to design a task-based syllabus resulting from a thick description of the multi-faceted strategies and literacy progress of twenty learners enrolled at the International School of South Africa from 2007, the time that they enrolled in Form Two (grade eight), up to their full integration stage in 2008. The twenty learners were selected by different provinces and sponsored by the Telkom Foundation as part of its corporate marketing and social responsibility programme. They were all from previously disadvantaged schools which are materially under-resourced, staffed by less-qualified educators and quite often, with limited exposure to the target language and to the rural experiences of post-apartheid South Africa. The main criterion for selection was their academic performance. In the government schools that they attended, they were the highest performers in English and Mathematics and it was assumed that they were fully integrated in terms of the performance and expectations of the outcomes-based education curriculum specifications that their schools followed. On entry into ISSA, the learners sat an entry examination that intended to identify their levels of literacy and cognitive academic competencies in secondary school subjects, particularly in English and Mathematics, and placed them on a continuum so that they could be streamed into the appropriate classes.

In the placement tests, the learners' performance suggested multiple levels of achievement and non-achievement in reading, vocabulary, writing and numeracy. Consequently, the learners were placed according to the results of these tests, including numeracy, spelling and reading tests. A plan for remediation and aligning their academic integration programmes in the secondary school was mounted. The focus of language literacy assessment was on the following competency areas:

- Reading,
- Writing,
- Spelling, punctuation and
- General vocabulary range.

The numeracy test covered the following mathematical concepts:

- Mental mathematical skills development,
- Mechanical mathematical skills development, and
- The concepts of (im) proper fractions and decimal fractions.

The learners were placed in classes according to the “objective” test scores and their competency in reading, writing, spelling and punctuation skills. Besides appointing ordinary mainstream staff for the Foundation students, the International School appointed two special teachers for Mathematics and English, two core subjects that largely determine the future mobility and success of these learners, especially with regard to further study and opportunity for employment. These were teachers working essentially within an integrative, developmental and language extension-cum-remedial approach, seeking to fully integrate these learners into the “mainstream” English as a first language culture of the school. For English, teachers mentoring these learners had initially identified areas to work on for the language development and remedial programme, particularly in the aforementioned language skills. Mathematics, as a subject, was allotted to a teacher who facilitated the learners’ development in the following key areas:

- division and multiplication of fractions,
- problem-solving skills,
- the concept of fractions and division, and
- mathematics language and the terminology for shapes and other associated concepts.

The competency tests indicated that for the majority of the Telkom Foundation students, academic competence in language and mathematics was inadequate. In language, simple recall questions based on a short comprehension passage were incorrectly answered. Understanding of key words in a comprehension context proved problematic with the majority of the learners. Selecting the correct adjective to complete simple descriptive sentences was also a challenge to many of the learners. From this initial evidence, it was imperative to put in place enabling reading strategies for the TF learners, that is, “plans

for problems encountered in constructing meaning” (Janzen, 2002). Strategic reading is deemed conducive to the improvement of learners’ sense of agency, self-efficacy, motivation, confidence and enhanced performance in second language, L2 (Oxford, 2005; Diaz-Rico, 2004). As an educator at the research site, the endeavour was set out as a question: How do I attempt to develop adaptive cultural transformative competence in English in order to enable the emergence of multiple identities appropriate for the different cultural and linguistic communities? (i.e. the first language, L1 audience/reader, the school, home, further education and the workplace).

Performance in writing was no better. Given that feedback to learners’ written work depends on an educator’s definition of error (Hanks, 2007), the entrance test revealed that the feedback that was given was largely aimed at repair, correction and focused on form. The written piece about oneself was fraught with errors of sentence construction, concord and punctuation. These errors were most notable in the inappropriate use of the comma. The dash, semi-colon and colon were hardly used in the creative writing segment, pointing to possible avoidance strategies by the learners. Sentences created remained on a simple or compound level, again suggesting a lack of confident attempts to engage with challenging language and sentence construction. Above all, the sentences tended to lack the convincing adjectives, adverbs and stylistic sophistication. Often, it was not clear what the learners intended to express about themselves and their experiences as the expressive idiom was uncertain, often requiring the reader to probe the thought patterns intended in some of the expressions.

Such were the problems in English that there had to be a working definition of literacy. This definition cannot only be seen as expecting the learners to get beyond “being able to read and write,” but should extend to being able to use “procedural knowledge.” Literacy, according to Moyana (2000:6), “allows for self-sustained development... [enabling] a learner to function in a social contextual setting with a relative amount of sophistication which allows for changes over time, place and social condition.” Guthrie and Kirsch (1978), Butler (2007, Pretorius (2007), Cohen, (2002), Stubbs (1986) and Dornyei (1996) all see literacy as an interactive process, not as something solitary and static. Literacy

cannot be seen as the simple ability to recognize words and decode basic meanings, but should be conceived as abilities to recognize context, tone and implied messages that are invariably encoded in texts. Such literacy can only be achieved by the learner if there is sufficient recognition and acceptance of what the learner brings into the classroom, particularly their socio-cultural experiences (Freire, 1970; Apple, 1986)

Literature on language literacy abounds with very elastic definitions of competence. Delpit (2006:30-31) argues convincingly that teaching “teaching other people’s children” is a mammoth task that engages with both cultural conflicts in the classroom and the abilities that such children have to explicitly demonstrate upon leaving school. With these observations in mind this study anticipated competency clusters in language literacy and skills that could be delimited to three categories or competency clusters:

- i. Reproduction cluster, i.e. the cognitive capacity developed in the learners to enable them to perform routine procedures and problem-solving skills of a basic linguistic orientation, including, amongst others, decoding skills and generation of meaningful structures at the visual and sentence level;
- ii. The connections cluster, i.e. the cognitive capacity allowing the learner to apply linguistic modeling and interpretation, enabling multiple methods and application of acquired skills, i.e. ideational connections, generating sequence, detail and argument at levels within and between sentences and paragraphs, including a recognizable and progressive application of logical connectors in a bid to develop cohesive and coherent texts and
- iii. The reflection cluster, i.e. the cognitive capacity developed in the learner to allow for complex linguistic problem posing and solving; reflection, insight, originality in approach, synthesizing information, evaluation of language use, generalization and generation of interpretive, critical and analytical modes.

It was the development of these three intersecting competencies that this project anticipated: to expose the learners to language enriching environments that would nurture

competency in reproducing meaningful texts, making logical connections through language and reflecting on the varieties of language discourses encountered in the secondary school curriculum. The educator strategies revolved around the pertinent issues of problematising and developing an effective syllabus that would tap into the basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) competencies and how these BICS could be developed and extended to the extent that the learners would not only reproduce meaningful language but also make connections and gain reflective capabilities in context-reduced academic language proficiency (CALP) skills.

There was need to define the context of English as a language of learning and teaching (LoLT) in South Africa in order to appreciate fully the problems of access and power. Under apartheid, English and Afrikaans were the only official languages and therefore were associated with access, privilege and power. As these languages were in a dominant position, this meant that the indigenous languages (spoken by the majority) enjoyed lesser status. After 1995, the South African government of the day established a Language Plan Task Group (LANGTAG) to look at the language map of and the language choices available for South Africa. This group produced a report that essentially authorized and recommended eleven official languages: Tshivenda, Xitsonga, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sesotho, Setswana, Sepedi, English and Afrikaans. It is clear in this recommendation that whereas the eleven languages are given national status, making them theoretically equal, the reality on the ground is that Afrikaans and English still rule the roost, according to Alexander (2005). Both Afrikaans and English have the after-taste of the coercive colonial period and in the post apartheid era, they remain languages that are, materially, more privileged than the other nine. They are used far more than the other languages by the national broadcasting authority, in parliament, business and at both provincial and local government levels (Janks, 1995). The implication is that concerted effort in the classroom still has to focus on making the learners competent owners and users of English, paradoxical though it might be (Lodge, 1997; Janks, 1995; Granville et al, 1998). Janks (1995) summarises the position clearly:

If...you deny students access to the dominant language, you *perpetuate their marginalization in a society that continues to recognize the value and importance of this language*. You also *deny them access to the extensive resources which have developed as a result of the language's dominance*...English acts as an effective social and economic gatekeeper...Teaching...[English, Afrikaans and other national languages] should aim to *ensure both basic interpersonal communicative skills and cognitive academic language proficiency for learners* (1995:259, 264; my emphasis).

The English language intervention programmes at ISSA sought to integrate the learners fully and accelerate their mastery of academic language competencies in order to prepare and orient them towards the Cambridge International Examinations in English as a first language at the exit stage. It is argued in the current study that enhancing basic interpersonal communicative skills, and developing cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) competencies aimed at effectively empowering these learners by ensuring that they developed the connections and reflective cluster skills which would make them effective at encoding, decoding and unpacking meanings across a variety of texts. Such a position is adopted to affirm the insights of Delpit (2006:25) who contends that “success in institutions – schools, workplaces and so on – is predicated upon acquisition of the culture of those in power.” She argues that there are codes for participating in power, and such codes “relate to linguistic communicative strategies and presentation of self; that is ways of talking, ways of writing...ways of...[reading] and interacting [with texts].”

1.2. Statement of the problem

The learners in this longitudinal case study were fluent speakers of their home languages, Setswana, isiZulu, Tshivenda, sePedi and Sesotho. English had been taught to them as a second or additional language in their formative years. They had spoken and written in English as a first additional language, and they had read some English texts too. They had been exposed to it as a medium of instruction from the fifth year of their schooling up to grade seven, which is the exit level for primary schooling in South Africa. Throughout

their last four years in primary school, these learners had attempted to speak and write in this additional language, often with some scaffolding provided through translation and recourse to their home language.

On entry into the International School, the learners were expected to meet the ethos, language standards and values of the school. The international rating of the school and its private status had huge implications for the learners. They had to develop into proficient and competent users of English as a first language, in both spoken and written form. This was an implicit target competency level in the integration process at the school. The examination that the school offered was in English as a first language. It was imperative therefore that this study describe and evaluate their entry and exit competencies and the strategies adopted by both the educators and the learners in order to achieve or approximate this language proficiency.

As mentioned in Janks' (1995) statement above, the learners in this study would perpetuate their marginalization if they did not successfully integrate. But, by the same token, in taking English as a second language (ESL), they were (together with their educators) involved in a process that could be seen as the peripheralization and emasculation of their mother tongue or home languages in order to access the advantages of being competent in English in South Africa and globally. In terms of numbers, indigenous languages in South Africa have the greater number of speakers, but both English and Afrikaans, as a result of the historical sociolinguistic and political dominance, continue to be the languages of education and commerce. This dynamic tension was played out in a language community defined by the classroom situation that Bakhtin (1984) correctly perceived as the "contradictory and multi-linguaged" horizon of heteroglossia.

The learners in the study were regarded as competent users of their home languages and could resort to these languages in order to scaffold the processes of acquiring and extending ESL proficiency. It was also taken for granted that they were taught, in their previous schools, to master English basic interpersonal skills as a second language. In

enrolling at the International School, the expected outcomes were that they had to move beyond the basic interpersonal competencies of ESL to approximate English as a first language standard and the attendant Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency Skills (CALP). A simplistic basic skills approach to English was deemed inadequate for these learners, principally because of their home backgrounds, and secondly because they would be judged on their product...[a product] based on the specific codes of a particular [middle class] culture...whose codes had been made explicit to the other learners.

From the preliminary proficiency test administered to the first group, results indicated that thirteen (13) had severe comprehension, writing and language challenges. These thirteen learners operated at the reproduction cluster level. However, seven (7) showed evidence of successful writing and comprehension skills that approximated performance at the connections cluster level. The responsibility to improve the skills of those identified as having severe challenges was shouldered by the Department of English. This was a mammoth expectation, from both the five teaching staff members in the department, the sponsors (Telkom) and the school administration, given the context of these learners' educational background and their performance in the proficiency test.

It must be stated that the proficiency test administered to the Telkom beneficiaries was timed, and approximated examination conditions. This, in itself, carried huge implications for what the learners could express and articulate in the time set. The novelty of this proficiency test and the attendant anxiety with which the entrants took it were all factors that could not be directly quantified. Nonetheless, the test was taken to establish the participants' writing, reading, grammar, punctuation and spelling competencies. The other attributes of language skills, namely listening and speaking were not directly assessed since they were not examination skills for the International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE) level. The comprehension segment of the test was based on a single passage, with questions set on the pedagogic profile of Jean Piaget's (1956) schema of K-CAPASE (knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation skills), with the analysis, synthesis and evaluation tasks being embedded in the last set of questions. There were questions on the lower order

level that sought to establish the learners' abilities to find direct references, copy a segment of the text and state facts based on the reading text. The latter segment of the questions, as has already been indicated, related to exophoric rather than endophoric information retrieval skills: providing an opinion, making inferences and reasoned deductions, synthesis and critical evaluative assessment of the implied meanings of the text.

The exophoric questions demanded higher order skills on the part of the learner since information retrieved from the text had to be understood, linked to information outside of the text, and the two sources of information be organized and re-articulated in one's own words. As they expressed their responses to exophoric questions, the learners engaged with the language at the level of making it express opinion and judgment. The learners therefore were dealing with language at the more demanding level, processing and rehearsing the concreteness of what they had expressed. In more than one way, they interrogated the language they had themselves created in order to express a response to specific questions in the entrance test. Ngwenya (2010:18) who states that "writing is more difficult than reading [because] reading presents a ready-made text for learners to decode [but] writing gives the reins to the learners and demands that they themselves encode the texts" corroborates this observation.

There were several other challenges that the Telkom beneficiaries faced, such as: the attempt to achieve balance between academic pursuits and extra mural demands; improving productive and receptive English language skills, adapting to boarding life, developing concepts and skills needed in other learning areas of the curriculum, developing a work ethic needed to cope with the demands of a Cambridge International Examinations curriculum and generally keeping the learners' motivation high. In the three years that they were at ISSA (2007- 2010), the educators tasked with their teaching mounted remediation and general life skills classes to facilitate and nurture this linguistic broadening and competence in the learners. They devised teaching syllabi (Chapter Seven) and set aside consultation time both inside and outside the classroom for the benefit of these learners. In many ways, the learners were on the one hand expected to be

the same as every other learner in the 'mainstream ISSA tradition' while, on the other hand, teachers needed to recognize and appreciate their special needs and therefore notice and minimize their differences from the rest of the community at ISSA.

1.3. Objectives of the research

The major objective of this research was to design an English language syllabus for the Telkom Foundation learners aimed at developing these learners' language skills from the BICS entry level to their anticipated CALP skills at the exit point when they wrote IGCSE examinations. This syllabus was devised as seminal brief statements of intention. In the process of teaching, this syllabus continuously evolved to a robust and detailed document that included language aspects and skills that needed emphasis, extension and reinforcement.

(i) In order to design the syllabus, it was essential to establish the language needs of the learners who were sponsored by the TF. This study examined the curriculum followed by the learners in their previous schools (Curriculum 2005 and the Revised National Curriculum Statements) and established, through interviews and entry assessment instruments, the current levels of learner-competencies.

(ii) Since there was a distinctly marked transition in the learning circumstances of these learners i.e. the dichotomous rural – ISSA ecologies, it was important to describe the syllabus that the learners were expected to follow towards certification (the Cambridge International Examinations syllabus) and examine its convergences with and departures from C2005 to which they were exposed in primary school. This descriptive stage was important as it informed decisions on the task-based syllabus developed to bridge and extend and synchronize the learning experiences of the learners. There was already in place a matrix table for comparing different grades awarded by various examination boards and such a matrix informed some of the comparability levels of the learners in this study.

(iii) The third purpose of the study was to understand and reflect on the participants' strategies and processes of CALP skills acquisition at the secondary school stage, investigating in the process the possibilities and efficacy of a task-based syllabus to facilitate and enhance the acquisition of these strategies and skills. It was necessary to evaluate the outcomes of the implementation of this evolving task-oriented syllabus through formative and summative evaluation strategies as formulated by the researcher. This thrust in the evaluation incorporated measuring the effectiveness and efficiency of the syllabus implementation by describing and assessing emerging learner strategies and competencies in reading, composition writing and comprehension skills on set tasks.

1.4. Research question

This research was a project aimed at obtaining sustained development of the research participants' CALP skills. The aim was two-fold: to intervene in order to solve the language challenges exhibited and identified; and illuminate the actual interventions so that the CALP skills challenges at secondary school level in South Africa could be more clearly articulated within and through a more analytic theoretical framework. This grounded pedagogical framework generated the research question:

What effective, relevant and efficient English language syllabus could be designed for the L2 learners in this study in order to empower them with cognitive academic language proficiency skills, enabling them to succeed in the multiple discourses embedded in their secondary schooling at the International School of South Africa?

1.5. Significance of the study

a) This study sought to establish the feasibility and sustainability of a programme undertaken by the Telkom Foundation, describe the learners' competencies at entry and exit points and make recommendations to the Department of Education, the sponsors and other stakeholders, particularly the International School of South Africa. Since each case study develops around the unique attributes of the sample, the syllabus developed was

relevant to the unique challenges, circumstances, transitions and strategically developing competencies of the research participants in question.

b) The study reviewed literature on mother tongue instruction, language immersion programmes and the ESL pedagogical strategies used to enhance mastery and competence in language. It identified and analyzed policy and practice in language education in South Africa in order to place this qualitative study within a broader context of bridging the educational divide between privileged and under-privileged educational sites, first language and second language user-competencies, urban and rural communities.

c) The North-West Province, in which ISSA is located, is a marginalized province. There are a number of disadvantaged schools that could benefit from the spin-offs of this study.

d) Competence in language is a critical facility for academic progress: learners have to reason in multiple discourses in order to comprehend, write, analyze and evaluate questions and issues. This study focused on a crucial secondary school stage, with learners ranging between 13 and 16 years of age; and it was expected that the findings on second language learning strategies at this age and grade level would be a significant contribution to research focused on language acquisition, learning and development.

Accepting the fact that the learners in this study could perform at the level of the “reproduction cluster” and that they could perform routine procedures and problem-solving at the basic language level, the anticipated syllabus should enable the learners to go through a programme of language study that would culminate in them operating at the “connections” and “reflection” cluster level. These are levels where application skills, reflection, generalization and generation of interpretive and analytical modes become actualized as cognitive academic language capacities in the learners.

1.6. Rationale of the study

Studies in language acquisition and development in South Africa have generally focused on kindergarten learners (3-11 years old) for instance, Hendricks, (1999); De Klerk, (2000); Howie, (2002), and those in privileged tertiary institutions (19 years old and above), Datta, (2000); Kress, (1994); Ngwenya (2001) and Norton (2004). This trend in the research foci is especially pronounced in the area of syllabus design and curriculum development and bemoans the high failure rates at institutions of higher learning.

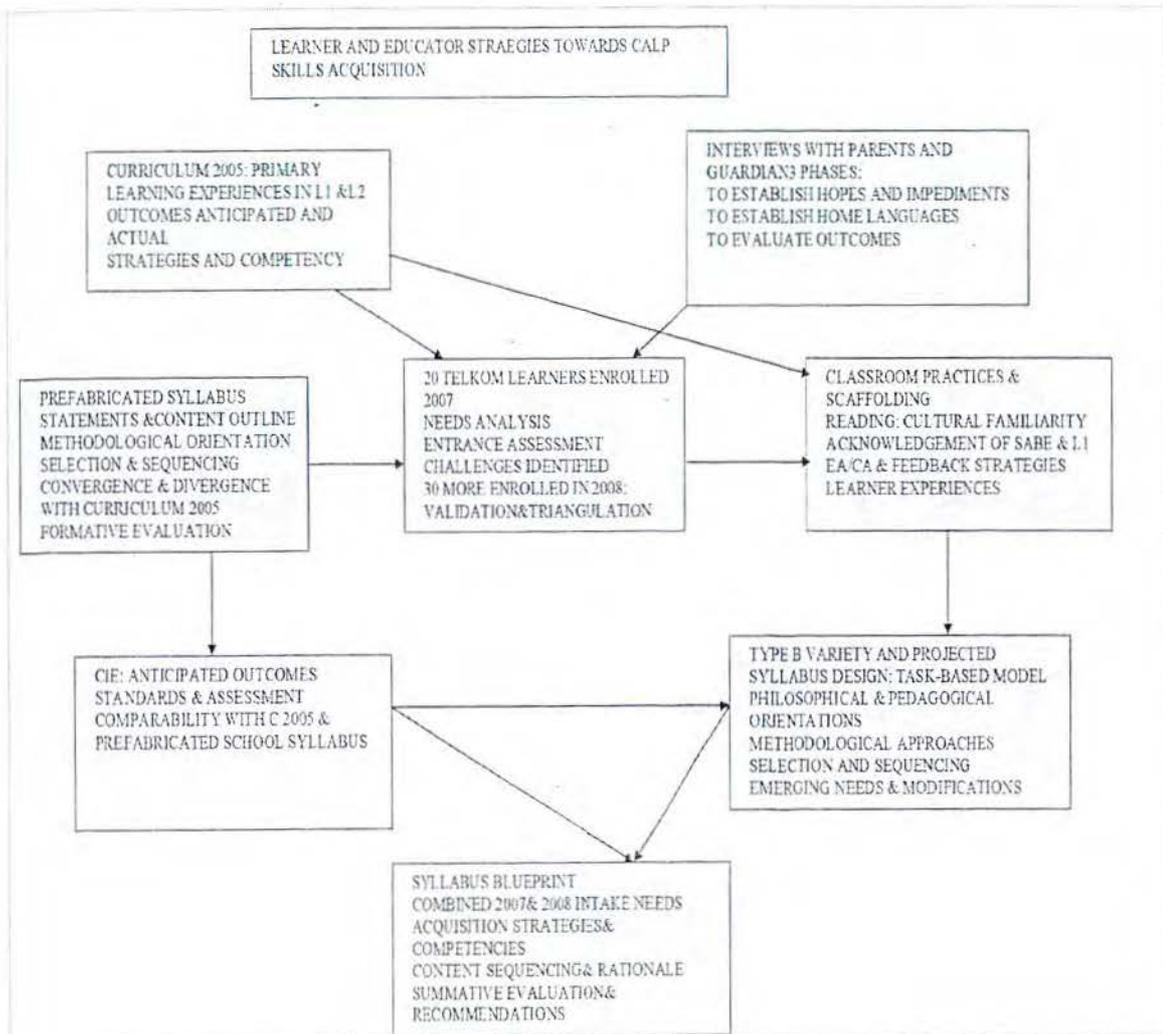
Negotiating the design of a syllabus for 13-16 year old learners at the secondary school stage, and the challenges of gathering evidence of the learners' language development over time made this study doubly relevant. The study sought to make grounded connections to major theoretical and research concerns about composing processes, reading processes and language processing strategies. It sought to fill a gap by exploring the acquisition strategies of learners and language-learning promotion strategies by educators in the facilitation and development of linguistic competence and power in learners in the 13-16 year age group in a secondary school setting. Phaala (2006), Tiyambe Zeleela (2006), Ngwenya (2001), van der Walt (1982) and Kilfoil (1997), amongst others, focus on syllabus development and the role of cognitive academic language skills in knowledge production at university and other tertiary levels. The more obvious observation related to such studies concerns the fact that at tertiary level, the majority of the learners would have already missed the opportunity to nurture CALP skills at the crucial secondary school stage, hence the need for a study such as the current one. Other studies in South Africa such as Alexander (2000) and Pierce (1995) focus on a pedagogy of possibility in the general teaching of English for academic purposes.

Another crucial justification for such a study resides in the philosophical, contextual and methodological discrepancies between Curriculum 2005 (both the original and the revised versions) and the Cambridge International Examinations curriculum, both of which have an immediate relevance to, and impact on this study. The learners in this case study followed, for all their primary schooling, the prescriptions of Curriculum 2005, a South African national-oriented curriculum package conceived in the traditional top-down syllabus design model. On the inception of the Telkom sponsorship programme in

2007, the learners were weaned from Curriculum 2005 and exposed to a new syllabus package, oriented towards English language instruction and assessment benchmarked, culturally and pedagogically, against first language standards. Such a paradigm shift necessitated this study because there was a need to bridge the gap for the learners and enable the transition in their secondary school years.

The research design for this study focused on a broad conceptual framework that sought to establish the learner and educator strategies that were adopted, interrogated, practised and theorized in order to enhance the cognitive academic language proficiency skills of the research participants. Primary school learning experiences in both L1 and L2 were retrospectively assessed in the light of the exit competencies anticipated for the learners in the secondary school and these projected levels of competence formed the basis for curriculum, syllabus and , in situ, assessment design. It was decided that a predetermined syllabus (an interim outline) would be beneficial for the learners as they came into the new research site, and that the sequencing of its items would focus on convergences with the ultimate syllabus that the learners would follow once they had become factors in the school's ecology. This conceptual framework for the research is represented in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Learner and educator strategies towards CALP skills acquisition



1.7. Definition of terms

Learner strategies: I derive this term from the work of O'Malley and Chamot (1990). These are identified as observed characteristics of effective language learners, and from Rubin (1981), these characteristics include clarification, verification, monitoring, memorization, inductive reasoning/inferencing, deductive reasoning and practice. Other indirect strategies include creating language practice opportunities, using production tricks such as making L1/L2 comparisons and exploring sociocultural meanings.

Multi-faceted literacies: This term is extended from the work of Berreiter and Scardamalia(1986) whose seminal paper on reasoning in multiple discourses had a profound shaping on my conceptualization of the current research. They argue that discourse knowledge involves the ability to call up various types of schemata, such as story grammars if the language to be generated is narrative or event scripts if the language to be used is a sequence of actions. To be literate in the various discourses includes planning, setting goals and writing in the appropriate language for each specific tasks. In writing, organization at both the sentence and the text level contributes to successful communication and quality of the written product. Cohesive devices at the sentence level and coherence at the text level differentiate between low and high discourse literacy.

1.8. Division of chapters

This study is divided into eight chapters:

1.8.1. Chapter One: Introduction and background to the research

The introduction discusses the background to the study, defines the research problem, orientation of the study, purpose and objectives of the study, the research questions and outlines a rationale for the study. This chapter also defines and contextualizes important and key terms used in the study.

1.8.2. Chapter Two: Literature review 1: Language acquisition

This chapter focuses on reviewing literature related to this study, specifically on language acquisition. It locates the study within the broad theoretical framework of how acquisition takes place. The chapter seeks to develop thematic, logical and chronological connections to the entire study. The chapter also discusses literature related to quantitative measures of written competence, culminating in the discussion of the hypotaxis index as a tool to assess the complexity and development of the written work of the learners in this study.

1.8.3. Chapter Three: Literature review II: Models of syllabus design

Chapter three is an extension of literature review but addresses specific aspects in the literature on syllabus design. It defines the context of the South African syllabus, Curriculum 2005, and discusses the framework of the Cambridge International Examinations (CIE) with a view to correlate prior learning experiences with the evolving syllabus developed at ISSA for the Telkom Foundation learners.

1.8.4. Chapter Four: Research methodology

This chapter focuses on the methodology used to collect data. As a study seeking to make connections between theory and practice, this chapter describes the actual research situation, the research methodologies of the field of educational linguistics and the pedagogic practices that were developed to facilitate learning in the TF learners, especially as they relate to considerations for syllabus design.

1.8.5. Chapter Five: Presentation of results and analysis

This chapter describes the data collected and presents it in various formats, mainly from the qualitative perspective. This presentation and multi-form representation of the data and the ensuing discussion clarify matters pertaining to the actual secondary school language classroom, the syllabus development-cum-implementation, and the outcomes of the approaches adopted in the pedagogic programme.

1.8.6. Chapter Six: Framework for the proposed syllabus

This chapter develops the findings into a matrix of models, practical and theoretical suggestions on syllabus design for second language learners and offers actual

materials used in the longitudinal case research process. The syllabus framework suggests that a design should legitimately consider issues of contextual relevance and the efficiency of the design to meet the needs of the participants in a programme of language skills development and study. The chapter makes pertinent inferences from the actual study and significantly prefaces the presentation of the syllabus in the next chapter.

1.8.7. Chapter Seven: The proposed syllabus

This chapter presents the proposed syllabus in the form that it was designed and implemented at ISSA over the three-year period of this research.

1.8.8. Chapter Eight: Recommendations and conclusion

This final chapter discusses research constraints, the challenges encountered, suggests recommendations for implementation and concludes the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW I: LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

2.1. Introduction

In the literature identification and review process, it was possible to eliminate irrelevant literature as it was established that many primary research studies had been conducted with populations or levels different from and often at odds with the focus of this study at the level of cultural specificity and ecological specificity. Many of the primary and reported studies have focused on tertiary students (Stubbs, 1986; Berlin, 1988; Bizzell, 1987) or learners at kindergarten, more especially on international immigrant populations whose needs were not necessarily on reading and writing or focusing on cognitive academic language development (Bachman, 1990; Doughty and Williams, 1998) and did not precisely focus on the age group and grade level such as the one in this study.

Given the emphasis placed on reading and writing in the participants' final assessment, and the complex ways in which the two competencies are related, it became necessary to follow the leads suggested in studies of these cognitive and socio-cultural strategies and attempt to answer the research question set out at the beginning of this study, that is, what effective, relevant and efficient English language syllabus could be designed for L2 learners in order to empower them with CALP skills, enabling them to succeed in reading and writing. The results of this literature survey reveal startling shortfalls in the area of strategies for written language and reading proficiency development, especially in South African secondary schools. The focus of this literature review chapter is to explore the relation between language acquisition theory and the various learner and educator strategies used to enhance the acquisition. It brings together models and theories that have their roots outside South Africa but which I interpret in particular ways with reference to the broader South African pedagogical context, and in particular the ecology of the International School of South Africa. But before this is done, a short historical overview of language acquisition is presented below, and its scope is to mediate between the theoretical perspectives of SLA and the practice of language teaching.

2.2.1. Grammar Translation Method

The major premise in the grammar translation method is that knowledge of lexical items and of the rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics and phonology is critical for linguistic competence (Canale and Swain, 1980). Grammar translation has its roots in the study of classical languages, especially Latin and Greek. It has been carried over in time and has shown a somewhat admirable resistance to change. Focus remains on the teaching of vocabulary lists (words in isolation), elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar, de-contextualized readings of texts where emphasis is on grammatical analysis, and the translation of disconnected sentences from target language to mother tongue (Brown, 2000).

Even though the grammar translation method has been discredited for being “theoryless,” Canale and Swain (1980) have resuscitated considerable interest in its functionality in SLA, especially where they discuss the four major constructs of communicative competence. Communicative competence entails grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competencies. In tandem with new insights into SLA, the grammar translation method still has some role in promoting second language competency, albeit minimally. In this study, the Telkom Foundation research participants were multilingual and their languages were identified as important resources that were harnessed for the development of higher cognitive skills. Translation was therefore encouraged in an effort to boost their confidence in dealing with texts and instances where cultural and semantic equivalence were problematic.

The most notable critique of translocating the grammar-translation method’s (GTM) theoretical premises onto L2 acquisition ecologies such as ISSA is that GTM generalizes that “L2 learners maintain some L1 ability to absorb forms of L2 unconsciously. This generalization has led to the notion that all that is needed is to expose L2 learners – like infants – to memorization and rote in L2” (Krashen, 1982). In a nutshell, GTM’s theoretical domain is “grammatical competence, not the variable use of grammatical knowledge in actual performance” (Ellis, 1995 in Cook and Seidlhofer, 1995). Its focus on a language acquisition device (LAD) makes it a static theory instead of one focusing on the “transitions” of the learner through phases of variable competencies in SLA.

2.2.2. The audio-lingual method

The audio-lingual method (ALM) was a “conditioning and habit-formation” model that focused on the teaching of linguistic patterns. The military contexts post 1940 were largely responsible for its popularity and large-scale dissemination as a credible language-learning method: the military personnel needed to be articulate in the language of the enemy. Focus was on pronunciation, pattern drills and conversation practice. Subsequent to its endorsement by linguists such as Fries(1945), a lot of funding was made available for language laboratories, audio-tapes and “radio lessons.”

Gee (2008) re-confirms what Celce-Murcia (1979) sums up as the principal characteristics of ALM: dialogue, mimicry and memorization of prototypical phrases, repetitive drills of structural patterns, inductive-analogical teaching of grammar, emphasis on pronunciation and immediate reinforcement of error-free utterances. As far back as Rivers (1964) had exposed the major fallacies inherent in the ALM, but notwithstanding, some of its premises continue to be used in second language teaching and learning, especially in South African second language classrooms for English and French.

Valdes (1999) suggests distinguishing between ‘incipient bilinguals’ and ‘functional bilinguals’ so that appropriate pedagogical approaches might be adapted and developed. For Valdes, ‘incipient bilinguals’ denotes learners who are still learning English and whose interlanguage contains many and varied grammatical errors. In contrast, ‘functional bilinguals’ have developed fairly advanced proficiency but still produce frequent errors. The errors produced by functional bilinguals, according to Valdes, are systematic and repetitive, reflecting ‘fossilized elements’ in both speech and writing. As has already been suggested so far in this study, the Telkom learners had the peculiar identity of a group that had achieved a highly prized secondary school placement but ironically remained ‘stigmatized’ as ‘outsiders’ who had to be ‘integrated’ into the language ecology of the International School of South Africa. Their rhetorical sophistication in their L1 invited a pedagogical approach that facilitated enrichment and extension of L2 capacities that “eliminated or minimized the number and extent of the most egregious types of errors in their written texts” (Hinkel, 2004: 48). A judicious use of drills was employed to eliminate these errors.

2.2.3. Contrastive analysis and its contribution to the current study

It would be fruitful to explore the possibilities of contrastive analysis in enhancing CALP skills development in this current study since there are some marked ways in which semantic meaning in South African languages differs significantly from the structural patterning of the target English language. Contrastive analysis which came into vogue during the two world wars and continued to excite linguists into the sixties focused on a comparative analysis of the two languages in contact. It sought to predict where in the acquisition process learners would meet the most difficulty. Lado (1957) postulated that if the languages in contact were markedly different, the learner would certainly encounter greater difficulty than in a situation where there were elements of phonological and morpho-syntactical similarity. The research participants in this study spoke Setswana, sePedi and Afrikaans, which except for the latter, were markedly different from English as a First language. The hypothesis that drove the study was therefore based on the phonological and morpho-syntactical differences between the languages in contact. In 1971, Oller was able to conclude that contrastive analysis predicted students' errors sometimes but not always with certainty because in a majority of instances the learner avoided the more challenging or unusual structures of the target language. His observation presents a fertile starting point since the problem-solving nature of this longitudinal study addresses the prototypical components of reading and writing where the multilingual nature of the research participants complicates any "certainties" that one might have for the classroom situation (Bizzell, 1992; Hedgecock and Ferris, 2005:8).

The foundational theories for contrastive analysis, that is behaviourism and structuralist approaches, claimed that the difficulties encountered in SLA lay in the interference of L1 on L2. The thesis in contrastive analysis is ultimately a simplification: "a taxonomy of linguistic contrasts between L1 and L2 would enable a [teacher] to predict the difficulties a learner would encounter [in a classroom]." Brown (2000:213) critiques this oversimplification and concludes that "teachers must certainly guard against a priori pigeon-holing of learners before we have even given learners a chance to perform...Contrastive linguistic interference implies much more than simply the effect of one's L1 on L2." I concur with his suggestion that more

research needs to be carried out in the form of contrastive lexicology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics as these facets have a more immediate relevance and applicability to the second language acquisition challenges faced by the learners. Furthermore, it is not the syntactical and lexical errors alone that matter as implied by error analysts; rather it is mastery of specific communicative skills, which include reading and writing of expository or persuasive essays for the grade-appropriate level that is stake here. Given such institutional, educational social and cultural demands, reading and composition instruction in second language classrooms ought to provide opportunities for practicing and appropriating the content, language, and rhetorical expertise necessary for success at each grade-level as Ferris and Hedgecock (2005: 9) argue.

2.2.4. Error analysis and its contribution to the current study

Larry Selinker (1972) and Jack Richards (1974) carried out their research from a cognitivist perspective and argued that instead of contrastive analysis, the answer to the problem of language learning lay in error analysis, an approach that treated errors in the second language as similar to those experienced and encountered in learning a first language. They saw the errors as developmental and therefore approximations of the target or first language. According to Selinker and Richards, errors were a result of overgeneralization of rules in the first language, incomplete rule application or the hypothesizing of false concepts.

Both Selinker and Richards focus on rules of language and therefore would be classified as proponents of the teaching of language form and structure rather than the much lauded communicative approach to language teaching that has become the bane of many-a-classroom (Delpit, 2006). As in the case of contrastive analysis, error analysis came into vogue and waned. There is still a lot that can be gleaned from these two waves in language development and acquisition as Schackne (2002) argues: although there are often individual differences, if research could identify large chunks of common non-acquired language in homogenous L2 learners, it is possible to “customize” their curriculum to ensure that they are dealing with unmastered language items.

This observation is quite critical and relevant in this study as the Telkom Foundation (TF) learners could be seen as somewhat “homogenous.” There was a possibility of “customizing” a language curriculum for them initially through the identification of errors and subsequently analyzing the differences in L1 and L2 semantic, iconic and imagistic features. Most grammatical syllabi have been constructed on the basis of frequency of occurrence, grammatical simplicity and utility and this is in line with Krashen’s contention (1987) that learners can only be taught what is “learnable and what is portable...not yet acquired.” The process of establishing the language competencies and challenges of the Telkom Foundation learners was principally based on this understanding of the process of language learning, where errors were seen not as aberrations but approximations to the target language.

The process of “customizing” their curriculum was a focus area, especially as their recurrent significant errors were described and their first language analyzed to explain the thought processes engaged or retrieved in accessing the target language. Research has established a close link between extensive reading and literacy, which in turn suggests improved language acquisition and competence in the use of the target language (Sims, 1996; Dulay and Burt, 1975; Schackne, 1994). This was taken into consideration in the teaching of the TF learners and implied a more intensive reading programme aimed at improving their word-recognition and comprehension skills. Such reading was obviously learner centered and the learners could pursue this activity both collaboratively as well as independently.

The recognition that learners have needs in the affective as well as the knowledge domains demanded that this research attend to the factors that other researchers have identified as influencing the language learning process. These vary from attitude, motivation, and self-confidence to anxiety. These factors, as Tarone and Yule (1989) point out, are difficult to isolate and study by means of some objective research instrument. Kleinmann (1977) even goes further to argue that there is a difference between debilitating anxiety and facilitating anxiety which may be experienced by the same learner on different occasions. In a nutshell, these two researchers suggest that anxiety must be viewed as highly subjective. It would be, perhaps, imperative and fruitful to establish from the learners themselves the type of anxiety they exhibit in the

language classroom at this private school and explore the implications thereof for their language learning and development of CALP skills.

Following up on the anxieties identified by the learners, it would also be fruitful to explore the writing and reading processes of these research participants as they attempt to acquire facility in the English language. Berreiter and Scardamalia (1987), proponents of the process approach to writing composition, suggest that focus should be on such macro-level features as planning, specific writing tasks, organizing ideas and revising texts, but the novice reader-writers in this study apparently lacked and were anxious about micro-level features such as grammatical, lexical and mechanical accuracy. Even if some L1 instructional techniques were used for the research participants in this study, it was apparent that as learner writers, they required specific and targeted instruction aimed at the development of specific linguistic skills and composing strategies.

2.2.5. Input and interaction as factors in language development

Krashen (1985) in the input hypothesis argued that in second language teaching, input should be at the level $i+1$. He adds that L2 acquisition takes place as a result of the learner having understood input that is essentially at, or slightly above the current language competency levels of the learner. Learning and subsequent acquisition of language skills is when input is at the level $i+1$. A significantly important contribution in Krashen's study is what he calls the "affective filter hypothesis." This "affective filter" relates directly to learner confidence or anxiety, i.e. the learner's feelings and emotions. The affective filter regulates the amount of input that the learner comes in contact with, and the amount of "intake" that is converted into additional language skills. A logical sequence develops from this hypothesis, where low affective filters imply low anxiety and significantly higher intake. This high intake results in confident and motivated learners. In contrast, high affective filters imply lesser intake, higher anxiety and, therefore, less confident and less motivated learners.

The proposition that input and interaction play an important role in the writing process (Myles, 2002:8; Ellis, 1994; Lightbown and Spada, 2006) is crucial to this study. The frequency of input (which can be largely seen as teacher modeling, instruction, reading, negotiation and modelling), the nature of comprehensible input (derived from Krashen, 1985), learner output (the language practice exercises, comprehension tasks,

summarizing and written compositions) and the processes of collaborative discourse construction are all critical in this study and need to be interrogated in some detail. The more adequate input there is, the more learners become familiar with the rhetorical, morphological and syntactical forms of the target L2. The grammar and spelling errors that learners make in the process of composing become a useful source of language learning behaviour: errors are identified by the educator and seen as approximations to the target language. The premise here is that learners have ideas for the compositions but not the accurate language with which to express those ideas in comprehensible and normatively acceptable ways. Indeed, according to Ellis (1985:43), it is through analyzing errors made by learners in the writing process that those errors are “elevated to the status of a guide to the inner working of the language learning process rather than seeing them as undesirable.” Input at the construction (planning stage) affords learners the opportunity to identify and subsequently select the facts and opinions. This process implies a conscious search through declarative knowledge for the constructs that approximate to the task. The sequencing and structuring of the facts or opinions logically follows, and, according to O’Malley and Chamot (1991:38), in structuring, the learner exploits discourse knowledge, together with an understanding of audience.

Cummins (1987:29) investigates L2 acquisition and his interdependence hypothesis states:

To the extent that instruction in L_x (language x) is effective in promoting proficiency in L_x , transfer of this proficiency to L_y (language y) will occur provided there is adequate exposure to L_y (either in school or environment) and adequate motivation to learn L_y .

Literacy and competency in L2 for Cummins then may be affected by competency in L1. This interdependence hypothesis, while being helpful in a relational perspective and the integration of prior knowledge and experiences, does not fully explore the currency (usage and prestige value) of L1, and the learner’s attitude towards L2. It is important, however, to note that for both Krashen and Cummins, motivation (both intrinsic and extrinsic) is central to the strategies adopted by the learner in order to attain L2 competency. More insightful comments emerge from Canagarajah (2003) who sees the process of text construction as an effort to achieve rhetorical coherence.

The target of rhetorical coherence is affected by “discordance” in the realization of the text, which discordance is attributed to a number of factors, amongst which are the different levels of mastery of effective rhetorical strategies.

Myles (2002:9) makes a very pertinent observation for this study; that learners’ writing, however developmental it may be considered, is still marked and evaluated according to criteria that are static and product-based. Even the proponents of the process approach, Zamel (1997) and Sternglass (1998) find the structural and grammatical problems of the learners quite daunting if proficiency and competence is to be described only in its relationship to specific written contexts. Bialystok (1998:504) is of the opinion that there must be “identifiable standards against which to measure and describe language skills of learners in different contexts.” Whereas in the conversational context meaning can be enhanced by voice, gesture, context and other paralinguistic devices, this study argues that the problem with the written text lies in the conception of language performance as accurate, hence denying in large measure, the recognition of individual learner strategies and differences.

Klein (1998) argues that educators should acknowledge learner varieties by thinking “about proficiency as a process” towards mastery of cognitive academic literacy skills that go beyond basic interpersonal communicative skills. This viewpoint is located in the critical language awareness paradigm and its persuasiveness cannot be overlooked. The problem is how far the variability between each learner can approximate parameters describing proficiency; indeed, how far such variability can be seen as approximating the course goals, grading procedures and “normative standards” implicit in classroom and test settings. In a nutshell, the problems associated with a process-oriented approach to the teaching of writing relate to how educators intervene in the writing, how they identify errors and whether they should stress mastery of mechanics of writing or urge the learners to pay little attention to correctness. Development of ideas, clarity and coherence might be essential aspects to focus upon but equally grammatical accuracy matters. Ideally therefore, the classroom in this instance would need to strike a balance between process instruction and attention to the learners’ language development.

2.2.6. Psychological foundations of second language acquisition

Language teaching and learning, in this study, are seen as reflexive and reflective processes; language is not simply a means of expression or communication, but a practice that constructs and is constructed by the ways language learners understand themselves, their social surroundings, their histories and their possibilities for the future (Norton and Toomey, 2004). Chomskyan generative hypotheses have had a significant impact on the construct of language teaching and the strategies adopted by learners in the process. The major proponent of psychological foundations of SLA remains Chomsky (1969). Dulay and Burt (1974) later propound that “there are natural sequences in child second language acquisition” driven by LAD (language acquisition device), while Krashen (1985:47) adds that there is need for “input slightly above the learner’s current level in order for acquisition to occur.” The grammar syllabus, especially sentence-level grammar, drill and memorization have been used to teach both first and second language. The argument embedded in the approach is that a learner’s linguistic competence, especially syntactic competence, is achieved without the influence of general cognition (Hornstein and Lightfoot, 1981) since the learner has access to UG (universal grammar) and Swartz(1993) endorses the modularity of the mind where only primary linguistic data (PLD) is the only relevant input for second language learning. This mentalist approach has been generally supplanted by communicative language teaching approaches and quite often the dismissal of the grammar approach has had unforeseen negative consequences on the mastery and competence skills of the language learner. As already hinted Chomskyan linguistics is seriously under-theorised in current language learning and pedagogic scholarship and consequently has been uncritically dismissed by “current waves of theorising” that perceive a coercive pedagogy embedded in the “rules of grammar.”

Memorization still has a place in second language learning, for instance, in recognizing Latinates and Greek-root words that are still current in the English language. Affixes such as prefixes and suffixes help learners form new words and make them unpack better the meanings of specific words that they are likely to encounter in reading and writing. “Ex” as in exterior, external and exonerate or “pre” as in preliminary, preface and precursor would be best taught through the drill and memorization of “input slightly above the learner’s current level” in order to stimulate acquisition. The prudent advice in Norton and Toohy (2006:159) is therefore a

welcome addition: “whatever statement about grammar ‘makes sense’ to a student and helps him to achieve a learning task is...important.”

2.3. Integrative and instrumental motivation for second language acquisition

Gardner and Lambert (1972) make a distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation for second language learning and acquisition. Some learners in the Gardner and Lambert study approached the learning of a second language with the more specifically utilitarian purpose of accomplishing some goal other than learning the language (e.g. finishing school, getting a job). Ager (2001) argues that this distinction is fallacious, contending that language learners approach the second language from an integrative orientation. It was interesting to study the TF learners in this research through a process of observation and interview and observe how they developed a sense of their ownership and use of language on an integrative-instrumental continuum. In order to communicate orally with their peers in the school, they largely focused on the integrative fork of motivation, while the instrumental edge played a more predominant drive in terms of writing correctly according to the demands of the various subjects that they studied in the school.

Myles (2002:2) argues that students want to write close to error-free texts and that they enter language courses with the expectations of becoming more proficient writers in the L2. This observation is critical in this study because it suggests a high level of competency at which syllabus design for the participants should aim, particularly the writing tasks and the sequencing of the reading and writing tasks. Literature on ESL writing and reading abounds with conflicting models of methodology and approach (Pennycook, 2002; Smitherman, 1997; Janks, 1992, Canagarajah, 2005, Shohamy, 2004). There is no doubt that the twenty learners in this study brought with them varying commands of the L2 but their expectations of improvement by the end of the course were high. Zamel (1983), Kaplan (1987) and Swales(1990) are proponents of the ‘process approach’ to ESL composition writing while Flower and Hayes(1980, 1981) focus on what the learner-writer does in the process of composing – the problem-solving activity that the learner engages in during the process of writing.

The learner, according to Flower and Hayes (1981), addresses the topic and the goals of the writing process itself, that is, the presence of the reader and the construction of meaning that will eventually become the written composition that is submitted for evaluation of language use and linguistic robustness as part of progress assessment. The premise in this process-writing model is clearly that the L2 writer is critically engaged with the process of generating meaning and the language is continuously manipulated to develop an ultimately meaningful text or composition. This manipulation, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987:47) argue, demonstrates awareness on the part of the L2 writer that they differentiate between the knowledge-telling model and the knowledge-transforming model where in the latter, the learner-writer is involved with reflective problem-solving analysis and goal-setting in the production of the composition. The limitations of the knowledge-telling model are located in memorization without much understanding, and the limitations of mimicry that go with such an approach.

The key challenges facing the learners include vocabulary (which could be limited), target language structure (which could be markedly different from L1) and content of the composition topic. Generating a meaningful composition is, therefore, a challenge for the second language learner and effective negotiation and guidance can only be successful with the full realization that this is also a process involving L2 acquisition. This also involves getting the learners acquainted with the strategies essential for successful written discourse. McLaughlin (1988:23) therefore argues that “writing is an active process of skill development and through gradual elimination of errors, the learner internalizes the L2.” The continual restructuring of error and sentence structure eventually facilitates competence in the L2 and Anderson (1985) concurs.

A lot of caution was taken in the consideration of the published research, particularly because findings from different cultural milieu have been inappropriately appropriated and applied to contexts that do not match or resemble the unique characteristics of novel and different research contexts, particularly this South African context where research participants were weaned from one curriculum orientation to an overtly different one altogether. Process-oriented pedagogy (Stenhouse, 1975; Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987), for instance, has been appropriated in many “traditional

classrooms” and consequently displaced earlier foci on product correctness with unexpected consequences, especially for second language learners. Harklau (2002), in addition, established in a discourse analysis-oriented study, that in high school classrooms, learners rarely had more than a single monosyllabic exchange with the teacher in a whole lesson in English as a second language. She concludes that in the majority of cases, written rather than spoken language was the modality of learning a language, a finding that remains both illuminating and challengeable in the wake of research (Heugh, 2002; Freeman, 1993; Riessman, 1993; Weideman, 2006) that argues that writing in a second language is a vastly more layered and complex process.

Delpit (1995) offers additional insights into the problems in syllabus design and bilingual education, adding that the major dearth of research at secondary school level emanates from a false premise that the majority of second language learners were young children in the primary school. In Delpit’s opinion, since native language instruction was considered a bridge to English, researchers and schools saw no need to continue the extension of primary language strategies into the secondary school. The assumption was that by the time the bilingually educated learners reached high school, they should have acquired enough second language English to participate effectively in an all-English secondary school classroom environment and beyond. To master and appropriate English for academic content, indeed, remains a major challenge at high school as evidenced by the case of the Telkom Foundation learners. Research and practice indicate that as the curriculum becomes progressively challenging through the school system, so too do the academic linguistic requirements (O’Keefe, 1990; Schellens, 2004). Learners, arguably, continue to develop their language learning skills and expertise, specifically in the two areas of reading and writing, in order to meet the ever-increasing challenges of the formal secondary school curriculum.

One major shortfall in Cummins’ CALP/BICS distinction is that he fails to take into account socio-economic factors (Saville-Troike, 1984) and therefore such aspects as Stanovich’s perceptive concept (1986) of “Matthew Effects” in differential reading proficiency remain unaccounted. Stanovich has elegantly demonstrated the effect that experience with print has on metalinguistic functioning, in addition to the observation

that the ability to comprehend more complex syntactic structures is, in part, the result of reading experience. Reading histories have a profound effect on literacy, and Stanovich (1986:381) argues that vocabulary growth takes place through inductive learning of the meanings of new words encountered in written language. This suggests that the volume of reading experience is inextricably embedded in reading abilities: learners who read well and have good vocabularies tend to read more, learn more word-meanings and therefore read even better. The inverse of this obtains.

The BICS/CALP distinction has been critiqued by numerous scholars who see it as oversimplified (Scarcella, 2003; Valdes, 2004) reflective of an “autonomous” rather than an “ideological” notion of literacy (Wiley, 1996; Gee, 2006) and a “deficit theory” that attributes bilingual students’ academic difficulties to their “low CALP” (Eldesky 1990). Scarcella (2003:5) argues that the dichotomous conceptualisation of language incorporated in the BICS/CALP distinction “is not useful for understanding the complexities of academic English or the multiple variables affecting its development.” This study contends that in spite of the valid criticisms identified here, the construct CALP still remains useful as it promotes the generation of power and its development into academic expertise significantly empowers students in their interactions with both their texts and educators. Indeed, there is recognition that both BICS and CALP are more complex than is suggested by the binary distinction.

2.4. Problematizing language acquisition, critical language teaching and critical language awareness

The pilot project sponsored by Telkom presents a number of challenges from both language learning and teaching perspectives. The educator could not only provide instruction using “traditional transmission methods” aimed to promote maximal language acquisition. The language educator had the duty to empower students so that they felt encouraged to achieve their academic goals inside and outside the classroom. This was not just an approach meant to promote efficient language teaching and aimed at improving the learners’ language proficiency. Focus was on the educational, ethical and sociological dimensions of the learner as these impacted on the acquisition of cognitive academic language skills.

Theoretical issues related to language acquisition have exerted severe influence on the reconceptualisation of teaching methodologies. Thus Manchon (2001) focused on a writer-based orientation where multiple drafts, peer-collaboration and abundant revision were amongst the most celebrated writer strategies. Pennycook (2001), on the other hand, placed emphasis on the need to apprentice non-native speakers into one or more of specific discourse communities and therefore focused on the possible achievements of such apprenticeship as it focused on specific audiences and the rhetorical features of a discipline. Fairclough (1995) traces a more robust and appealing Freirean notion of “liberatory literacy practices” (Ferris and Hedgecock, 2005:13) and therefore concludes that literacy instruction should enable writers to comprehend, analyse, and negotiate the demands of academic disciplines. Critical pedagogy and critical discourse analysis are all desirable outcomes; so are critical writing and critical race issues. All these grand ideals are possible if we seriously engage with Silva (1990:18) who proposes that “L2 writing should be approached systematically as purposeful and contextualized *construction and transmission* of knowledge” [my italics]. The interaction of the L2 writer, the L1 audience, the text (product) and the context of the writing – cultural, political, academic, and situational – are of critical significance in the classroom.

There were two or more processes immediately affecting the learners in this context. Firstly, strategies for the acquisition of multi-faceted literacy in a new environment equally demanded second-culture acquisition. Secondly, the pedagogical approaches adopted had to be cognizant of the complexity of second language acquisition by the language learner. The participants in this study presented multiple identities (Nunan, 2002; Morson, 1986) and the learners’ contributions (Breen, 2001; Fairclough, 1995), together with socio-cultural perspectives of language learning (Pienemann, 2000; Pennycook, 1994). These three had to be integrated as a relevant and sensitive methodology was adopted. There had to be concerted rethinking on “authentic genres” (Ellis, 2004) as the initiation and development of the learners into cognitive academic language cultures and discourses proceeded. It was particularly recognised that L1-based approaches and methods could not be applied uncritically to this distinct research population with its educational background and multilingual capabilities.

The hypothesis in this integrative approach was that the learners would, when confronted with the thinking tools of English language, gain new and more information about themselves and about English. In the rethinking of English language pedagogy, there was the hurdle of what variety to teach, given the emergence of “varieties of English” (Braj Kachru, 1987), and more specifically, the variability in these learners’ proficiency in English. The learners had been, in their primary school educational experiences, taught by second language speakers of English. It was established that in oral and written expression they had been acculturated to one or other of the varieties that researchers (Ngwenya, 2001; Malasela et al, 2003; Janks, 1992) have attempted to describe as South African Black English (SABE).

In terms of the ultimate examination assessment, the learners offered English as a first language where proficiency levels were “ empirically validated...transnational calibrations”(Taylor and Jones, 2006:3). Given this hurdle, it was practical that the syllabus envisaged would negotiate a middle ground towards the examination standards of IGCSE. Approaches to teaching English as L1 were pragmatically conceived as incompatible with the specific group in this study. This was not an under-estimation of the capacity to acquire language on the part of the learners and Labov (1989) argues that even underprivileged learners have an expressive vocabulary. Rather, this task-based syllabus was arrived at after considering best practices in language acquisition studies that suggested a holistic incorporation of prior learning experiences into any well-meaning skills development syllabus and educational practice. A complete relegation of learners’ experiences was perceived as coercive and detrimental. What the learners knew about language use was incorporated into the syllabus design and the teaching process.

Working on some familiar language and syllabus topics enabled learners to extend their learning experiences, in spite of their different abilities. Most importantly, it was decided that the language syllabus topics should generate more language, more variegated language-learning strategies and language skills.

There is an inherent inclination in educational practice to ‘measure pedagogical progress’ in the traditional way of scores and means and standard deviations, with all

the critical and generic problems related to the statistical 'Bell Curve' and the interpretation of scores. This testing and examination approach simplifies, as much as it complicates, the classroom processes, detaching classrooms from their larger historical, psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic conditions (Haralambos, 2004; Bowles and Gintis, 2001). The examinations and school administrators reduce competency targets and stages of language learning to measurable units and symbols, obviously for the benefit of examining boards, the programme sponsors and ease of placement of the learners in so far as they "quantify, classify and punish" (Shohamy, 2001:17). This tends to distort the complex and anguished reality of the language learning processes (Shohamy, 2001). The educator and the learner need to give attention to the meanings of the linguistic strategies that will be adopted in the classroom in order to enhance language intake and develop procedural competency (as opposed to declarative knowledge *per se*) whilst remaining cognizant of the context-defined assessment schemes against which the emerging language competencies will be measured.

2.5. Anderson's stages of language production(writing)

Anderson's model of language production (1985) itemizes three stages: construction, transformation and execution. Through brainstorming and mind-mapping, the learner plans what to write. Language rules are applied to transform intended meanings in the composing and revising stages of actual writing. Ultimately, execution is the final write-up of the composition text and this process involves a lot of reconstruction aimed at clarifying both meaning and refining grammaticality. Anderson's theory is relevant to the ESL classroom in this study as it projects a pedagogical approach that combines the development of language and content knowledge, practising the writing process as part of the developmental acquisition of sentence and text level communicative competence.

Writing in a second language for the learner in this study also highlights an identity problem. The learner here is not only focusing on an "accrual of technical linguistic abilities" (Matsuda et al., 2003:155) but is also engaged in how they view themselves as sponsored learners from challenging backgrounds that are tagged as "different, other." Factors ranging from their underprivileged background, the under-resourced

schools that they had attended, and the inadequate expressive modes of their reading and written competencies all compounded in making the TF learners strive towards “self-advancement for the individual on the one hand and solidarity with the group on the other” (Ager, 2001: 109). They strove to acquire reading and written communicative abilities to satisfy their educational goals, inasmuch as they sought to associate and integrate themselves ever so closely with the “destination” or insider ISSA community. Ager (2001:110) calls this an instrumental motivation since it was aimed at improving one’s educational life chances. These aspects further complicate the multiple, ambivalent and unstable identities of the writing-reading protocols and processes that the learners are likely to produce.

One problem with Anderson’s model is the time allocated to the writing process. Compositions in the classroom are produced under extended times while in the examination and other circumstances they are produced under timed test conditions. Learners’ affective states would definitely influence cognition and errors that can be self-consciously eliminated under extended time conditions can recur under the more restricted timed sessions. Research by Schumann (1998) and O’Malley and Chamot, (1990) suggests that time constraints limit cognitive capacities. These studies suggest that instead of relinquishing their agency because of restrictive time constraints under test conditions, the learners have to explore other relevant encoding strategies towards the accomplishment of written tasks. This entails reducing the word count of the final product for instance, and focusing on accuracy, sentence variety and extensive vocabulary range. The density of these grammatical, structural and lexical items in the final product practically compensate for the paucity in length, a writing strategy that corresponds to Anderson’s (1985:375) stages of construction (planning), transformation (composition and revision) and execution (production of the text).

Widdowson (1994) brings another complex dimension into this scenario by pointing out that a writer’s first language plays a complex and significant role in the acquisition of a second language. This has been the terrain covered by both contrastive analysis and error analysis in the 1970s and early 1980s, but the interesting argument is that when learners write under pressure, they can call upon systematic resources from their native language for the achievement and synthesis of meaning in the target language. According to Friedlander (1987), L2 learners

sometimes use their L1 when generating ideas and details for writing. This does not suggest, however, that the more errors evident under timed conditions can be reductively stereotyped and attributed to L1 interference because learners are definitely influenced by many other factors and are themselves continually enriched through new language encounters. The critical point made in Friedlander's study is that the uniqueness of the research participants' home languages in an English language classroom has important implications for the linguistic proficiency and cognitive development that the learners will ultimately display, without, of course, any recourse to stereotypical generalizations about their deficiencies.

2.6. Lexical retrieval in writing: the automaticity challenge

In academic writing at the secondary school stage, the bilingual learner engages in a complex lexical retrieval process in the composing activity (Manchon, Murphy and Roca, 2007:150). A number of studies also confirm that access to a rich and varied vocabulary is crucial in writing processes, especially where the agent of the writing intends to express meaning in L2, implying an engagement with, and recourse to the problem-solving activities of selection, translation and transformation of various lexical items (Bereiter and Scardarmalia, 1987; Flower and Hayes, 1980). Manchon and Roca de Larios (2007) examine lexical retrieval strategies at three levels: during the planning phase, during the formulation (text-generating phase) and also during the revision (editing) stage. In the conversion of mind maps and strategic ideas into language structures, learner-writers need "to have a certain degree of automatic control over their linguistic resources," (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990:55) and this includes lexical access. It could be safely argued here that L1 to L2 writing would result in "dissonance" between "intention" and the ultimate linguistic expression in which the text is constructed.

This dissonance would then be "repaired" or re-constructed at the word and phrase level in the revision and editing stage. The construction of intention, with all the attendant "dissonances" that get re-constructed in editing protocols suggests that vocabulary is an overriding concern for second language writers, "both as a long-term learning goal" (Cummins, 2006) in the secondary school learning experiences, and also when they actually write compositions for class or examination purposes. Yang

(2006:83), though reporting on a different population from this particular study, confirms this tenuous and uneasy position when he mentions that the overall goal of the participants was “to enlarge their English vocabulary to fill the gap between what they wanted to say and [how] they could express [this] in writing.” The most significant implication for this syllabus design study then emerges: the long-term goal of vocabulary development and enhancement of lexical retrieval protocols needed to be incorporated into the core educational and linguistic agenda of the syllabus envisaged in this research.

Matsuda and Harklau (2003:153) conducted a study on L2 writing and in their presentation of pedagogical trends argue for a better understanding on how the secondary school English language programme prepares - or does not prepare - students for what educators expect them to do when they get to college or other tertiary institutions. The argument in this study was anchored on the understanding that primary school writing, reading, listening and speaking experiences of the learners were highly variable, largely influenced by the sociological demography, economic capacity and material resourcing of their schools and the nature of linguistic pedagogic support provided for these bilingual and even multilingual learners. This retrospective point called for comparative research that crosses the borders of primary and secondary school language teaching and learning practices in order to understand the differing ecologies obtaining in these educational settings. Reading experiences in the primary school for instance, focused more on phonological accuracy and fluency measures. Thus, a learner could have been deemed extremely competent in comprehension because of the fluency and reading speed exhibited (Gee, 2008:37) yet there was a “crisis in reading to learn...at the comprehension level.” Comprehension difficulties are often overlooked because the focus is on decoding and word recognition instead of the specific genres that service specific purposes and convey particular content. This current study only describes the competencies that the learners brought into the secondary school and the strategies that the learners and educators refined together in an effort to configure the gaps that were covered by the task-based, CALP development syllabus. In describing the differing ecologies of the historically disadvantaged schools and the new academic site, insights gleaned were integrated into the task-syllabus in order to enhance linguistic competency.

An important point considered in this participant-directed and controlled research was that the learners and the teachers shared ownership and progress of the project. When it became evident that there was a goal to meet, both educators and learners undertook learning tasks with a highly reflexive interest. The authority that the learners had over BIC skills provided ample ground for extension of these skills towards CALP skills. The important degree of overlap between BIC skills and CALP enabled organization of the curriculum according to the identified and emerging problems affecting these specific learners.

2.7.1. Cognitively-demanding Academic Language Proficiency Skills

Since Cummins (1979) introduced the concept of Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), there has been a lot of scholarly debate on what the concept entails. On the one hand, CALP skills are only expected in language learners after they have acquired BIC skills, which, naturally, should be after the initial and crucial years of exposure to a first language. Krashen (1985) proposes that academic language is characterized by complex syntax, academic vocabulary and complex discourse style, assuming that academic language can be analyzed and taught directly. The second observation in Krashen's study is that there is a component that he calls academic content, which is part of the repertoire of CALP skills, which clearly demarcates subjects such as algebra, history and literature because of the discourse-specific terms that shape these subjects. The knowledge of academic language and the knowledge of specialized subject matter and the linguistic conventions thereof, therefore constitute academic language proficiency. If Krashen's observations on syntax, academic vocabulary and discourse style are integrated into the syllabus envisioned, then the learners would function through reading and writing successfully at the secondary school stage. It must be stated at this point that the participants in this study came with very few academic skills from their primary schools because their primary schooling was based on rote learning even when the major language of instruction was the mother tongue, this in spite of policy stipulations recommending the LoLT as English.

Krashen (1985: 2007) proposes a third dimension to academic proficiency that he calls strategies. Strategies, as part of academic proficiency, include competence in the

use of discipline-specific terminology to aid in the acquisition of academic language. Amongst the most common strategies, Krashen identifies practice, recall and lexical retrieval. Through practice, learners engage in fruitful extension and “consequently appropriate, through reading, the vocabulary and syntax necessary for a robust language repertoire” (Gee, 1990). Gee adds that “context-driven, meaning-making strategies at the sentence level and beyond” such as recognition of turns in argument through the location of signifying conjunctions, bias markers and signposts of persuasion in lexical choices should be extended in every classroom. Strategies certainly have a powerful effect on language development and the mastery of specific subject matter. As this study progressed, some strategies used by some of the learners to enhance acquisition such as seeking clarification, asking questions directed at the text, writing summaries and tabulating information were extended and scaffolded.

In light of the submissions by Cummins and Krashen, it is necessary still to break down CALP strategies to skills in writing and reading. Writing and reading are complex language production activities. The learner reader-writer is simultaneously involved with:

1. Thinking of what to write, i.e. content selection and organization,
2. Coherence and cohesion of the text, i.e. punctuation, pronouns, conjunctions, subordinating and co-coordinating devices and implicit sense-making strategies. In order to differentiate these inter-related concepts, coherence is understood as the connection of thoughts and ideas (not always obvious in the language of the text), while cohesion refers to the language forms, such as pronouns and connectives which (obviously) connect one piece of text to another;
3. Spelling, i.e. correctness;
4. Layout, i.e. paragraphing, format and visual aesthetics, and
5. Tone and register, i.e. selection of appropriate content and wording for an imagined or intended audience.

There are, obviously, a lot of demands made on the memory of the learner and the BIC skills that have to be retrieved, activated and extended in order to promote the opportunity to interrogate the texts at the higher CALP level. Learners need time to reflect on past experiences and integrate knowledges in order to think about what they

need to know in the new texts and have ownership and control of their own writing abilities.

2.7.2. Reading skills

In an article "Steps for Close Reading or Explication de texte"(Cambridge Examinations Syndicate, 2009:1-2), there is an underlying understanding that reading is a finely detailed, very specific examination of a text (long or short) in order to find the focus and design of the text. To this end, close reading calls attention to the dynamic tensions, polarities or embedded meanings in the imagery, style, literal and symbolic content, and diction that shape a piece of writing. Each particular design and organization of the text calls for the reader's attention, and quite often, the language used in the shaping of the text creates a visual dynamic as well as verbal coherence. Close reading operates on this premise: that a text will be more fully understood and appreciated if the nature and interrelations of its parts are perceived. This perception will lead to the reader establishing the patterns, central purpose and focus or theme of the text in question, be it a narrative, argument, description or poem. This ability to perceive the linguistic patterning of a text is called meta-discourse awareness and it becomes increasingly important as learners progress from one grade-level to another, and as they also encounter increasingly sophisticated texts.

My understanding is that CALP reading skills, in the secondary school reader who is the subject of this study, would entail an ability to examine a text carefully for words, similes, images, metaphors and symbols. Texts at a lower reading level would use such techniques sparingly, and the linguistic maturation in the reader, including the readiness to read more challenging texts, would call for the ability to list implications and suggested meanings as well as the obvious denotations. Texts projected for the secondary school reader would challenge the reader to look for multiple meanings, synonymy, the elasticity of the word and overlapping of meaning; they would require the reader to consider how each word or group of words suggests a pattern at the level of connotation.

Diction, with its emphasis on choice of words from a broad lexicon, provides the crux of the reader's process of explication and, in this regard the secondary school reader

who is the focus of this research, is expected to be able to identify the nouns and attendant adjectives, as much as the verbs and attendant adverbs. This identification should further enable the reader to examine, probe and illuminate new connotations in the word usage and context of word use. In this process, the learner develops sensitivity to words, allowing the learner to interrogate both the metaphoric and spatial sense of the words. The BICS that the participants in this study had shown they knew included, amongst others, that the basic sentence has a noun phrase subject and a verb predicate. Armed with this knowledge, many of the participants still wrote ungrammatical sentences, deviating from the grammar rules. The practical pedagogic challenge was to bring all this together in such a way that the participants would recognise, create and use grammatical constructions correctly.

Language structure could also carry crucial meanings in terms of sounds (phonological aspects), the formation of words (morphological), phrases and the formation of sentences (syntactic simplicity or complexity). In their enhancement and application of CALP reading skills, secondary school learners are expected to be able to establish characters, plot and setting as they relate to selected literary reading and comprehension texts, and further establish the context. In non-literary comprehension texts, the participants were expected to read for understanding. This comprehension level is driven by endophoric skills where learners are expected to follow the sequence of events, deduce information and summarize what the texts communicate. Literary texts, in addition to the endophoric skills discussed above, seek deeper skills, largely of an exophoric nature because signification is expressed obliquely and learners make use of their lived and imagined experiences.

In terms of information structure, learners are expected to interrogate passages and divide them into the more obvious sections such as stages of argument, discussion or action if they are of a dramatic nature, in addition to being able to identify the interrelations of these units in the shaping of the totality of the text. Rhetoric is a feature of all writing and reading and secondary school learners are expected to demonstrate their enhanced CALP skills in terms of looking for significant stylistic aspects such as parallel constructions, antithesis and syntactic structures. Audiencing in writing also challenges learners to develop CALP skills, particularly when they begin to interrogate such questions as which audience is being addressed and why

2.7.3. Writing skills

Through their extended vocabulary, repeated practice in writing various genres and critical imaginative skills, the learners were expected to demonstrate the following competencies in their writing:

- Independent problem solving, i.e. the capacity to identify sources of trouble in their written texts, and initiating revision as well as providing alternative constructions,
- Noticing and correcting sentence level errors, and by extension errors at the extended discourse level, with minimal feedback from the educator or mentor
- Assuming full responsibility for the correction of errors at the level of editing
- Emerging consistency in using the English language structures in all contexts of writing where the self-correction of errors becomes automated (Lantolf, 1994:47).

At the secondary school level, learners are expected to demonstrate competency in writing, and the following skills are distinct expectations:

- Critically analysing ideas and arguments in written form,
- Summarising ideas and information contained in a text,
- Synthesising ideas from two texts ,
- Generating effective writing based on task stimuli provided, such as discursive, expository, narrative and descriptive topics,
- Developing the topic stimulus convincingly with well-chosen examples, good reasoning and logical arguments,
- Structuring their writing so that it moves beyond formulaic patterns that inhibit critical examination of the topic and subtle issues related to the topic,
- Using vocabulary appropriate to the secondary school level and the topic,
- Working collaboratively on writing and editorial tasks, and in the process, exercising the stamina and persistence to pursue challenging language tasks,
- Varying sentence structures and word choice as appropriate for audience and task purpose, and
- Spelling accurately, editing to eliminate errors in grammar and basic mechanics

In order to explicitly explore the conceptualization of CALP skills at the secondary school stage, the summary annotated in Figure 2 was developed for this research study:

Figure 2: CALP skills at secondary school.

**CALP SKILLS AT
SECONDARY SCHOOL**

Given the following factors about the
Telkom Foundation learners:

Previously disadvantaged schools
Different language curricular emphasis
Transition from OBE C2005 to CE
The needs analysis;

CALP skills were specifically defined
as:

- The ability to manipulate and interpret language in cognitively demanding, context-reduced texts
- Is the proficiency required for secondary school study
- Is characterised by formal features, i.e. Sentence length, sentence variety, complex noun and adjective phrases subordinated or embedded in sentences
- Is English used to obtain, process, construct and provide subject matter information in written form
- Is the grade-appropriate language learning and appropriation strategies used to construct genre-specific texts and avoids non-standard or stigmatizing features
- Is the extent to which a language learner has access to and command of the written academic register of secondary schooling

Cummins' conceptualization of CALP needs to be problematised. CALP, to Cummins(1984), was directed at offering a particular explanation to a specific research context. It was appropriate for, and to, Cummins' specific research and did not seek to be an absolutist explanation. Considering the South African language map of imposed English and Afrikaans, and the subsequent relegation of "ethnic languages" to the periphery, CALP's applicability is put to the test.

Taking cue from Saville-Troike (1984:213), communicative competence in social interaction in L1 does not guarantee communicative competence in academic situations in L2. This should be read in contrast to the views of Krashen and Terrell (1987) who assume that a good foundation in BICS will lead to greater success in academic learning skills. Again, with regard to the research participants in this study, the point remains that tests and assessment skills at the secondary school are CALP skills, involving reading and writing in analytic, context-reduced ways. O'Malley's views (1998:55) and those of Starfield (1991) are relevant here as they argue that strategies can be taught and learning strategies transferred to new problem-solving tasks. The problem remains one of distinguishing between language proficiency, academic skills and content mastery in academic performance. The research participants in this study had not gained the higher content knowledge of specific

subjects and had not fully developed the necessary problem-solving skills in L1 to allow them to grapple with CALP in a second language.

2.8. Social constructivist reading theory and implications for the classroom

A dialogic approach to reading empowers readers to position themselves as participants in making meaning together with the text and its authors, according to Wilson (2003:1). Readers, from this perspective are not outsiders to the reading process: they participate in the action and dialogues and silences implied by the text, that is, the intramental dialogue suggested by Vygotsky (1978). Constructivists understand reading as a process that affects why and how we read, including of course what is read: a match diary for the world cup finals, a magazine article on a celebrity or reading a high-stakes examination comprehension passage. In the diversity of the reading materials, the reader is positioned in one or the other of four roles: code breaker, meaning maker, text user, and text analyst (Luke and Freebody, 2002; Wilson, 2003). The first role of code breaker is the most basic and is restricted activity at the level of deciphering the text at letter, word and sentence level. In this role, there are no heavy cognitive demands placed on the reader. Making meaning of the text, which is the second reader role, is a little higher and therefore cognitively demanding since there is an inherent effort to unpack what the writer is saying. For the Telkom Foundation learners, a text in a second language, English, brought challenges in terms of its difficult words, grammatical structures and unfamiliar imagistic patterns. Engaging with such texts implied interpretation through different cultural lenses, with possibilities of arriving at divergent meaning-making protocols.

When the reader is in the role of a text user, they have to deal with distinguishing between texts that could be used for pleasure, gathering information, writing essays, and more importantly for the research participants, a text that could be used for language learning. In the fourth role of reader as text analyst, the research participants needed to gain text awareness, observing how language is used within different genres to achieve different purposes and effects. In this role, readers can detect bias, prejudice and can comment on specific positions that writers adopt relative to their writing (Wilson, 2003). The pedagogic journey in this study sought to extend the TF research participant's capacity to read constructively through clarifying to themselves why and how they read specific texts: making meaning, exploiting texts for useful

vocabulary and, at times, looking for writing models in the text. Text awareness, in addition to the above, enables readers to gain insight into the way texts are structured and empowers them to locate words that suggest a writer is introducing a new point, the significance of repeated clauses. Such readers can puzzle out why certain words are used instead of others, to the extent that they begin to explore antonyms and synonymy.

Instead of essentialising the multilingual learners in this study as a group in need of remediation, this study explored possibilities of engaging their multi-literacies in reading and writing to shape a language programme where the borders and cultures of L1 and L2 were interrogated for their capacity to enhance academic language processing. It is this exploration that Harklau (2002) endorses when she points out that the secondary school can best be understood as a series of instructional niches, each carrying certain assumptions and expectations for learner performance. Each stage ought to provide a unique linguistic and academic environment to learn and extend language skills. This can be achieved through giving explicit guidance on making sense of texts and helping learners to use context to infer meanings when they do not know a word. Another aspect of writing at the secondary school stage, particularly in comprehension tasks, requires learners to give explanations of words or phrases in their own words and the context in which the phrase or word is embedded becomes a critical determinant of the meaning that the word carries.

2.9. Theoretical framework and philosophical orientation of the current study

Second language acquisition theories continue to be a problematic field, continually in flux, given the diversity of scholarship with roots in behaviourist, structuralist, formalist, post-structuralist and constructivist approaches to L2 education. These different theoretical positions have had an influence on how language pedagogy has developed in South Africa, particularly with the perception that these theoretical positions at times have been viewed as representing conflicting theoretical orientations.

Bakhtin (1984) and Bourdieu (1997) distinguish language as a distinctly social practice and argue that meaning is a negotiated practice that is packaged in specific modes of saying that have location in non-homogenous and non-consensual

communities. For both of these scholars, speakers and writers alike, in dialogue with others, continually struggle to create meanings. Speakers interact with listeners in as much as writers interact with readers and this duality in interaction necessarily situates the word in the historical and contemporary, the assumed and the actual world. The complex and conflictual process of meaning generation therefore implies the value-laden potential of the word that defines community and context. From this perspective, competence in English language for the learners in this study could be usefully perceived as the capacity of the learners to “impose reception” (Bourdieu, 1997:648; McKinney and Norton, 2007:194) and the possibilities of empowerment derived from the varieties of the English language that these learners are exposed to through diverse classroom practices. Community and context in this respect were of special significance as they powerfully defined and constructed an overarching relationship for the learners with respect to the target language and their somewhat problematic and ambivalent desire to extend and practise using the interlanguage.

Classroom realities do not correspond to any recognizable one-method-fits-all methodology. Indeed methods themselves are not value-free instruments validated by empirical research for purely practical reasons; they are value-laden. Lightbown and Spada (2006) recognize that research output in recent years has focused on answering the question of what the best method could be to promote second language learning in the classroom. This question anticipates that research should ultimately focus on the relationships between teaching and learning of the second language. The pedagogic proposals for the second language classroom, as already highlighted in sections 2.2.1 to 2.6. range from labels such as “get it right from the beginning”, “just listen...and read”, “let’s talk”, “teach what is teachable”, and “get it right at the end.” Broadly again, these exhortations fall into the two categories of grammar-based and the communicative approaches to teaching, and follow what White (1986) has defined as Type A and Type B syllabus specifications. Ferris and Hedgecock(2005:91) condense these observations and pertinently advise that “conducting a needs assessment can be informative and rewarding, leading to the development and establishment of clear, measurable and achievable course objectives” as those anticipated in the product of this current research. They further argue that a syllabus serves as an operational framework and planning tool that structures and sequences instructional aims, units, lessons, assignments, classroom procedures for both the teacher and the learners.

The past few decades of research, particularly in second language acquisition and teaching, have resulted in the emergence of two major propositions and approaches for the teaching of ESL: Grammar-based Language Teaching (Drills, Say After Me, Dictation, Parsing Clauses) and Communicative Language Teaching (Content-Based Language Teaching, focus on form, Negotiation for Meaning, and Task-based Language Teaching) (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). These have been popularized by journals and publishing houses and many educators in South Africa believe in the efficacy of one or the other of these “validated” methodologies, but often adopt, in practice, eclectic approaches in order to achieve language learning and teaching goals.

These two paradigms, the grammar-based language teaching and communicative language teaching, have produced several syllabus designs and Hall (2001:20) describes three of these syllabus prototypes:

- The structural syllabus has structures of language as the basic units, e.g. tenses, declaratives, interrogatives and negatives.
- The situational syllabus has social situations as the basic motor of the syllabus, e.g. appropriate register in the shop, at the post office, at the airport, in the bank.
- For the communicative syllabus, meaning and communicative capacity is the cornerstone of language learning, i.e. for instance, the ability to apologize, to request, to offer help.

Developing from the three syllabus prototypes above, options for sequencing syllabus items have become the subject of intense and massive research and debate. The first has been the “difficulty approaches to the syllabus.” In this sequencing, easier items are taught first while the more difficult aspects are deferred till later in the instructional course. As would be clearly evident, “difficulty” is a loaded and quite subjective concept, depending on the cognitive capacities of the learners in a particular group.

Akin to the preceding approach, the linear approach to syllabus implementation sequences items one after the other in a more eclectic fashion, assuming that linguistic units are mastered by the learners along a continuum. The sequence could be

arbitrarily arrived at by the teacher, and often this sequencing could be informed by an educator's practice over the years.

In the spiral syllabus sequence of items, the same linguistic item or structure is returned to repeatedly and treated in more depth on each occasion it is revisited. The spiral sequence has demonstrable practical applications in the classroom. Items are usually introduced in "naturalistic terms" early in the educational process and experience of the learner. Later, these items are reinforced at deeper and more complex levels and this "cyclical pattern" conceivably allows for the assimilation and processing of language by the learner. Utility item sequencing approaches share a kindred thrust with the communicative syllabus as they are grounded on what is needed, useful and urgent for the learners e.g. should they learn how to hold a telephone conversation first, or should they concentrate on managing transactions when shopping. This sequencing has been most useful in English for Specific Purposes for instance where tourists might visit a place and need conversational language at hotels or in restaurants.

In the synthetic syllabus, the sequencing of items focuses on the accumulation of different parts of language taught separately and the discrete elements are finally re-synthesized by the learner. There is an assumption in this sequence that the learner masters the items separately, and through the application of enhanced CALP skills, the learner is able to synthesize the items into a formulaic and systematic conceptualisation of the working and dynamics of the language being learnt. In Wilkins (1976), an analytical approach to the syllabus is the approximation of the learners' own linguistic behaviour, the language being presented in an unanalyzed whole.

Proponents of the communicative approach (Selinker, 1972; Richards, 1974; Widdowson 1985) have argued strongly that language is not learned by the gradual accumulation of one item after another as implied by the grammar-based syllabuses. They suggest that errors are a natural and valuable part of the language learning process and that consequently, the insistence on grammatical correctness stifles intrinsic learner motivation (Lightbown and Spada, 2000:140). In contrast to this view, the proponents of the structural approach insist that an exclusive focus on

meaning allows the learners too much freedom and this absence of explicit correction of error leads to fossilization of error. There is apparently no consensus yet on either the process of ESL acquisition or the best methodology except in the recognition that ESL learners display a wide range of abilities or outcomes across the spectrum of classroom methodologies and learner strategies.

Table 2 sums the theoretical perspectives discussed and the strategies for implementation in pedagogical practice.

TABLE 2: THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES AND PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES FOR SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE	STRATEGIES FOR IMPLEMENTATION	SCHOLARSHIP & STATUS OF THEORY
Chomskyan generative hypotheses. Major proponent remains Chomsky (1969). Dulay and Burt (1974) propound that “there are natural sequences in child second language acquisition” driven by LAD (language acquisition device), while Krashen (1985) argues that there is need for “input slightly above the learner’s current level in order for acquisition to occur.”	Grammar syllabus, sentence-level grammar, drill and memorisation. The argument is that a learner’s linguistic competence, especially syntactic competence, is achieved without the influence of general cognition (Homstein and Lightfoot, 1981) since the learner has access to UG (universal grammar) and Swartz (1993) endorses the modularity of the mind where only primary linguistic data (PLD) is the only relevant input for second language learning.	Supplanted by communicative language teaching approaches Under-theorised in current scholarship and consequently uncritically dismissed by “current waves of theorising” that perceives a coercive pedagogy embedded in the ‘rules of grammar.
Error analysis, interlanguage hypothesis. Major proponents are Selinker (1972); Kachru’s “world Englishes” (1987) and Widdowson (1994) anchor the recognition of the varieties of English rather than a monolithic, purist version and engender useful debate on the subject. BSAE features prominently in Janks (1992) and Ngwenya (2001)	“Second language acquisition entails second culture acquisition,” focus on learner errors as approximations towards the target language; the written product as a focal source of what competencies the individual learner exhibits	Noticing, explicit and implicit error correction; morpho-syntactic development in oral and written proficiency. Errors are perceived as important markers of progress, growth and maturation.
Immersion programmes. Major theorists and researchers include Brown (1985), Ellis (1996)	Ethnographic orientation; elusive target-like competence; supplants/disregards first language competencies. Major pedagogical approach has been through interactive discourse analysis and communicative language teaching.	Academic socialisation demands “immersion” and learners enter an “unproblematic, homogenous culture” whose norms they learn through case study and imitation.
New literacies projects, Academic literacy. Theoretical wave rooted in the work of Leki (1985), Berreiter & Scardarmalia (1987), Gee (1990), Lea (1994, 2004), and Smitherman (2004). Cummins (1984, 1987, and 2000) explores the distinction between BICS and CALP in “bilingual education, language development and empowering minority students.”	Some controversy about recognition of prior language experiences and knowledges; examination of how literacy and meta-cognitive processing influence the development of morpho-syntactic competence in second language; focus on “test-wiseness;” process writing and principally driven by drafts, revision and self-editing protocols	The major tenet is that literacy is not only concerned with the acquisition of a particular set of cognitive skills which once acquired can be put to use unproblematically in any new context.
Critical language awareness is	Major pedagogical approach has	Reading and writing are

rooted in the work of Fairclough(1995), Pennycook (1994), Phillipson (1995), Kumaravadivelu(2005)	been informed by postcolonial theory, interrogating power and marginality, voice and voicelessness, identity and location in both language use and the strategies learners employ in the process of acquisition.	social and cultural practices and vary from context to context. There is a complex relationship between acquisition and subject-specific reading and writing and learners are implicated in the practices leading to the production of texts.
---	--	---

2.10. Critical social theory

The most significant attribute of critical social theory is that it views literacy as both “a set of cognitive skills and a set of practices” (Jenkins, 2010:xiii). This entails the ability to synthesise information, comprehend meaning, evaluate content and re-searching information. Reading and producing information are perceived as increasingly complex practices for which more nuanced pedagogical approaches are necessary, especially in multilingual classrooms such as the ISSA research site. Thus Gee (1990), Janks (2010) and Bourdieu, (1991) contend that [learners’] different ways with words should be explored more critically rather than simply privileging middle class literacy norms. The elite outlook of ISSA, and its admission of the research participants into its ecology dramatized quite palpably the questions of power embedded in language pedagogy: English was both a desirable resource for access inasmuch as it posed a threat to the research participants’ languages. In Janks’ terms, “learning how to read the *word* and the *world critically*” (2010:13) informed the research thrust towards multi-modal literacies.

Nunan (1995), O’Malley and Chamot (1994) and Oxford (1996) have proposed a significant emphasis shift from the teacher to greater stress on learners and the strategies they refine towards language acquisition. Strategies are defined as the “special thoughts and behaviours of a learner that are intended to influence how the learner comprehends, learns, retains and processes linguistic information” (O’Malley and Chamot, 1994:1). It is critical to note that learners demonstrate a desire for control and autonomy of learning since their goal is to develop communicative competence in the target language. Learner strategies then are perceived as “especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement”(Oxford 1996:11). They are problem-oriented, flexible, influenced by several factors and involve many aspects that often go beyond the cognitive. There are three main types of direct learning strategies:

- memory strategies that aid in entering information in long term memory and retrieving information when needed for communication;
- cognitive strategies that are used for forming and revising internal mental models and receiving and producing messages in the target language; and
- compensation strategies that are needed to overcome any gaps in knowledge of the target language.

Oxford adds that “metacognitive strategies help learners exercise executive control through planning, arranging, focusing and evaluating their own learning”(Oxford 1996:71). Examples of strategies that learners use include asking questions (for clarification and correction), co-operating with other learners(peers and more proficient users of the target language) and empathizing with others (developing cultural understanding and becoming aware of others’ thoughts and feelings). It was important in this research to engage fully with these observations and purposefully observe and reflect on the second language acquisition strategies that the research participants nurtured such as guessing, inferencing, vocabulary learning translation strategies, self-correction, making ongoing summaries, reformulation, looking for markers of cohesion and writing multiple drafts.

2.11. Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the distinct and authoritative voices on ESL acquisition and learner strategies. In addition, the review has demonstrated the multiplicity of challenges the ESL learners face, especially in reading and writing. It emerged that the classroom realities of the research participants called for a dialogue and interaction between the theoretical perspectives described so far and the learners’ practical writing and reading needs. This review situated syllabus design in the broad realms of second language acquisition, needs analysis and grounded pedagogic practice and provided critical insights and understandings that are essential ingredients for the negotiation and design of a relevant and efficient syllabus for the research participants in this study.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW II: MODELS OF SYLLABUS DESIGN

3.1. Introduction

This chapter speaks directly to the research question set out in Chapter One: what effective, relevant and efficient English language syllabus could be designed for the research participants? I principally engage here with syllabus design models and interrogate the reading and writing skills that the models propose relative to the research participants in this study in order to establish significant precedents and empowering possibilities for the ecological particularity of the setting of this research. The chapter unpacks the syllabus designs and, most significantly, the sequencing of the syllabus components as these seek to address learner skills and the learners' strategic appropriation of English. The chapter developed from the conviction that decisions in syllabus construction should be driven by learner needs and empirical findings in second language acquisition (SLA) research in general, and more specifically, the applicability and adaptability of these to the South African research site at ISSA.

The chapter attempts to answer seven critical questions:

- (i) What language competencies do the TF learners need to have at ISSA?
- (ii) What kind of syllabus have the participants followed prior to their admission at ISSA?
- (iii) What kind of syllabus would the learners have followed at ISSA?
- (iv) Do the choices in syllabus design affect the way language is acquired and used?
- (v) In making the choice, what role does context play?
- (vi) What are the possibilities of modification in the model chosen?
- (vii) How do the sequencing and manipulation of different task features affect the development of cognitive academic language proficiency skills in learners?

3.1.1. Generic syllabus prototypes

The 1980s period saw the concerted development of three new syllabus types whose rationale is derived from developments in research in second language acquisition. These were:

- a) The procedural syllabus marked by 'incidental' correction of errors (attributed to the work of Prabhu, 1983),
- b) The process syllabus (associated with the emergence to prominence of "processes" as opposed to "products" in curriculum design, notably championed by Stenhouse in 1975, and Breen in 1983) and
- c) The task-based syllabus (associated with tasks and on-going research by Long and Crookes, 1993, and Skehan, 1998).

The discussion that follows outlines each of the tenets of the syllabus prototypes, the characteristic features and critiques the principles embedded in the design.

3.1.1.2. The procedural syllabus

Prabhu (1984; 1987) initiated the Bangalore Madras Communicational Teaching Project (CTP) in Bangalore, India. CTP was premised on tasks that engage the learner in thinking processes, rather than learning language. This initial step is in consonance with Krashen (1982) whose premise is that language is acquired subconsciously when a learner's attention is focused on meaning. In completing a meaning-building task, the subconscious perceives, abstracts, acquires and is engaged with system-building and the assumption is that a grammatical system is consequently developed. For Prabhu and his colleagues at Bangalore, teaching a second language *through* communication, rather than *for* communication was pivotal for the programme. The core goal, interestingly, was grammatical rather than communicative competence. Errors were accepted for their content and were subject to incidental as opposed to systematic correction. Learning tasks focused on what was to be done in the classroom and not upon selected language input for learning.

The other major features were: emphasis on receptive language, teacher-centred classes, the discouragement of group-work and the opportunities for negotiation provided by appropriate task-selection. Lesson format, in Prabhu's syllabus, had three sections: presentation and demonstration, the completion of the task by the individual

learner and finally feedback from the teacher. Long and Crookes (1993:32) identify four difficulties with the CTP syllabus model, i.e.

- (i) The absence of task-based needs analysis leaves no rationale for the content of the procedural syllabus;
- (ii) Grading of task difficulty and the sequencing of the tasks is arbitrary;
- (iii) There is need for input at or above the level of the learners in order to challenge them further, and
- (iv) Evaluation (which is excluded from the model) is important to identify the mismatch between input and output so that the improvements can be made.

3.1.1.3. The process syllabus (Breen, 1983)

Breen (1983) and Candlin((1984) provide an educational and philosophical rather than a linguistic rationale for the Process Syllabus. There is a significant coincidence between Breen and Candlin's approach to education and progressivism, with their emphasis on exploration, growth and development. Both draw on Stenhouse's (1975) philosophy, associated with the emergence of the process curriculum, after the Humanities Curriculum Project in the UK. The process syllabus in SLA shows direct influence from studies on the way learners approach learning.

Breen (1987:163) advocates sequencing of tasks on the basis of two criteria:

- (i) The relative familiarity of the task to the learner's current communicative knowledge and abilities, and
- (ii) The relative inherent complexity of the task in terms of the demands placed upon the learner.

The task-based approach that Breen suggests in the design of the syllabus is complicated by his remark that "the sequencing of tasks cannot be worked out in advance. Sequencing depends on the identification of learning problems as they arise, ...prioritizing of particular problems...and the identification of appropriate learning tasks which address the problem areas" (1987:164). Whereas Breen obviously assigns protagonism to the learners, the question is how one could sequence tasks that have not yet been selected. If the selection depends on the daily needs of the students this implies that one cannot have an a priori list of such tasks, and this complicates the teaching-learning programme.

The inherent complexity of tasks that Breen mentions allude to:

- (a) The identification and selection of adequate linguistic forms,
- (b) The difficulty of those forms, measured in relation to the L1 of the learners,
- (c) The number of formal linguistic elements required by the task,
- (d) The semantic units that the learners would have to manipulate, and
- (e) The cognitive demands, the degree of efficiency and accuracy needed for communicating those ideas to others.

Taken together, this appears much the same as the sequencing that one encounters in other syllabus types. The criticism on Breen stems from what Sanchez(2004:58) perceives as an oversight: “the learning of language does not take place on a fully linear basis, by adding simple elements to the more complex ones that we have already acquired. We also learn language by chunks...memorizing and consolidating pieces of language regardless of their degree of complexity.” Further, specific learners may have cognitive skills to perform a particular task, but not necessarily the linguistic skills to explain what they are doing in the L2 that they are learning.

3.1.1.4. The task-based model of Long and Crookes (1983)

Long (1983) argues that classroom teaching has an effect on language learning, contrary to what Allwright (1984) concludes about learners not necessarily learning what teachers teach. He focuses on two questions:

- (i) What do learners do in the process of learning?
- (ii) How do they do it?

These questions allow Long and Crookes to focus on in-depth analysis of the participation of the learner in the process of learning L2. They contend that what is taught (content) should be integrated with the way the content is taught (procedure). If a task is re-defined as “ a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language” (Nunan, 1989:10), then content and method are mutually dependent. The learning group takes agency for their syllabus. Interaction, the negotiation of meaning, the building of a personal learning path, the importance of meaning and linguistic form become components of a task-based syllabus. This observation strengthens the selection of the latter model for ISSA since tasks are conceptualized as holistic: in

their realization the whole person is involved, meaning is “contained in” and “conditioned by” the form in which it is inserted. Emphasis is on the use of the right strategies to achieve the desired linguistic goals. Finally, sequencing of activities and tasks does matter in language teaching, hence the design of the syllabus presented in Chapter 7.

These three models of the syllabus demonstrate a marked departure from the previous focus on lexical, structural, functional and notional organizing units for the determination of language syllabus constituents. Debates on method, content and materials for teaching a second language have critically influenced second language syllabus development, considering that in a study such as this one, the syllabus is a contested space; raising hopes in the learners and the educators, and promoting certain cultural values in its implementation.

The intention to design and develop a relevant syllabus for the Telkom learners was driven by the gap in research in secondary school academic literacy of L2 readers and writers, especially research about how specific genres are learnt by and can be effectively taught to secondary school learners in a South African context. Scholars such as Ferris and Hedgcock (2005), Grabe (2003), Wigglesworth (2005), Tollefson (1991) and Sidorkin (1999) address the need for L2 learners to acquire competency and demonstrable skills in a variety of genres. Hyland (1998:43) in particular underscores this need in stating, “the ability to function fully in a range of written genres is often a central concern for ESL learners as it can determine their access to career opportunities, positive identities and life choices.” Hyland recommends that the academic language, conventions and constructs of genres should be taught directly and explicitly at the secondary school stage, thereby emphasizing the point that knowledge about the genres per se is insufficient and that it is the demonstration of the skills in reading and writing that is crucial. This current study also anticipated such possibilities as suggested by Hyland in the syllabus design since to comprehend and produce texts from the genres specific to a discipline, learners must know the formal characteristics and text types of each of these genres (rhetorical structure, stylistic features, and preferred syntax). Audience or reader expectations pertaining to content, structure and form within the English language also take central place in the development of the relevant CALP skills, especially as the participants were being

prepared to pass their exit Cambridge English examinations. This aspect of “academic literacies” was considered critical in the design of a course of study aimed at establishing the relationship between reading, writing and the language learning strategies that the research participants displayed.

3.1.3. A working definition of syllabus

Richards (1992:368) defines a syllabus as “a description of the contents of a course of instruction and the order in which they are to be taught.” Thornbury (1999:8) and Brown (1994:51) concur with such a definition in pointing out that a syllabus defines objectives, determines content and generally indicates some sequence or progression and is, *ipso facto*, the essential minimum of what is meant by curriculum. Stern (1994:89) proposes a multidimensional language syllabus that consists of four aspects that have to be emphasized according to learner needs and teaching situation:

- the language teaching syllabus that deals analytically with descriptive aspects of the target language (phonology, syntax, grammar and discourse),
- the communicative activities syllabus that provides opportunities for natural unanalyzed language use,
- the cultural syllabus that provides socio-cultural knowledge and contact with the target language community, and
- the general language education syllabus that serves to broaden the acquired skills and scope of the second language curriculum.

This is a rich proposition that may only find practical challenges at the implementation stage where other concerns, such as terminal or summative assessment, take an overarching presence and priority in the classroom; otherwise, Stern’s tenets are sound, logical and applicable to the anticipated syllabus in this study. In particular, it is the socio-cultural knowledge and its relevance to the ecology of the school that underpins the breadth and depth of the syllabus components.

In a task-based syllabus, the tasks are selected and graded in terms of cognitive complexity as established by research in second language learning, though there is the perennial problem of discovering what material is difficult and which is easy for the learners. Larsen-Freeman (1974) offers “utility” as an alternative to “difficulty” but still the problem remains in discovering what is more or less useful to the learners,

even if a thorough needs analysis has been conducted. This dilemma is succinctly addressed by Nunan (2002: 49) who states that “the core of the challenge lies in selecting and ordering tasks” that are related in some principled fashion to the things that the learner would potentially do outside the classroom, tasks that incorporate what is known about ‘good’ language learning strategies.

The task-based syllabus anticipated in this study works on the premise that the Telkom learners, in addition to being developing readers and writers, are still in the process of acquiring the English language lexicon and morphological and syntactical patterns and that they need distinct and additional interventions to make up for their deficits so that they develop strategies for identifying, correcting and minimizing errors, especially the errors that would stigmatize them as learner readers, speakers and writers. Hinkel (2004) confirms this when he notes that errors in syntactic, lexical and discourse features have a negative effect on perceived quality of the learners’ texts.

3.1.4. Purpose of a syllabus

According to Suter (2001:4) and Brumfit (1984:27), a syllabus is at the same time directed into the respective institution and outside it: it specifies work in a course setting and serves as an expression of accountability towards the public. The syllabus, besides indicating what is to be taught, has implications therefore for the design and selection of materials and tests, the planning of individual lessons and the management of the classroom. On this basis, a syllabus provides a framework for the assessment of learner and educator strategies and achievements in the process of the implementation. In this regard, the design and implementation of a specific syllabus becomes in itself the product, a negotiated framework and strategy for a specific context where the conceptual synergy is directed at enhanced proficiency and competence.

3.2. The framework of Curriculum 2005 (revised)

In South Africa, all the public schools follow subject syllabuses devised by the Education Department that is generally called Curriculum 2005. The initial document was revised and adopted by schools nationally as the Revised National Curriculum Statements 2005 (RNCS). These subject syllabuses are driven by a broad objective

aimed at creating “a literate South Africa within which all its citizens have acquired general education and training (GET) that enables effective participation in socio-economic and political processes to contribute to reconstruction, development and social transformation” programme (RDP) (ABET vision, Policy Document 1997:9). The revised national curriculum statement (RNCS) affirms a commitment to outcomes based education (OBE).

In apartheid South Africa’s education environment, the syllabus was generally packaged by political and education authorities who imposed on the teacher and the learner what was to be learnt. The learners were expected to assimilate all that the teacher passed on to the learners as “legitimate” knowledge. The implication in such an environment was that the learners memorised the facts and quite often did not understand what they memorized. The learners consequently reproduced memorized facts and opinions to respond to examination questions. The learning process did not encourage discussion or interaction between the teacher and the learners, hence the label of this educational transaction as “talk and chalk.”

From 1994, the new curriculum insisted on a practice in which the teacher has had to find out whether or not each lesson has enabled their learners to achieve the desired outcome. OBE, the underpinning philosophy in the new South African dispensation, asks what learners will be able to do at the end of the learning experience, which can be explicitly measured at the end of each lesson, or cumulatively at the end of an extended learning period. Continuous and summative assessment play a significant role and contribution to the learning programme under OBE. In many ways, OBE is concerned with skills as opposed to content: it is achievement-oriented, activity-based and learner-centered.

The knowledge, skills and values that learners must develop are embodied in the cross-field Critical Outcomes that envisage learners who can:

- Identify and solve problems and make decisions using creative critical thinking;
- Work effectively with others as members of a team, group, organization and community;
- Organize and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively;

- Communicate effectively using visual, symbolic and language skills in various modes; and
- Collect, analyze, organize and critically evaluate information (Arts and Culture for All, 2005: viii).

These outcomes are anticipated in learners who are able to reflect on and explore a variety of strategies to learn more effectively, learners who are culturally and aesthetically sensitive across a range of social contexts. Learning barriers are identified and addressed. Different backgrounds, experiences and learning styles are valued in the RNCS across the subjects. The paradigm shift encapsulated in OBE and the RNCS emphasizes problem-solving and the discovery of skills where the learner reconstructs knowledge for himself/herself and the educator becomes a mediator and facilitator of knowledge, developing various strategies to enhance the learning (Kotze, 1999: 32). In the words of Kelly (1989:30), “when curriculum is viewed as being concerned with process, then education is perceived as development” and this blends with the crux of the argument in this study of learners on a language development course. Process in this regard is conceived as indicating a notion of competence and integratedness between product, content and process that is driven by strategies of reflection on the part of the learners. Outcomes, concisely, are viewed as a demonstration of a student’s entire range of learning experiences and capabilities. The process of meaning-creation at the centre of the approach implies both strategies of mastering of content and the deployment and application of appropriate language skills by the learners. The qualitative and ethnographic research undertaken here aims to reflect critically on the participants’ reading and writing, (close textual analyses, the educators’ feedback on the reading and writing) in order to unpack the complex relationship between acquisition and development of linguistic skills.

3.2.1. The additive approach to multilingualism assumed and anticipated in RNCS

This study has already acknowledged the multilingual nature of South Africa. With eleven official languages, the English language learning area is defined as an additional language to the participants in this study. All learners in South Africa are expected to reach high competency and proficiency levels in at least two official

languages. The curriculum policy stipulates the need to nurture high knowledge and skills in the learner through an inclusive approach that values indigenous knowledge systems. This additive approach to multilingualism holds that “all learners must learn their home language and at least one additional official language. Learners [must] become competent in their additional language, while their home language is maintained and developed” (DoE, 2005: 4).

The RNCS insists that all learners must learn an African language for a minimum of three years and that when the learners come to school, the programme of instruction must seek to develop those competences that the learners bring into the school. The additional language (in this case English) is new and therefore the curriculum targets developing the learners’ ability to understand and speak the language. On this foundation, the curriculum builds literacy and learners are expected to be able to transfer the literacies in their home language to their first additional language. English and Afrikaans are the additional languages for the participants in this study and the majority of black students whose L1 is a South African indigenous language. Also, English and Afrikaans largely remain the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) in South Africa. This fact is critical because the additional language supplants the home language, yet, according to the DoE 2005, additive bilingualism should be used for English L1 learners and learners who speak the South African indigenous languages while Afrikaans should be used for Afrikaans-speaking learners. The implementation of this bilingual philosophical orientation was intended to develop sufficiently comparable confidence and competencies in both the home and additional language. Another observation made relates to the actual delivery strategies where educators, mostly in government schools, continue to use the vernacular languages even in what are supposed to be English language lessons (Venter, 2000; Parmegiani, 2009; Hendricks, 2006). This practice compromises and complicates the process of acquisition and competency levels in the L2.

The preceding argument is based on the understanding that language shapes, sustains, and transforms identity and knowledge. This view is underscored in the RNCS document where one of the critical functions of language is deemed to be “understanding the relationships between language, power and identity and to challenge uses of these where necessary; to understand the dynamic nature of culture;

and to resist persuasion and positioning where necessary” (DoE, 2002: 5). In developing learners’ academic literacies, language becomes the foundation for acquiring other important academic proficiency skills such as interpreting and evaluating persuasive texts and argumentative texts, including synthesizing information and evaluation. As Janks (2010:22) succinctly argues, “meaning making, reading with the text is associated with higher order skills that are necessary for the comprehension, analysis and evaluation of texts. The interrogation of texts, reading against the text, is tied to critical literacy and readers can recognize texts as selective versions of the world.” These literacies are essential in stimulating imaginative, creative and problem-solving activities. They are multifaceted strategic literacies and in that, they empower and allow learners to question values and standpoints adopted by writers, to interrogate voices and viewpoints ascribed to narrators and even query the positioning of certain characters in extended literary reading.

One observation is that the learning outcomes specified in RNCS 2005 (Languages segment) are all the same, in wording and focus, from Grade R to Grade 9. This undifferentiated specification and expectation presents several pedagogic challenges. There are six learning outcomes anticipated, described under listening, speaking, reading and viewing, writing, thinking and reasoning, and finally, language structure and use. These outcomes are listed below, under the specific headings:

Learning outcome 1: Listening

The learner will be able to listen for information and enjoyment, and respond appropriately and critically in a wide range of situations.

Learning outcome 2: Speaking

The learner will be able to communicate confidently and effectively in spoken language in a wide range of situations.

Learning outcome 3: Reading and Viewing

The learner will be able to read and view for information and enjoyment, and respond critically to the aesthetic, cultural and emotional values in the text.

Learning outcome 4: Writing

The learner will be able to write different kinds of factual and imaginative texts for a wide range of purposes.

Learning outcome 5: Thinking and Reasoning

The learner will be able to use language to think and reason, as well as to access, process and use information for learning.

Learning outcome 6: Language Structure and Use

The learner will know and be able to use the sounds, words and grammar of the language to create and interpret texts (DoE, 2005: ix).

A distinct problem exists here in the outcomes relative to the grade level and age of the learners. Outcome 3, 4 and 5 for instance, are too ambitious for learners in grade R to three, but would be perfectly reasonable expectations for learners who have spent eight years in school and are doing grade 8. Even at this level, the demand for CALP as opposed to BIC skills would have to be contingent on the level of questioning, the writing skills mastered and the extent of vocabulary acquired by the learners.

A general conceptual growth is anticipated in the learners, especially with regards the transition from home language to the acquisition of an additional language. Trends in ESL research have demonstrated that a home language maintained as LoLT would generally facilitate effective acquisition of L2, or an additional language. It is therefore justified to question the very high expectations spelt out in the outcomes for lower grade learners in the acquisition stages: these could be more modest as suggested by the materials that should be used for the relevant grades recommended in the same RNCS document.

The ambitious orientation enunciated in OBE in South Africa must be understood clearly within the context of an educationally transformative goal, seeking as it does, to replace the ideological legacy of the apartheid era and institutionalized segregatory practices. The anticipated efficacy and capacity of OBE to “meet the needs of all students, regardless of their environment, economic status or disabling condition” (Capper and Jamison, 1993:428) is, in the least, challenged by the disabling reality on the ground. The proposed reform processes of OBE are “neither benign nor innocent, but profoundly partial” (Soudien, Crain et al, 1997:3), and should be deconstructed and interrogated through a sensitive recognition of the differences that have, and continue to, characterize and animate South Africa’s educational history.

This study concedes that during apartheid, education was a legitimating arena for white supremacy and that a complex system of racial and cultural ordering evolved around the practice. Both the official, explicit and hidden curricula of the period were configured to produce, reproduce, and validate racial separation and hierarchy (Lotz, 1996). The study also suggests that the “redress-agenda” of OBE discourse might be extending and legitimating new power bases and new orthodoxies. In the re-imagined educational space, OBE through the Revised National Curriculum Statements (RNCS) presents an idealistic architecture of the learning process and assessment apparatus. It remains largely rhetorical, in part because little agreement or definition has been reached over what competency actually represents, and because the criterion-referenced assessment protocols present a myriad of challenges. As indicated above, the main challenge is embedded in the discrepancy between the attractive claim that OBE is a “learner-centred, result-oriented design based on the belief that all individuals can learn” and the “spectre of mediocrity” (Jansen, 2011) that is annually churned out by the public education department schools.

The General Education and Training (GET) phase spans the school years grade R to grade 9 (5 to 16 years). Since the adoption of RNCS 2005 and its implementation in schools was envisaged as a process, the first national examinations based on this foundation was sat in October/November 2008 after five years of implementation since 2003. This fact underscores the importance and *raison d'être* of this study since it coincided with the first national systemic assessment based on the implementation of RNCS 2005. The systemic assessment provided a baseline measure of the challenges associated with the orientation and spirit of the curriculum statements and its objectives (Jansen, 2008). Also, the assessment was bound to provide insight into learner performance in English under the additive bilingual education programme (ABLE) in relation to national indicators and thereby provided a comparative paradigm with other international assessment tools, standards and boards.

For the first time after the planning, development and implementation of curricular materials, OBE had its first examinations in Grade 12 administered in 2008. These examinations had no other precedent in the educational history of South Africa and, therefore, empirical validations together with quality assurance benchmarks were problematic. Further, OBE had been tried, implemented and abandoned in places such

as Australia and the UK. Issues of comparability of standards, benchmarks, validity and reliability posed serious challenges to the assessment protocols, but this is an area for research in another study. The present study can only refer to the assessment tools in the 2008 examinations in the light of how they tested what the curriculum objectives stated, and this is detailed in the Chapter 5.

3.2.2. The International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE): Syllabus aims and objectives

The aims of the International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE) syllabus are the same for all students taking a course in English as a first language for this qualification. One could say that there are universal aims in any study of a language and these aims are spelt out below:

1. to enable students to communicate accurately, appropriately and effectively in speech and writing,
2. to enable students to understand and respond appropriately to what they hear, read and experience,
3. to encourage students to enjoy and appreciate a variety of language,
4. to complement students' other areas of study by developing skills of a more general application such as analysis, synthesis and drawing of inferences, and
5. To promote students' personal development and an understanding of themselves and others.

(IGCSE Syllabus Aims and Objectives, 2008:2)

I have taken the liberty to highlight segments in the aims to reinforce the idea that at the core of the syllabus is communication that should be accurate, appropriate, critically reflective and effective, in speech as well as in writing.

3.2.3. The IGCSE Assessment Objectives

Assessment objectives are stated under three important categories: reading (R), writing (W) and speaking and listening (S).

Reading

Candidates' reading skills are assessed on the ability to:

- R1 understand and collate explicit meanings

organize lessons and teaching materials. Breen (1987:85) posits important questions for the construction and development of a language syllabus: what does a learner of a second language need to know, and what does [the] learner need to be able to do with this knowledge? The syllabus must sufficiently answer the five questions set out by Breen, which are:

- What knowledge does the syllabus focus on?
- What capabilities does the syllabus focus on and prioritize?
- On what basis does it select and subdivide what is to be learned?
- How does it sequence what is to be learned? and
- What is the [philosophical and psychological] rationale?

This study proposes that the envisaged syllabus should prioritize language learning strategies that have the explicit goal of assisting learners in improving their knowledge of the target language and, in situ, allow a more pronounced use of language use strategies that focus on the learners employing the languages that they have in their current interlanguage repertoires. Such a syllabus should clarify the learning strategies identified by the learners and develop them into comprehensive, multi-leveled and theoretically motivated taxonomies so that the learners become more aware of the ways in which they learn most effectively. This ought to enhance their comprehension and production of the target language.

3.3. Critiquing some tenets in the syllabus models

This segment problematizes the practice of syllabus design and development by critiquing some of the tenets advanced in some of the syllabus models already discussed. Two central issues arise in the discussion: first that each design of a syllabus presupposes a new hope in language pedagogy (Parmegiani, 2009); and second, the exposure of the learner to non-neutral values by the classroom educator provides significant modeling for the learner (Canagarajah, 1999). These contentions are especially relevant to the context of the TF learners in ISSA because from their enrolment, and from subsequent personal interviews, they harbored the sense that success in English would enable them to access better prospects and also that proficiency would make them fully integrated and therefore, more accepted by their peers.

If the curriculum is tentatively defined as a selection from cultures, then the syllabus is a derivative of that selection process. Candlin (1984:30) submits, "syllabuses are concerned with the specification and planning of what is to be learned, frequently set down in some written form as prescriptions for action by teachers and learners. They have, traditionally, the mark of authority. They are concerned with the achievements of ends, often, though not always, associated with the pursuance of particular means." The logic of a syllabus being prescriptive is certainly not endorsed in the present discussion. The "mark of authority" suggested by Candlin is also a vexed issue and is debatable as it suggests an ominous hint of a top-down emphasis in the design and development of the syllabus as already observed in the case of C2005..

Literature on syllabus design has largely aligned itself with one or the other of two broad categories: the analytic (grammar based) or the synthetic (communicative). Wilkins (1976) developed the notional syllabus as a reaction to the constraints experienced with the grammar approaches to syllabus design and he was also incorporating into his design the latest developments in research at the time into second language acquisition and the theories that were emerging after contrastive analysis and error analysis. What binds the notional syllabus to the structural and lexical versions is the assumption that language acquisition is a process of accumulation of separately taught parts, building up the entire structure of the target or second language. Again, the concept of breaking down language into constituent parts that can be learnt one at a time takes a central and pre-eminent role in this study. It has to be decided what the basis of the subdivision is, in as much as it is also important to determine the organizational units in which the language would be presented.

The synthetic syllabus is structured on the premise that the learner has the ability to learn the language structures and functions in parts and, independently, the learner integrates and synthesizes the discrete parts into a whole for both communicative and productive purposes (Long and Crookes, 1993). The deciding factor in the analytic syllabus is the learner: it is what the learner can produce and do with the component aspects of the acquired language. From the linguistic universals, the learner makes inferences and deductions, and in the process encounters problems of overgeneralization.

White (1988) proposes a classification of syllabi into types that he defines as content-based, skills-based and method-based. The first two classifications remain largely synthetic models while the method-based syllabus is a process-based one (Stenhouse, 1975; Zamel, 1987; Kroll, 1987; Long and Crookes, 1995). Content-based syllabus is defined by form (a structural focus) and topic (an informational focus). The skill-based syllabus focuses on language or learning where the intended aims are receptive or productive for the former and skill-acquisition for the latter. The method-syllabus is oriented towards language acquisition as process. The learning focus is learner-led while its cognitive focus is task-based.

There are limitations with the content and skill-based design approaches, but there is equally an idealistic and utopian cadence to the method-based design approach too. What sells for the method-based approach is its intrinsic realization that the syllabus should explicitly state its intentions, allow the curricular transactions to take place and allow for continuous evaluation of the strengths and weaknesses in implementation. These evaluative statements, in a cyclic fashion, allow for a re-formulation of focus areas and the appropriateness of the emerging focus in so far as these are sensitive to the environment for which the curriculum statements are intended (Finch, 1999; see also the Conceptual Figure on Cumulative Integration of Topics and the development of strategic skills in this study, Figure 7). It is therefore relevant to state the limitations of the structural syllabus (with all its variants such as the functional, situational or lexical syllabus in the words of Prabhu (1987) as quoted in Finch (1999) :

[These syllabi above] share [the view of a] static target language, product orientation [and] are ultimately based on the language to be learned... [implicitly relying] on the validity of the equation: what is taught = what is (or ought to be) learnt. In preserving the traditional roles of syllabus designer, teacher and student, and in adhering to a view of language as a linguistic rather than a psycho/sociolinguistic process involving the acquisition of social and cultural knowledge, they ignore the learner as a significant participant in his/her own language learning, defending the idea that the forms of a language can somehow be learned, prior to communication, despite the claims of several first and second language acquisition researchers (Scollon 1973; Keenan 1974; Ervin-Trip 1978; Hatch 1978; White 1988) that grammar develops out of conversation or other language use.

Clearly then, reading and writing constitute legitimate research foci in this study as the research participants predict topic and content, explain and support their own understanding of texts, compare texts with their own experiences, make predictions, draw inferences, describe the various text styles and structure their own texts.

One of the latest propositions in syllabus design is the task-based one, first mooted by Breen (1987). The research ideas on second language acquisition strategies of Widdowson (1978), Canale and Swain (1980) and Brumfit (1984) are explored in detail and adapted for the development of the task-based syllabus. The distinction between use and usage is at the centre of the philosophical orientation informing this particular design. Long and Crookes (1995) have worked extensively on this type of development because they see its potential in the manner in which it incorporates learner needs, methodology design, materials development, testing and programme evaluation.

3.4. Centrality of the learner in task-based syllabus design

Task-based syllabus design is rooted in the situations of the learners and, according to Breen (1987), allows for analysis of the knowledge and capabilities that learners need in order to carry out certain speech acts. It is a design that also is anchored in problem-solving approaches that generate participatory learner interaction. Most significant is the capacity of this syllabus design approach to sequence tasks based on addressing learner problems or challenges as they arise; and its obvious elasticity to allow the learners to manipulate, produce, interact and comprehend target language with a principal focus on meaning generation rather than the linguistic form *qua* form. Such flexibility allows for and accommodates different learners and different circumstances or acquisition rates. One of the ultimate intentions of such a syllabus is to move the learner from explicit to implicit knowledge of language, to move the learner from declarative knowledge (knowledge as a set of facts, or, in this case linguistic units), to procedural knowledge (knowledge of how to do things, in this case, how to manipulate language).

What emerges clearly from the task-based syllabus is a dual focus on communicative competence and in its execution, an explicit mobilization of the prior communicative competence that the learners bring into the situation. The language learning processes also emerge on the basis that appropriate content is explored in the classroom interactions because the approach focuses on sociolinguistic context and meaning. Skehan (1996:46) says that the success of the task-based syllabus rests on setting appropriate goals. It is necessary at this point to present Breen's analysis of the task-based syllabus according to the five questions on what each syllabus ought to address.

Table 3: The Task-Based Syllabus. Based on Breen (1987)

TASK BASED SYLLABUS	
1. What knowledge does it focus on?	Communicative knowledge as a unity of text, interpersonal behaviour, and ideation. The learner's experience and awareness of working upon a new language.
2. What capabilities does it focus on	Communicative abilities and learning capability. The ability to negotiate meaning: the ability to interpret meaning; the ability to express meaning.
3. On what basis does it select and subdivide what is to be learned?	Analysis of the actual tasks that a person may undertake when communicating through the target language. Learning tasks: selected on the basis of metacommunicative criteria. They provide the groundwork for the learner's engagement in communication tasks and deal with the learner difficulties which emerge during these tasks, addressing i) how the language systems work, ii) how the learning may best be done Subdivision is on the basis of task types (various ways).
4. How does it sequence what is to be learned?	Sequencing can be characterized as cyclic in relation to how learners move through tasks, and problem-based (or problem-generated) in relation to the on-going difficulties which learners themselves discover. There is a sequence of refinement, as tasks require more and more learner competence. Sequencing here depends upon (i) the identification of learning problems or difficulties as they arise; (ii) prioritizing of particular problems and the order in which they are dealt with; (iii) the identification of appropriate learning tasks which address the problem areas.
5. What is the rationale?	Broader view of what is to be achieved in language learning. The learner's initial competence can be engaged as the foundation upon which new knowledge and capabilities may be accommodated during the undertaking of tasks, matching the process that occurs when learners mobilize knowledge systems when undertaking actual tasks in the L1. Participation in communication tasks that require the learners to mobilize and orchestrate knowledge and abilities in a direct way will itself be a catalyst for language learning. A more sensitive methodology: represents the effort to relate content to how that content may be worked upon, and thereby, learning more efficiently. Means-focused and ends-focused. Assumes that learning is necessarily both metacommunicative and communicative. Based on the belief that learners can be analytical in their exploration of communication in the target language and of the knowledge and ability use it entails. Rests on the principle that metacommunicating is itself a powerful springboard for language learning.

Clearly, with the task as an organizing unit for the syllabus, it becomes important to discuss how such tasks might be categorized. Any organization of the tasks makes an implicit or even explicit statement about the language acquisition processes. For one to set a hierarchy of tasks from the simple to the most challenging is also to confirm, in a way, the principles of the synthetic syllabus design that "input has to be comprehensible and sufficiently challenging" to remain of interest to the learner. Continual refinement of task implies too that the initial programme of instruction

might have been beset by problems, hence the need to revisit the demands of the tasks.

Breen (1984) identifies possible and plausible “hypotheses for why learners don’t learn what teachers teach” by focusing on the internal capacities of the learners. In this submission on why learners have different intakes from the same input by the educator, Breen focuses on how encountered language might incubate before some learners can use it; some learners might follow a natural order in learning the target language; while the other learners might have a personal agenda; or for some, learning the language might rely on external exposure to language in comprehensible dosages.

The syllabus that is ultimately adopted for particular circumstances has to address two key areas: the authenticity of the tasks selected for the teaching-learning and the learnability of the identified materials. Long and Crookes (1999:61) argue that “ a social and problem solving orientation, with explicit provision for the expression of individual learning styles and preferences, is favoured over a view of teaching as the transmission of preselected knowledge.”

Authenticity does not rigidly call for an essentialising protocol towards nativity, considering the broadening horizons in reading and writing materials and sources currently available. Authenticity is problematised and regarded as materials that the learners at this secondary school stage can relate to, extending from their previous experiences in the mother tongue to the anticipated academic performances in the second language. Scholars such as Vermeulen (2001) and Roodt (2002) indicate that a learner’s cognitive ability is determined in the mother tongue, suggesting that for learners to acquire competency in a second language, these second language learners have to first master strategies for negotiating meaning in word and print in their first language. By extension, these strategies for meaning-negotiation in word and print could be extended by providing “authentic” materials since prior knowledge is important for understanding current learning. Such materials should encourage learners to build up their self-confidence by not expecting too much or too little. The more authentic the language texts and contexts, the more they will provide understandable input and progressively challenging key vocabulary items.

Learning processes based on authentic texts would range from identification with the context of the language unit, allowing for, enabling repetition, and paraphrasing meaning for the augmentation of second language English. The viewpoint offered by Laufer (2000:20) on the importance of the use of authentic materials is therefore quite pertinent in this regard: "no text comprehension is possible, either in one's native language or in a foreign language, without understanding the text's vocabulary."

Learnability is a complex attribute, complexly interwoven with the strengths and challenges that learners, in their differences, bring into the classroom. Learnability assumes, most importantly, the learner's ability to recognise, interpret and attribute meaning to information. This attribute is inescapably influenced by the learners' previous knowledge.

This research submits that any subsequent syllabus preset or not, is constantly subject to negotiation and reinterpretation by educators and learners, particularly because of the nature of individual differences and the challenges that each task presents to the classroom. The educator invariably uses experiences and the uniqueness of learning to adapt and deliver the syllabus with all the realization that each local situation has its distinctive challenges. Candlin (1984:81) might be a little over stating the point in his assertion that "what a syllabus consists of [can only] be discerned after a course is over...by observing what took place" yet the fact remains that indeed learning outcomes may be different to the intentions of a syllabus designer in a top-down model. This is why the task-based language teaching (TBLT) model is often preferred over the process syllabus or other models such as Prabhu's procedural model.

There has been a wealth of research on task-types as reflected in Nunan (1993) and Skehan (1998). I highlight here the major research strands and findings that seek to democratize the classroom and view classroom lessons as pedagogical, transformative and social events, and therefore as "experiences of growth" (Prabhu,1992).

Brown and Yule (1983) found that the length of the speaking turn is a factor in the difficulty of the speaking tasks. The implication for the classroom is that the shorter the speaking turn, the easier it is for the learner to understand. This, in the later research on discourse analysis by Coulthard and Brazil (1987) might also imply that

the classroom is teacher-dominated instead of it affording the learner more time to practice talking in the target language thus highlighting the centrality of the learner. The research by Yule and Shilcock (1984) also distinguishes between static, dynamic and abstract tasks suggesting that the more the task invites abstraction, the more challenging it becomes for the learner to accomplish, in which case the learner applies several strategies in order to achieve the intended goals. This has implications for the task syllabus: that one can only start with static tasks and move on to the dynamic, only moving to the abstract at later stages in the instructional period. Yule and Shilcock (*ibid*) also observe that the number of elements, participants, and relationships in a task makes it (the dynamic task) more difficult. This finding has immense implications for the fact that in everyday life, communicative instances can be daunting by the sheer reality of increased participants and the disparate language levels among the participants. A learner who has not succeeded in handling such a situation in the classroom might be silenced completely because of the overwhelming voices and views in a debate.

The fact of the matter is that each learning transaction recognizes the centrality of the learner as key participant in the pedagogic process and that each should attempt to empower the learner with a language that will facilitate competent use of the language. It is crucial to stress that a task-based syllabus is meaning-driven during instruction and at the same time draws attention to linguistic elements. Long (2000:187) aptly describes the interface:

Focus on form refers to how attentional resources are allocated and involves briefly drawing students' attention to linguistic elements (words, collocations, grammatical structures, pragmatic patterns...) in context, as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning, or communication. The temporary shifts in focal attention are triggered by students' problems with comprehension or production. The purpose is to induce what Schmidt (1993) calls noticing, that is, registering forms in the input to store them in memory without necessarily understanding their meaning or function.

A task, for the purposes of this study, can therefore be described in Breen's view as "any structural language learning behaviour which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task." "Task" therefore refers to a range of work-plans which have the overall purpose of facilitating language learning – from the simple and brief exercise type to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving or simulation and decision-making. The pedagogic tasks must be drawn up and adjusted to the learners' age and proficiency level. Based on interactionist theory of second language acquisition, the task-based methodological approach accepts and indeed defends providing feedback when communication problems arise (Ellis, 2005). Such intervention could take the form of providing feedback, recasting learners' erroneous utterances, error correction, and explicit grammar rules (Ellis, 2005; Auerbach, 1995). Fluency, accuracy and complexity, as markers of second language competence are legitimate focal areas in the task-based syllabus as they indicate also the cognitive demands that a task makes on the learners. These developmental competencies and capacities in the learners could be realized and actualized in the language classroom if the ideal tasks incorporate what is known about the nature of successful communication, are linked to real world language challenges and embody strategies that tap into what is known about second language acquisition.

Tarone and Brock (1986) call into question the foundation of the task-based syllabus: attention to form has a clear effect on accuracy of performance and that the use of referential questions prompts significantly longer and more systematically complex responses containing more connectives. This suggests the need for a blend between the outright communicative and synthetic syllabi if indeed form has an effect on accuracy of performance. This finding is also corroborated by Nunan (1987).

Prabhu's research results (1987) classify tasks into three categories: information-gap, reasoning-gap and opinion-gap tasks. Again, it would be logical to start with information gap tasks that tap into recall and basic deduction strategies and end with opinion gap tasks that will have to obviously rely on inferential, analytic and evaluative language strategies on the part of the learner. Between these extremes would be the reasoning gap tasks that blend application of knowledge together with

some degree of synthesizing information into coherent and cohesive linguistic statements.

Willing (1988) establishes that learners' activity preferences can vary markedly and these are determined by cognitive style and personality variables. For the classroom, this variation in personality would be evident in the verbally vocal learners and those that are reserved. Tasks therefore could mean that the reserved learner takes less risk in language use and manipulation. For such learners, the classification of learner tasks by Nation (2000) might be a useful alternative. His categories of tasks as "experience tasks" (i.e. those tasks that use the learner's previous experiences), "shared tasks" (i.e. getting learners to help each other bridge the learning gap), "guided tasks" (i.e. providing support while learners perform the task through focused guidance) and "independent tasks" (i.e. tasks in which the learners work alone without planned help) would be really helpful for the reserved learner. They could explore their experiences in the first language and gradually approximate to the shared tasks or more guidance could be provided to scaffold their learning curves and experiences. Interpretative tasks (Brown, 1991) theoretically generate more complexity and these could be deferred to a later stage in the instructional-learning period when the learners are linguistically "ready" to express themselves with both fluency and sophistication.

Although working in different research environments, Pica (1993) and Duff (1996) reach similar conclusions that tasks allowing disagreement lead to longer turns and more complex and varied language. For purposes of summative assessment for instance, learners who can handle argument with fluency and accuracy could be deemed more successful in a language-learning programme than those who continue to rely on and achieve on guided tasks. The criticism that has been leveled at the task-based syllabus has perennially revolved around the rationale for the sequencing of the linguistic items, suggesting that some tasks are better learnt first than others.

Foremost in task selection is the relevance of the task to the learner (Brindley, 1987). This entails the language demands that the task could elicit from the learner and the accuracy required in accomplishing the task. Tasks that elicit less language from the learner are naturally less revealing than those that allow the learner a more expressive range. Equally, a too cognitively demanding task could inhibit the learner through

frustration when the learner cannot fully articulate what they possibly could. This is what Candlin (1984) describes as communicative difficulty and linguistic complexity of the task. Brown (1991) suggests that a task might be selected for the precision required which ties in with the vocabulary to be used. This could stretch to include the grammatical complexity of the text that the learner is expected to interrogate or produce, hence the need to ensure that each task affords both linguistic complexity and variety. Relevance to the learner ought to be prioritized, so should the cultural familiarity of the text and discourse genre. The overriding factor here is the communicative goal, determined certainly by the type of response anticipated – oral or written (Pica, 1993; Berwick, 1993).

This communicative goal, and the manner in which it is assessed, is another area of contention in ESL research. Formal factors (accuracy and code complexity) and content complexity (communicative efficiency) should ideally, work together to achieve effective communication. Comprehensible output and the feedback offered on this production should complement each other to determine the learner's progress in the development and modification of their interlanguage. This is indeed what Robinson (1998:7) advises in suggesting that how language is learned and how this interlanguage is integrated in the learner's experiences constitute a process of negotiation.

Another reason for selecting specific tasks would be whether the task follows a general sequence of operations or this is unclear. There must be a sense of continuity between the tasks for purposes of sequencing, making sense of input and observing how language is organized and structured. This cognitive operation required of the learner must stress the importance of processing information, especially considering that the learner has to make hypotheses and inferences so that they can apply skills, transfer knowledge(s) and generalize in the target language. Nunan (2002) persuasively argues that the tasks selected ultimately refer to “undertakings in which learners comprehend, manipulate, produce and interact in the target language in contexts in which they focus on meaning.”

3.5. The epistemological basis of the task-based syllabus

Based on Breen (1987:162), the focus is on communicative knowledge as a unity of text, interpersonal behaviour, code and ideation. Reflecting on some of the assessment demands, this communicative knowledge manifests itself in text production that exhibits a number of appropriate markers for its overall cohesion and coherence. The

secondary school learner is expected to apply knowledge of the English language to interpret texts and express responses. These modeling and interpretive methods entail the development of cognitive capacities by the learners. Routine procedures are harnessed together with problem solving in order to enhance the reflection capacities that generate, in tandem, interpretive and analytical modes.

The use of English category in task-assessment takes accuracy into account, in particular the absence of serious errors. A list of serious errors in the usage category includes wrong verb forms, serious tense errors, and errors of sentence structure, especially in setting up subordination. Omission or obvious misuse of prepositions, wholesale misunderstanding over the meanings of words used, serious errors of agreement, the habitual comma replacing the necessary full stop and breakdown of sense constitute lack of accuracy and would be deemed serious errors (Permegianni, 2009). If the learner failed to complete pairs of commas in parenthetical phrases, or omitted the comma after introductory words like “however”, such slippages would only be deemed minor errors, as they do not impede the total conveyance of meaning in the generated text (CIE, 2009). This also applies to mis-spellings of a minor nature, unless the form of the word is severely mangled.

There is no conflict in the submission above with the tenets of the task-based syllabus since there is a clear statement on the communicative capabilities that the syllabus focuses on. The triad of abilities includes the ability to negotiate meaning, the ability to interpret meaning and ultimately the ability to express meaning mainly in written form in this study. The means through which meaning is negotiated, interpreted and expressed all obviously hinge upon accurate language, original, complex syntax, accurate and helpful punctuation and correct spelling.

3.6. Locating theoretical and philosophical orientations of the task-based syllabus

Foremost, the concept of a task in this syllabus engenders a dialogic process of interaction (Bakhtin, 1984) between the learners and the educator. In English language pedagogy, the task is designed through an established understanding of learner competencies, the gaps to be filled in order to reach the specified outcomes

that are, essentially the exit CALP competencies. With this understanding foregrounded, task(s) allow for numerous varieties of interaction between the learner and the language content, the learner and other learners, and more critically, between the learner and the educator. The classroom context and the interactional patterns that emerge from each task engender simultaneity and an ecological interconnectedness with the flux of developing CALP skills in the learners.

In the process of planning what to write (through brainstorming, mind mapping and flow charts), and the subsequent translation of these cognitive processes into written expressions, the task enables the learners to edit, re-shape, and add to their drafts. Written expression fosters the process of concretizing thoughts and mind maps and, as Morson (1987:23) argues, “expressing [ideas] becomes a form of learning.” The task breaks down the four major language skills, more specifically writing and reading, into “do-able” units. The learner, according to Sidorkin (1999:42), “challenges, and re-tells in one’s own words and stores in memory” what was set out for accomplishment in the command and phrasing of the task.

In assigning a task to the learner, the educator enables the learner to discuss, search, query and report the meanings of their procedural learning and mastery of language. This democratisation of learning is, simultaneously, an act of extension of BIC to CALP skills and empowerment of the learner engaged in the process of finding and creating meaning. This approach endorses the tenets of a dialogic process of education (Vygotsky, 1984; Freire, 1987; Bakhtin, 1981). The learners are moved beyond plain memorisation of language structures or vocabulary in isolation and they generated active exploration of language in dynamic usages (Gray, 2007; Hall, 1999).

Considering the multicompetencies (i.e. their knowledge of two languages in one mind, Cook, 2003) of the learners participating in this study, particularly their knowledge and skills of their L1, it is critical to tap into the submissions of a complex systems approach in a bid to understand the interplay of L1 and L2 as the learners appropriated skills in both (Weideman 2010; Cameroon and Larsen-Freeman, 2007). In real terms, the bilingualism of the research participants allowed for code-switching and other cognitive experiences including word retrieval speed and meta-linguistic processing protocols; they had an ability to transfer more than just linguistic

knowledge but also skills and conceptual knowledge from L1 to L2 and vice-versa in a recursive fashion. Weideman (2010:7) elaborates on the complexity of the language system, contending that there are “multiple interacting agents that adapt and change their use of the languages in such a way that it affects how language then develops and changes in future interactions.” He enlists the ideas of Beckner et al (2009:5 -14) to demonstrate that when one is learning a language, one builds up a “repertoire of resources for future use” i.e. a network of grammars is built up from the categorised instances of encountered language use. This complex systems approach facilitates our understanding of how bilinguals not only acquire but process language by resorting to “chunking” where “frequent word combinations become encoded” (Weideman 2010:7) and are transformed to the target language for convenient expression of ideas and concepts. Current perspectives on languages in contact, particularly in the bilingual experience, argue that language learning and language development constitute a process of “dynamic adaptation” rather than the static conceptualisation that characterized Chomskyan generative grammar (Larsen-Freeman and Cameron, 2008:157). The classroom experiences of the learners in this study readily demonstrate that the development of CALP skills, to whatever extent these were facilitated by the resources and the strategies of the educators, followed on the interplay of interactive elements including cognition, consciousness, experience, learner-educator-learner interaction, culture and history and that jointly, these factors had an impact. Following the footsteps of Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008:226), tasks and tests were “designed, planned and managed so as to push and stretch an individual learner’s language resources to the edge of their current potential.”

3.7. Considering that language pedagogy in the ISSA classroom consciously sought to take a number of calculated risks by trying innovative activities, retrospective evaluation of the curriculum was critical in the understanding of learner strategies.

3.7. Curriculum evaluation

It was clear from the nature of the research problem that this sponsored programme demanded an evaluation in terms of implementation strategies and the anticipated outcomes. Educational programmes, particularly those built on outcomes, require some form of evaluation in order to improve them and in the process ensuring that the desired outcomes are met. Both formative and summative evaluation protocols were reviewed in this study and procedures were considered according to how they related to this language and integration research.

Eisner (1979) maintains that there is a cyclic relationship between teaching and curriculum planning. The intentions of a language curriculum in this instance led to curriculum planning, which in turn provided the content and structure for teaching. As the teaching proceeded, as a course of action, new intentions emerged because of the inherent evaluative findings that the educator discerned in the process. Eisner holds that teaching matters when what is taught is worth the learner's time, hence his conclusive observation that the most significant functions of educational evaluation are:

1. to diagnose
2. to revise curricula
3. to compare
4. to anticipate educational needs and
5. to determine if objectives have been achieved

The three central features in this evaluation process are the syllabus itself, the teaching that occurs and the learner's educational experiences.

The medical metaphor of diagnosis and treatment has its inherent problems in that the learners, conceptualized as 'objects suffering' from some 'ailment' and therefore in need of treatment, does not have the close-fit reality in an educational setting as its discourse marginalises and excludes the learners' agency. 'Diagnosis' and 'intervention' and 'integration' in the framework of this study were admittedly quirky terms that did not, however, propose "the identification and management of disability" (Kriegler and Skuy, 1996; van Rooyen and Le Grange, 2002:2); they were problematised for their very currency and incidence in the 'needs analysis discourse.'

Their slippage to imply other concepts besides deficiency was therefore carefully managed.

One aim of evaluation in syllabus design is that in the TF study, the learners bring their different language and cultural backgrounds and certain competencies into the classroom. Their current levels of language and comprehension skills determine the aims toward which the teaching is directed. These backgrounds inform the need and attempt to create a research-based foundation for the development of, and informed choices about, a classroom curriculum for the TF learners that fosters relevant and effective teaching and successful learning. The ultimate goal is to create relevant instructional materials – a “dynamic, problem-solving [set] in accordance with the identified needs of the learners” (Scardamalia and Berreiter, 1994: 17). Tyler (1949) and Dewey (1976) argue conclusively on the need to build from students’ past and present experiences (recognition of prior learning) and to ensure that subject-matter content is valid to be generative and influential in the students’ development of future understanding. This notion on evaluation ties in with the observation made by Hugh Hawes (1994) that “evaluation is a process of making a judgment about the worth of something, based on the evidence collected to determine if certain objectives of the programme have been met.”

The anticipated nature of evaluation here is a cycle in quick succession as proposed by Burkhardt, Fraser and Ridgway (1990), Char (1990) and Clements and Sarama (1995). Such evaluation implies that tasks may be completely re-constituted, with edited or newly created ones tried in a short space of time. The implication here is that the evolving curriculum and the instructional materials require extensive documentation. Such extensive documentation will have to be used to evaluate and reflect on those components of the design that could have been based on intuition, aesthetics and subconscious beliefs but are, in reality, checked by the progress of the learners in grappling with specific concepts. Clements (1996:14) submits that classroom-based teaching experiments are used to track and evaluate student learning, with the goal of making sense of curricular activities as they are experienced by individual learners. His emphasis is on the “process of curricular enactment” (1996:14) when the class is observed for information concerning the “usability and effectiveness of the curriculum, as well as for its character.” This extends to how the

materials are used, how the educator guides students through language activities, what characteristics emerge in various instantiations of the classroom (class dynamics) and how these processes are connected to intended and unintended learner outcomes.

Critical variables in this study obviously revolved around the context. In this study, as has already been mentioned, the setting of ISSA – an affluent boarding school surrounded by very poor villages - was critical as it was a marked departure from the previous impoverished environment of the learners. Secondly, the hours of exposure to language learning were deliberately more than would have been normal in any other classroom setting in South Africa. Class size, in this case not more than twenty-five learners per class, was another factor that was considered in the process of evaluation. Teacher profile and characteristics (educational, professional qualifications and experience) were considered, in as much as implementation variables relating to principal leadership, fidelity of implementation as well as the support and availability of language learning resources, peer relations at the school and “convergent perspectives” of the school administrators and fund providers were concerned (Eisner, 1979; Lawton, 1989; Berends, 2001; Elmore, 1996).

3.7.1. Some challenges and observations

This study established that although there are eleven official languages, Afrikaans and English continued to be the predominant languages in the public and legislative spheres. The inverse of this point was found in the rural and poor schools from which the learners were selected: there are declarative statements that English is the LoLT but quite often the greater part of the teaching took place in the learner's, or more specifically, the teacher's L1. There was anecdotal evidence that much of the teaching, in the primary school in particular, remained largely rote learning. In a focus group interview, one of the research participants summed this reality succinctly: *“At my former school we studied in English but not that much. My teachers were only concerned about Setswana. They translated many things into Setswana. Even if my textbooks were in English, they never gave many details in English. When tests came in English, at times I have no words and wrote in Setswana.”* This is in spite of the exhortations and submissions from research that rote learning smacks of mimicry rather than being an empowering strategy.

Another challenge came from the classroom practitioners, the educators themselves, who insisted on grammatical accuracy. This insistence was voiced in the schools that the research participants came from and was quite evident in the rigorous marking schemes that were used in both the state school educational system and the Cambridge International Examinations. The irony of it all lies in the fact that to all practical intents and purposes, the language used as medium of instruction in the schools was delivered often in inaccurate modes yet when the assessment and feedback were provided accuracy became a prerequisite.

3.8. Conclusion

The Prabhu model (1984) pays attention to grammar only incidentally. Communicative meaning is made the primary goal and objective in this model. The constraints posed by this model became obvious, especially in the present research process where external assessment procedures were identified as rigorous.

Breen's model appears too open-ended. In Breen's model, as already discussed above, the syllabus and the teaching learning evolve in the ecology of the school, and nothing seems concrete and determinate. For the research participants in this study, where passing the exit examination was critical (and the learners therefore needed to master the skills and craft of writing and responding to specifically formulated comprehension texts), it was envisaged that an unwieldy and broad-based experimental approach such as the one suggested in the Breen model would be a pedagogically costly undertaking.

The Long and Crookes model allows for inclusion of some pre-selected syllabus items and still remains open to accommodate and include the suggestions made by the learners. Pre-selection was determined by what the researcher perceived should have been taught and learnt and mastered by the time the research participants entered the research site. This was verified through the questionnaire. This model was pedagogically sound and practicable as it gave significant attention to difficulty experienced by the learners and therefore allowed for refinement of tasks and outcomes in the process of design. Practicability and efficiency were, therefore, key considerations in adopting and adapting this model.

4.1. Introduction

I engage here with issues of a longitudinal case study whose ecology was the International School of South Africa. I sketch the systematic conceptualisation of the study and locate it within the broad areas of second language acquisition, academic research, CALP skills strategies and syllabus design. This methodology chapter therefore seeks to bring out the interplay of the records, facts and concepts with the relevant theories in order to sketch and map out the learner and educator strategies that were developed to answer the research questions.

4.2. The qualitative and quantitative paradigms

The current research is largely qualitative, and to a lesser extent, quantitative and it operates from a set of interpretive practices sensitive to the value of the mixedmethod approach. Choosing the qualitative research methodology was informed by the understanding that this case study was concerned with “understanding the process and the social and cultural contexts which underlie various behavioural patterns and its concerns with exploring the why and how questions” (Maree, 2007:52). The case of the TF learners at the International School intrinsically entailed emphasis on processes and meanings of integration and developing CALP competencies in the handling of language for the development of multi-faceted literacies. As a sponsored programme, this project also required an evaluation framework in order to assess its outcomes. The close relationship between the researcher and the learners and the constraints shaping this enquiry implied that a qualitative methodology allowed for its descriptive tenor. The thick descriptions of the interviews and the written texts (Denzin and Lincoln, 1995; Vithal, 2000) highlight, in the process, how CALP skills and other language processing competencies and strategies developed in the learners over the three-year period of this research. The descriptions highlight the complexity of choices made and the perceived appropriation of CALP skills by the learners. These descriptions also allow for critique by researchers and other educators and should lead to some modification of the models proposed here. From the descriptions, it was hoped that the theoretical framework of this research could be further gleaned and interrogated. Given that this study explored a model – theory – practice link, what unfolded in the

development of the syllabus should highlight and enrich the critique of values and knowledge ideas embedded in the final version of the syllabus offered here.

The quantitative paradigm, with its emphasis on empirical data, cause and effect, and replicability of study was deemed integral in evaluating the marks obtained in assessment tasks (see Table 6 and Table 7), the graphic representation of the participants' language background (Figures 4, 5 and 6) and the subsequent calculation of the hypotaxis index (see Tables 4, 5 and 6). This research therefore deliberately operated on the mixed-method premise that there is complementarity in the research paradigms, rather than seeing the two as dichotomous approaches (Mackey and Gass, 2005: 164).

4.3. Insights into a case study

As a case study, this research has selected twenty learners to understand them in depth at the various sites of this study (their previous primary schools, homes and the present secondary school, ISSA). They were specifically understood as one group of learners from previously disadvantaged schools, following one programme that was broadly their English language secondary school education at ISSA, and the strategies adopted and appropriated in the process of CALP skills development. McMillan and Schumacher (2001:398) observe that research in case studies seeks to investigate in-depth distinct groups where there is a natural socio-cultural background and face-to-face interaction encompassing the group.

Case study is particularly useful in educational settings, such as this study, in order to understand specific issues and problems of practice (Merriam, 1998:21). Cronbach (1998:10) submits that case study differs from other research designs in that it calls for "interpretation in context", concentrates on a single entity and attempts to "uncover the interaction of significant factors characteristic of the entity." Stake (2000: 445) endorses and extends this observation on case study when he underscores the fact that during a qualitative case study, the researcher spends "extended time, on site, personally in contact with activities and operations of the case, reflecting, revising meanings of what is going on." This Telkom-sponsored group has had similar educational experiences of Curriculum 2005 in the form of the RNCS. They were, for three years, sponsored to pursue an IGCSE curriculum, and therefore went through

similar experiences. Hence, in seeking engagement with the research participants as an entity, the purpose of the study was to understand and reflect on their strategies and processes of CALP skills acquisition at the secondary school stage, investigating in the process the possibilities and efficacy of a task-based syllabus to facilitate the acquisition of these skills.

Gillham (2000) and McMillan and Schumacher (2001) concur that a case, as a unit of human activity embedded in the real world, merges in with its context, and in seeking to establish a range of different kinds of evidence, the case contributes to theory and practice. It becomes appropriate for discovery as it elaborates concepts, develops a model (in this case a syllabus) with its subcomponents and propositions for implementation and re-enactment in other classrooms in South Africa and elsewhere. What emerged from this Telkom case study was “grounded theory” (Creswell, 2001) as any abstraction, theory-driven method and context-based approach applied to the pedagogical process emerged from crucial, sensitive observations and the interactive nature of this enquiry.

As a study largely within the multi-method paradigm, this case provided detailed description and analysis of the profiles and the strategies and processes learners and educators employ to enhance CALP skills. The learners’ language samples were drawn from their compositions, language productive exercises and through educator-learner interactions. Patterns of learners’ views of their learning processes and the acquisition strategies that were obtained through interviews and informal discussions were described. In documenting the processes, strategies and emerging competencies, the study increased the participants’ own understanding of the pedagogical practices and, hopefully, improved the practice, especially in the form of the framework for the syllabus design. Should the research process generate interest in other scholars with a similar focus, in different contexts, then collectively this study would build educational knowledge about CALP skills acquisition strategies in secondary school learners that is of relevance to ESL classrooms and practice.

While case studies do allow for generalisations about an instance, the power of this approach is its attention to the Telkom learners, the subtlety and complexity of this specific case in its own right (Cohen and Manion, 1994). Adopting a case study

approach also blended with the flexibility of utilising the qualitative methods of interviewing, observations, observer-participation, document analysis as well as description, interpretation, and the analysis of the emerging data.

This segment of the study submits that in examining the Telkom beneficiaries' developing competencies and their appropriation of the linguistic power of English, both quantitative and qualitative paradigms were integrated in order to fully understand the participants. As Creswell (2008:261) submits:

Although quantitative and qualitative research differ in how they gain knowledge and the research questions they address, they can both be applied to study the same research problem...By using a quantitative approach we look for relationships between the variables, while by using the qualitative approach we seek in-depth understanding of individuals' experiences.

This ultimately provides a more elaborate approach to the research problem outlined since the findings and data are more fully integrated.

It is important to stress from the outset that as an educator at the International School of South Africa, I was both mainstream teacher of 14 of the Telkom Foundation learners and a researcher for this study. The other six learners, based on continuous assessment results, were allocated a different teacher who, together with this researcher, also took the responsibility of providing extra lessons in the afternoons every day of the week. I considered that my role as observer-participant was valid and important to the outcomes of this research: I was able to nurture a sense of trust and rapport among the learners and their families and the process of sharing information pertaining to progress and anxieties was uninhibited. I was convinced that as a participant observer, I was also privileged to see learners' interactions, complexities and dynamic processes from a holistic perspective.

4.4. Description of the population and sample

The population for this study was second year entrants at the school. The purposive sample was the twenty English language learners enrolled at the International School

of South Africa, Mafikeng, in the North-West Province. Established in 1990, the school enrolls students from many countries, including among others, Botswana, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania, Malawi, Lesotho, Nigeria, the United Kingdom and Zimbabwe. It offers an international education and prepares learners for the Cambridge International Examinations (CIE) at both general certificate and advanced levels. During the time of this study, the total number of learners enrolled at ISSA fluctuated between 410 and 440.

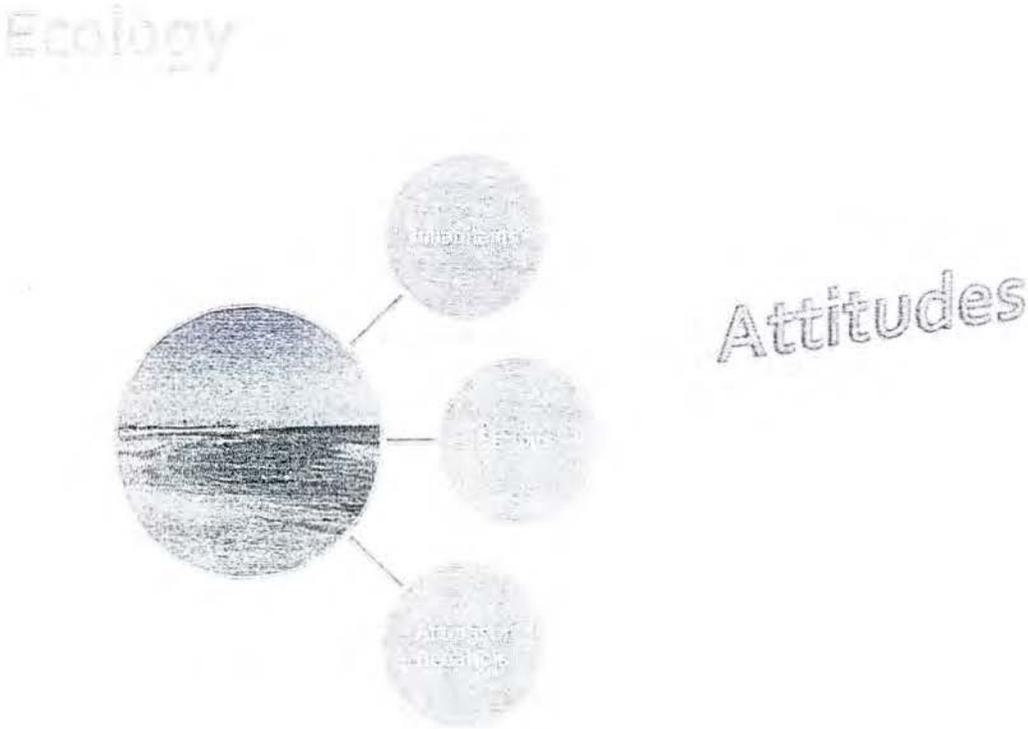
Purposive sampling was used in identifying the participants of this study who were only the twenty learners who were sponsored by TF, as this ensured their total participation in the research programme. Purposive sampling in this case also facilitated focused data collection from information-rich cases in the English language learners and allowed for feedback to the stakeholders: the school administration, parents, sponsors as well as the educators in the Department of English.

The learners in the current study saw the opportunity offered by Telkom as the chance of a lifetime as revealed by preliminary interviews with the learners, the learners' parents and guardians. They saw the school, ISSA, as a privileged institution, especially in terms of its material resources and the diversity of its cultural capital. They regarded their educators as qualified, inspiring and bent on facilitating the best for them. Many regarded their former schools as comparatively under-resourced. These observations are important in investigating, ultimately, what sort of learning happens in the classrooms, aiming to facilitate acquisition of cognitive academic language skills and fostering reasoning in multiple discourses. The fact that the participants were multilingual provides fertile ground for investigating the development of CALP skills.

The learners' transition from disadvantaged schools to a multi-ethnic, well-resourced one presented the initial challenge of their labeling as "Telkom" beneficiaries, and so did their representation in the entry tests as former "best students" and their current recognition as "struggling" learners. They also had to contend with working towards reaching the academic literacy levels of first language learners and their "first language proficiency and literacy" was, in the new school, generally subsumed as secondary and not "prestigious." These identities, shaped by the new school, tended to

disempower the learners, relegating to the periphery the knowledges that they brought into the new setting. It was critical to re-examine this re-shaping of identity, particularly by regarding the languages that the learners brought with them as enriching resources in their long walk towards English language mastery at the secondary school stage. In Figure 3, I attempt to show in diagram form the challenges that assailed the learners in this study:

Figure 3: Institutional ecology: The research site



The purposive sample was enrolled at the school and therefore fit in the category of inhabitants. In the same circle were the 443 learners already enrolled in the school, a mix of English First language speakers, English as a Second language (ESL) and English as a Foreign language (EFL) including other South African learners who spoke a range of the eleven official languages. The Telkom Foundation learners brought in individual language behaviours (particularly code-mixing and code-switching) that were recognised by language educators as important, and equally those “inhabitants” who were already in the school perceived them as new, different and aspiring to access the same CALP skills as themselves. This “ecology” of the

school was a diverse and interesting site for observation and research into the crucial determination of what it means to be inside or outside or on the margins even of a defined ecological system. This dramatisation of identity made it the more important for the educators to deliberately create extra space and time for the learners' integration and accelerated acquisition of CALP skills in the three additional hours per week of extra lessons devoted to Mathematics and English. In total therefore, the learners had seven hours of mathematics and language instruction in every week. The deliberate move to accelerate integration was, ironically, a further opportunity for the other learners to negatively tag the Telkom Foundation learners and, in the process, alienate them as they ascribed to the participants the label of those who "had to catch up."

This study did not look at the learners as deficient, or as a problem. The deficit approach to the learners was considered inappropriate; lacking in sincerity and one that would likely perpetuate difference between the research participants and the rest of the learners who came from different backgrounds. Rather, it was premised on the understanding that the twenty learners were bilinguals or multilinguals with adequate BIC skills in their mother tongue. This ability afforded ground for enquiry into grammar and lexical range in both mother tongue and English as an additional language. The learners also offered the school challenges on the syllabus to adopt and implement. The learners were described in their previous schools as competent bilinguals but upon entry into ISSA, the majority demonstrated inadequacies that had to be addressed and overcome through robust learner and educator strategies in this particular context.

Learners' reading and writing skills in an additional or second language have traditionally been assessed through a nationally and culturally specific screen. This screen, particularly the written format of the Cambridge exit examination, has a defined implicit English and imperial standard. Contrastive rhetoric analysis would immediately consign these learners' writing to an inferior grade and identity, especially if measured against first language speakers of the language. In "Displacing the native speaker," Rampton (1990:99) argues that language ownership implies an uneasy tension between "loyalty" to, and "expertise" in the language. In this research site and the exit examination, the ability to exercise command over the morphological,

lexical, and syntactic features of English (structural ownership) was indispensable: mutual intelligibility among the writers and readers had to be sustained. It was imperative to interpret TF learners' writing and reading in light of multiple factors rather than a distinctly South African cultural and linguistic difference and deficiency that were assumed in advance.

The first task was to get the learners to describe their experiences in the transition from under-resourced and disadvantaged government schools to a well-resourced school, ISSA. The second step was to get the entire group to write in an open-ended way about their experiences at ISSA at the end of the second term in 2007, a process that they repeated at the end of each complete year at the school, that is 2008 and 2009. This provided a holistic examination and reflection of their integration into the school and attitudes about themselves as English L2 learners.

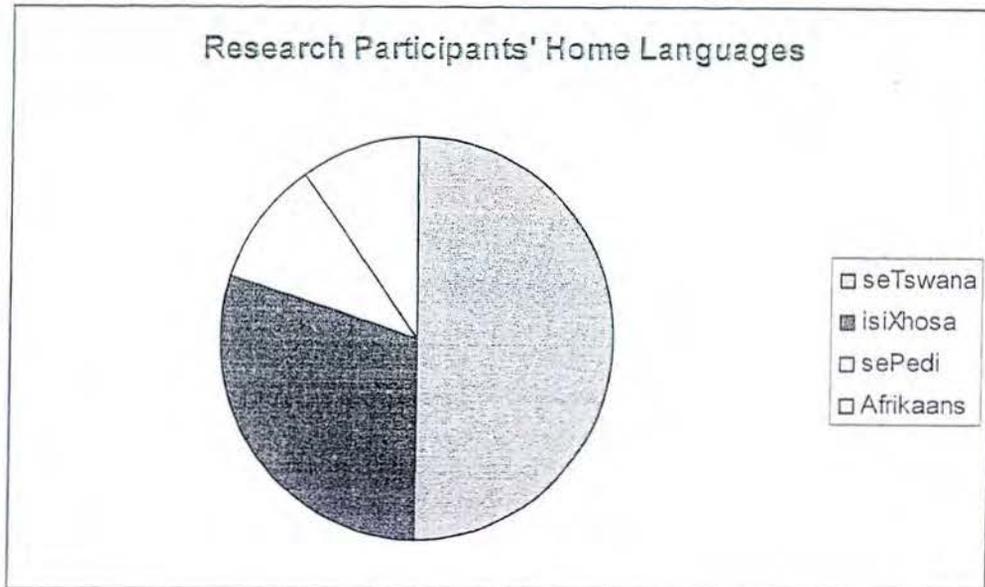
The learners in this study were participating in two inter-related programmes: the sponsorship by the Telkom Foundation was part of social corporate responsibility while their participation in this multi-faceted skills project was by virtue of their being learners in transition from one curriculum orientation, OBE, to another one, CIE.

4.4.1. Demographic patterns of the research participants

As indicated in Chapter 1, the participants in this study came from poor schools and were selected to continue with their secondary school education at the ISSA in 2007. All the primary schools that the participants came from were government or community owned. Fees paid ranged from R300-500 per year, in contrast to the R29 000 per term that they paid in boarding school at ISSA. Class size in previous schools ranged from 44-55, in contrast to the maximum class size of 25 at the International School. These learners were all previously in day schools, a factor which dramatically changed when they enrolled as boarders at ISSA. The ISSA school ecology markedly differed in terms of LoLT, where, except for Setswana, French and Afrikaans as subject options, English was the common language of interaction, extending to communication in the boarding houses and general socialisation. Though this facet of frequency of use of English in communication was not systematically measured, observations confirmed that the research participants used more expressive, though often informal, English language in day-to-day interaction with other peers. They spoke different home languages or first languages that are all recognised as official

languages in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Appendix x: p 282). The home languages that they spoke are represented in the pie chart:

Figure 4: Chart showing the research participants' home languages
[N =20]



Ten participants spoke Setswana, six spoke isiXhosa, two spoke Afrikaans and another two spoke Sepedi. The learners also indicated they spoke other languages besides their home languages: ten spoke English (with one adding 'but not accurately'). In addition to the above observations, six of the participants indicated that in primary school they took English as a first additional language while eight took it as a second additional language. For some of the learners, home language was largely oral since they could only write in it for the most basic purposes. Interestingly too, some of the participants' ability to read and write in their home languages was also quite developed. In the periodic term assessments (Appendix vi, vii, and ix), the participants scored invariably higher in Setswana. Four of them, who displayed the least developed CALP skills in English, were ironically top performers in twelve Setswana L1 internal assessment sessions over the three-year data-gathering period. A plausible inference from this observation is that English and Setswana are morphologically and syntactically different to the extent that performance in one of the languages has apparently not much bearing on the learner's performance in the

other. Another inference, derived from an analysis of the Setswana test paper, was that the tasks were based on more on the structures of the language concerned and less on concepts. This morphological and syntactical distance and difference might also account for the difficulties that the learners in this study experienced in creating meaningful constructions in English. Additionally, the curriculum that they pursued at ISSA did not privilege their abilities to express themselves, argue or present any written opinion in the first language. Consequently, there was no motivational component to drive them to develop cognitively demanding competencies in the first language, although it must be stated that through observation, it was established that learners who were good at their L1 were often good at their L2 too.

Given the historical roles that English and Afrikaans have played in South Africa as mechanisms for ascribing essentialised identities and subject positions within an inequitable socio-political order, the research participants realized the need to invest in appropriating English (Peirce, 1995). An additional issue that complicated these findings related to what CALP skills essentially entailed. Apparently, learning to speak and write in a language does not necessarily bestow CALP skills on the speaker-writer. As implied in the nomenclature, these are skills acquired in a procedural fashion, and through conscientious processes of logical reason and the incremental abilities to create and unpack texts for their underlying meaning through the application of synthesis and evaluation modes (Norton and Toohey, 2005). As the research participants were progressing along their course of study, it became clear that whereas linguistic proficiency had generally improved (i.e. articulation, comprehension skills and writing strategies to which they had been exposed), it could not be concluded empirically that their CALP skills had therefore been fully developed. This arises from the observation that the same learners, outside the language classroom, still had trouble in unpacking discipline specific concepts in other subjects. This challenge that the learners faced points to one of the questions that this study had to contend with: observation and systematic curricular delivery and evaluation were restricted to English language only without extending this to other subjects across the curriculum. Obviously, such an ambition would have made this study unwieldy.

The willingness of the learners to participate in this research was quite often couched in their sense of willingness to collaborate with the researcher to infuse and inscribe their experiences into this study. This was, therefore, an educational co-operative endeavour. The larger purpose of the research was contributing to a syllabus design that could be used in both the school and elsewhere. The findings inform theoretical perspectives, considering the fact that the descriptions here emerge from classroom practice.

The idea of being pioneers in both the sponsorship and the research had positive ramifications for teaching and learning at the local level in South Africa and this could possibly have spurred these learners' active participation. Of course, doing my research with these learners also raised the question of whether or not I was exploiting the situation of these learners. I have incessantly wondered whether the learners in this study did indeed have an option in participating in this research project. It was imperative to question whether the learners were "democratically coerced" to participate simply because they were my students and might have been unsure about the consequences of non-participation.

An immediate pedagogic need was designing a syllabus for the participants. Decisions had to be made about syllabi already existing in the school, the semantico-grammatical option or the notional syllabus (Wilkins, 1976:1). There had to be a basis for selection of the language to which the learner would be exposed (Krashen's 1985 argument was that learners accept intake in the manner of comprehensible input, *I+i*) and what the school would expect the learner to acquire by the end of the instructional period. Structuring a language course obviously must reflect the objectives and tasks of the language learning and teaching (implying a specific syllabus model). Initially, the Department of English at ISSA was unanimous that the preliminary syllabus would be on a continuum between the synthetic, the analytic and the task-based teaching models (Department of English ISSA Academic Meeting, March 3, 2007; Long and Crookes, 1995).

Wilkins (1976:2) holds that a synthetic language teaching strategy is one in which the different parts of language are taught separately and step-by-step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of the parts until the whole structure of the

language has been built up. The analytic approaches are behavioural, organised in terms of the purposes for which learners are learning the language and the varieties of language performance that are necessary to meet those purposes. Each paradigm and approach has its strengths and weaknesses, hence the decision to initially work on a syllabus outline that straddled the syllabus-model continuum. It was envisaged that there would be units to assess reading and writing separately.

Broadly, the aims of this intended syllabus would mainly be to develop CALP skills in order to produce successful readers and writers. The TF learners were expected to be competent, clear and accurate in their own reading and writing. In this way, they were expected to understand and respond appropriately to what they read. In the writing exercises and tests, the learners were expected to use and appreciate a variety of language styles in both writing and speech. If the learners reached these levels, they would also be expected to be creatively inventive in the written texts that they would produce and consequently develop a multi-faceted literacy in reading and viewing analytically and critically, writing well and with appropriate use of grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation.

4.4.2. Description of the instruments: design, trial-out and validation

The mixed method approach in this research yielded multilayered data. The following segments highlight the procedures taken, often indicating the overlap of qualitative and quantitative methods and the richness gained through these approaches.

This study relied on a number of data-gathering techniques and instruments. Pre-eminent were the following: a diagnostic test, semi-structured interviews with the research participants' parents, informal interviews with the research participants, participant observations, end-of term parent-teacher consultations including termly progress reports, written test assessments, structured questionnaires administered to the research participants, essays, reading comprehension tests, educator's feedback, comparative document analysis in the form of the two different syllabuses.

4.4.2.1. The diagnostic and placement tests

At the inception of the sponsorship programme, the TF approached the International School of South Africa to set proficiency tests in English and Mathematics. These proficiency tests were administered at schools that were largely impoverished and used to select the learners that would enroll at ISSA. The results were therefore used as administration and placement data.

Upon admission, the learners were asked to sit diagnostic tests in English and Mathematics in order to establish the individual problems they had. These standardised diagnostic tests were helpful in assessing reading age levels, spelling age, written language skills and numeracy capabilities, specifically in addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. Intervention could only be feasible with a set of results that described the competencies of the learners that the school was enrolling. The diagnostic test results are presented fully in Chapter 5.

4.4.2.2. The questionnaire administered to the research participants

The questionnaire elicited biographical details of the participants and what language skills they thought they needed in order to succeed at their grade level. This questionnaire had twelve segments: the first five sought information about background and the participants' language learning experiences at primary school, the sixth question asked the participants to reflect on their performances in the diagnostic and placement test while question 7 to 12 elicited information about the participants' perceived challenges in English. Essentially these questions were set as a litmus test to gauge what the participants thought were critical areas for inclusion in a task-based syllabus. The questions were explained to the research participants so that they could fully grasp what they sought from them. Whereas questionnaire-design theory suggests that questions should be "accessible" to the respondents, in this study, some of the concepts had to be explained in order to clarify matters. The participants' language practices at home certainly play a role in shaping linguistic repertoires and attitudes towards additional language, and the linguistic heterogeneity that was unearthed through the questionnaire had significant ramifications on the study.

4.4.2.3. Document analysis

Official documents such as Curriculum 2005, the Revised National Curriculum Statement 2007, the Cambridge International Examinations syllabus and the constitution of the Republic of South Africa were analysed in order to unpack their stipulations concerning constitutional language provision and the standards at which learners were expected to perform. This analysis of standards specifications provided insight into the competencies that the participants had to attain, considering their limited exposure to English in their homes and previous schools. This document analysis was also intended to inform, in practical ways, the shape and orientation of the envisaged syllabus developed at ISSA in order to guide and facilitate teaching and learning.

4.4.2.4. Semi-structured interviews with research participants

The semi-structured interviews followed a series of pre-established questions with a limited set of response categories. In this category, a few open-ended questions allowed for variations in response and these were intended to corroborate the linguistic skills and needs of the research participants. Mesthrie (2002) argues that in South Africa, it is common to have parents who have different mother tongues and common to have speakers with very limited command of their mother tongue(s). Such complex multilingual realities impacted on the research agenda of this study since it became clear that the participants' hybrid codes (Canagarajah, 1999) were likely to be their resource as opposed to an unadulterated use of the mother tongue (MT) or a monolithic, purist English. Responses to the structured interviews were converted into quantitative categories to glean emerging patterns and themes that were used to present insights into the research questions that the structured interviews sought to answer (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Creswell, 2008).

4.4.2.5. Unstructured and informal interviews with the research participants

Unstructured and informal interviews were part of this research as they allow for breadth and depth. Whereas semi-structured interviews allowed most of the data to be coded and categorized, the unstructured interviews were expected to yield more

comprehensive, complex understandings of the learners without imposing *a priori* categories for the data. Unstructured interviews were driven more by a desire to understand the respondents rather than explain them, making the respondent an agent rather than an object of the research process (Adler and Adler, cited in Denzin and Lincoln, 1994).

The interviews and focus-group discussions with the learners allowed for “creative interviewing” that accommodated the changing situations of the learners. In the words of Marshall and Rossman (1995:80), the interviews in this study were “conversation with a purpose”, an interchange between people about themes of common interest, that is, the acquisition of cognitive academic language proficiency skills at secondary school level. Such interviews reduced the rather coercive exercise of presenting questions to be answered in a particular format.

From my role as participant observer, I re-worked my interview questions, adding some and deleting others. This was, in essence, an attempt to adhere to the exhortation by Glesne and Peshkin (1992: 39) that questions generated *in situ* can be better interpreted than prefabricated ones that are generated in the anticipation of “the imagined respondent.” Questions in this instance emerge from the conversation and enhance what is said. Often, the respondents chose to elaborate on one issue or question than another, depending entirely on the unique challenges that the learner encountered in the institutional and pedagogic transition, and the evolution and mastery of CALP skills. Instead of fixed interview questions and schedules, the more accommodating semi-structured format was adopted and used throughout this study.

4.4.2.6. Focus-group interviews with research participants’ parents

Focus-group interviews were used in the pilot study mainly to find out from the parents and guardians of the learners their biographical details and attitudes and expectations from the TF sponsorship programme. Later in the course of the research process, both formal and informal settings were used for the focus-group interviews, especially during parent-teacher consultative meetings and on the occasions when the learners were collected from or dropped off at their respective destinations at the beginning and end of each term. As interviewer, the researcher strove to be flexible,

objective, empathic, and persuasive but also be a good listener (Seidman, 2005). Responses from these interviews were expected to be broad and representative of all the respondents, allowing also for coverage of the research topic as comprehensively as possible. “Group think” was an obvious flaw to guard against in this type of data collection procedure, so too was the problem of some respondents being more vocal than the others and therefore “the problem of under-representing the entire group through this domination was real” (Tarone and Yule, 1989).

4.4.2.7. Researcher immersion and observation

The researcher in this study played two seminal roles: the completely immersed member researcher and the participant researcher. As teacher of the TF learners, there was no distance to separate the growth, integration and maturation of the learners from the materials that the Department of English at ISSA were designing for them as a group. Their progress in the curriculum and with the syllabus that was being designed and implemented demanded that I be both observer and monitoring facilitator. Glasser and Strauss (1967) maintain that “observational data gathering continues until researchers achieve theoretical saturation.” Depending on the style of analysis of the observational data, this could facilitate formal theory building on a cognitive academic language *pedagogy* of disadvantaged learners, particularly the design and implementation of a needs-based analytic syllabus.

Denzin (1989), Schatzman and Strauss (1973) and Webb (1966) agree that the greatest criticism against observational research lies in the area of validity: observers rely exclusively on their own perceptions and therefore are more susceptible to bias and subjective interpretation. Whereas this criticism remains valid, there is room to overcome this shortcoming through multiple observers who can then cross-check and give credibility to the observations. Also, in the case of the TF learners, the administration, the sponsors and the Department of English members were also “observers” and “monitors” as the funded project relied on progress reporting. Data collection for this study officially began in June 2007 with the collection of documentation about C2005, OBE, the assessments of the learners from their previous disadvantaged schools and the learners’ entrance test results at ISSA. Combining professional responsibilities with my dissertation research proved quite cumbersome and often “messy.” Traditional notions of ‘sanitized’ data collecting techniques,

separation of personal and professional, learner versus participant, field versus school/home, researcher and researched collapsed, creating permeable boundaries and very blurred distinctions. These problems of classification are described and discussed in the research in qualitative terms as they defy quantifying. Over the three-year period of data gathering, 2007-2009, there was an observed set of strategies that the learners and educators used in order to read efficiently and acquire discussion, pragmatic and writing skills. These are described in detail in the following segment.

Answering set questions, describing and analysing aspects of comprehension passages, comparing and contrasting ideas in discursive topics, asking for and giving opinions on set tasks and general reflective practice emerged as some of the major skills that both the learners and educators appropriated and developed. In a bid to amplify on the development of these skills, the researcher observed these participants as they spoke and wrote on specific tasks during the three-year period. What transpired was recorded as notes and lesson plan documents. Synchronized descriptive topography. For a descriptive topography, the thirteen weeks of the second term of each year of data collection was chosen to typically represent the major delivery, receptive, interrogative and productive strategies developed over each academic year. Written work from the learners is presented in original form, without corrective feedback from the educator in order to show the authentic texts that the learners created, and the composing and expressive strategies that they demonstrated (Appendix I and ii).

4.4.2.8. Written assessments

Learners' written work was a major source of data. This written work revealed the struggles that the learners go through in order to express themselves, to name their reactions to given creative and other language stimuli and the errors that they made in the process. As the written work was being marked and rated, it was crucial to identify the error correction and feedback practices of the educators. The identification of error was obviously a partial indication of the linguistic orientation of the marker as structural or communicative, product or process oriented.

Errors identified were also going to be used to estimate the trajectory of the learning experiences and curves of the learners. It should be possible to categorize the errors as

developmental or reflective of fossilization. The emerging categories of error were tabulated and described, and these are presented in Chapter 5.1.3(ii) and (iii).

4.4.2.9. End of term parent-teacher consultations and termly reports

As indicated already, my relationship to the TF learners as a researcher has a history of my being also one of their educators. These learners were special in that respect: they were the first group of learners sponsored by the TF at ISSA and I took them for mainstream English during the morning sessions whilst another educator took them for scaffold lessons in the afternoon. During the week, the learners had three double periods of one hour ten minutes each, making three and half hours of contact teaching time. In the afternoon, the learners had four one-hour sessions per week, making a cumulative total of seven and half hours of English language study every week.

Given our multiple identities in terms of nationality, class and gender, some of the learners sought my assistance in various ways and consequently we developed a closer relationship through the research and learning programmes we put in place. By interacting with their guardians and parents, I grew to know them more and nurtured an interest that went beyond the one I had with the rest of the other learners in the school. In a way, I created an opportunity for the learners to own and relate to their progress in this research endeavour. As they wrote exercises and essays in the English classroom, the learners were aware that whatever progress they made was both an indication of language learning progress and data for the research. Discussions therefore provided a great opportunity for reflection and joint analysis on learnability, delivery, methodology and implementation of the syllabus. Alternatives to materials approach and content delivery were therefore instant and usually in a state of flux, re-orientation and refining. Classroom interactions were participatory and homework always offered alternative strategies for those who had met challenges.

I was as much a resource to them as they were to me, offering an opportunity for reciprocal and dialogic research learning. My classroom sought to offer a change-enhancing context, without, therefore, being an imposition. There was always the challenge of terminal assessment at the end of the term and the reports that had to be compiled to indicate learners' progress. At the end of each term, the Department of English set papers that assessed aspects covered during the term. The material for the

tests had to meet “standard expectations of the levels of assessment expected at Form Two in an international school.” Each learner’s performance in the cycle tests, administered twice each term, was recorded and used to gauge progress and problems.

Each term, a report was issued to the learner, describing the challenges encountered and the successes made. This was perceived as feedback to both the learner and the parents of the research participants (see 5.7.8). Of paramount importance was the positive or negative skew shown in the English language mark, but the rest of the learner’s performance across the range of subjects was also assessed to establish the level of CALP skills as knowledge of specialised subject matter. The limitations and challenges observed in the cycle tests were also anticipated in the final examinations the learners would write at the end of their schooling in 2010. The methodologies adopted in the research period had to be cognizant of this reality and therefore, in their innovativeness, still have to prepare the learners for these external examinations characterised largely by screening or “gate-keeper” practices (see final results, Table 18; Chapter 5.7.8).

4.5. The hypotaxis index

In the category of development in written texts, an examination of learners’ abilities at coordination and subordination has become a central focus, though as yet, there has not been consensus on one definitive measure of proficiency and competence (Pennycook, 1994; Toohey, 2000).

This segment of the study therefore focused on two competences in SLA: accuracy and complexity in the written performance in English. It is argued that the more error free, accurate and more complex the number of total clauses written in a task, the more successful and competent the learner. The Hypotaxis Index is a quantitative measure to analyse the sentences in a sustained piece of writing: it is the count of subordinated and the successfully coordinated sentences calculated as a percentage of the total clauses making the composition (Hendricks, 2009). This ability to coordinate and subordinate ideas in order to express more sophisticated ideas is interpreted as an indication of superior language manipulation, especially when compared to the use of simple sentences that express singular ideas generally. Since the hypotaxis index can

be easily calculated as a percentage, it was envisaged that such a handy quantitative tool could be of benefit to both learners and educators as it would concretely describe the learners' progress and developing competencies in writing (Hendricks, 2007).

4.6. Classroom delivery strategies

I focus on this facet of the research process, as it was the rehearsal, dramatisation and actualisation of the anticipated syllabus and the operational site for the acquisition of the participants' reading and writing skills. These lessons were often filled with debate, controversy and intense analysis of language presented and discussed. The lessons therefore served as "convenient ways to accumulate the individual knowledge of the learners and gave rise synergistically to insights and solutions that would not have come without them" (Brown et al, quoted in Patton, 1990:17). Frequently, I challenged the learners on language usage in order to stimulate further discussion on quality, appropriateness, and effectiveness of the additional language itself. This helped to tease out some of the tensions inherent in a learner's language. This was also a forum for the learners to recognise and engage with the diversity and versatility of the language skills that they were in the process of acquiring, more especially the meta-language.

The lessons, in opening a forum for discussion among the participants, enhanced participation and oral proficiency skills, in addition to the critical awareness of point of view, positioning and sensitivity to language. This aspect allowed for the expression of and emphasis on the participants' point of view, placing the control over the "linguistic interaction" in the hands of the participants rather than the educator/researcher. Whereas I tried to allow the discussions to take on a life of their own, I did, every now and then, try to refocus the discussion to issues I had hoped the learners would focus upon and talk more about. This practice of "combined laissez-faire and direct control" often led to my agonizing over what became data on syllabus design, the strategies used in the acquisition of reading and writing skills for this study and what was feedback to the language lessons.

4.7. Issues of validation in the study

Huberman and Miles (cited in Denzin and Lincoln, 1994:429) argue that drawing conclusions and making valid verification in a qualitative study involve the researcher

in interpretation of data and the tactics used include comparison and contrast, noting patterns and themes, triangulation and following up to check results with respondents. In order to ensure that this study followed similar research strategies, it was necessary to confirm patterns established in the first group of twenty learners enrolled in 2007. The corporate commitment of the Telkom Foundation to fund the twenty learners was consolidated through the funding and enrolment of another group of thirty more learners at ISSA in 2008. Similar to the selection and funding protocols used in the initial group, the thirty were selected from similarly impoverished primary schools. The same English language entrance test was administered to this group. Results from the entrance test were compared with those from the first group and the emerging patterns used to establish, describe and confirm the linguistic skills that the learners had. This confirmation of the learners' possession of BICS at entry level in ISSA was an essential process in the validation of the study and the questionnaire results from the second group in 2008 confirmed the language needs as similar to those of the first group concerning CALP skills. In this multi-method triangulation, it was then possible to determine the draft syllabus specifications, objectives and content structuring in order to realise the anticipated CALP outcomes in learners' skills.

4.8.1. Threats to internal validity

In this study, there were several threats to the internal validity of the findings. Such threats, as in all longitudinal case studies, limit the extent to which a researcher can conclude that the outcomes observed in the case study are due to the specific treatment administered to the research sample. As I admit, some alternative explanations could be offered for the outcomes observed in this study as a consequence of instrument error, single group threats, history and maturational threats.

4.8.1.2. Instrument error

Gass and Selinker (1995) alludes to instrument error as the inaccuracy or imprecision of a measurement instrument when respondents fail to understand the questions. In this study, such possibility of error was precluded by sitting down with the research participants and explaining to them what the questions sought to elicit, without

guiding them to the responses that they would offer. Responses were left entirely to the research participants.

4.8.1.3. Single group threats

Single group threats instantiate themselves when a researcher studies a single group and then proceeds to make generalizations based on such a study. In the TF case study, this error was averted by administering the same proficiency and placement test to a second sponsored group to validate the performance traits of the two groups. In this way, the needs of the first group of research participants were corroborated by those of the second group. Designing a syllabus to deal with the challenges followed from the findings established from two groups.

4.8.1.4. Maturation threat

A maturation threat occurs when an observed effect might be due to the participants changing on a maturational paradigm because of the passage of time. For instance, in this TF study, the research participants were exposed to more reading and writing practices. They were also observed over a four year period. As they accessed competencies and evolved strategies, these learners were beginning to interrogate their locus, goals and context in a different way from their initial perceptions. This dynamic of change could therefore be perceived as one major threat to the internal validity of the findings presented in Chapter Five.

4.9. Data analysis procedures – description and justification of techniques and methods of analysis

Subreenduth (2003:65) logically argues that “in most qualitative research, data analysis is an ongoing process during the data collection process.” She enlists the scholarship of LeCompte and Schensul (1999) in arguing that there is no discrete separation between the collection of data and analysis – it often occurs simultaneously and at various levels. In quantitatively establishing the entry writing and reading comprehension competencies of the TF learners, for instance, the results were a part of data collection about the learners but also served as analysis in the placement of the learners. Their challenges informed the teaching programme adopted, and in due

course, informed the aims specified in the syllabus blueprint. This current study therefore combined analysis in the field and after the field study, in keeping with the caution that “premature coding is like premature closure” in qualitative research.

Frodesen and Starna (1999:64) argue that educators need “to find out as much as they can...about the students’ first language (L1) as well as L2,” about students’ attitudes about themselves as L2 speakers and writers, and the investment they have in acquiring various levels of proficiency for their academic goals. The TF learners in this study, it was established, have a strong sense of themselves as functional in the language. The research sought to describe this functionality and place the learners on a competency scale in the target language, English. Language profiles, reading, composing processes and other writing protocols were fully described in this study. Information from questionnaires and interviews was synthesized to create a language profile about the learners, showing their reading and writing competencies. In all this, there was always recognition of this particular classroom’s social and historical context, recognition that this classroom was a complex intersection of cultural histories, multiple identities and institutional constraints, and dynamic, fluid and shifting power relations between the educators and the learners.

Concepts of generalisability, validity and reliability were a major concern in this study as they affect the credibility of research findings. Validity, according to Eisenhart and Howe (1992:644) may “be generally defined as the trustworthiness of inferences drawn from data.” “Trustworthiness”, Kincheloe and McLaren (1998:287) argue is more appropriate and “helpful because it signifies a different set of assumptions about research purposes than does validity”, particularly in the context of critical research. I imply the coherence and importance of the research questions, the theoretical underpinnings of the study and therefore, data and the analysis of the data generated in the study. The dual involvement of researcher and the learners in the study lent authenticity to the study and the analysis of the data. The reality-altering intention of this research process was deliberately informed and transformed through the learners’ progression from one stage to the next, i.e. grade level competencies. I remain greatly indebted to Renuka Vital’s (2001) concept of “democratic participatory validity,” where credibility of the descriptions and analyses of data are increased by referring across contexts of different research schools.

Vital develops her concept of democratic participatory validity from Kincheloe and McLaren (1998) who understand “catalytic validity” as requiring the researcher to assess “the degree to which research moves those it studies to understand the world and the way it is shaped in order for them to transform it.” This research anticipated change, given that the TF learners were learning English in a completely different setting from what they had been exposed to in disadvantaged schools; and also that there was a mandate placed on the educators to ensure the learners’ success in the ultimate CIE examinations. Key points in the research were choice, negotiation, re-shaping and re-casting of learning concepts and ultimately negotiation of the way forward.

4.10. Conclusion

Following the innovative, interactive and sociocultural perspective of qualitative research, this research design relied on observing the research participants, conducting interviews and building significantly detailed records. This was in addition to document analysis, especially the participants’ written work and their reading in English. The data therefore is largely presented in thick descriptions, field notes, interview records and transcriptions of vignettes from the research participants’ views. Significantly, this data presentation is nuanced by the researcher’s taking cognizance of this dynamic case study and the multiple factors influencing it.

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the main results of the intervention that was effected in order to facilitate the acquisition of CALP skills at secondary school level in a South African educational context. It systematizes the results derived from the instruments mentioned in Chapter Four into themes and patterns in order to describe the acquisition processes and the challenges experienced. Some of the questions asked in the field elicited convergent responses and these are compressed in order to present a more holistic picture rather than microscopic responses to each individual question where commonality was evident. The descriptions offered here also amplify on some of the challenges met in the field, the diversity of the learners' "literacies" and the school's ecology described in Chapter 3.

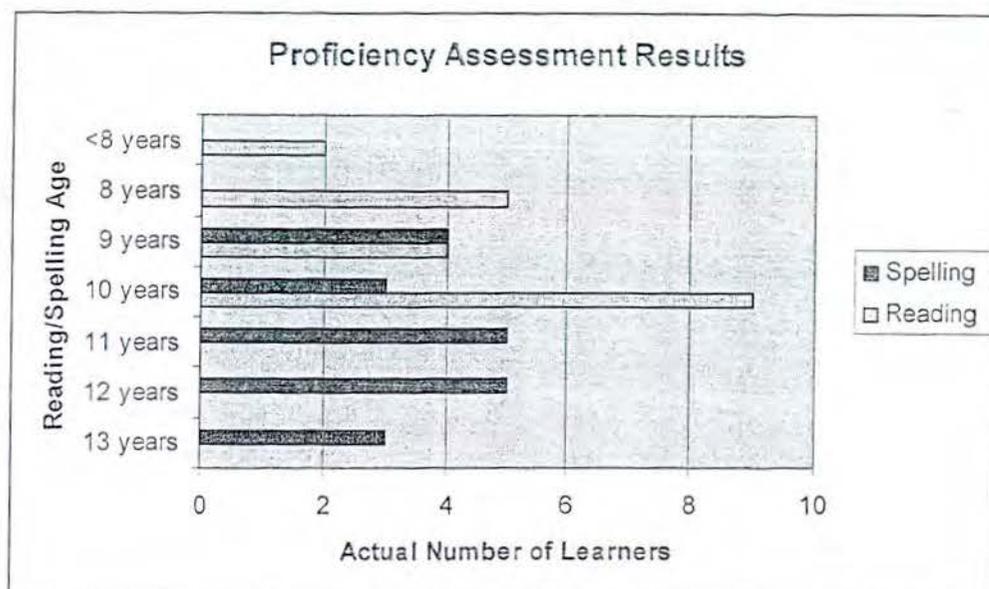
There were five major strands of the results presented in this chapter, and these are:

- i. the quantitative presentation of the various languages that the learners spoke as a first language;
- ii. the quantitative presentation of the proficiency test administered on entry into ISSA,
- iii. the integrated quantitative and qualitative presentation of learner writing and reading needs as revealed by the participants' responses to a pencil and paper questionnaire, including their written responses to the tasks set for them,
- iv. qualitative thick descriptions of the interviews with the research participants' parents and guardians, and
- v. integrated qualitative and quantitative presentation of the participants' progress assessment records.

5.1.1. The results of the proficiency test: Quantitative Data

A language entrance test was administered to the learners upon their entry into ISSA and the graph below represents their reading and spelling ages.

Figure 5



N = 20

5.1.2. The oldest member of this participant group was fifteen years and three months while the youngest was thirteen years and two months. As shown in the graph, the English language proficiency assessment showed quite low reading ability (nine of the “best readers” still read at a reading age of ten). Only three in the group could spell at the spelling age of 13-year-old learners (13 is the acceptable reading age at ISSA for this grade level) while a significant number, five and four participants, spelt at 11 and 9-year-old spelling levels, respectively.

The results of the proficiency test administered at ISSA deserve some comment, particularly in the wake of the continuous assessment and report cards that the learners in this study had profiled in the OBE system. Under OBE, each school developed an assessment programme that was benchmarked on provincial and national assessment guidelines. Individual performance, in this regard, was compared to peers’ previous performance or the requirements of the assessment standards and learning outcomes (RNCS, C2005:117). Codes such as “excellent”, “very good”,

“competent” and “insufficient” were used to describe the linguistic competencies of the learners. In addition to these largely subjective and imprecise descriptors, national codes were also used to describe learner achievement:

Table 4: Table showing learner achievement – National descriptor codes

4	Learner’s performance <i>has exceeded</i> the requirements of the Learning Outcome for the grade.
3	Learner’s performance <i>has satisfied</i> the requirements of the Learning Outcome for the grade.
2	Learner’s performance <i>has partially satisfied</i> the requirements of the Learning Outcome for the grade.
1	Learner’s performance <i>has not satisfied</i> the requirements of the Learning Outcome for the grade.

The school reports of all the research participants had the code “very good” and fifteen of them described the participants as “learner’s performance has exceeded the requirements of the learning outcome.” The developmental needs and areas of support needed by the learner in each learning area were generally clouded in a deceptively simple but perhaps inaccurate reporting that logically did not disadvantage the learner from the TF sponsorship. As an overall assessment of the language performance of each learner, there were problems that had been understated in exit reports but emerged from the proficiency assessment administered at ISSA, and these were challenges that had to be faced and addressed by the language educators and the administration at ISSA.

5.1.2. Writing: Qualitative data

5.1.2.1. Problems identified in composing in the second language

Part of the entrance assessment items asked the learners to write a composition. Subjective marking (i.e. an intuitively developed rating scale for assessing writing) was used to assess the learners’ competencies. Using this institutional rating scale, marks were awarded based on specific descriptors as indicated in the table overleaf:

Table 5: The Analytic Mark Scheme Used To Assess Writing at ISSA

	Relevance and scope of content
0	The answer bears almost no relation to task set. Very inadequate answer.
1	Answer of limited relevance to task set.
2	For the most part answers the task set, though there may be some gaps.
3	Relevant and adequate answer to set task.
	Coherence
0	No apparent organization of content (sentences and paragraphs).
1	Very little organization of content. Underlying structures not sufficient.
2	Some organizational skills in evidence but not adequately controlled.
3	Overall shape and pattern clear. Organizational skills adequately controlled.
	Cohesion
0	Cohesion almost totally absent; writing fragmentary.
1	Unsatisfactory cohesion causing difficulty in comprehension.
2	For the most part satisfactory cohesion but occasional deficiencies.
3	Satisfactory use of cohesion resulting in effective communication.
	Adequacy of vocabulary for purpose
0	Vocabulary inadequate even for the most basic parts of communication.
1	Frequent inadequacies in vocabulary for the task.
2	Some inadequacies in vocabulary for the task (inappropriate/circumlocution).
3	Almost no inadequacies in vocabulary for the task.
	Grammar
0	Almost all grammatical patterns inaccurate.
1	Frequent grammatical inaccuracies.
2	Some grammatical inaccuracies.
3	Almost no grammatical inaccuracies.
	Mechanical accuracy (Punctuation)
0	Ignorance of conventions of punctuation.
1	Low standard of accuracy of punctuation.
2	Some inaccuracies of punctuation.
3	Almost no inaccuracies of punctuation.
	Mechanical accuracy (Spelling)
0	Almost all spelling inaccurate.
1	Some inaccuracies in spelling.
2	Almost no inaccuracies in spelling.

Highest possible total = 20 marks

[Adapted, Cambridge International Examinations, in Alderson et. al. 1995)

This analytic marking scheme was developed for use at ISSA in the lower and middle secondary school years. For purposes of expeditious marking during the course of each term, the first three components (relevance, coherence and cohesion) were combined as C for a content mark, while the last four aspects (vocabulary, grammar, punctuation and spelling) were condensed to S for a style mark. This analytic

framework was used extensively in the assessment of written work presented later in this chapter (pp.124 - 140) and also the extended writing attached as Appendix (iv).

5.1.2.2. Learner errors as indicators of needs and intervention: Qualitative data from document analysis

From compositions submitted for the entrance test, the following “errors” were noted:

1. My hobby is to play tennis.

(Failure to use the present progressive tense and relying on the simple present tense; error stems from problems with the gerund and infinitive form “to”)

2. The person I like who sing is Beyonce.

(Error in subject-verb concord; and failure to use modals)

This could have been better stated as ‘The musician/singer I like best is Beyonce.)

3. When I come back from school I do my homeworks.

(Homework is uncountable in English; it is countable in Setswana, sePepedi and isiXhosa, the home languages of the learners, and the overlap between countable and uncountable in this regard generates the error).

Interestingly, there are many uncountable nouns in English that have “gained acceptable” plural form and are increasingly used in spoken and written form: publics; peoples; ethnicities etc.

4. The thing that makes me want to be a social worker is because I see how people suffer especially old people living with their grandchildren they don't get grant for the children.

(Error stems from an overgeneralization: “The thing...” makes perfect sense in MT Setswana but the subject should be reason in this case and the sentence should have begun “What makes me...” The second half of the compound clause confuses subjects: “old people” and “grandchildren.” This error falls under blind agreement as “grant” should be preceded by an article [any] and take on plural form)

5. I want to have two children, latest car and the latest cell phone.

(This is another case of blind agreement. The context of the sentence is a hypothetical situation: in the future, I would prefer to have two children. “I want” is an incorrect use of the scale of certainty and the modal becomes wrong)

6. I am going to buy my mother a house with my first salary and going to send my sister and brother to the college.

(As in sentence 5, an illogical probability is evident in “am going to buy” where the intention is to communicate a less definitive scale of certainty, such as “I would love to/like to buy my mother a house.” A definite article “the” is used to indicate another projection about future action for the brother but there has been no reference to any college earlier on to merit a definite article in this erroneous construction.)

7. I really take my perents serous because without them where will I have been. (“serious”, like many other words in English with “ie” and “ei” challenges is wrongly spelt and presents a big rule-challenge. ‘Parents’ in Black South African English takes an inflection of the “e” after “p” instead of “ae” and the aural quality of that inflection could be source of the spelling error.)

Ngwenya (2001:204) mentions the problem with *w/h-* indirect questions and submits that this is not a frequent problem. In this research on the TF learners, a significant number of errors in suppression of the inversion rule were identified. A possible source of difference in the results of the two studies could be attributed to the different age groups of the samples since Ngwenya was looking at university students who were possibly more conscious of such an error.

8. My hobbies are singing (I think and my friends say I have a wanderful voice). (cohesion is compromised in the subject-verb concord error; phonological aural-oriented error in the mis-spelling of “wonderful.”) Only one hobby is stated, so “are” is discordant in this instance.

9. I wash my body and to be clean everyday not to be dirty and I wash my tongue every day.

(Confused word order, making the sentence an example of gross error that impedes meaning; there are also some elements of unnecessary repetition. The morning hygiene chore of brushing one’s teeth is rendered in an unidiomatic expression that stigmatizes it as incorrect in English as “I wash my tongue every day”). In a semantic sense, the expression would convey the intended meaning in Setswana. What is at stake here are the “complex language encounters” that Evans and Cleghorn (2010) discuss, suggesting that many learners experience a shift in the expressive modalities of their home languages to those of the second language where their “translated thoughts are viewed as inaccurate.” The

“Borrow” and “lend” have one lexical item in Setswana; the two acts in English language are a major source of confusion for the ESL learner and the intended sense can only be discerned from the context of use. Again, Mesthrie (2005) contends that such an instance of BSAE would be understood in the “context of the expression” to mean either “borrow” or “lend” whereas in NS of English, each term has a specific, singular implicature.)

14. I don't like to fight if I fight I go to thet person and I say I am sorry then me and thet person we became friens agen.

(Phonological elements are evidently manifest in the spelling slips here. Individual word sounds, syllable structure and intonation could be easily held accountable for “thet”, “agen” and “serous.” Evans and Cleghorn (2010:132) suggest that “when teachers use non-standard grammar and pronunciation” their practices affect the learners’ acquisition and understanding of the words, and this consequently leads to a spiral effect. Indeed, as Evans and Cleghorn (2010:132) argue, language is “the thread that ties teacher, text, activity, ...and learner together in the overall process of meaning-making.”)

15. The words below were spelt incorrectly:

techer, frends, saprise, beutiful, crimenale, listerning, program, alot, prinsipal, jelous, partyeing, knowlage, opotunity, proffession, jernalist, and debateing.

A pattern emerged from these preliminary results of the study and this pointed to challenges in spelling words following the phonological generalisations that were inconsistent with English spelling. There was also evidence that wh-inversion of questions, including the use of conditional tenses, were sources of error in the learners in this study.

16. Seidlhofer’s corpus (2005), VOICE, identifies the following lexicogrammatical problems in South African ESL classrooms: the problems occur frequently and systematically without causing communication problems:-

- a) non-use of the third person present tenses (She look very sad)
- b) interchangeable use of the relative pronouns who and which (a dog who; a person which)
- c) omission of the definite and indefinite articles where they are obligatory in NSE and insertion where they do not occur in NSE

- d) Use of an all-purpose question-tag such as “isn’t it?” Or “no”? instead of “shouldn’t they” (They should arrive any time now, isn’t it?)
- e) increasing of redundancy by adding prepositions (We have to study about coastal features; We can discuss about the problems later; Good luck with your endeavours; Cope up with; We returned back from the holidays and started school; or by increasing explicitness (black colour vs. black). “I was given an instruction that no one must use the gate. You must use a main gate.”
- f) pluralisation of nouns which are considered uncountable in NSE (informations, staffs, advices, policemen)
- g) Seidlhofer has further identified unilateral idiomaticity, which occurs when one speaker or writer uses a native idiomatic expression that is unfamiliar to the audience/reader (a sight for sore eyes; my jaw[s] dropped; throughout the whole journey/flight; the phone cut; I was unprepared for what met us... We are many. They [the police] won’t finish us). The latter illustration of unilateral idiomaticity also demonstrates incompleteness in translation and the absence of semantic equivalence between L1 and L2. The statement was said by a trade union spokesperson who vowed that the workers were even “prepared to be shot and killed” if their demands were not met. In isiZulu, this made perfect sense, communicating the frustrations of the workers in the richest idiom: *Sibanengi. Bangeke basiqeda.*
- h) Rodrik Wade (2002: 2) in his argument for Black South African English observes systematicity in pronoun copying, non-standard verb complementation, inversion in embedded questions and non-standard use of the perfect tense: “Unfortunately we don’t know where is she at the moment.”

The fifteen instances of error highlighted here apparently endorse the view held by structural linguists that at least certain elements of grammar need explicit teaching of grammar rules and a deliberately corrective feedback methodology. Evidence in the errors suggests that learners have to be explicitly taught where in a sentence to put an adjective, adverb or how to form a question. This suggests that structures and forms that exist in L1 but not in L2 (and vice versa) require some explicit instruction. It could be a daunting task to insist on the use of extensive grammatical terminology, organised structure by structure, but suffice to say that when such errors occur with marked frequency in a learner’s interlanguage, this study, in the classroom delivery,

mapped out situationally appropriate structural patterns as comprehensible input. This strategy was adopted in order to ensure that the learner writers in this study would not make blatant grammatical errors that stigmatized them.

Another pivotal point emerging from the errors identified above was that it became possible to establish and describe differences and similarities between the English language and the home languages of the research participants, and in the process identify areas of difficulty for the group. This gave the learners both insight and autonomy in determining their own learning strategies in accordance with each learner's home language. Error identification and analysis in this regard were useful tools in establishing the exact parameters of a proposed contrastive analysis, especially with regards meaning-generation and the grammaticality of some clauses and expressions in the written form.

It was argued in the literature review chapter (cf.2.11) that an analysis of unrelated languages, such as English and Setswana, English and Sepedi, English and isiXhosa, was important in finding those specific or general phenomena that are shared should the analysis aim to facilitate and enhance CALP skills acquisition. It was evident that the Setswana, Sepedi and isiXhosa learners in this research initially fell back on what they already knew about language, using some structures and formations from the home language or mother tongue in order for them to express ideas in English. From this observation, it could be submitted that there are already implications here for the selection of the teaching-learning materials, the order of the presentation of some of these pedagogic materials, and the emphasis and time that ought to be spent on each of the challenging linguistic elements and structures identified.

What emerged from the corpus of errors identified was that systematic aspects such as the marking of verbs for singular, plural, person, tense and mood was an area of difficulty. Semantic equivalence between the home languages of the participants and the English language (i.e. the ability of both language systems to express the same ideas) was also another area that presented challenges for the research participants. This (un)translatability challenge was pervasive when the writers attempted to use idiomatic expressions from their home languages into English. For instance, in a debate on language status, one learner had a brilliant idea on how Setswana was

pushed to the periphery and accorded lesser status than Afrikaans. In the writing, he said, "Setswana does not bring food on the table." ("*Setswana ga se jese!*"). In another piece of writing, the learner had a unique idea on how co-operation and working together served to solve what were perceived to be insurmountable challenges. She wrote: "If you go this way and I go this other way, we will meet in the middle and kill this beast." (The idiom in Setswana is "*Pota ka koo, nna ke tla pota ka kwano, re bo laye sebata.*") This was a direct translation of a Setswana idiomatic expression, suggesting a mature grasp of the indigenous knowledge system. The challenge of such an "untranslatable" idiomatic expression lies in that when rendered in English, it is marked as deficient in expressiveness.

It was possible therefore to tap into what was similar before focusing on the differences so that, in accordance with findings from other language acquisition studies such as Weideman (2010), Cook (2003), Canagarajah (2006), the learners would experience a more positive psychological realisation of the target language. Since the learners saw some of the similarities between their home languages and the target language, this presumably facilitated the decisions of the learners about which features of the MT could be used in the acquisition and enhancement of the CALP skills in the target language. Gass and Selinker (1994:100) underscore this seminal point:

Basic to his view of the role of the MT (home language or first language) is the learner's perception of the distance between the first and the second (target) languages...The study of transfer, or cross-linguistic influences...[allows] for the discrediting of the [implicit fallacy that assumes a direct] relationship between transfer and behaviourism; [in fact, this allows the learner to be seen as consciously "making decisions" about which forms and functions of the MT] are appropriate candidates for use in the TL or second language. Considerations of similarity or dissimilarity are central to the learner's decision-making process.

What emerged as considerably problematic were instances when learners in this study could not locate instances of dissimilarity between MT and TL syntactic structures. In

such instances, the learners produced errors of egregious proportions in the English language and these largely impoverished their writing.

The second stage that developed from the corpus of errors involved exploring some of the important differences between the learners' MT and the TL. Knowing how the TL differed from the MT caused the learner to devise, consciously, learning strategies that were appropriate for the acquisition of the TL. As indicated in the literature review (cf. 3.2), generalising rules can cause negative transfer. The learners in this study were largely past the stage where they relied too heavily on the MT for communication strategies in the TL. As they gained more extensive knowledge of the TL, the process of generalisation caused some of the learners to overlook differences between the MT and TL. The corpus of errors identified indeed highlighted some of the particular language acquisition challenges arising from the learners' home languages and, in a major way, confirmed the argument posited by Norton and Toohey (2004:54) that " language is...the locus of social organisation and power and a form of symbolic capital as well as a site of struggle where subjectivity and objectivity and individual consciousness are produced."

5.1.2.2. (i) Learner errors as feedback: Educator strategies

Several studies on ESL writing processes suggest that learner errors constitute invaluable data and provide insights into how learners develop their academic language skills (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005; Schmidt, 2001; Wigglesworth, 2005). Wigglesworth (2005:104) in particular indicates that learners identify gaps in their language and improve the accuracy of their language by tapping into their explicit knowledge about the language that they are learning. This explicit knowledge is, interestingly available in the errors that they make and receive feedback on (see the Qualitative Scripts in this study, p.118-122 and also Appendix (i), showing both the mark, researcher comments and the error indication typology). Through writing tasks provided in the classroom, learners notice, test their hypotheses about the target language and in turn, they receive and internalise feedback. Lebogang, in a post-writing task admits: *"I find there is so much red in my book and at times I refuse to show it to my friends. But the comments help. They make me see where I must correct next time."* These combined episodes of executing the tasks, TL hypotheses formulation and testing, and noticing and internalising the feedback constitute

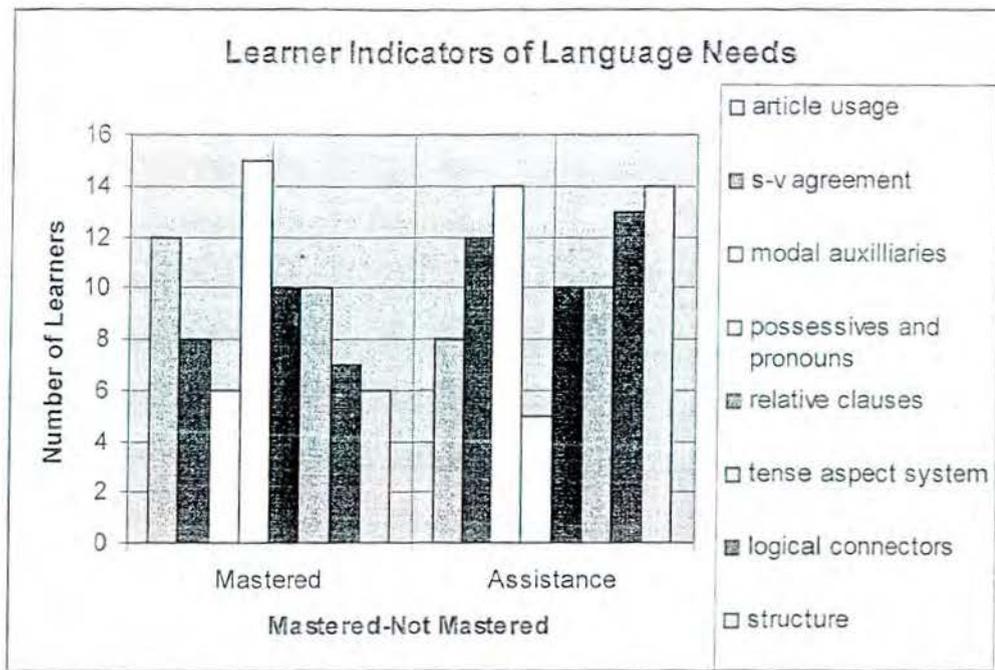
important steps for the quality and depth of strategies developed for second language learning.

Feedback that promotes deeper noticing can be in two forms as identified in this study: editing by the educator or reformulation (Appendix iii). Donato (1994) and Leki (2003) have both demonstrated that L2 students look forward to feedback. The learners in the current study frequently remarked about the lengthy educator comments in their writing and indeed demonstrated an animated interrogation of this “coaching from the margins” (à la Leki) that constituted the researcher’s mode of feedback provision on content, structure, spelling and vocabulary range (see also the exemplar scripts used as “confidence boosters” to the individual writers and “standards” illustrations for those who were lagging behind in Appendix ii and Appendix iii) . Whereas Smith and Swain (2002) recommend reformulation – which entails re-writing the learner’s original text – this study found such a feat a little too disruptive of the learners’ own language development strategies. Even though the claims of reformulation as feedback are that the learner’s ideas are preserved (Goldstein, 2005 cited in Norton and Toohey), it is argued here that the more overt the feedback, the less empowering it becomes for the very same learner. Magdalene, in a casual classroom remark indicated *“Just show by a simple underlining the mistake. That will help me think of what is wrong. And I learn more since I can tell what’s wrong with my English.”* In fact, error reformulation apparently emasculates the learner since the educator has already done the corrections for the learner.

5.1.3. (i) Questionnaire: Quantitative data

In their responses to a questionnaire, the learners pointed out their needs in English. What emerged from these needs was the learners’ overwhelming sense of anxiety and a desire to succeed, particularly in the written mode where they often received immediate feedback. The graph below shows what the learners said they had mastered and those aspects where they needed more focused direction and urgent assistance. Their needs, interestingly, covered almost all aspects of reading and the spectrum of writing in the English language.

Figure 6



N = 20

The learners might have encountered problems in accurately describing their competencies in handling language technical aspects in isolation but this was an initial step in the research process to establish areas of focus and concentration, in the actual teaching as much as in the design of the syllabus envisaged. Structure of sentences and extended writing (especially in summary and composition), logical connectors and modal auxiliaries were at the top of the challenges, while article usage, possessives and tense aspect system were reported as relatively mastered and were thought to be least problematic. Sentence structure (and variation), logical connectors and modal auxiliaries were therefore set as priority tasks and written tasks were used to augment practice and internalization of these critical structures by the learners.

The questionnaire allowed the learners to amplify what their most urgent needs were. These have been grouped under “global” writing and “global” reading needs for purposes of discussion:

5.1.3. (ii) Questionnaire: Qualitative classification

The research participants, in the questionnaire on what they thought they needed in order to succeed in English, suggested a series of aspects that were consolidated into the following “wish list”:

- Writing good and effective compositions,
- Passing language tests by understanding specific questioning techniques and applying the correct answering formats,
- Using English across other subjects in order to read with understanding,
- Writing with economy and precision in summary work,
- Developing attention for stylistic variety,
- Meaningful linking of sentences within and between paragraphs,
- Structuring information to make a succinct point,
- Structuring information to make a concession,
- Structuring information in introducing a new idea and transition in a topic, and
- Structuring information in presenting illustrations, examples and contrasting views.

One of the research participants emphasized in a focus group interview, “ *English is like a puzzle to me. It’s even worse than Maths. I want to know it and use the correct words, but often I don’t seem to have that. It will be good for you to teach all these things you ask us...* ”

This “wish list”, in all its broadness, had to be accommodated in the anticipated syllabus design. What was quite striking was the exhaustiveness of the list, as if to suggest that they were willing to start right from the beginning.

5.1.3. (iii) The interviews with learners: Interpretive qualitative data

From focus-group interviews, the majority of the learners indicated that they had problems with command terms used in setting questions in English language practice exercises, assessments and tests: describe (*tlalosa* in Setswana), discuss (*atlatla* in Setswana), argue (*ngangisano/ngangisa* in Setswana), say (*bu* in Setswana), state (*bega*), analyse (*tlatloba/sekaseka*) and explain (*tlalosa*). Describe and explain, like say and state, share the same command term in Setswana L1 though they mean different strategies altogether in English and this was a source of problems with the tasks that the learners were expected to accomplish. This challenge arising from the interface, and at times confusion, in the meaning of the command terms was

manifested in the learners' response to a typical questioning technique in English: 'By selecting words and phrases in the passage, explain how the writer creates specific effects' (CIE, 2009 English Language question paper). Translated into Setswana, this command becomes '*Ka go tlhopa mantswe mo palong tlhalosa/bua gore mokwadi...*' Already, the command specific clause '*and phrases*' is lost in the translation because '*mantsewe*' (words and/or phrases) includes and subsumes that part in the Setswana translation equivalent. Furthermore, the question tag clause '*creates specific effects*' is a huge challenge to express and word as aptly in Setswana as in the original English instruction. Given the mammoth task in generating equivalence in the process of translation, many of the learners initially performed below par in such a central question in the English language curriculum at this stage in secondary school. However, further practice and scaffolding strengthened their skills in this segment. In the 2009 interviews, 15 of the learners who responded to the question "In what way has your speaking and writing improved" mentioned three important traits: more confidence, more bravery and more self-assurance. Four of these responses are offered verbatim:

Caroline: "Now I'm more confident in my use of English. I'm less stressed."

Babalwa: "I'm no longer afraid of English. I can talk long in this language."

Japhtha: "I think...eish... I've broken some of my barriers...er...what stopped me...mostly my shyness. And being aware that last year my classmates would laugh...er...giggle... at my expressions and the way I say things."

Helen: "My words and the power of these has increased. Also the way I say things and my words in English is better than at Polokwane."

5.1.3. (iv) Hypotaxis index as a measure of developed CALP skills: Quantitative data from stretches of writing

The quest for a second language (SLA) development index has taxed linguists and language teachers for some time (Larsen-Freeman, 1978, Wenting Wang, 2009, Hendricks, 2009). Such a quantitative and scientific measure, as a yardstick of written competence in a second language, is anticipated to give a numerical value to the stage

at which the learner is operating on the language development continuum, and in turn, inform academic language pedagogy of the possible intervention strategies necessary for the full realization or actualization of academic language competence. Measures such as the mean length of utterance (MLU) have been found useful in determining a child's gross language development (Parker and Brorson, 2005). This research found and argues that second language acquisition and the subsequent written competence in the acquired language constitute a process of increasing conformity to a target language, in this case, English. The study proposes consequently, that progress in second language written competence should be evident in the accuracy of the morphosyntactical and lexical development of the learner. Mean length of T-Unit (MLTU), as described by Larsen-Freeman (1978) is a usable measure in speech production, and it suggests maturational progress on an oral proficiency scale. Other language practitioners have suggested clause based and sentence based measures (Skehan, 1998:275; Ellis, 2005). In the category of development in written texts, an examination of learners' abilities at coordination and subordination has become a central focus, though as yet, there has not been consensus on one definitive measure of proficiency and competence.

This study therefore focused on two dimensions of written competence in SLA: accuracy and complexity in the written performance in the second language. It is argued that the more error free, accurate and more complex the number of total clauses written in a task, the more successful and competent the learner (Shohamy, 2005; Hendricks, 2009). The ability to coordinate and subordinate ideas in order to express more sophisticated ideas, i.e. the hypotaxis index, should be interpreted as an indication of superior language manipulation, especially when compared to the use of simple sentences that express singular ideas generally.

In a 2008 mid-year writing assessment task (Qualitative samples, 5.1.3. and also Appendix iii in this study), the learners were asked to choose a composition topic. The three samples that follow (and the rest that are given in Appendix iv) reveal their approximations to creating effective writing through the deployment of simple, compound and complex sentences. The conjunctions used also suggest some facility with the language and an understanding of co-ordination and subordination. It is from these samples that were written under the constraints of a timed task that the

hypotaxis indices were calculated. The results from this timed segment are compared to those obtained from a longer time frame, which is given in the table that follows:

Table 6: Participants' hypotaxis indices as calculated from written compositions under examination conditions

Script	Complex and compound	Subordinated	Coordinated	Hypotaxis index
Qualitative 1	4	4	8	51.6%
Qualitative 3	5	4	3	46.1%
Qualitative 6	5	6	6	48.6%
Qualitative 9	13	8	9	45.4%
Qualitative11	11	1	4	76.1%
Qualitative14	5	3	9	44.7%
Qualitative16	4	5	10	61.2%

There are only two exceptional instances of significantly high hypotaxis indices (76.1% and 61.2%); otherwise, the mean hypotaxis index is 41.4%, an index within the range established in five out of the seven scripts. This range, between 41% and 48%, is a good indicator of successful handling of complex and compound sentences, in addition to competent use of subordination and effectively coordinated ideas in sentences used in the compositions. On an impressionistic but quantitative scale, this is also confirmed by the marks awarded to these compositions, which ranged from 76% to 84% .

The biggest challenge in the calculation of the hypotaxis index as a quantitative measure arose from the observation that, in the more rudimentary instances of coordination, the conjunction “and” was used mainly on the very simple level of establishing a relationship between two ideas. Such a coordination, based on simple compounding, was eventually not considered as an effective indicator of competent writing skills. When such “basic” coordination occurred in the writing of the composition, the sentence(s) were not counted as instances of hypotaxis, and consequently the initial “impressive” percentages indicated above came down significantly.

Using the Hypotaxis Index as a quantitative measure to analyse the sentences, which is the count of subordinated and the successfully coordinated sentences calculated as a percentage of the total clauses making the composition (Hendricks, 2009), it was established that the higher the Hypotaxis Index, the more accomplished the writing (Horning, 1998; Balfour, 2007; Allison, 2002). Expository compositions (Appendix i) displayed the characteristics of appropriately projected thoughts and were more successful than writing on narrative and descriptive topics. A major challenge in the analysis of the compositions through using the hypotaxis index stemmed from incidents where incomplete clauses were used, with no overt or covert logical linkages or cohesive devices. There were, too, some relatively successful compositions that depended on simple and compound sentence structures only (Insaaf Everson, exemplar script in Appendix i). It was deduced from this three-year longitudinal study that an attempt to improve the writing quality of the learners would be through a deliberate focus on the structural patterning of the sentences that learners used in their writing. The Hypotaxis Index, if correctly calculated, is a significant indicator of learners' writing expertise and their development of language proficiency. The six essays that follow were used to measure the complexity of writing, the structural patterns and establish the cohesive devices used in the writing. Inter-rater reliability was also factored in as the compositions were marked by three qualified teachers who applied the marking scheme rigorously (see Analytic Marking Scheme, Table 5).

Jean Hannon 3-1

no 2

Mrs Mobarra

22 July 2008

At My Best friend & My worst enemy

My best friend and my worst enemy is my neighbour. We have been best friends for two days now. We have been enemies for seven long, wild and angry months. My neighbour is a young, male adult by the name of Mark Johnson. He is twenty-two and enjoys wild parties, loud music, restless animals and tall trees. That is why we don't get along.

65

I moved into a quiet culdesac when I was an inexperienced twenty-three. The real-estate agent assured me that the area which was surrounded by lush trees and colourful flowerbeds was the perfect place to finish my university degree, and it was. I enjoyed living there so much that I decided to stay. I had been living happily ~~and~~ enjoying life there for two blissful years; until he came.

133

I had spotted my new neighbour only briefly the next couple of days but I learnt from Mrs Joubert: the batty lady across the street that the young man was a graduate from the nearby college. He was pleasant looking but his walk and talk screamed arrogance. That night was the first of many wild nights. It started at 8 o'clock with loud laughing, drunker shouts and a steady rhythm of music. It soon progressed to a party with music on full blast, the bass was turned up ridiculously high, cars and people alike filled the street while dogs barked and whined till they turned hoarse. It ended at 3 o'clock that morning. Since that time I have had three such experiments.

233

My neighbour, Mark, loves nature. He decided to plant a tall tree in his back garden. I love and to spend my time in the garden. As I was wandering

around my garden aimlessly, enjoying the autumn sunlight I noticed red, brown and gold leaves in my pool. Looking around, I soon realised that this huge tree was the cause of the leaf & infestation in my garden. I asked my gardener to please prune the tree and remove the leaves. Seeing the huge task I set him, he he grudgingly agreed. I wrote my neighbour a sweet and informative note about these last two incidents and asked him to please refrain from disrupting my peace. I slipped the note into his mailbox. I received the exact same note the next day. 362

Growing steadily more frustrated and angry, I then phoned my work colleague who is a lawyer for my the bank I work for. He proceeded to tell me that I could ~~to~~ take legal action but I should refrain and wait to see if the situation improves. ^d I did so. 410

The last straw was when I found a dead rat on my windowsill which turned out to be a gift from ^M Mark's unruly cat. Mark's cat Fifi, is mentally ill. It has a history of killing Mrs Joubert's chickens and a habit of ripping my lawn furniture. I have always been an animal ~~fan~~ lover but Fifi has brought me to my breaking point. After 3 three phone calls to my neighbour and two changes of lawn furniture, the cat who has murdered more chickens than a chicken farm, left ~~me~~ me with no choice; I phoned my colleague, &

After a warning lawyer's letter and threats from Mrs Joubert my neighbour and I have made an icy peace. He is now my best friend - by law.

21
25
Incredibly kind and beautifully described -
thank you Jean.

Qualitative 3

Professors, Mphahle = 2
 14 July 2022

The celebration Evaluative diction 20
25
 Mid-year exam.

Once a year comes a magical and exhilarating ~~big~~ event where a person unlocks their cage of insecurity and releases themselves. Where a person lets go of him or her self and goes ~~as wild~~ wild. Where the empty streets of Comrade are filled with noises and cheer of happy people. Once a year one night, The Comrade Street celebration. You have problems with 'daughters' - hanging clauses not attached to a verb!

The streets of Comrade are packed with excited tourists and, with party songs and local fanatics. They come from ~~across a wide~~ and they come dressed in extravagant costumes which are splashed with creativity and colour. Everybody has their own style to match their costume and personality. A man could wear a pirate costume or a ~~complicated~~ of black leather boots, an emerald pirate coat with gold buttons, a skull-shaped belt buckle, puffy pants shirt, black pants and a terrifying eye-patch. In addition, you could be a proud proud lion with a rainbow mane, a clown with an afro or even an alien from another galaxy. ~~be free~~ Remember - that tonight you are what you wear.

~~The streets~~ Since there are so many ~~per~~ creatures, there are certain ~~stands~~ ~~as~~ for people to refresh themselves to continue with the festivities. Stands are ~~to~~ ~~their~~ to provide all you need for keep you ~~you~~. Cultural and sumptuous delicacies and

smells, are there to feed ^{the} hungry party animal. A
 popular snack has to be nachos, fried crunchy
 potatoes smothered with rich cheese, & doused
 with hot seasonal sauces and gobs of flaming
 sauce. The smell of lime, fried chicken and
 - world famous - bonoado pepper can excite the
 stomachs of any creature or being. More importantly
 the ~~smells~~ strong drinks and spirits fuel the
 party people. Long walks, bottles of popular beers,
 the toughest whiskies and tropical rum are
~~abundant~~ as abundant as in ocean. The ~~plurim~~
~~abundant~~ and flavoured scents of alcohols are
 even tempt a teacher's pet to have a tad.

Best at the center of all of this - the street
 parade of bonoado bombetti rain's down from the
 roof tops of the building or local flats. The
 shiness traditional bonoado lights hang in rows
 above the festivities on thin wires. Made of a thin
 glass & glass ball and lit candle inside, it
 lights up the lively streets. The ~~parade~~ is present
 as it smiles to us with energy. The streets are painted
 with a wide variety of, well colour due to the rain
 of confetti. The sounds of tropical - ~~and~~ barbilberny
 music ~~awakes~~ the senses of everybody's wild side.
 The air smells of sweet perfume, spicy nachos and
~~and~~ barbilberny rum. The night creatures ~~join~~ give to
 the beat and cause the streets to vibrate with
 excitement. ~~Floats~~ Floats of ~~many~~ all unique designs and
 themes ~~were~~ ~~the~~ gliding over the streets. This is a
 night that people can only fantasize of experiencing.

Hefentse Hefolse.

Quadrant 5

The next day in you wake up to an extravagant mess.
The air is still, the streets are frozen and the people
have disappeared. This all this mess of bottles and
confetti tells me one thing in my mind - what
a night!

Marellan descriptive power. I commend you -
if only you could make the sentences correct
more fully to two verbs.

$C \frac{2}{10} S \frac{3}{5} L \frac{9}{10}$

Allison et. al. (2002) and Kress (1994) argue in support of the premise above and point out that increasing use of coordination and subordination, or hypotaxis, is regarded as a significant feature of developed writing skills. The more defined the use of a marked linguistic choice such as an adverbial phrase or clause, the more competent the use of the language, and indeed, the more conscious the use of self-monitoring and composing strategies by the learner. The table below sets out the hypotaxis indices that were calculated in the English language compositions produced by the learners in term two only of each of the three years, 2007-2009, of this study.

5.1.3. (v) Hypotaxis index in learners' extended writing: Quantitative data

Table 7: Table showing the participants' hypotaxis indices over a three-year period

Student	Term 2 2007: 7 tasks: Mean Hypotaxis	Term 2 2008: 6 tasks: Mean Hypotaxis	Term 2 2009: 5 tasks: Mean Hypotaxis	Mean Hypotaxis Index over 3 terms
Caroline	15	12	27	18
Lizzy	2	6	7	5**
Thandile	23	22	27	24
Solly	16	14	18	15
Refilwe	12	14	15	13.66
Thompson	6	8	10	8**
Buang	3	4	3	3.33**
Siyasanga	23	25	28	25.66
Lebogang	25	24	29	26
Ororiseng	5	4	4	4.33**
Oageng	4	7	16	9
Gomolemo	6	15	22	15
Hellen	12	25	30	22.33
Joyce	8	6	6	6.66**
Hamilton	18	16	17	17*
Japhta	17	19	20	18.66
Boitumelo	5	3	7	5**
Phillip	21	28	29	26
Mitta	6	4	9	6.33**
Babalwa	17	27	29	24.33

The learners marked ** failed to improve, and they were consequently weaned off the sponsored programme. The low hypotaxis index revealed in the table also points to the immense challenges that they faced in handling the language. By the end of Form Three, they were still relying on very simple sentences to communicate limited ideas in the most basic vocabulary. When reading passages for comprehension, their

answers were large lifts from the passage and the learners hardly used any words of their own.

From the table above, there appears to be an apparent contradiction with the midterm assessment results, but this could be explained in terms of the focused preparation that the learners had for this assessment. In addition, in the table above, the index was calculated on a number of tasks assessed throughout the term, instead of just the single assessment in the earlier table.

Generally then, ten(10) of the learners were apparently coping with the more complex and demanding, coordinated sentence structures as reflected in a hypotaxis index range between 14% and 26%, while the other ten(10) lagged behind in the range between 3% and 9%. The latter ten relied on simple sentences to convey ideas for either descriptions or unassuming narratives that developed basic plots and minimal characterisation. When they attempted persuasive and argumentative writing, these ten were further constrained in terms of the vocabulary that they used, and often this challenge was exacerbated by weak choice of viewpoint and voice. Four of these ten learners subsequently obtained grade D and E in the final CIE examinations (see Table 18 in this chapter).

Narratives and descriptions in this study yielded relatively low hypotaxis indices (17-21%), and this could be logically attributed to the sequential linearity of these genres. In contrast, argumentative and persuasive extended writing pieces, in the more successful of them, revealed hypotaxis indices between 23% and 27%. The plausible inference was that these genres (argumentation and persuasion) depend on and develop a stylistic circularity that is generated by logical connectors, propositions in arguments, awareness of counter-propositions, and in both, a more pronounced awareness of audience. Effectively therefore, the argumentative genre yielded a higher incidence of coordinated and subordinated clauses, i.e. a higher hypotaxis index than narratives and descriptions.

The findings above do not override the fact that a report-cum-descriptive text such as “The Horror Returns!” for instance, consists entirely of simple sentences: every sentence has only one subject and one finite verb (Appendix x). This extract was used to exemplify stylistic choices and strategies that writers use in order to create specific

effects. For a learner writer at this stage of secondary school education, sustaining the simple sentence as an effective style has been observed to be least successful, hence the focus on sentence variety that included coordination and subordination in the pedagogic instances of this research.

5.1.3. (vi) Writing processes and learners' strategy transfer: Ethnographic observations in the classroom

Many of the learners admitted to brainstorming ideas in their home languages and then formulating and recasting them in the English language. In such cases, there were three triggers identified that obviously impacted on the composing process: rehearsing the ideas for the composition, revising and re-reading what had been written. When a single sentence had been composed, the learners read the sentence that had just been composed again. This reading entailed some evaluation of the sentence in terms of completeness and whether or not the intended meaning had been communicated. This was always done before the next stage of composing the subsequent sentence. This meant also that the re-reading of the sentence was a spur in the generation and construction of the next sentence. This seems to suggest that the idea for any subsequent sentence in the composition was driven by the initial one generated in the previous sentence. Cohesion and coherence, if successfully achieved, was apparently driven by the preceding construction.

There was also a challenge with the choice of the appropriate word, at times in the middle of writing the sentence. In such a situation, words were chosen, discarded, re-examined and finally selected on the premise that the one selected expressed the learner's ideas most accurately – according to the learner's vocabulary range. This process of selecting an appropriate word meant that often the sentence was interrupted half-way and until the right word had been found, the sentence would take some considerable time to compose. This interruption also implied re-reading the "half-sentence" in order to "search" for the right word that would complete the intended meaning. Cancelled words, for instance, were a characteristic indication of the arduous processes of composition writing (see p.125 and 127 in the samples in this study).

This interrupted writing was also manifested in the general problem and challenge of “running out of ideas” in the middle of the writing. Whereas there was a general “spider diagram” of points that was used as a “bank of ideas” learners still ran out of ideas which were meaningful or related to what had been composed earlier. At times, this challenge grew bigger as the learner had to delete what had been earlier drafted since it was considered incompatible with the “new” idea that was emerging. The composing process became then a recursive exercise of generation, re-reading, deletion and regeneration in order to accomplish the “close fit” aimed at in the writing of the composition. At times, the recursive processes outlined above were very complex and affected by the individual learner’s struggles with the vocabulary of the English language. In an effort to achieve some semblance of coherence and grammaticality, many of the learners resorted to fragmented composing and “translation” (and at times, this process was successfully accomplished).

There was evidence of a critical interplay between the learner’s home language and the English language in the process of composing. This challenge was also exacerbated by the learner’s problems with grammar and spelling in the composition. At times, they resorted to consulting the dictionary to confirm the spelling. This was not made any easier by the fact that at times, the learner was not certain of the right word to look up in the dictionary. The process of composing could thus be described as following a series of steps that exerted a significant amount of cognitive load: “thinking” what to write or assembling ideas, writing, re-reading, deleting or self-correction, checking or confirming and again, “recovery” writing.

5.2.1. Qualitative data from interviews with the learners’ parents: September 1-2, 2007 and August 7-8 2009

The interview technique of gathering data was used because of its natural advantage about the richness of the description that emerges. This research obtained in-depth information about the learners and how they had performed in primary school, directly from the parents and guardians. The learners themselves were motivated to contribute additional information because someone, in the form of the researcher, was taking a personal and academic interest in their learning processes.

The aim of the first field trip was to gather first hand information on the location, amenities and resources of the schools from which the learners funded by the Telkom Foundation came. It was also intended to have semi-structured interviews with the parents and guardians of these learners in order to establish their feelings towards their children's language, the sponsors of the children's education and the new school their children were attending. It was crucial too to gauge the parents' attitude towards ISSA, especially with regard to how they perceived the integration of their children and the progress reports that had been forwarded to them at the end of the second term of 2007 (*Question 11 of the semi-structured interview with parents and guardians*). A key interest area was in the languages used by the learners: the home language and the extent to which they used the additional language, especially English (*Question 10 of the semi-structured interview*).

I intended to establish firstly a tenuous and difficult point: what language the learners used commonly at home; and then secondly establish the place and function of English in the same space. I wanted to establish the attitudes of the parents to this additional language, which, in the social and economic climate of South Africa apparently enjoyed a more privileged status when compared to the learners' home languages (*Questions 8 and 9*). This quest was arrived at because the national Constitution provides for parity of esteem and equality of the languages (*Appendix xi*), creating a facile impression that in whatever domain of social and economic discourse, the eleven official languages were regarded equally.

Polokwane, formerly Pietersberg, is the northernmost provincial capital in South Africa, and is approximately 665km from the International School of South Africa. Toronto school, the site from which some of the participants came, is 27km outside Polokwane. There is relatively developed infrastructure at the school. Classrooms are standard. The community is quasi-urban, with a number of underdeveloped shanty dwellings around. It is from a mixture of the very poor and the salaried few that some of the beneficiaries of the Telkom Foundation came.

Three of the parents I interviewed were very impressed with the progress of their children so far. They spoke highly of the staff and administration for all efforts made to make their children become fully integrated into the ISSA school community. One

of the parents said she was particularly delighted that her daughter had been selected to play for the school Korfball team in Holland over the holidays. This particular learner had already made distinct progress in her verbal skills and the writing skills were good.

Another parent was worried about the slow progress her son was making in English but was quick to point out that she was aware of his limitations and challenges especially in written English, dating from the primary school years. She pleaded that her son should be given further assistance so that he could make more acceptable and tangible progress in all his academic disciplines. The only male parent interviewed expressed satisfaction about the progress of his son at the new school and fully appreciated the TF bursary funding as it reduced his responsibilities and he could focus on other pressing demands.

I talked to one guardian whose child had had serious disciplinary problems. She was worried that her son would lose the sponsorship if he continued to be a problem behaviourally. She stressed that she had admonished her son and hoped that the school would be firm in dealing with him without, of course, jeopardising his chances of retaining the bursary. She had challenging marital problems and came from a struggling economic background. She indicated that progress in both English and Mathematics for her son could possibly be impeded by the disciplinary problems and should these be overcome, then there would be a chance of some marked progress.

Disake School, the second site, is 31km outside the small town of Northam in Limpopo and more than 380km from ISSA. It has only two classroom blocks for the middle school. The access road to the school was in a poor state of disrepair. The tiny village of Disake is made of make-shift tenements. A few standard houses, which stood out, belonged to some residents who were more privileged financially than the rest in the neighbourhood. Because of the crippling poverty of the community, there were only four parents accompanying their children, out of a possible twenty. Two of the parents could not communicate in English and self-consciously avoided both the informal and semi-structured interviews. Only one parent, a teacher herself, spoke to the researcher about the progress of her child. She expressed extreme delight that her daughter had had the opportunity to be at ISSA. She revealed that she was aware of

the problems her daughter faced academically and she hoped that the teachers in the school would do all in their power to make her daughter succeed. The learner in question struggled with basic sentence construction and found huge problems in spelling words correctly. Her sentences remained on the simple and compound level. Her spoken language had improved significantly and she could communicate with a degree of satisfactory, simple clarity.

The only other person to talk to was one woman teacher from Disake who had taught the TF beneficiaries a year ago when the beneficiaries were in their first year of secondary school. In her own way, she showed a lot of happiness and gratitude for the sponsorship and continued to tell all within earshot that the beneficent gesture of Telkom was a lifeline that should never be forgotten. She also indicated that Disake School had arranged a meeting with the chief executive officer of the Telkom Foundation where the parents, teachers at Disake School and the beneficiaries discussed their progress reports. What emerged was the concern in this school that the beneficiaries must use the opportunity to its fullest and never slacken in their efforts. There was, according to the teacher, *"a need for the learners never to let down Disake and the learning experiences gained at the school, its teachers and the parents who had made it possible for the learners to be where they were at this point: the International School."*

This teacher also revealed that one of the learners had shown very little progress and had suggested that due to the challenges and limitations he would rather take another year at the old school. Only after a lot of counseling and persuasion did he come back for the return trip to finish the term, and possibly continue on the programme if satisfactory progress was evident. This particular learner also lost both parents within a very short space of time and apparently had never fully reconciled himself to the loss. Progress in all his subjects was worrisome: writing in English displayed very little, if any, coherence; i.e. the connectedness of thoughts and ideas.

There was one learner who was late for the bus and we had to wait for him. When I tried speaking to the grandparent, it was evident again that he could not express himself in English and the intention would be futile if I attempted bringing in a translator to facilitate the interview.

5.2.2.1. Emerging patterns: Researcher observations

What emerged clearly from this field trip was a threefold outcome:

- The majority of the learners used their home language in all their communication needs and hardly therefore practised speaking in the target English language. English was a target language in terms of meeting the academic criteria of the school and the external examinations but, in the practical and everyday lived experiences of the learners, English played a very peripheral role.
- The parents of the learners, especially at Disake, did not have the means to facilitate a sense of continuity between what the school taught and what the parents offered, or did not offer, by way of scaffolding the English language acquisition process.
- On the return trip, all the learners were talking to each other in their home languages.

English, it emerged, was viewed as the language of the classroom. It had no space in their day-to-day interaction. The learners only responded in English when spoken to in that language, implying significantly that mastery and usage remained somewhat inhibited, if not particularly limited to the classroom. Unless reinforcement of another format was instituted, the learners' challenges of proficiency in articulation and competence in writing remained low.

What was most encouraging in the majority of the learners was that they looked forward to the opening of school for the third term and some expressed enthusiasm and hoped to obtain better results in English and across the curriculum than they had over the second term. It was also very interesting to observe that for many of the learners, ISSA had become a second home - and a better one. For many too, results in their subject aggregate passes were a lot better than in the first term when they were naturally awed and overwhelmed by the new school's ecology and its practices (see Figure 12).

5.3. Reading strategies and challenges: Results from ethnographic observation and open-ended interviews

Ngwenya (2010:75) contend that "cohesive devices are linking devices and cohesion refers to the whole process of connecting texts...coherence is different from cohesion in that it refers to the connection of thoughts and ideas which are not always obvious

in the language of the text.” Based on this submission, the questionnaire administered at the beginning of this case study sought to identify, from the learners themselves, the challenges that they faced as they engaged with various reading and visual texts. The following array represents what the learners thought constituted their hurdles in the interrogation of texts:

5.3.1. Global reading needs

- Reading texts in order to extract facts and messages as elicited by direct questions

This reading practice was gauged to imply, generally, reading at the code-breaking level, especially when new words appeared in the text, or when the phrase structure is complex and unfamiliar.

- Reading texts beyond direct reference (i.e. beyond extracting facts)

This challenge was understood to mean reading at the “text-user” level, i.e. meaning-making, where dialogue between the text and reader begins to emerge (Wertsch, 1991; Bakhtin 1984)

- Reading to offer explanations.

When this need was highlighted by the learners it was interrogated at the level of the struggle that learners made in order to get to some meaning of the text, taking into consideration the observations that Wilson (2001) and other Bakhtinian readers make about each reader entering into a dialogue with a text and therefore deriving unique personal meanings. Question 1 in the November paper on Mount Roraima tested this aspect (Appendix x).

- Reading in order to relate different parts of a passage to other segments in order to be able to offer opinion and evaluation.

This was observed as the most challenging reading level, considering that the learners in this study were interacting with the text in English that was an additional language. The cultural lenses through which the text was read affected the meanings derived and

it was considered appropriate to see the learner at the level of constructing meaning; knowing how to use the text. (Question 10 in Appendix iv, for instance, asked for an explanation of an implicit comparison: “What is the warning in the comparison *total freedom and lack of accountability can be as corrosive as acid*? Learner responses to this question failed to link metaphorical meanings and their personal evaluations of the impact of the comparison.)

- Identifying and learning appropriate words for specific experiences and phenomena. Again, from Appendix iv and x, learners were asked to explain “throaty intensity” and as a new expression to the learners, many supplied inadequate responses.

- Reading in order to extend vocabulary, and in turn, use the acquired vocabulary in individual expressive writing. In Appendix vi, words such as “prelude”, “tremor” and “nuptial” were encountered in the reading but hardly ever featured in the learners’ individual writing in the composition tasks.

- Identifying and using various sentence types correctly: simple, compound and complex; topic sentences, supporting details embedded in the sentences and terminal sentences

These last three challenges were interpreted to imply that the learners needed to gain what Wilson (2001) calls “text awareness” i.e. observing how language is used to achieve different purposes. The skills that the learners needed to develop related to an ability to discern shades of meaning, the ability to detect bias and locate a writer’s stance relative to the subject at hand.

It must be stressed that most of the learners in this study were not learning to read but aimed to read fluently and with some facility. They had gone past the stage of mediated reading (reading that requires prior identification of words and therefore putting quite some burden on learner memory and attentional systems), and strove for immediate comprehension which could be accomplished by going directly from the visual verbalisation of features of the words to the comprehension of meaning. The experienced reader in English for instance knows that words beginning with the letter *t* have for their second letters *h*, *r*, *w*, or a vowel. The letter *q* is always followed by

the letter *u*. Anderson (1994) adds that L2 learners need to learn such heuristics as part and parcel of skills acquisition. Encountering new words in their reading was a part of vocabulary extension as much as it was a challenge in their attempts to grapple with the meaning, usually in context, of the new words. In order to use the acquired vocabulary in their own writing, quite often the learners used both the dictionary and thesaurus to locate synonyms and antonyms of the word and then proceeded to create sentence structures where the new word was used to communicate meaning.

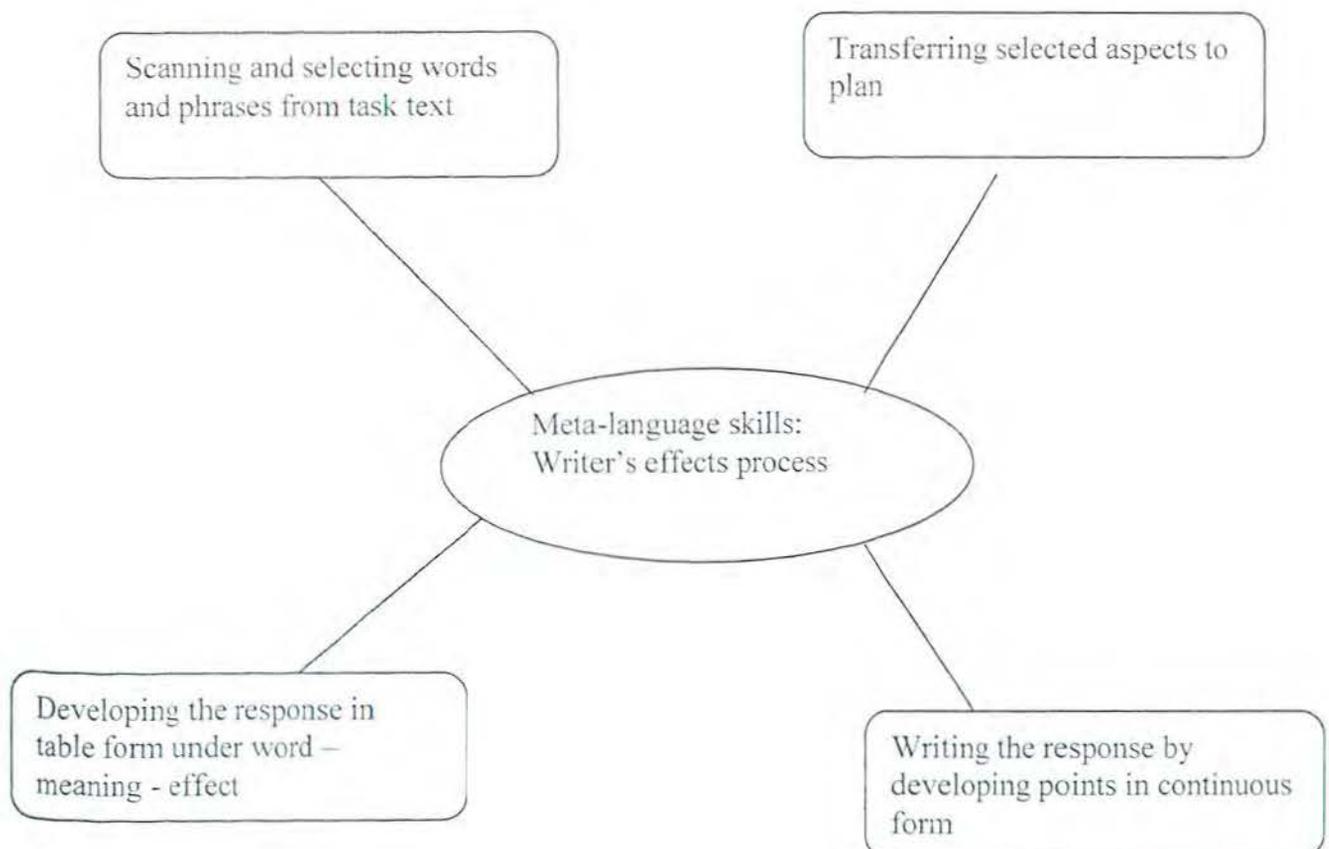
Cummins (1986:20) in the interdependence hypothesis suggests that transfer of proficiency from L1 to L2 will occur given adequate exposure and motivation to learn the language. The school, ISSA, promoted a desire in the learners to become active seekers of knowledge by seeking to understand from them the challenges that they faced, set down here as their needs. The incorporation of these in decision-making about instructional process and time was deemed as having provided further motivation for the learners.

A further point arising from this observation was related to pedagogical practice where pre-reading activities were valuable instances of eliciting and incorporating the learners' prior knowledge. Questioning, guessing strategies, word structure analysis (looking at prefixes, suffixes, roots and how new vocabulary can be derived from these) and discussion, as part of pre-reading, gave the learners psycholinguistic advantage as they engaged with vocabulary and semantic challenges in their own languages in order to unpack the L2 constructs. Of course, the challenge was in the differences between the languages: neither Setswana, sePedi nor isiZulu was cognate with English and in this case, new vocabulary in English was examined and understood as enabling the learners to deal with reading that was pitched at higher and more complex levels.

Unpacking the text at the various levels discussed above entailed building a capacity in the learners to read the texts constructively, i.e. making meaning of the text, exploiting the text for vocabulary slightly above their own levels, and looking for models in terms of sentence types and patterning for tasks that would be encountered in the course of study. In addition to these skills, learners were inducted into procedures of reading that allowed them to make connections with texts encountered

elsewhere, asking questions of the texts, reading in circular fashion rather than just seeing the text as linear experience. Anticipation, reflection, re-reading segments of the text were all reading strategies that were observed and encouraged. In reading “The Maternal Instinct” (Appendix vii of this study) for instance, learners were asked to reflect on questions such as: “Do you think the writer admires Laura? Or Lorna? How do you know that the writer is disgusted by and looks down upon the characters living on Miguel Street? How do you know that? What other words can you find in the story to show that the writer despairs about hope in this setting?” In reflecting on such issues, students engaged in constructing their personal perceptions of the text; instead of telling them the meaning of the story, the learners constructed their own understandings of Naipaul’s writing out of a genuine text awareness with interest. The schematic map was suggested to the learners as a useful approach to looking at the language of the text and reacting to its linguistic structure:

Figure 7: Writer’s effects response process:
Educator’s proposal



5.3.3 Word- formation: Consciously directed strategies

From the onset of the programme, learners had displayed a limited vocabulary range. It was incumbent upon the educators to devise a strategy where the learners would consciously learn new words. It was clear that learning words through simple reference to the dictionary or thesaurus would not be sufficient motivation for the learners to acquire an extensive vocabulary. The affix, which could be a prefix or suffix, were considered a useful starting point to expose learners to how words had a “core” meaning, and from that core, one could affix a prefix to extend the word to another domain and meaning (see Chapter 7, Unit 10). The same could be argued about the suffix added to a core word and the meaning of the word would be affected. When *im-* is added to *perfection*, a new word, *imperfection* is formed. The prefix *im-* negates, or reverses the meaning, making a word that means “flaw” or “not perfect.” This was extended to derivational suffixes that change the part of speech of a word: *immigrate* + *-ant* becomes *immigrant*. The inflectional suffix was taught directly as changing a word from singular to plural: *birch* + *-es* becomes *birches*; in common instances this changes a word from one tense to another as in *walk* + *-ed* becomes *walked*. The table below was used to illustrate some common logic in the derivation of words using suffixes and prefixes:

Table 8: Table used to illustrate word-formation through suffixes and prefixes

Prefixes expressing size	Meaning	Examples
micro-	Small	Microcircuit, microscope
mini-	Short, small	Miniskirt, miniseries
Prefixes expressing time	Meaning	Examples
Ante-	Before	Antenatal, antedate
post-	After	Postdate, postscript

Over a period, the learners showed some interest in examining words, not just as core graphemic forms, but as having within them the elastic possibilities generated by prefixial and suffixial additions to the core words. Words such as “decrying”, “disfigured”, and “distrusted” from “The Maternal Instinct” (Appendix vii) were

discussed from this perspective. Similarly, hyphenation as a word-formation strategy was discussed in the case of words such as “chop-suey and chow-min and chow-fan and broad-mouth” from the same story and this was tested in the November paper (Appendix x). This strategy was a deliberate and tailored use of vocabulary learning strategies that aided language achievement and proficiency in the learners. Though this strategy was not measured in any statistical or formulaic fashion, it appeared that the learners exposed to this strategy meaningfully improved their mastery of word forms and functions that were required for reception and production in the English language over time.

The inference above concurs with research into vocabulary learning and acquisition studies that contextualised vocabulary learning is generally more effective than simply learning word lists (Oxford and Scarcella, 1994). Words learnt in meaningful contexts are better assimilated and remembered according to McCarthy (1990), and in the case of the research participants in this study, it emerged that at least they had learnt approximately the 2000-3000 word families that facilitate independent reading and the extended acquisition of more vocabulary. The distinct challenge posed by words in context remains that the associational capacity of a word and its spheres of meaning must be, practically, derived from an understanding of its core meaning. This observation was augmented through the sentence-generate strategy, where the participants often had to use newly encountered vocabulary in sentences of their own in order to demonstrate their understanding of the target word.

5.3.4 Synonyms: Practical tasks and observation data

One of the most significant qualities of the English language is its range of vocabulary. This wide lexical range implies that individual words have specific shades of meaning. As the learning tasks in this research were organised and planned, this aspect of the language was carefully considered and therefore synonyms and antonyms were directly set as priority tasks to aid extension of vocabulary as part of language acquisition. The thesaurus was considered a useful tool for this purpose. An entry such as ‘rough’ would have synonyms offered such as ‘coarse’ and ‘tough.’ ‘Young’ could have ‘youthful’ and ‘childish’ as synonyms. In the pedagogical space of the classroom, this ‘flexibility’ and elasticity in the word had to be examined from the context in which each word was used. This allowed the learners to discern the

‘shades of meaning’ and how one synonym might not actually fit the context of the original word used. This capacity to accept or decline one synonym or antonym for another was seen as adding to procedural and important discriminating knowledge of words by the TF learners. The results of the November test (Appendix x) confirmed this.

5.3.5. Antonyms: Practical tasks and observation data

Extending the classroom practice on synonyms, the learners were exposed to antonyms largely through worksheets (see Appendix iii and Appendix x). Learners were asked to work individually through the worksheet where each sentence had two synonyms and one antonym and they were expected to “throw out” the antonym. This generated enthusiasm and the learners, in an interactive and relaxed atmosphere, began to interrogate the range of word-meanings and the opposite meanings carried by the antonym. Three excerpts from the “Antonyms Out” worksheet will suffice to illustrate the point:

Circle the word in parenthesis that cannot complete the sentence correctly:-

1. A beautiful piece of artwork is a (despicable, lovely, exquisite) thing to see.
2. An evil person could commit a (hideous, vile, charitable) crime.
3. An overweight person would be (portly, corpulent, slender).

Given such an exercise, the learners enjoyed identifying that the other two words were synonymous in meaning, while the third one projected a different meaning altogether. Such a contextualised task reinforced distinct strategies for the acquisition and extension of vocabulary items that the learners could later deploy in their writing tasks.

5.4. Some learner tasks in retrospect

Over an eleven-week period in 2007, following up on observed gaps in the CALP skills of the research participants, a teaching – learning programme was devised in an attempt to expose the learners to some of the strategies that they could use in order to develop linguistic expertise:

Distinguishing phrase from sentence

This preliminary task was devised on the observation that some of the participants wrote in ‘dangling phrases’ that did not make complete sense on their own. A mixed set of complete sentences and phrases was given to them in order to establish whether or not they could tell which of the constructions were sentences and which were not, if they could state the absence of a subject or a verb in the constructions. Some illustrations are given below:

- Into the picture/ I was the bait.
- By some flabby moving horror/ His teeth were his only weapon.
- Sometimes nothing happens. / Sticking out my chest

Changing verbs into nouns

Collide = collision

Apply = application

Reduce = reduction

Verb identification

Thabo, the driver, lost consciousness.

Menzi Vilakazi charged forward at the enemy.

Concord (the agreement in number between subject and verb) was also extended and developed from this practical level. The function of the colon as a mark of punctuation developed also from this focus, and the following examples, amongst others, were used to illustrate its positioning:

- These were the dangers of nuclear accidents: shock waves, searing light, flying glass, falling debris and radioactive dust.
- Here is a list of urgently needed medical supplies: antibiotics, bandages, splints, surgical instruments and blood plasma.

It was observed that, prior to these demonstrative series of lessons, learners only had a superficial grasp of the function of the colon and that in their writing, had hardly used it to any significant effect as evidenced by the paucity of this punctuation mark in the

scripts analysed in this study. After the lessons and direct instruction on the use of this punctuation mark, the TF learners used it effectively, even if sparingly.

As indicated already, the TF learners needed to understand the structure and nature of the language in order for them to handle better the written aspects. Errors manifested themselves in numerous syntactical and inappropriate lexical items in their use of English: fully formed sentences, structured into cohesive paragraphs, with correctly tensed verbs and numbered nouns remained perennial challenges. Barkhuizen (1992) and Forson (1992) also make a similar observation. Double marking was a semantic feature when only one tense marker was required, as in 'Kelebogile *didn't went back* home after the incident.' Whereas studies such as Buthelezi (1995), Chisanga (1997) and Mesthrie (2010) suggest the existence of local varieties of English in order to explain the occurrence of such errors, this study found that their occurrence was more a consequence of fossilisation and strictly emanated from the incorrect transmission of such forms by their teachers in the primary school settings (see discussion in 6.5). In fact, Mesthrie (2010) suggests that Black South African English (BSAE) belongs to the second wave of "varieties of English" since it is not, strictly, a complete creolisation such as that characterising Puerto Rican or West Indian varieties.

5.4.1. Comprehension

The participants in this case study revealed several challenges with regard to "comprehension as reading and responding to specific stimuli" inscribed in the command terms of the question. Over the research period, they:

- lifted segments from the comprehension passage, at times showing no relevance,
- missed the point emphasized in the question tag,
- missed the implied action as suggested by the command term in the question stem, and, more importantly,
- displayed evidence of non-comprehension as indicated by answers that showed no correspondence to the demands elicited by the question.

At the secondary school stage, learners are expected to demonstrate competencies at the level of:

Framing responses to direct questions in full sentence constructions;
Framing responses to questions that elicit readers to make deductions;
Framing responses to questions that require readers to give opinions or judgments;
Framing responses to questions that implicitly or explicitly demand readers to compare or contrast;
Vocabulary questions based on selected words from a passage/ word substitution in the context of sentences so that the meaning is retained, including “effective vocabulary” such as “infamous”, “acknowledge”, “hideous”, and “alien.”
After the selected comprehension passage, writing a summary was identified as the subsequent and logical focus.

5.4.2. Summary writing: Qualitative data from the learners’ tasks

In Prepare to Learn, Weideman (2007) argues that the construct of academic literacy entails the ability to distinguish between essential and non-essential information, fact and opinion, propositions and arguments, cause and effect. In addition to making meaning of a text beyond the sentence level, summary writing is one critical strategy in the repertoire of academic literacy.

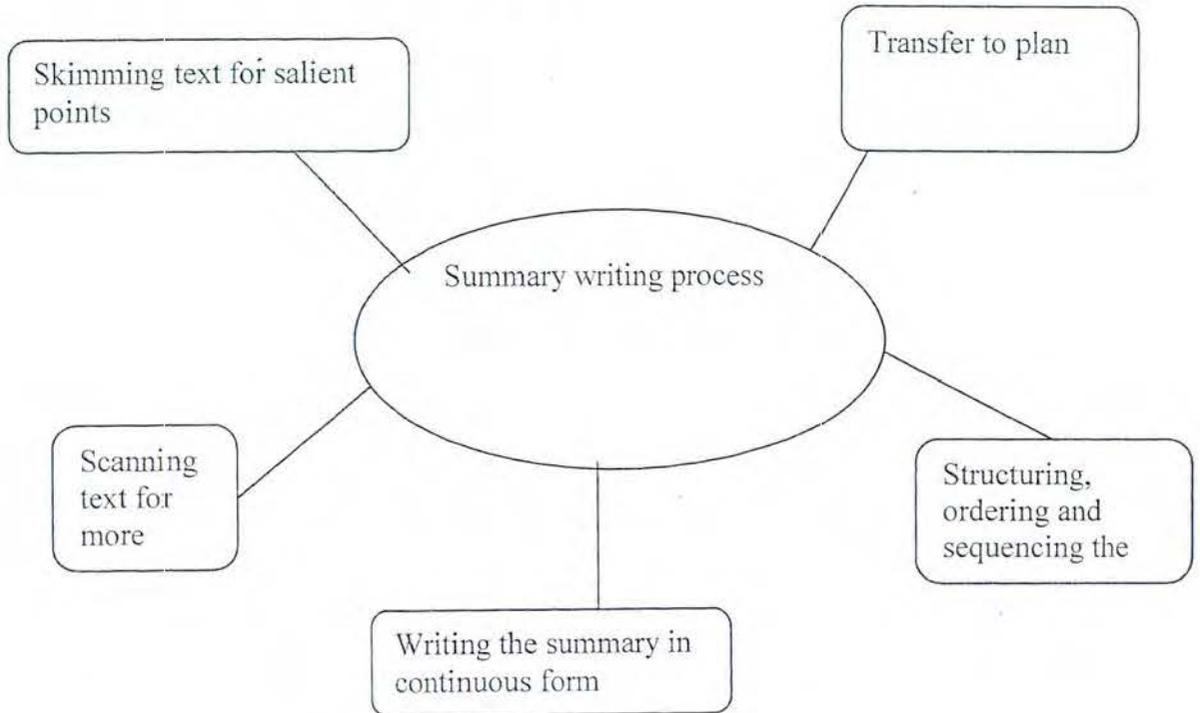
Summary writing was approached from everyday language applications, that we hardly tell everything that happens to us or our loved ones but select to tell the most important detail without losing focus on the purpose of what we tell. For set tasks in academic summary writing, the following points were highlighted:

- Purpose
- Focus on specific details
- Absence of elaborate details, particularly adjectives and adverbs
- Paying attention to distracters that only serve to embellish in most writing
- Maintaining the same tense and voice as supplied in the question tag
- Focus on mechanical and structural accuracy

A follow-up summary task, based on a chapter of the reader that was in use, was set for the learners (Crocodile Burning). Similar tasks were set on the series of short stories that were selected for extensive reading, such as “A Bekkersdaal Marathon,” “The Gold Cadillac,” Zimunya’s “Nelia” and Frank O’Connor’s “My Oedipus Complex” (Appendix vii). The following, Figure 8, “Summary conceptualisation

map” was designed and suggested to the learners as a useful starting point in dealing with the summary question.

Figure 8: Summary writing conceptual mapping.



In most summary tasks at the secondary level, the summary question is based on a reading passage. At subsequent higher levels, particularly the penultimate year of IGCSE, this might be based on two reading passages of a comparative or contrastive nature. The wording of the summary question at the IGCSE level follows the pattern below:

Using your own words as far as possible, write a summary in which you explain how it became clear to Reena that an earthquake was happening, and what the various members of the family did to survive after it.

Use only material from lines 18 to 69.

Your summary, which must be in continuous writing (not note form), must not be longer than 160 words (one page), including the ten words below.

Begin your summary as follows:

In the morning when Reena woke up, she realised that...

Where two passages are the source of the summary question, the format is as detailed below:

Read Passage A and Passage B. Summarise the feature of the lifestyles described in each passage.

You should write about one side in total, allowing for the size of your handwriting.

Up to fifteen marks are for the content of your answer and up to five marks for the quality of your writing.

The assessment tool, that is the question paper, gives the learner passages based on a number of diverse subjects. The learner must go through the passages and identify the points that go on to make the summary as required by the wording of the question. Invariably, the summary question tests out of the learner the ability to be selective and concise without repeating points or ideas. The flow of the original passage must be as uninterrupted as possible, stating only the most relevant detail and doing away with all unnecessary embellishments in the language. Accuracy in language use, effective organisation of the selected points and a generally concise English language style will be rewarded under the rubric “style.” Since the summary is a report (in its own way), the simple past tense ought to be consistently used in the learner’s write-up. This is in addition to the instruction to use one’s own words as far as possible, a skill that discourages phrase-lifting from the passages in question. By extension, such a skill trains the learner to avoid “plagiarism” allowing the learner space to be constructively engaged with the process of text-creation and re-formulation.

5.4.3. Punctuating direct speech

Since most narrative and descriptive texts are constructed with characters to voice experiences, opinions and relationships, it was established that learners in this research ought to acquire skills that enabled them to distinguish between different voices and speakers. The skills included, amongst others:

- Reporting and the use of the past tense/ the passive voice

(After a violent quarrel over his behaviour, the angry student stormed out of the classroom; ‘I will not be intimidated by these upstarts,’ shouted the muscular bouncer; ‘Who brought these spiders into the room?’ asked the teacher. When changing such a construction into reported speech, the version ought to be: The teacher asked who had brought the spiders into the room.)

• Matching plain and euphemistic expressions (using an advertisement in the property segment of a newspaper) Question inversion as opposed to direct question form.

• *Haunted house – late owner still gives the property tender loving care (TLC)*

• *Garden fallen to crack- lovely garden for nature lovers*

• *Rotten doors need replacement – natural face brick finish accentuated by genuine antique doors*

• Supplying the comma/appropriate punctuation mark: for parenthesis, listing and addressing the subject

Adjectives

Identification of the part of speech and the function in the phrase/clause

A credible performance

a profitable business

A competent teacher

a collapsible chair

A doubtful goal

a deceitful person

5.4.4. Development of composition: Qualitative data from the Educator's lesson plans

Major components assessed in composition writing presented challenges to the research participants, and though the following list appears general, these were perceived as the focal areas:

- Word choice
- Sentence variety
- Characterisation/role/function of character

The title for the narrative composition suggested was *'It was obvious that he had never intended to keep his promise.'*

Based on the verbs used, it was suggested to the learners that appropriate adverbs ought to be selected in order to qualify the action:

He accidentally reversed the car into a telegraph pole.

The fire raged furiously through the building.

The students attended the lessons punctually.

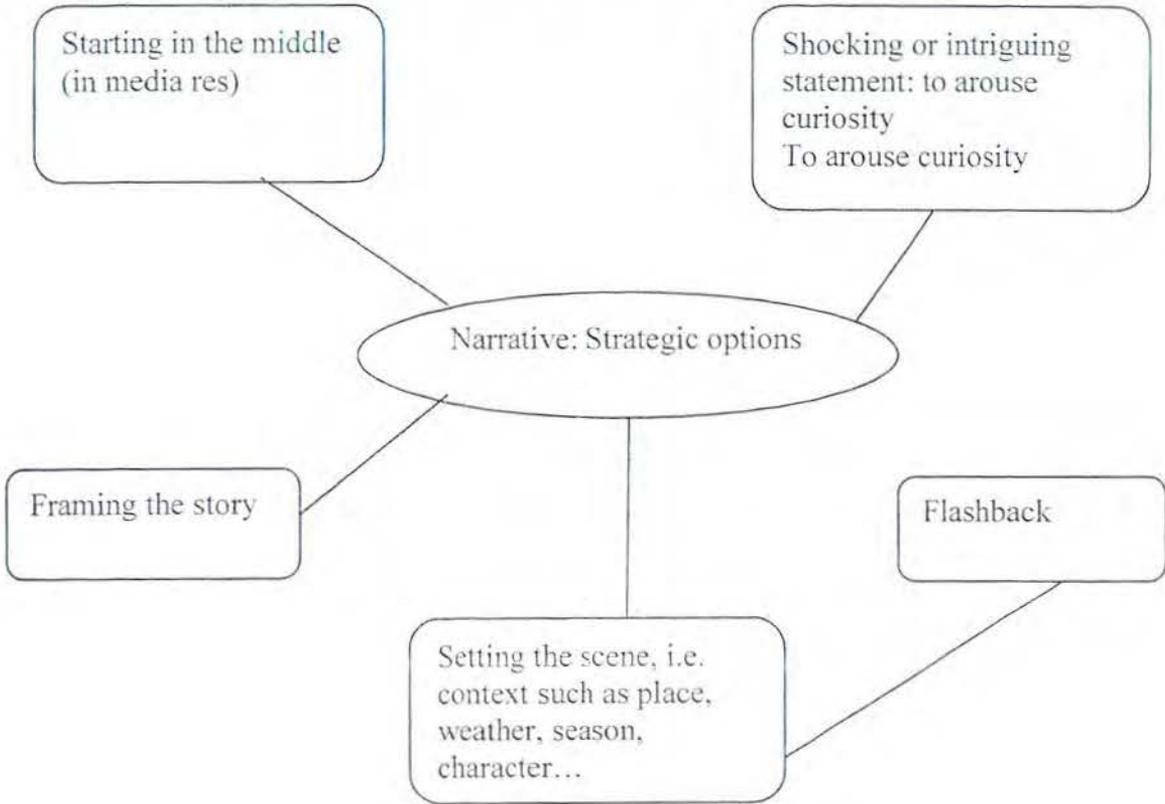
The summer sun shone radiantly.

Doubtfully, Thato agreed to invest his hard-earned money.

In all instances, the focus was on the aspect of how an action happened, and the positioning of the adverb in the ultimate construction.

For the narrative composition, the concept map in Figure 9 was devised and suggested to the learners.

Figure 9: Narrative writing: suggested processes



5.5. Progress assessment: Extensive reading

After the directed instruction provided, the learners were assessed on writing tasks where they were expected to implement some of the acquired skills in their reading and writing. The task set was a comprehension, with questions set on a cumulatively graded scale of difficulty (Appendix viii, *Social Life in the Insect World*). Initial questions tapped into the recall skills of the participants while the subsequent questions required the learners to use both evaluation and analysis skills. Word-substitution skills were elicited, on the basis that the learners could comprehend the words as they were used in the original text.

There was also a summary question which sought to establish whether or not the research participants could select, order and sequence the points for a summary and in the process, retain or maintain the cohesiveness necessary for a summary to convey the salient points of a piece of descriptive and expository writing (Appendix x).

5.5.1.1. Progress assessment in writing: Writer's effects

The short story "The Maternal Instinct" by V.S. Naipaul was selected for its masterful style, development of character and its capacity to elicit empathy (Appendix vi). The language is effective and succeeds in creating visual images. Sparse dialogue in patois makes the characters approximate the realism of West Indian experiences. Amongst other aspects, the story was read aloud in order to gauge fluency levels of the learners. After the reading the learners were asked to list the new vocabulary they had encountered. These new words were used to extend the 'vocabank' that the learners continued to build in the English language lessons. The 'vocabank' also included effective phrasing encountered in the reading of the short story as these would be used to estimate the ultimate impression that the participants had of the 'writer's style.'

Some of the phrases selected by the participants included:

- A wave of excitement
- Whirring like a wind
- Tearing down the slope

Each of these phrases was evaluated on its effectiveness in suggesting action or evoking a comparison.

In lessons on "Miguel Street", a more intricate debate was raised on the reasons why Naipaul was using dialect and informal English. This was especially contested in the light of the feedback that the research participants received in their own writings and SABE or "untranslatable expressions" that posed meaning-making problems. This was an instance of the tensions that are constantly replayed in "periphery classrooms" where "established writers" have the license to manipulate language to express their own ideas, but the "novice, learner writer" is perennially penalized for subverting standards and conventions (Canagarajah, 1999). Questions of code-mixing in the South African educational setting, and the question of language ownership (Permagianni, 2009) were being interrogated in this instance.

5.5.1.2. Synonymy and degree of emotive words

A single word was identified and the learners were asked to supply two additional words that carried the same meaning or suggested similar value or quality as the original. ‘Totally’ was replaced by ‘fully’ and ‘wholly.’ ‘Unusual’ was replaced by ‘abnormal’ and ‘extraordinary.’ ‘Expertly’ was replaced by ‘skillfully’ and ‘professionally.’ In the development of this ‘word substitution game’ the sentences below were used to illustrate the degree to which a particular word choice effectively alters meaning and therefore making the construction carry ‘more meaning’:

- *Refilwe walked to the beach on Saturday night.*
- *Refilwe strolled to the beach on Saturday night.*
- *Refilwe staggered to the beach on Saturday night.*

The number of words in each of the sentences remains the same but the use of the hyponym “staggered” in the third sentence allows anyone to “see” what Refilwe is doing in “the mind’s eye” whereas the other two sentences remain “abstract” – even though they use “everyday” words. Having worked on these illustrations, the learners were given a practice table as shown in table 9:

Table 9: Word emotive scale: A practical task

Least emotive _____ Most emotive

Untamed	Wild	Uncivilized	Savage
Hopeful	Optimistic	Expectant	Confident
First place	Winner	Victor	Conqueror
Bad	Misbehaved	Mischievous	Disobedient

The scale used in this table reflected the manner in which a specific word could be substituted for another but carry “more significant weight” in terms of meaning. Such a table was useful in exploring what Bakhtin (1984) called the “layering” embedded in a word and was especially useful for extending the way in which word use determined the load of context and intention in communication and writing. The selection of a word or phrase indeed is related to how writers and speakers construct texts based on their understanding of audience, hence appropriately packaging their intentions in the conscious selections that they make. This underscores the often-

understated point that words can never be neutral, but are actually expressions of particular values and ideological positioning relative to the subject.

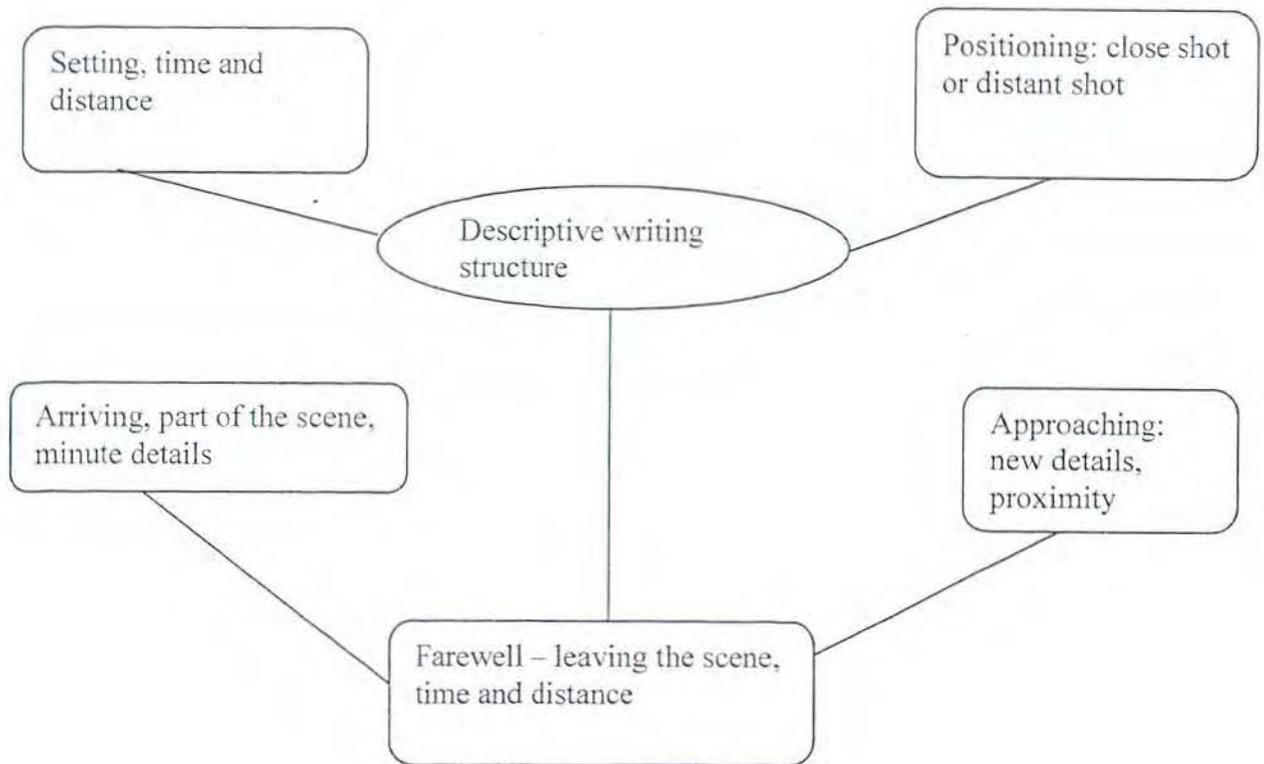
5.5.2. Building an argument and using persuasive techniques

This aspect of writing and language use was approached from an everyday point of view: that we all engage in debates on a daily basis and attempt to use the most winning style. The “tobacco debate” was used to illustrate and engage the learners. The topic was “Smoking should be banned in all public spaces.” Stages of argument were defined and markers of turn in argument were supplied for these critical stages:

- *Introduction*: first of all, to begin with, to start with.
- *Connections (for structure)*: and, also, furthermore, what’s more, as well as, again, moreover, subsequently, at last, so far, in the end, eventually, afterwards, next
- *Contrasting what is different*: on the contrary, however, yet, the opposite, to turn to, whereas, despite this
- *Making exceptions*: only if, unless, except (for), save for
- *Relativity*: more importantly, what’s more, what’s worse, indeed, notably, significantly, in fact (two words), in particular
- *Ranking*: above all else, above all, most of all
- *Conclusion*: in conclusion, in sum, therefore, on the whole, in the end, to recap, throughout, in all
- *Exemplification*: for instance, for example, to illustrate, by way of illustration, evidently, take the case of, as revealed by

After an oral discussion forum, the learners were tasked to present a written version, employing the most winning style and taking a particular standpoint in relation to the topic. As for the narrative framework suggested earlier, a conceptual framing for the descriptive and persuasive writing tasks was proposed and outlined as indicated in the following, Figure 10.

Figure 10: Suggested procedures for descriptive and persuasive writing tasks



5.5.3. Dictionary work

This segment of language learning was used frequently to explore the following aspects: root words, word-formation, word derivation, and word class (noun, verb, adverb, adjective and so on), stress and the selection of appropriate words in a given context. The other reference tool, the thesaurus, was simultaneously used to explore synonymy, antonyms, pronunciation and hyponymy. Whereas little in the literature on cognitive academic language proficiency refers specifically to the use of these tools, these were extensively used in the research observations in an effort to extend the range of vocabulary that the learners had. It was this researcher's strong conviction that the more restricted one's vocabulary remained, the less they could gain facility and competence in the target language, especially where shades of meaning were intended in either spoken or written communication. The dictionary was also used to facilitate the learning and mastery of spelling, considered quite a critical factor in one's language skills.

5.6. Document analysis: Comparability of curriculum standards between OBE and CIE

As indicated in Chapter 1 and Chapter 2, learners in this study were weaned from OBE and inducted into the CIE curriculum. This curricular paradigm shift necessitated a practical need to compare and contrast the outcomes anticipated by the two, without necessarily attempting to establish the inferiority or superiority of one over the other.

As a curriculum design and practice, OBE is cast as a positivistic outlook on what learners and educators can achieve, parents included. The Department of Education (DoE) designed the anticipated outcomes based on the philosophical premise that all learners can succeed. In practice, learners are promoted from one grade to the next even though reading and writing skills could still be at the BICS level (Venter, 2000; Mkhabela, 1999). This reality emerges from the continuous assessment practices under OBE where the educator has to practically account for the failure of a learner to proceed to a higher grade. In addition, the learners are expected to work on a given task in draft form and perfect this over a number of editing, re-writing and refining attempts. The practical implication is that assistance in the completion of the task comes from various sources – the educator, the parents and peers in the grade or group. This collective assistance, in its own way, emasculates the learner and practically takes away the individual initiative to be personally responsible for one's learning, enquiry and development of CALP skills. Continuous assessment therefore, as a practice within the ambit of OBE, is viewed as both inconsistent and lacking in reliability across the various educators, especially given the elastic grade bands of 1-4 that are used to describe the competencies of the learners (Jansen, 1999).

Continuous assessment is also quite problematic in the critical area of inter-rater reliability where one educator's rating of a learner as 3 might be another educator's rating of a similar learner as 4. The absence of standardization in this regard in the South African education system presents a peculiar challenge to continuous assessment (Jansen, 2008). Another important dimension is the fact that educators, under pressure from the DoE and other administrative protocols, inflate marks for continuous assessment despite the official pass mark being 40%. This low pass mark has been the subject of many controversies regarding quality assurance and comparability of standards across assessment boards (Jansen, 1999 and 2011).

“Learning from Africa”, an Umalusi research report, makes a similar observation on the perceived difference between the terms “satisfactory” and “adequate” that are used to differentiate learners, arguing that the “terms are often considered to be synonymous” (2008:28). The same research report concedes that over time the competence descriptors “may come to be interpreted and applied with some consistency” (ibid) but this convergence of assessors will by no means eliminate subjectivity. Suffice to conclude at this point that given the challenges in continuous assessment described above, the majority of the learners who enrolled at ISSA in 2007 did not perform according to the success descriptors such as “meritorious” and “outstanding” that they were awarded under OBE at their previous schools.

5.6.1 Findings on what both CIE and OBE (South Africa) assess in English

In the projected bid to develop an efficient and relevant English language syllabus for the TF learners, this study sought to examine what both CIE and OBE (South Africa) assess in English. This synthesized information helped to shape the developmental path intended by the syllabus. The mark schemes issued for public examinations by both bodies were examined with this end in mind. Table 10 summarizes the salient features of the two assessment and mark schemes:

Table 10: Comparing CIE and OBE (SA) English Language Marking Schemes

CAMBRIDGE INTERNATIONAL EXAMINATIONS: ENGLISH AS A FIRST LANGUAGE	OUTCOMES-BASED EDUCATION (SOUTH AFRICA): ENGLISH HOME LANGUAGE
Articulate experience and express what is thought, felt and imagined	Assessors look for the overall effect of planning, drafting, proofreading and editing of the work of the final text produced.
Order and present facts, ideas and opinions	Learners must exhibit an awareness of writing for a specific purpose, audience and context.
Understand and use a range of appropriate vocabulary	The assessment rubric insists on looking at the grammar, spelling and punctuation of the final script.
Use language and register appropriate to audience and context	The assessment rubric also advises assessors to rate language structures, including a critical language awareness (sic)
Make accurate and effective use of paragraphs, grammatical structures, sentences, punctuation and spelling.	Assessors are exhorted to evaluate choice of words and idiomatic language.
The writing objectives above are weighted together with an ability to understand and collate meanings	One assessment criteria that is put in quite a bland fashion is "sentence structure"(sic)
Learners should also demonstrate that they understand, can explain and collate explicit meanings and attitudes	The next assessment criterion is described as 'paragraphing – their internal cohesion as well as their overall coherence.'
The learners' reading ability would enable them to select, analyse and evaluate what is relevant to specific purposes	Register, style and tone
	Interpretation of the topic that will be reflected in the overall content: the introduction, conclusion and development of ideas. (sic)

For both examining boards, there is an apparent similarity in the approach to marking sustained pieces of writing, be it description, narration, argument or summary. For OBE (South Africa), there are three strategies adopted:

1. Read the whole piece and decide on a category for CONTENT.
2. Re-read the piece to select the appropriate category for LANGUAGE.
3. Where the two categories intersect on the grid, place the mark for the text within the mark range in that block.

The CIE mark scheme also has two marks for:

1. Content and structure, then
2. Style and accuracy.

In OBE (South Africa) when the piece has been marked for its content and language, it is placed on a holistic descriptive scale that has seven (7) bands: meritorious, outstanding, substantial, average, moderate, elementary and 'not achieved.' The CIE scale has six (6) bands instead.

5.6.3 Implications about CALP skills derived from the mark schemes

A set of important observations were made from the details provided by the mark schemes that were relevant to this study, especially the concept of CALP skills. As an indicator of written competency skills, the learner writers must demonstrate an excellent, consistent sense of audience. Depending on the genre of the extended piece of writing, the appropriate narrative, descriptive, argumentative or conversational styles ought to be evident. This point logically leads to the next indicator of developed CALP skills, which is the use of fluent, varied sentences, in addition to a wide range of appropriately used, ambitious vocabulary. There is also an explicit expectation that a learner writer with a full repertoire of CALP skills would demonstrate a strong sense of structure and sequence in the composition and, for top of the range learner writers, there would be virtually no error. These observations tally with the hypotaxis indices calculated earlier (cf Table 7) in order to identify the sentence level competencies that the learners developed over the three years of this study.

To distinguish learners with fully developed CALP skills from those operating at the extreme end of BICS, the mark schemes categorize the latter as writers whose work exhibits serious errors and inaccuracies in grammar and use of vocabulary. For these learner writers, the mark schemes converged in describing the weaker group as characteristically using a language and style that is not clear, lacking in order and marked by intrusive errors. It was also observed that a preponderance of simple sentences was considered an obvious inadequacy by both mark schemes. Errors that

are persistent and distracting, in addition to rambling and faulty sentences, were considered as evidence of less developed CALP skills. Overall, it was clear that the distinction between learners who exhibited fully developed CALP skills and those with only elementary skills was made on the basis of how much the language used in the writing was sufficient to carry the intended meaning.

The observations above are corroborated by Umalusi's "Learning from Africa" in the segment aptly called "Coherence, sequencing, progression and pacing." The major critique advanced by the report on C2005 (revised) was that "there is little explicit sequencing of skills or content across grades, and little indication of how far along the curriculum teachers should be by the end of each year of study. Because of the overwhelming similarity of the assessment standards for each consecutive grade, there is likely to be a strong tendency to repeat very similar work from grade to grade" (2008:18). Repetition of concepts and even recursive treatment of topics might reinforce development and mastery of skills but the point of criticism about the RNCS (2005) remains that the sequencing and coherence between these should be made more explicit. The intended English language curriculum design aspires to be as explicit as possible so that the constructs in the examined curriculum are operationalised at the grade-appropriate cognitive levels in the South African secondary school.

In terms of item development and validity evidence related to adherence to evidence-based principles, the CIE English First Language paper has a higher face-validity compared to the DoE paper. The CIE paper has had the same format since 2005 while the DoE one has no historical precedent to compare with. Of course this observation does not overlook the curriculum and political imperatives in the South African educational ecology and the need to revise both curricula and examination protocols. The 2010 examination paper for English Home Language from DoE displays a somewhat indefensible sampling of content domains when gauged against the prevailing syllabus specifications. The summary question, for instance, asks the candidates to *list* the points only, without asking and insisting on the linkages between these points:

Your teacher has asked you to deliver a short talk to your classmates during the English oral period on how to take care of your takkies. Read the article below and summarise the main points for inclusion in your article.

Instructions

1. List seven points in full sentences using approximately 70 words.
2. Number your sentences from 1 to 7.
3. Write only one point per line.
4. Use your own words as far as possible. [10 marks]

In listing, the cognitive demands are apparently lower than the cognitive demands of writing in continuous form and adhering to stylistic principles such as concision and cohesion, a test construct that was evident in the CIE question paper of the same year. The CIE summary question was set out as follows:

Summarise (a) the evidence that the orchestra described in passage B is “really terrible” and (b) what Signor Allesandro thinks are the qualities of a great conductor, as described in Passage A. Use your own words as far as possible. You should write about one side in total...Up to fifteen marks will be available for the content of your answer, and up to five marks for the quality of your writing. [20marks]

One glaring difference is in the length of the reading passages: CIE asks the candidate to read two passages concurrently, each one of them approximately 90 lines, and extends this to test the candidate’s ability to make the selection of summary points and link them in continuous writing while the DoE task, in contrast, is set on a very trite passage that is only 17 lines long.

The CIE marking scheme for the summary question explicitly states what it seeks to test. For 15 marks, the question tests candidates’ reading to be demonstrated in how they (as spelt out in the Reading Curriculum component):

- a. Understand and collate explicit meanings
- b. Understand, explain and collate implicit meanings and attitudes
- c. Select, analyse and evaluate what is relevant to specific purposes.

As a higher order skills question, the summary task seeks to screen candidates on their abilities to perform at the appropriate grade-level and their ability to demonstrate the

relevant skills as outlined in both the marking scheme and the curriculum objectives. This summary task recognizes the links between the reading and the writing skills of the candidates, hence for 5 marks, it rewards the candidate's ability to:

- a. Articulate experiences and express what is thought, felt and imagined
- b. Order and present facts, ideas and opinions
- c. Understand and use a range of appropriate vocabulary
- d. Use language and register appropriate to audience and context
- e. Make accurate and effective use of paragraphs, grammatical structures, sentences, punctuation and spelling.

Compared to the DoE summary task in the examination where only "ordering and presenting facts" in list form is assessed, the CIE summary task in the examination is understood as a more credible construct of the skills embedded in "summarizing." In addition, the CIE summary task asks the candidates to "use own words as far as possible" and the final response ought to be "one page" in length. This is a clearly more valid assessment task when compared to the mere "list(ing) of at least seven points" that was set as the DoE summary task.

For the comprehension test items, there is also evidence of lower order skills being tested in the DoE paper when compared to the CIE one. The first reading passage in the DoE paper, "There's a Hippo on My Stoep!" is very simple in terms of the reading levels associated with a school leaving examination such as this matriculation one. Notwithstanding the simplicity of the text, the questions set on it could be classified as lying on a continuum between simple recall, application and basic analysis. There is no evidence of questions at the higher analysis, evaluation and synthesis domains:

- | | |
|--|-----|
| 1.1. How does Jessica come to live with the Jouberts? | (2) |
| 1.2. Why does Jessica sleep on the stoep? | (2) |
| 1.7. State two points from the passage which show that the Jouberts now regard Jessica as their "child." | (2) |

In contrast, the CIE comprehension question for the same year asked candidates the following two questions, based on two significantly challenging reading passages:

Question 1

Immediately after the sequences that you have just read, Signor Allesandro gives a TV interview. The interviewer asks three questions: Some people say you are an eccentric man whose behavior is odd at times. Are they right? Can you explain the unexpected happenings that took place at the beginning of your Beethoven concert? Do you think that the time has come for you to retire from conducting? Write the words of the interview.

Base your answer on what you have read in Passage A. Write between one and a half to two pages. Up to fifteen marks will be available for the content of your answer and up to five marks for the quality of your writing.

[20 marks]

Question 2

Re-read the descriptions of (a) Signor Allesandro's enjoyment of the curry in paragraph 1 and (b) the traffic jam in paragraph 3. Select words and phrases from these descriptions, and explain how the writer has created effects by using this language. [10 marks]

In order to fully respond to Question 1 in the CIE paper, the candidate has to focus on the three parts: the eccentric behavior of Allesandro, the unexpected happenings and whether or not Allesandro should retire. The first part insists that candidates read and understand the character of the "great conductor" and in particular his arrogance. In the latter parts of the question, the candidates also need to make judicious interpretations of both character and behavior, based on what they have read. Candidates are tested on their ability to go beyond a mechanical reproduction of parts of the text. The format of the interview, even though the interviewer's questions are provided, is another test construct that seeks to measure the ability to articulate experience, express what is thought and felt, present ideas in an acceptable format and use language and register appropriate to the task set.

Question 2 in the CIE examination, for instance, is marked for the candidate's ability to select effective or unusual words and demonstrating an understanding of ways in which language is purposely made effective by the writer's conscious choices. The test construct seeks to establish the candidate's ability to select words that carry

specific meanings, including implications. Commenting on a writer's language is in itself already a meta-linguistic task and the candidates are cognitively stretched to make sensible comments on the language of the writer and the consequent effects that are created through this usage.

Questions 1.1. to 1.8. based on the first passage are similar in their taxonomy to Questions 2.1. to 2.8. based on Passage B in the DoE examination paper. Question 2.4. for instance asks the candidates:

"State whether the following statement is true or false and give a reason for your answer. Buyiswa has two biological daughters. [2 marks]

True-False questions are, in general, hackneyed test constructs and even though they could be defensible, they do not sufficiently pose cognitive challenges on the learner. The last question on Passage B in the DoE paper, "Give a suitable title for the passage, using no more than six words" is worth two marks and is very predictable to any candidate who has read through the magazine article on self-actualisation and personal fulfillment.

Passing scores for the DoE English Home Language paper are a cause for concern. Pegged at 40%, this pass mark is comparably lower than the 60% cut-off point for grade C in the CIE paper. One important feature of any examination process is "establishing defensible passing scores." The scales that validate performance descriptors in the DoE paper in this instance are skewed to promote "mediocrity" (Jansen, 2010). Table 11 shows the performance distribution of the candidates and the grades awarded by CIE in 2010:

grade review procedures were inadequate and lacking in uniformity in the case of the DoE examinations. Thirdly, whereas standardization is viewed as a statistical necessity as well as a procedural one, the integrity of the South African English Home Language examination was severely challenged as the performance standards of the candidates were “adjusted upwards”(Howie, 2009).

5.6.4.Comparable curriculum outcomes versus comparable proficiency and performance outcomes

This study has indicated that there have been two significant changes in the South African curriculum: the transition from apartheid to a democratic dispensation necessitated the first change, while a human resources and curriculum implementation challenge necessitated the second one. The second change, which has brought the more problematic hiatus, needs to be examined more deeply. Whereas the political agenda has pushed for these paradigm shifts in the spirit of “redressing the imbalances of the past”, it is also important to observe that this shift could have disadvantaged learners through extraneous factors such as teacher under-preparedness, the novelty of new materials and the introduction of unfamiliar assessment techniques, including, amongst others, continuous assessment. The comparable outcomes perspective contends that the first cohort of students on RNCS 2007 should have grades equivalent to the last cohort on the old curriculum. Considering the test questions in the English First Language from CIE and DoE, it is possible to conclude that through “social moderation,” item difficulty and item discrimination analyses, the CIE questioning and response calibration offered higher cognitive challenges when compared to the DoE papers. On test design and test assembly, i.e. the test forms, such as essay, multiple choice and structured questions, the CIE test papers offered more robust test constructs than DoE. Whereas the curriculum blueprints of OBE (South Africa) and CIE might compare favourably, specifically with regard to operational definitions of content and frameworks of validity, the DoE test papers offered indefensible samples of content and cognitive demands.

5.6.5.Passing scores

In terms of “defensible marks” for each grade awarded, CIE used the following distribution to award the respective grades:

Table 13: CIE defended grade cut-off points

Component	Maximum mark available	A: Minimum mark required for grade	C: Minimum mark required for grade	E: Minimum mark required for grade	F: Minimum mark required for grade
Paper 2	50	31	23	17	N/A
Paper 3	50	30	23	15	11

The threshold for grade B is set halfway between those for grade A and C. The threshold for grade D is set halfway between those for grade C and E. The threshold for G is set as many marks below the F threshold as the E threshold is above it. Grade A* does not exist at the level of an individual paper component but is, at the grade review meetings, awarded to those outstanding candidates who performed at comparably high levels relative to the two preceding examination years. Such internal comparability checks are set as checks and balances for the “standards” of the subject and the paper components. This breakdown was not available at the time of researching for this study from Umalusi and DoE in South Africa, but it would have been revealing to establish the “arbitrariness” of these grade boundaries.

5.7.1. Observations from the classroom: three years of design and implementation

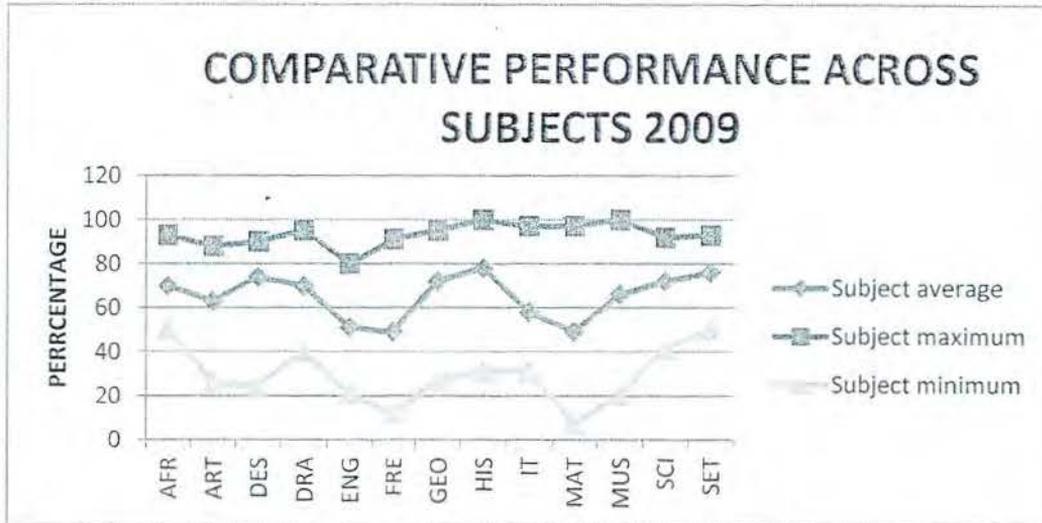
This segment of the chapter on presentation of results and analysis reflects on the three-year journey that the research participants and their educators traveled. It describes the terrain, the signposts and the challenges encountered on the way. Armed with some insights into second language acquisition processes, some considerable understanding of the research methodology which is used to examine the problem concerning acquisition of CALP skills, and years of teaching experience, the researcher kept a record of the highlights of what was planned and how the learners participated and responded in the execution of tasks and their fulfillment of the objectives of the lessons.

The record of performance that follows was planned under the general rubric of language products since the engagements in the classroom invariably resulted in one form or another as a product of language learning and teaching. Three major strands also emerged:

- linguistic utterances (teacher questions, learner responses, probing strategies),
- linguistic texts (various composition topics and frameworks, different and varied reading texts for comprehension skills development),
- linguistic judgments (reactions to texts of various appeal, reactions to language use, evaluation of the effects created by writers when they make specific lexical choices) and discourse.

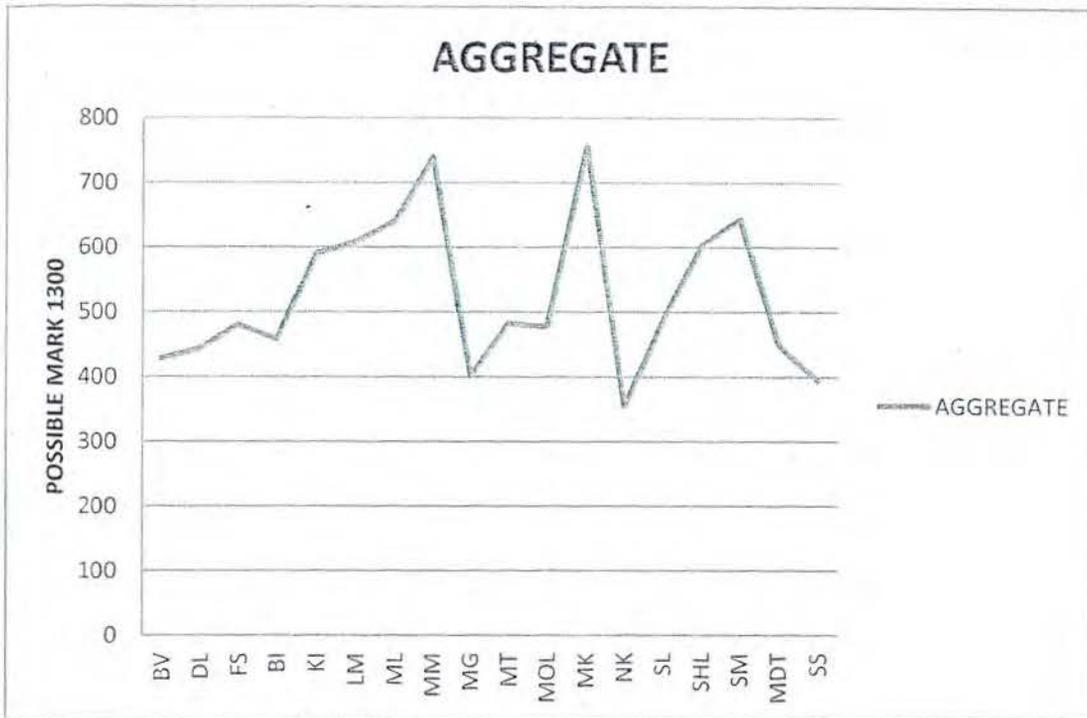
To illustrate the learners' performance across the subjects, the second mark order for 2009 is presented overleaf in the form of a graph, Figure 11.

Figure 11: The performance of the research participants across subjects in 2009: Quantitative data



Learners were studying 13 subjects. In the languages areas, for instance, the highest score for English was 80% while the lowest was 21%, in contrast to Setswana where the highest score was 93% and the lowest was 50%. Afrikaans, which was taught as an additional first language had the highest score at 93% and the lowest at 50%. Applying a statistical subject average the results are revealing: Setswana (76%), followed by Afrikaans (70%) while English trailed at an average mark of 51%. The closest subject to this significantly low mean is Mathematics, pegged at 49%. Though it cannot be categorically concluded that underperformance in any one of the subjects was due to linguistic and cognitive constraints, it is plausible to deduce that the low marks in English reflect negatively on the language processing skills of the research participants.

Figure 12: Research participants' aggregate performance in Mark Order 2, 2008
 - Quantitative data



The graph above shows the aggregate marks, out of a possible 1300, that the research participants obtained in the second mark order in 2008. The highest aggregate, i.e.789 out of 1300, is approximately 61% and reflects some strengths in the mastery of concepts across the curriculum. Again, as in the preceding discussion, it is not possible to lay immediate blame on the learners' CALP skills, but suffice to state that these were monitoring and evaluation strategies used by the educator-researcher in the process of curriculum delivery and data gathering.

5.7.1. Literary text used to teach composition and other language features

The tenet used in this approach was that a good composition is an accomplished work of art. After starting the composition properly, (this could be through chronological narration, a dramatic introduction, dialogue, stating the thesis or proposition, or use of flashback), the ideas ought to unfold in an interesting, gripping and logical fashion. The ending also ought to be handled skillfully.

There are several ways of beginning a story, for instance: action, dialogue, a factual statement or a quotation (Miller, 1998; Cambridge Assessment, 2010). A learner-

writer might start in the middle (this is called the *in media res* device), begin with a shocking or intriguing statement that provokes the reader or instead of starting in a chronological sequence, the learner-writer can begin a narrative by using flashback or flash-forward. The total craftsmanship will depend on a variety of aspects: arousing the reader's interest, use of detail, use of colour, realism (details of time, setting/place, and characters/people) and variety of expression (Qualitative 16, "Fame – A Curse" in Appendix ii illustrates this evolving craftsmanship).

In structuring the writing, there are no infallible rules, particularly about paragraphs, although long paragraphs generally tend to become loose and rambling or even disjointed. In each paragraph, points developed should be relevant to the topic or subject, related to each other and set out logically. The greater aim should be to keep the language simple, effective and accurate at this stage in the secondary school. Long words and involved structures might court a handful of problems (though, of course, there is no implied suggestion that learners must not demonstrate ambitious, polysyllabic, ambitious vocabulary and usages).

The story "A Letter to God" is set in Mexico, in an agrarian and isolated rural landscape that is prone to the ravages of an inclement Nature. The story is interesting, exemplifying the versatile interplay of simple plot with simple and complex clauses. It demonstrates unity of form and content and employs effective punctuation. Setting is also effectively harnessed to enhance the realism of the experience. This story provided fertile ground for teaching learners how to eventually deploy and analyse language from a semantic and a pragmatic viewpoint (see story in Appendix iv).

In terms of reading speed and comprehension facility, this study established that the majority of the participants read at significantly slow speeds, approximately 157 words per minute. Understanding the text, which was estimated through an ability to concisely summarize the theme and sequence of events, was generally estimated to be about 60%. Both the reading speed and the level of understanding were therefore low for this group of learners. Acceptable comprehension level is generally above 70% (van der Waalt et.al., 2008), with reading speed expected to be above 230-240 words per minute (the irony at the end of this story was only appreciated by a handful of learners in the group: 5 out of 20 laughed at the last letter that Lencho wrote to God!).

The implications for this research were that the low reading proficiency levels observed here in the learners brought about some degree of reading at the frustration level and much assistance was required to enhance their understanding and appreciation of the story.

In an effort to facilitate the understanding of the text, key words were extracted from the text and learners were asked to substitute these as they were used in the context. The list below was consequently set as an initial task in unpacking meaning.

Table 14: Worksheet task used to facilitate word-meaning and connotations – A practical task

Original word in text	Meaning	Other possible replacements to fit the context use
Dotted	Filled/decorated	
Intimately	Closely/fondly	
Scan	Look/examine	
Mountain of clouds	Exaggeration	
For no other reason than	Except	
Draped in a curtain of rain	Covered completely	
Resemble	Looked the same as	
As if covered with salt	Simile	
Not a leaf remained on the trees	Hyperbole/exaggeration	
Mortified	Saddened/grieved	
Solitary house	Lonely/isolated	
Lencho was an ox of a man	Imagery	
Laughing heartily	Merry/genuine laughter	

The learners took a considerable amount of time to complete the last segment on “possible replacement” since they had to consider both the tense and usages of the

words. Some of the suggestions were closer to the basic or core meaning of the words rather than a close approximation in the semantic sense of the clause or sentence in context. "Solitary house" for instance was thought to mean "abandoned" or "suffering" whereas the closest implication is of "the only house" or the "isolated and lonely house." The equivalence between Lencho and "an ox" in the image "*Lencho was an ox of a man*" was considered somewhat challenging; and the exaggeration in "mountains of clouds" was frequently mis-interpreted as "personification." It was interesting to observe that the majority correctly reasoned this expression as "a comparison" though some got the wrong technical term for the hyperbole.

Having made the observation that there was inadequate comprehension, a set of tasks was prepared to extend the participants' understanding. These tasks sought to facilitate reading between the lines, making inferences and deducing implicit meanings instead of the lesser skill of reading the sentence at the surface level. A significant amount of "meaning" in the extract "A letter to God" is conveyed through the punctuation: the use of parenthesis, the dash, the colon and dieresis (see Appendix iv). The length of the sentences, and in turn the paragraphs, also contribute to the structuring of the information, hence the communication of meaning in the story. Although this might sound a little petty, some focus was drawn to the capitalization at the beginning of every clause and the full stop at the end. A minority of the research participants had demonstrated a degree of uncertainty about the use of these basic features, and discussions in groups helped clarify the importance of these conventional marks of punctuation. In addition, some explanation was given on the use of the colon, the dash and dieresis (to suggest that some information has been left out and the reader of the text is expected to supply and complete the gap, and quite often to heighten the effect of the clause). This scanning process also enabled the learners to express their opinions on the significance of the use of some of the clause structures in the extract that showed such patterns as:

Main clause + subordinate; Subordinate clause+ main clause (modifier+ main subject clause).

This was developed further to enable learners to make observations of co-coordinating conjunctions used in the extract, such as "and", "yet", "or", and "nor." An oral exercise was devised to identify other "linking clauses" which were then classified as

subordinating conjunctions, conjunctions of contrast and manner, including “except that”, “even though” “as if” and “unless.”

In terms of cognitive demands placed on the learner, the excerpt “A letter to God” was perceived to be pitched at the higher level such that “what”, “where” and “who” questions were considered inappropriate. It is argued here that the more relevant and appropriate questions were those that elicited reason, evaluation and empathy responses from the learners at the level of “why” and “how”(Appendix vii and Appendix x, November paper). These questions were perceived as significant triggers for responses at the level of explanation, comment, evaluation and synthesis which are generally regarded as appropriate cognitively demanding responses to literary texts. Such questions were also considered sufficient to generate responses that would allow for the application of expert reading skills by way of inferencing and providing evidence from the text to support the opinions expressed.

“A letter to God,” provided opportunities to try several strategic reading strategies and these are summed below. The first strategy was a decided emphasis on highlighting key words in the text, either for their intensity (emotive force) or for the tone that they conveyed. Two illustrations are in order here:

1. In the holding camp those who had criminal records were *weeded* out.
2. With a satisfied expression Lencho regarded the field of ripe corn with its kidney-bean flowers, *draped* in a curtain of rain.

The two verbs, “weeded” and “draped” are effectively used in each clause. “Weeded” suggests that the persons or elements were eliminated, removed (forcibly), thrown out, jettisoned and left out to wilt or die. Equally, “draped” suggests that the field was entirely covered and splendidly decorated by the sheet of rain. For Lencho, at this moment, this must have been a moment of immense relief, visual fascination and boundless hope. Of course, this ecstatic moment in the passage is meant to foreshadow the sudden gloom that overcomes Lencho when the hailstorm sets in as suggested by the use of “*but*” in the subsequent sentence. The procedure of highlighting words to show intensity of feeling or tone was systematised through using different colours to distinguish bland (core meaning words) from medium intensity lexical items and those words that the learners considered to be conveying the most intense and powerful feelings. At the end of completing this task, the

learners were not only able to colour the verbs and adjectives differently; they could rank word-families on an “emotive and intensity scale.”

The second strategy was largely developed on the propositions suggested in the first one. This was recommended to the learners as the ‘onion concept’ or structure of a word. Around each onion are recurring circles that grow smaller from the outside or grow bigger from the inside. It was suggested that each word, depending on how it was used, yielded smaller or greater “rings of meaning.” “President” suggests officious personality, nobility, majesty, importance and dominance over others, and perhaps extends to “commander of the defence forces” in “modern democracies.” In dictatorships, the term has generated layers and rings of meaning that include “looting, corruption and general anarchy.” If a writer posited an opinion such as “*Tshepiso is a pig*”, the equivalence between Tshepiso and a pig would be established in such traits and characteristics as “dirty, snort, ugly.” Each word therefore was seen as establishing a “sphere of meaning” and learners were advised to be particularly alert to such spheres when they selected and used words in their own writing.

The associational quality of words in English, as in other languages, was explicitly taught in order for the learners to develop a “deep processing of the text” as cogently suggested by Ngwenya (2009) and Balfour (2007) and this neatly tied in with the outcomes anticipated in both the RNCS (2006) and the Cambridge International Examinations reading objectives. This focus in reading was also informed by the theoretical perspective that Giroux (1988) advocates of learners: to examine and appropriate skills and strategies that enable them to read critically in order to understand how language positions “self relative to others.” It was envisaged that in actively applying the deep processing reading strategy, the learners were conscientiously engaged with the “evaluative accent” of words used in texts (Bakhtin, 1984) as context, tone of voice and lexical variety interacted in a network of associations to create meaning.

The third strategy, visualisation, was developed from the understanding of all learners as writers and readers who rely on the five human senses for perception. Literature on literacy skills also emphasises the visual element as a factor that enhances the comprehension process in reading and writing. “*Lencho was an ox of a man*” for

instance, was extensively used to explore the impact created by such a construction in terms of enhancing the visual element of the image. “*The city loomed over the refugees like a great mountain range*” was used to explore what the choice of language suggests about the skyline and the effect that this usage has on the refugees. The learners were asked to find the ‘onion rings’ suggested by ‘loomed’ and further probed to state what the simile in the last half of the clause suggested to them in terms of size and immensity of the mountain range.

5.7.3. Lexical items used to describe emotion, attitude and feeling

Synonymy, as it specifically affected the choices made in terms of lexical items used to express ideas, was explored in this study. A starting point was the words used to express feeling and describe attitude and emotions and values. Often, the learners at this stage in secondary education found themselves stuck to “common core” words such as “cried,” “shocked,” “laughed” or “bored” in order to describe states of being or emotion and feeling. It was suggested that they ought to make concerted effort to select and use the most appropriate and effective lexicon in order to state what specific emotion, attitude or feeling they really wanted to express. The exercise was also an integrated model for the development and acquisition of vocabulary which, at this stage in secondary school education, is an integral component of cognitive academic language proficiency. The table below is an illustration of a lexical appropriacy table that the learners were engaged in creating through paired group work for the purpose:

Table 15: Lexical items to describe emotion, attitude and feeling: Some examples

Aloof	Abusive	Astounded
Absorbed	Acute	Agony
Aggravated	Agitated	Alarmed
Alienated	Annoyed	Appalled
Bitter	Bloated	Boastful
Charming	Cheerful	Compulsive
Contemptuous	Crushed	Daunted
Degraded	Dejected	Desperate
Dismal	Disgraced	Dreary

Earnest	Dynamic	Effervescent
Enraged	Flagrant	Evasive
Full of life	Giddy	green-eyed
Grumpy	Guarded	Heavenly
Hardy	Heartless	Hilarious
Horriified	Infantile	Impulsive
Immature	Hysterical	Inflamed
Intractable	Jazzy	Jubilant
Livid	low-spirited	Manic
Meditative	mean-spirited	Morbid
Naïve	Narrow	Naughty
Rabid	Phlegmatic	Perplexed
Rapturous	Petulant	Restless

This task was found significantly exciting and indeed it gave the learners the cognitive challenge of identifying what they wanted to say and subsequently finding the right word for the idea. Consequently, some of the learners continued to tease out many more words and in their writing, it was found that they had begun to use appropriate words for the particular emotion or sensation that they wished to state or describe. Japhta, one of the participants said, “ *I did not know, till this exercise, that ‘narrow’ was such an effective word. I used ‘narrow’ to describe a person this time, not a path. In calling Lencho ‘narrow-minded’, I realized this makes him someone I know...like a path...so realistic.* ”

The fourth strategic reading strategy developed, especially for the lower proficiency learners, was reading each section of a text, which could be as short as a sentence or as long as a paragraph unit. The following sentence was used to illustrate the process of unpacking meaning using the *wh-* prompting questions:

“When she and her gang came out, they came straight up to me and she spat in my face and called me horrible racist names and other things.”

Who – she and her *gang* (the deliberate choice of ‘gang’ suggests a group of trouble-making young people; a group of criminals).

What – she spat in my face; she called me horrible racist names; she said other vile things.

When – some time in the recent past; the violent scene could just be ending.

How – came straight at me; charged at the victim; treated the victim in a dastardly fashion.

Why – to teach the victim a lesson; to retaliate for some past hurt; to put the victim in her place; to humiliate the victim; to hurt the speaker.

A similar task was set on the following sentence:

The newcomers in the camp had numbered tags pinned to their tattered clothes.

It was interesting to observe how even those that had found some challenges in unpacking meaning in the initial task were at least able to identify the newcomers as “immigrants” who were “sorted and numbered like prisoners.” Learners also suggested that all the “sorting was done without feeling” and the “officials trampled on the dignity of the newcomers.” The reason suggested for why this “numbering and labeling” was done was effectively captured as “to identify the *different* ones quickly so that any problem could be tracked down to them.” The participants’ empathy and voices emerged through these conversations.

A more significant strategy was built around the concept of “viewpoint,” that is, the stand or attitude that a writer adopts in describing an object, person or phenomenon, and the feelings engendered in the reader when they encounter specific versions as communicated by the words chosen. Learners identified that writers stand far off or close to their object or subject, that writers reveal their viewpoints, stance or attitude (positive or negative) through the words that they use in stating or describing the subject.

5.7.4. Point of view, reporting, bias and authenticity: Thick description of approach

In order to facilitate the understanding of what “point of view” entails and appreciate its critical contribution to the creation of meaning, a “reliability card sorting” exercise was developed and used as an instructional unit. Five cards containing information about an incident were distributed to groups of learners. They read the information on the card and brainstormed the reliability and objectivity of the information. All groups knew what the total incident involved and they could therefore make informed decisions about the views expressed by each of the participants in the incident. The incident is described below:

There has been a serious fight in the street just outside the entrance to your school between two girls: a popular Form One girl from your school (Babalwa) and an older-looking girl (Naledi) who does not attend your school.

The following are reports by the parties involved and several other witnesses:

Babalwa September (age 13)

Statement given 30 minutes after the incident to the headmaster of her school:

I was just leaving school at the end of the day with my best friend Vuyelwa Nomga when this girl jumped me from behind. She was screaming and calling me names. She grabbed me by the hair and pulled me over onto the pavement. My nose hit the ground and it started bleeding. She kicked me while I was on the ground and scratched my face. She only stopped when Mrs. McCall pulled her off.

I've never seen the girl before in my life and I don't know why she attacked me.

Naledi Mabe, (age 14)

Statement given to the police 2 hours after the incident, at her home, with her parents present:

She's a liar! She's been going round town saying terrible things about me. Horrible things! I don't want to say what she's been saying. It's too embarrassing in front of Mum and Dad. I just went to wait for her outside her school to ask her why she was doing it and to get her to stop.

When she and her gang out they came straight to me and she spat in my face and called me horrible racist names and other things. She slapped my face and tried to tear my top. I pushed her away and she fell over. That's when the Irish teacher came up and grabbed me.

Vuyelwa Nomga, (age 12)

Statement given 3 hours after the incident to the police at her home with her stepfather present:

I know that Babalwa and the other girl had some kind of grudge going on. I don't know anything about it. Anyway, she was waiting for us and she just came up to Babalwa and shouted that Babalwa should stop telling lies about her. Anyway, I'm sure it was the other girl who started it. She looks like that sort, doesn't she? You know, rough.

She must have grabbed Babalwa and pulled her over onto the ground. She was screaming at her. Babalwa was bleeding. It was horrible. Babalwa would never hurt anyone. I was shouting for her to get off and Mrs. McCall came and stopped it. They should lock that girl up. She's mental!

Mrs. McCall, teacher age (43)

Statement given 1 hour after the incident to the police in the headmaster's office at the school:

I've taught Babalwa since she came to the school in September. She's not the best behaved pupil I've ever taught, but she's by no means the worst. Just a normal girl really. I know she has a bit of a sharp tongue, but I've never known her to be violent.

When I heard the shouting, I ran out to the gate and the two girls were in a heap on the pavement. The other girl seemed to be on top of Babalwa, so I shouted for them to stop and then pulled the other girl off. I had to do something. I couldn't let them carry on. As it was Babalwa was bleeding and the other girl's top was all torn. I think the other girl attacked Babalwa. We don't have violent pupils at our school.

Mrs. Safiya Safi, shop worker, (age 27)

Statement given one day after the incident to the police at her shop opposite the school:

The younger girl and her friend, they came out of the school gate and the older girl was waiting for her. The older one went up to her and started shouting. I didn't hear what she said, but she was angry. Then a bus came and I couldn't see properly. But Mrs. Jones told me that the older girl slapped the young one in the face – or perhaps it was the other way. When the bus went, I saw that the young girl was tugging at the older girl's shirt and the older girl pushed her away and the little one fell over and the older girl was on top of her and then the teacher came.

(Adapted from Key Stage 3, National Strategy English 2004)

Based on the reliability cards, several objectives were set.

Task one

- State who gave the *account* and also what the reporter's background was.
- Establish the likelihood of *prejudice* in favour of or against any of the people involved in the account.

Task two

- Suggest *reasons* for each of the accounts given.
- In the process, establish whether or not the reporter in each case set out deliberately to make the person look good or bad.
- *Judge and evaluate* whether or not each of the reports produced a fair and accurate account of the violent incident.

Task three

- *Examine when* the account was given (time lapse, recall, memory and the possibility of "clouded versions.")
- *Determine* whether or not the person giving the account was a witness of the event since non-witness accounts are likely to be unreliable and influenced by other factors. Establish what kind of account was given: fact or opinion.
- Look for any words or phrases in the accounts which betray *bias* or suggest some shade of 'trumped up' and fabricated versions.
- Pay attention to language use and say whether the account is "*neutral and objective.*"

A recapitulation of the learning strategies deployed by the learners revealed that they were able to:

- i. appreciate and relate to the violent incident,
- ii. establish the reliability or non-reliability of each of the reports,
- iii. distinguish who was more likely to be biased than the other participants in the incident and
- iv. examine, question and scrutinize the words used in each of the reports in order to support their judgments of each of the reports.

In the ultimate analysis, the learners had moved from lower order skills such as stating facts and opinions and moved through the hierarchy of skills to become evaluators of words and phrases as they betrayed bias and other extraneous factors that coloured the individual reports made. The tasks set also provided an opportunity for contextualized vocabulary learning. Three ‘emotions and attitudes’ were identified: ‘cried’, ‘angry’ and ‘laughed.’ For each one of them, the learners were asked to identify synonyms for the range of emotions expressed in each of the reports. The table below is an illustration of what the learners suggested.

Table 16: Results of a contextualized vocabulary task submitted as assignment by the research participants

Laughed	Chuckled; giggled; sneered; grunted; snarled; barked, guffawed, sniggered
Cried	Sobbed; wept; screamed(hysterically); moaned, bawled
Angry	Furious; mad; enraged; frustrated; irritated; irked; incensed; provoked; annoyed, livid, cross

Instead of the “core” emotion set out in bold in the first column, learners were able to accurately and concisely describe the emotions and attitudes of the participants in the incident through the contextualised vocabulary table that they designed. This strategy confirms the constructivist approach to learning that suggests that the search for meaning occurs through patterning, that is the ability to connect the local to the global concepts and themes.

5.7.5. Strategies for developing discursive and argumentative writing

Discursive and argumentative writing for the participants was based on the observation that these learners faced some challenges in setting frameworks and using suitable language for such tasks. Further, the literature review on the processes of genre writing suggested that learners would need some degree of initiation and scaffolding in order to extend BIC skills towards CALP competency. The aims and objectives were therefore devised with the understanding that learners would progressively become able to express ideas with supporting detail, use a writing style appropriate to audience and discursive text type and, ultimately, structure their arguments in such a way that these structural elements would be appropriate for the purpose of persuading imagined audiences to a particular standpoint.

The class was divided into four groups. Group one and three were given the writing frame while group two and four worked without the framework. The topic suggested was “Smoking should be banned in public places” since this topic was considered a current and relevant issue and it was believed that the learners would be familiar with both social and cross-curricular debates surrounding it. The two groups that worked with a framework were asked to examine the structure and expressions to connect their ideas in the worksheet provided. The other two groups, as indicated, were given the same topic but were asked to brainstorm, organise and develop a flowchart and plan their points for the argument without the scaffold. In the penultimate lesson, the whole class was asked to look at the range of ideas explored by the groups. This was organised as a gallery walk, and learners paid special attention to the tone and persuasive styles that emerged from the group displays.

Table 17: Results of a whole class initiative on tone and persuasive writing strategies

Inappropriate tone for argumentative writing with no supporting examples	More appropriate tone for argumentative writing and supporting examples
Smokers are filthy	Many smokers leave ashes, matches and cigarette butts on the ground which looks unsightly.
Cigarette smoke stinks	Cigarette smoke has an offensive smell, not to mention that it makes people cough and can bring on allergies.
Smokers cause stupid accidents	Careless smokers can cause fire in buildings, houses and forest fires. Smoking is dangerous.
Young idiots could start smoking because they think they are cool	Smoking is a bad influence on young people. If teenagers see young adults smoking they may think that it is 'cool' and begin smoking too.
Smoking totally kills you	Smoking is bad for health. Smoking causes many cancers and heart disease. Second-hand smoke is just as harmful as first-hand smoke.

Whereas the statements in the left hand column are “hard facts” (perhaps even socially and medically correct statements), they are set out in an inappropriate tone that would cause shock and offence to a smoking audience. The learners, in whole class discussion, indicated that the frames in the left column used a very charged vocabulary to communicate intimidating reality. The statements in the right hand column expressed the same sentiments but the learners observed that the points were communicated in an “acceptable” and socially appropriate tone. These observations were made by group one and group three participants, eventually leading to the whole class discussion on what constitutes appropriate tone and register, especially on controversial and emotive topics. Essay 1 and 2 in Appendix (i) reveal the learners’ attempts at scaffolded discursive writing, developed from Figure 10.

In working on the persuasive frames and getting the learners to engage in debates on the appropriateness of tone and register, emphasis was placed on reading as a process of “getting meaning from print that was used for analysis, synthesis and evaluation”

as Horning (1998: 1) argues. The learners were not simply decoding the words and phrases in the scaffold provided for literal comprehension but they were actively engaged in critical reading and appraisal of the packaged meanings embedded in the scaffold. Perception and evaluation were encouraged and nurtured as this was expected to culminate in the production of persuasive texts by the learners on an individual level for summative assessment. Their texts adapted, restructured and synthesized the points developed in the scaffold, engaging the learners in examining counter positions, defining issues and establishing credible arguments.

The reflexive approach adopted here was informed by Flower and Hayes (1988) who focus on reading strategies that direct and enable readers to actively search for and identify audience, purpose and contextual background in every text read or produced. To a large extent, through repeated practice and overt coaching, the learners were able to understand that the construction of persuasive texts relied on a number of features that were deliberately inserted into the text:

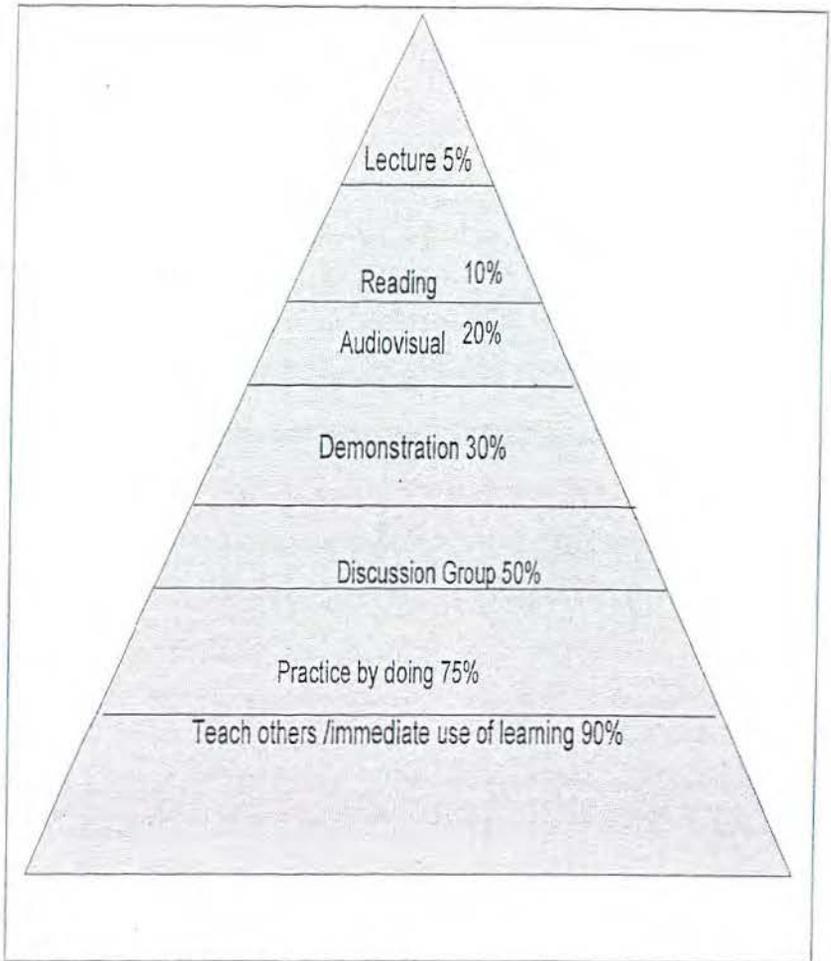
- (i) Style and structure: tone and use of language; and the elaborate organisation of the piece of writing
- (ii) Vocabulary: the deliberate choice and selection and use of specific words that carried with them an intentional force
- (iii) Purpose: the writer's explicit or implicit intention (which might vary from amusement, challenge and end on such a high as whipping a crowd's emotions on a particular point or agenda)
- (iv) Choices: of detail, gaps deliberately left and information backgrounded and foregrounded (Peet and Robinson, 1992: 63,)

The ideas communicated are made to interact with each other, and with the intended recipient or audience, in such a way that the argument emerges as convincing and forceful.

In order to enable the students to fully appreciate the strategies and techniques employed in persuasive and argumentative texts, an article called 'No Smoking' by Robin Robertson was distributed to the learners for deep analytic reading (Appendix vii). After the individual reading of the article, learners were initially tasked to respond to the language used in the text and subsequently to comprehension

questions. In examining the style used by the writer in order to make a standpoint with regards to smoking, learners were able to sufficiently respond to “why and how” questions in terms of the convincing style deployed by Robinson. They were able, in groups, to identify the various strategies, explicit and implicit, that the writer uses in order to create negative impressions of the habit of smoking. In the process, learners stated and demonstrated the values communicated by the article. At this stage, it was evident that the learners had developed some evaluation and synthesis skills based on their ability to interrogate words selectively used by the writer to ridicule smokers without openly offending their addiction. The learners were able to *cite* evidence in support of an expressed opinion. They *distinguished* relevant from irrelevant points on the topic of smoking and *pointed out* that the use of anecdote and analogy in the article constituted a superior stylistic quality in the article that helped to make it persuasive and effective. It emerged that the learner tasks, centered on demonstration, discussion groups and practice made the learners exhibit some analytic skills that they had acquired.

Figure 13: Average Retention Rate Of Learners After 24 Hours



(Adapted from Sousa, 2004: "How the Brain Works")

5.7.6. Average retention rate of learners after instructional units

Following up on the understanding of "How the Brain Works", the utility and practicability of the task-based syllabus was reinforced. As has been demonstrated in this chapter on findings, tasks devised for the development of CALP skills reinforced practice through demonstrations (accounting for 30% retention), discussion groups (accounting for 50% retention), practice by doing (report back from discussion groups; written tasks - accounting for 75% retention). The teacher-centred lecture method has largely been decentered in the implementation of the task-based syllabus and this also corroborates the dialogic perspectives that Bakhtin (1984) endorses in suggesting that interpretative, evaluative and analytic skills are nurtured in the dynamic execution of appropriate language level tasks. For Bakhtin, writing (as a literary-verbal performance) entails adopting a position relative to character and

audience. As the learners in this study wrote their compositions, they demonstrated the hybrid tensions between home language and English second language, between the orality of L1 and the graphic inscriptions of L2. This polyphony (Bakhtin uses the term “heteroglossia”) - the diversity of experiences and voices in the process of composing - generated a unique energy in the creation of approximate meanings through the phrasing and language of the compositions.

Another salient feature of group work was that discussions invariably occurred in the participants’ home language. Questions set as tasks for these group discussions were re-worded, re-interpreted and re-cast in the language they could best understand. This is in tandem with the sentiments of Cummins (1986) who says that there is a possibility for a smooth transition to and improved usage of the additional language if learners are taught in their mother tongue. Also, Canagarajah (1999:91) observes that group discussions in their own “discourses provide [the learners] with confidence, familiarity and greater power in their own socio-cultural milieu.” When they were subsequently asked to report back in written form, the written reports demonstrated less pith and animation than the oral discussions. To sum up, the participants’ ideas of their preferred languages contradict the reality of the classroom and their self-estimation of competency in English was incongruent with how they performed on written tasks.

In terms of writing, in “A Zulu Wedding” for instance (Qualitative 14), the learner-writer has eight distinct paragraphs that structurally carry the hybrid tensions and polyphony alluded to. In order to express the myriad of people and activities at “A Zulu Wedding”, the writer frames four clauses without affixing a verbal complement. It is stylistically interesting that this writer elides the verb element in a descriptive narration that is hinged on the hustle and bustle of a wedding.

In the second paragraph, the texture of the text is immensely influenced by local colour - the buzzing of people (implied multiplicity of voices compared with the collaborative effort of bees). “The stage is decorated with wild flowers” effectively reinforces the local colour - the blend of Zulu and Anglican practices with the insistence on “wild flowers” rather than commercial or artificial ones.

The rural scene is further elaborately extended from the wild flowers to the “ever-flowing rivers” and “colour-filled bushes”, to the extent that the reader immediately experiences the two cultures, the two languages in contact. At the start of paragraph three for instance, the writer explicitly identifies the “distinct smell of Africanized, flavour-filled food that comes alive.”

As the writing focuses on the bride in paragraph four, one notices an intricate development of colour to emphasize the roots of Zulu culture: “the bold, bright and beautiful colours; brown which symbolise the richly fertile land...” The bridegroom too, in typical Zulu fashion, wears a “leopard karesa, delicately placed on his shoulders.” Concisely, this composition demonstrates the successful energy of language that is generated by the hybridity of L1 experiences and L2 writing. Though there are some slight problems with spelling, slightly ambitious vocabulary (such as ‘squirm’) and punctuation, the composition is well written, quite often using an effective lexical range.

5.7.7. Vignettes from the research participants

Canagarajah (1999:83) has observed that in a “skills-based program, the emphasis falls heavily on reading and writing, with a final written test.” This was corroborated in this study and quite often the learners themselves found writing an onerous challenge, preferring to present their thoughts and opinions in other forms. Asked about their experiences at ISSA after two years, the following vignettes reveal both their attitudes to their school, the subjects and teachers:

#VIGNETTE 1#

I have a problem with extra classes because to me, that is where I have to ask questions on things that I do not know but instead we just continue with work.

#VIGNETTE 2#

Since I got to this school, I have found many challenging things that I have never thought I would get in my life. Studying for a test is something I never did in my previous school and didn't even know how to study. But now I know.

#VIGNETTE 3#

There are teachers who isolate Telkom children. When they are teaching they only ask Telkom kids if they understand, which means that only non-Telkom kids are clever....Some of the learners are not nice to Telkom kids. They say they are poor. That's why we are sponsored by Telkom.

These vignettes reflect profound sentiments about the extra lessons that were programmed for the learners and the ambiguous sense of marginality and labeling experienced by the research participants. Where others felt accepted and described their maturation, others felt isolated and lacked interest in the classroom activities and the extended “hidden” curriculum as described by Bowles and Gintis (1987). Even though the work was negotiated, with input integrated from the entrance test and the learners’ own ideas of what they needed most in terms of CALP skills, Vignette 1 and Vignette 3 demonstrate an understanding of the curriculum delivery in their own terms. Interactional purposes (peer group agendas) and transactional purposes (educational agendas) are evident in the vignettes above and it is clear that these research participants clearly had their own sense of agency, refusing to accept the structures of inequality that characterised the ecology of ISSA.

5.7.8. Feedback to parents and sponsors: Qualitative data

This segment sketches the feedback protocols that facilitated progress reviews of the research participants. When term assessments were made in each of the curricular subjects, reports with individual comments were generated and distributed to the parents and the programme sponsors. This was to allow for nurturing, encouragement and often to trigger warning lights where progress was perceived as slow or inadequate. Below are two reports, based on a learner’s performance in English:

BB works hard. She attempts to demonstrate ambitious use of vocabulary, not with success always. This is not a weakness though I am confident she could regulate her sentences more successfully if she paid sufficient attention to the turns.

GM finds huge challenges in comprehension work and the manner in which she ought to set out her responses. Often she is entangled in the wording of the texts and is unable to write out direct responses to the questions. There is a lot that she should do in order to improve in this respect.

These comments, and others of such a nature communicated the perceptions about the learners and the progress they had made during the course of the term. It was hoped that the parents would encourage and exhort while the programme sponsors would establish the value of their sponsorship.

At the end of four years at ISSA, the research participants wrote the Cambridge International Examinations. The following, Table 18, shows their examination results by mark and grade.

Table 18: CIE Results of the research participants, November 2010

CANDIDATE	MARK	GRADE SYMBOL
OAGENG	51	D
HELEN	68	C
JAPHTA	63	C
THANDI	66	C
CHANTELLE	51	D
SIYASANGA	66	C
SHIRLEEN	62	C
SOLLY	44	E
GOMOLEMO	50	D
PHILLIP	75	B
THULISWA	66	C
CAROLINE	65	C
LEBOGANG	75	B
BABALWA	63	C
REFILWE	63	C
MAGDALENE	73	B

Two of the research participants obtained D grade symbols while only one obtained a grade E symbol. The rest of the participants passed the CIE English first language examination after a four-year intensive preparation programme that included extra lessons, the identification of learner needs and the design and implementation of a task-based syllabus. The strategies for teaching and learning that were developed during the longitudinal study, amongst other factors, apparently contributed to this high throughput rate.

5.7.9. Strategies for teaching, learning and assessment

For each of the major strands of English language discussed in this study, reading and writing were conceptualized as priorities in this model since they are the most assessed through valid and reliable tools, albeit subjectively. After establishing the entrance competencies of the group of learners in each situation, the context should be realistically assessed in order to determine constraints and challenges. Each baseline (shown by the forward arrow preceding each circle), it is argued, should sufficiently establish what the learners can do, be it in reading or writing, or a combination of both. Input for the development of reading and writing is then devised at the level of

the competencies determined through baseline assessment. After each sizeable segment of input, formative assessment is administered in order to provide feedback to the learners and, in the process, help them further develop their competencies. The nature of formative assessment should again be pitched at the level where the learners demonstrate levels of success. This recursive process of formative assessment ought to lead to development of competencies beyond those established in the baseline level. When a topic has been fully covered, a summative assessment tool could then be administered to determine the new level of skills acquired on the particular reading or writing topic.

What needs to be said is that performance in the summative assessment tool could depend on a number of factors but generally, all conditions being equal, learners should display some extended and additional mastery of comprehension, analytic and evaluative skills that could allow the educator to proceed to the next interconnected topic. In many ways, there is an implied interdependence between the skills of reading and writing. This interdependence should also facilitate a tangible and concrete progression in the skills demonstrated by the learner in the execution of new tasks set.

- Baseline – to establish prior skills and competencies acquired, preferably per topic (e.g. argumentative style and structure, vocabulary in context, narrative content...)

- Formative – to give feedback to the learner on how they are progressing – regular frequency advised. Each focus area will have several formative assessment sessions, F1, F2...and finally close with a holistic summative one.

- Summative – at the end of a learning or instructional unit or topic – where the purpose is to integrate after the smaller, more frequent series of formative assessment.

5.8. Conclusion

The data that has been presented in this chapter reveals various tensions between plain presentation of what emerged and descriptions of tasks or processes leading to the data. The flux between quantitative and qualitative presentations also reveals the (in)adequacies of any one of the monolithic categories. From the range of strategies and processes set out in this chapter, and following Rampton (1990), it was evident that reading and writing strategies are learned, relative and partial. In order to achieve reading and writing expertise, the research participants were inducted into what were perceived as best practices and in the process, their work was reviewed, disputed and judged by their educators.

Through recursive formative, summative and other internal assessment strategies, in particular the quantitative measure called the hypotaxis index, the learners' linguistic repertoire was relatively reliably predicted, notwithstanding the fact that teaching and assessing reading and writing in English Language are based on impressionistic band scales (Gannon, 1985). Hyland (2002), Larsen-Freeman (1978) and Wolf-Quintero (1998) all argue that analytical measures are more appropriate measurement scales to establish linguistic accuracy, syntactic and grammatical complexity in learners' writing. It must be conceded that the data presented here are principally concerned with establishing the developmental index in learner language and subsequently using such data to design an appropriate syllabus. The data suggests that as learners become more proficient users of the English language, they read and write more clearly, more accurately and that the texts they produce are more grammatically and lexically complex (Naves, 2006:4). Skehan and Foster (1997:22) suggest that accuracy is concerned with how well language is produced in relation to the rule system of the target language. For complexity and range, Skehan and Foster (1997: 97) submit that this competency entails the capacity to use, control more advanced language, and this capacity involves a greater willingness on the part of the writer-candidate to take risks through ambitious sentence structures and diction usages. The tasks and data presented here tentatively indicate that the more cognitively demanding the language task is, the more likely it would be that learner-writers will attend to conveying meaning first and to linguistic complexity and accuracy last.

6.1. Introduction

The mass of data presented in Chapter 5 showed compelling evidence of the strategies, successes and challenges that secondary school learners experienced in their long walk towards CALP skills acquisition. This evidence from the case study was used to inform the choices made in order to develop a framework for a relevant efficient and effective syllabus. This chapter anchors the framework on the cognitive capacities that the syllabus aimed to develop in the research participants.

The framework for the proposed syllabus developed as shown in Chapter 7 is anchored on five aspects which are embedded in the research question that this study sought to answer:

- (i) The relevance of the syllabus, i.e. in terms of meeting the needs and challenges of the learners;
- (ii) The effectiveness of the syllabus, i.e. in terms of selecting and the sequencing of the syllabus items in order to foster acquisition,
- (iii) The efficiency of the syllabus, i.e. the resourcefulness of the syllabus to tap into the ecology of the institution at which it is implemented in order to successfully develop the competencies it envisages,
- (iv) Teaching and learning principles drawn from the literature review and related to the learner profile and
- (v) Continual evaluation, including problematisation, i.e. the location of the syllabus within the critical discourse paradigm and therefore allowing it to be both reflexive and reflective.

These five aspects can be operationalised with and through focused and determined participation of both the educators and learners.

It has been argued already that every syllabus developed is a promissory note, articulated in the hope that the ecological factors of the educational institution(s) will allow for the maximum development of the skills encapsulated in the syllabus document. In the current South African education system, brilliant propositions have already been made in both the Constitution as regards the language policy (Appendix

xi) and white papers (DoE 2001; 2004) with regard to the parity of languages, the desire to reduce inequality by advocating that the education system should deliver quality outcomes, and the very foundation on which the outcomes-based curriculum is founded. The greatest challenges have been at the level of implementation (Foli and Jackson, 2008; Stephen, Welman, and Jordaan 2004; Electoral mandate, 2009). These constraints – lack of teaching resources, inadequately trained teachers, narrow teaching strategies and the disparities between remote rural schools with no exposure to English vis-à-vis the private and well-resourced schools – have militated against the quality outcomes proposed by the government itself and the DoE.

It is a commonplace epithet in Africa that ‘rural’ evokes associations with poverty, alienation, deprivation, lack of resources, desperate educators and learners. The framework proposed in this chapter acknowledges that there are *opportunities* as numerous as the *challenges* for the implementation of a task-based English language syllabus. If indeed ‘there are no communities without stories’ (Kasule, 2008), then it could be posited that the educational goals of literate South African citizens who can participate and contribute to the development and social transformation are possible only when buttressed on what the communities, educators and learners have, not on what they do not.

6.2. Sustainable programmes of action

The Telkom Foundation, as indicated in Chapter 1, sponsored the research participants in this study. In the process of re-locating these learners to the ISSA research site, there was an underlying positive perception of the possibilities that the school offered: graduate teachers, security of boarding facilities, ample time for study and “an internationally recognized curriculum package.”

The learners adjusted their interactional patterns and learning practices in order for them to integrate and participate fully in the patterns obtaining at ISSA. They were obviously steeped in the somewhat erroneous belief that to master English was, simultaneously, to de-emphasize indigenous home languages. As discussed in Chapter 8, the novelty and modernity of ISSA became a site for contesting identities – immersion or submersion, inclusion or exclusion, continuity or discontinuity. The immensity of this challenge was amply demonstrated when, at the end of the 2009

academic year, seven (7) of the first Telkom beneficiaries (enrolled in 2007) were excluded from the school. The seven had obtained an overall average mark of less than 40%. An earlier manifestation of teething problems was the expulsion of a male bursary beneficiary who had physically molested a female learner in term two of 2008. Taken together, these incidents highlight some of the challenges that go with the (un)sustainability of programmes of action. The global recession of 2009 also took its toll in the decision by the sponsor to check the academic progress of the learners, which sadly led to the withdrawal of funding for those who struggled academically. By contrast, the pass mark for government schools remained pegged at 30%, a sad indictment of the political rhetoric about the efficacy, comparability and validity of OBE. The seven learners who were excluded from the sponsorship had to revert to the curricular practices of RNCS in 2010, from which they had been weaned in 2007.

6.2. The relevance of the syllabus

Relevance is understood and interrogated here in its relationship to the needs and challenges of the learners in this study. Having established the competencies and challenges of the research participants, the task-based syllabus was developed to tap into the BICS and extend these to address the identified gaps in order to meet specific outcomes. It was stated in Chapter 4 that the participants in this study brought into ISSA a repertoire of oral skills in their home languages that reflected support from their communities, educators and the institutions that they previously attended. To reinforce the commitment of the South African Constitution, the eleven official languages must not only be taught at the peripheral level – they ought to be taught to a high standard at primary level (Parmegiani, 2009) such that CALP competencies are optimally developed and these can be applied and extended to the additional English language. In fact, the system of education in South Africa must be such that the multicultural reality is stressed, supported and strengthened, rather than being narrowed. Both school and community are sites of belonging and identity formations; and a syllabus that appreciates and accentuates these links promotes the learners' self-esteem as they consequently recognize their membership in a much larger social order. Development of critical thinking through deep language processing enhances the learners' understanding of their shared world, and the part they ought to play.

Cartoons, magazines, photographs and teacher-generated materials, in addition to the textbook and reading passages that the school might have in stock can usefully be selected, organized and sequenced in order to develop CALP skills. The organization of the learners into groups and teams, for instance, is likely to generate peer reviews, discussion, re-casting of ideas and lead to gradual improvement of language proficiency.

6.4. The effectiveness of the syllabus

The effectiveness of the task-based syllabus is principally conceived and measured in terms of its ability to successfully develop defined competencies in the cohort of learners for which it was designed. Its breadth and depth, in terms of subject matter content, subsumes thorough mastery of the subject by the educator and the transfer of those skills to the learner through appropriately pitched tasks. Another component assumed is a broad range of suitable teaching delivery strategies that generate interest in and a passion for the subject.

In the South African education setting, several misgivings have been raised concerning the quality of teaching, especially in English language. The task-based syllabus developed for ISSA blended the content or topics described in CIE and C2005 (South Africa) documents. The hybrid generated anticipated significant and measurable improvement in South African learners' abilities to read and write well and improve grammar and punctuation and spelling skills in the English language at secondary school level.

C2005, in both its original and revised versions, has been the butt of cynicism, verging on contempt. It has been criticized by academics for its inability to transfer the requisite deductive, inferential, analytic and evaluation skills to learners who eventually have been unable to deal with rigorous, discipline-specific discourse at tertiary institutions (Umalusi, 2008; Jansen, 2011). Beyond highlighting the inadequate skills of the matriculants, the Council for Higher Education (CHE 2006; 2008 in particular) has recommended that foundation and bridging courses be developed in order to scaffold the learning of undergraduates.

The syllabus developed in this study was necessitated, in part, by the need to re-examine C2005 English language curricular specifications, especially to identify its shortfalls. Locating the source of the problems facing the English language learners was seen as an opportunity to refine that operational framework and enhance the competencies of the learners in the process.

6.5. Diversity and Hybridity: Teaching and learning principles embedded in the model

The research participants in this study have demonstrated that their lives are a web of hybrids whereas the English-as-a-first-language classroom at ISSA, particularly in preparation for the Cambridge International Examinations, seeks to instil singularity. These learners brought to the English classroom their own multiple and hybrid identities. Their study of English, specifically their reading and writing, thereby became a cumbersome task for the learners as they negotiated both an appropriate discourse and a broader linguistic repertoire.

The framework for the CALP skills development syllabus in this study proposes that the initial and critical step lies in identifying the problem that the research participants bring into a specific ecology and research site. In this research, it was the language gaps that constituted the research agenda, specifically the need to use resources economically, create spaces and curricular structures that enabled and broadened the higher order linguistic skills of the participants.

Heaven and Tubridy (2004:153) argue that diversity is a product of those “instances where distinctly separate traditions of culture and identity come into contact in such a way as to co-exist.” These authors refer to multiculturalism, as actualised in the multilingualism of the research participants, as ways of being, including programmes which encourage the development of societies in which multiple cultures and identities co-exist. The coexistence of multiple cultures and identities inadvertently (or advertently) produces hybrids. Heaven and Tubridy (2004:153) state that “in a sense all cultures and identities are hybrids insofar as all cultures evolve as a result of their contact with other cultures and identities.” In cultural theory, hybridity defines the process of resistance and contestation whereby mixed identities challenge and

subvert the assimilative, essentialist dominant narrative. It is a fusion of these elements of separate experiential, educational and cultural traditions, such as the merger of African traditional practices with traditions of the western world that become manifest in hybrid cultures and identities.

The theory of hybridity, developed by Homi Bhabha (1994) opposes the Western view of totalising cultural binary oppositions such as centre-periphery, east-west, high-low, and insider-outsider. Bhabha argues that cultures can be understood to interact, transgress, and transform each other in a much more complex manner than the traditional binary oppositions allow. According to Bhabha (1994), hybridity and "linguistic multi-vocality" have the potential to intervene and dislocate the homogenising processes through the reinterpretation of language-learning, linguistic competence and political discourse. Bhabha (1994) developed his concept of hybridity from literary and cultural theory to describe the construction of culture and identity within conditions of antagonism and inequity. For Bhabha, hybridity is the process by which authority undertakes to translate the identity of the "outsider" (the *Other*) within a singular universal framework, but then fails, producing something familiar but new. This new product, according to Bhabha, lies in between, neither inside nor outside, "almost but not quite."

Bhabha (1996) contends that a new hybrid identity keeps challenging the validity and authenticity of any essentialist cultural identity. Therefore, the strategies of hybridisation reveal an estranging movement of the authoritative discourse. These strategies, in Bhabha's terms, are evidently marked by "slippages." Furthermore, hybridity provides space for inclusion rather than exclusion within which new signs of identity, and innovative sites of collaboration and contestation are created. In the framework proposed, the researcher takes cognisance of past and present language learning experiences so that they can adequately chart a possible cartography of "future language needs." The school's resources and its internal capacity such as cultural diversity and staffing are harnessed to address the needs of the new participants. Subsequently, hybrid agencies find their voice in a dialectic that does not seek cultural supremacy (Bhabha 2004).

Additionally, the concept of hybridisation is not only visible in the appropriation and conglomeration of different reading and writing styles but also in the use of language and the creation of meaning. Bakhtin (1984: 361) defines hybridisation in languages as “the mixing, within a single concrete utterance, of two or more different linguistic consciousnesses, often widely separated in time and social space.” He adds that along with dialogization of languages and pure dialogues, hybridisation is a major device for creating narratives, intentional and double-voiced.

Bhabha and Bakhtin’s discussions of hybridity are partially expanded by Nuttall and Michael (2000)’s theory of creolisation. This challenge helps reposition and clarify the concept of mixing of cultures and the mixing of identities. Nuttall and Michael describe creolisation as the cross-fertilization which takes place between different cultures when they interact. The locals *select* particular elements from in-coming cultures, *endow these with meanings* different from those they possessed in the original culture and then *creatively merge* these with indigenous traditions to *create totally new forms*. Nuttall and Michael (2000:6) state that “creolisation has usually been understood as the process whereby individuals of different cultures, languages, educational experiences and religions are thrown together and “invent” a new language, Creole, a new culture, and a new social and linguistic becoming.

Accordingly, the term dialogization best describes the International School of South Africa’s cultural landscape because it goes beyond the limitations of multiculturalism and hybridity. Nuttall and Michael’s redefinition of hybridity refers to hybridity as a theory of resistance whereas dialogization offers a more dynamic sense of making identities which might (or might not include) resistance and perversion (see for instance Vignette 1 and Vignette 3 in Chapter 5 of this study). In addition, they argue that hybridity embeds an opinion of distinct cultures or identities coming together from a variant which would still manifest the distinct elements of the merged culture or identities, whereas creolisation produces totally new forms.

Hybridity in language (or creolisation) produces an interlanguage (Selinker, 1972). *Interlanguage* refers to the linguistic system that learners develop in the process of second language acquisition. An interlanguage is neither the native language nor the target language. It is a language that positions itself between the two (this was

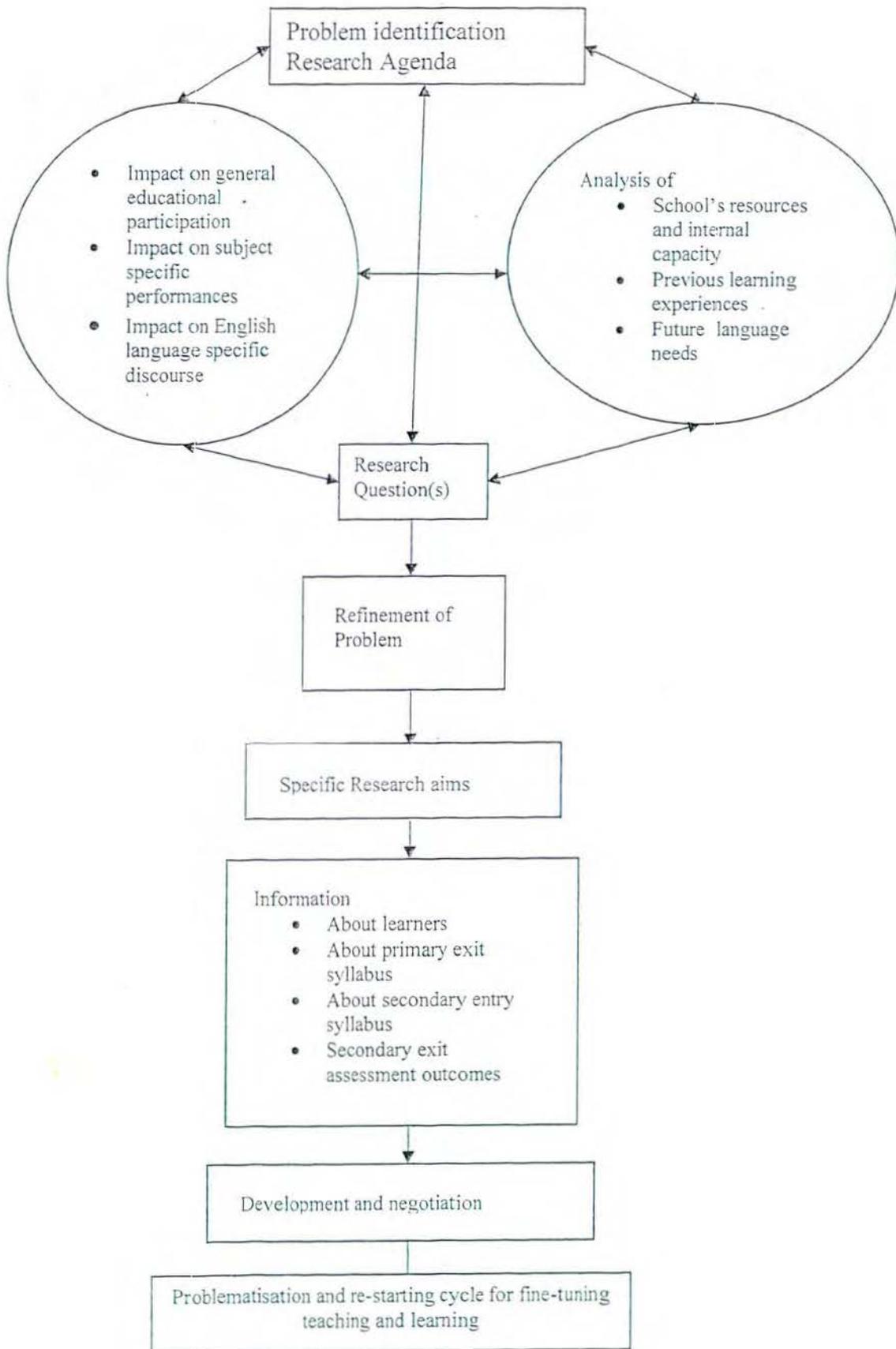
discussed under Black South African English in Chapter 2 of this study). Interlanguage refers to a language system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native (mother tongue, home language) and target (second, additional) languages (Brown, 1994). In the process of learning a second language, learner writers and readers employ various strategies to cope with meaning-making and communication difficulties and to build their way to proficiency and target language competence. These strategies include borrowing patterns from the mother tongue, extending patterns from the target language, and expressing meanings using the words and grammar which are already known (Parmegiani, 2009).

Pennycook (2007) is of the opinion that second language learning is essentially a hybridised cultural experience. This, according to Pennycook, (2007:580) produces “divergent newness.” Omoniyi (2006), points out that hybridisation signals a desire to preserve aspects of the outer circle (subculture) identity whilst acknowledging the role of the inner circle (mainstream). Whilst articulating ideas, images, metaphors and style, second language reading and second language writing become expressions of a multicultural ecology.

In dealing with the aforementioned concepts (diversity, multiculturalism, multilingualism and hybridity), Nuttall (2004) examines the concept of translatability. Translatability is a concept for understanding encounters and interactions between different cultures. It aims at comprehending these encounters and interactions between cultures. These interactions and encounters may involve either assimilation or appropriation. Translatability seems necessary in a multicultural society. Translatability may not only be a singular, monolithic force in itself but it can trigger the attempts to counteract institutional and political power, which the various groups in such a social and educational set-up bring to bear in order to impose their own linguistic and cultural heritages upon other segments in a multicultural community.

According to Nuttall (2004) the modes of translatability show the world as a set of fragments that the new arrivants (the learners) have to continually deal with. These fragments also have in them dual elements of the histories of isolation and connection to the world that the South Africa educational experience carries.

The model suggested for the development of CALP skills development syllabus is sketched below, having fully considered the preceding arguments.



6.6. Conclusion

Relevance, learner needs and profiling, effectiveness, efficiency and the concepts of hybridity and dynamic tensions between languages in contact were incorporated into the model that was used to negotiate and design the task-based syllabus outlined in Chapter 7. This framework informed the selection, organization, sequencing and evaluation features and components of the syllabus.

THE PROPOSED TASK-BASED SYLLABUS AND GUIDELINES FOR IMPLEMENTATION

7.1. Introduction

This proposal is a broad, task-based syllabus document. Each task is set out in the sequence envisaged as most accessible and learnable at the Form Three level (third year in secondary school, after a comprehensive and formal primary school education lasting at least seven years). A significant number of the topics are extended and given deeper treatment, having been taught in cyclic fashion over the years of formal education. The target aim is to achieve deeper language processing and enrichment for the learners as they strive towards CALP skills. This aim focuses on the development of global understanding of texts rather than the limited recognition and absolute comprehension of individual words (Anderson, 1994). Some of the tasks, such as language structures and grammar rules, are recurrent, perhaps a little more explicit and these need reinforcement, especially integration with the specific reading and writing tasks. The envisaged users of this syllabus are encouraged to refine and adapt according to the perceived and specific abilities, challenges and exit competencies of the individual target groups taught. To recap Suite (2001) and Valdes (2004), this syllabus is directed both inside the respective institution and outside it, specifying work and serving as an expression of accountability towards the learners, stakeholders and sponsors.

7.2. Prior knowledge assumed

At the reading level, the learners were expected to be familiar with some basic reading where they could recognise words, decode and read at various levels of comprehension. These reading strategies were verified in the entrance assessments as routine and basic problem-solving in nature (cf. 5.3.3) and it was established that there was a need to extend them from this reproduction cluster to the higher connections and reflection clusters of competence and critical decoding (see page 5 and 6 of this study).

In terms of writing, the learners were observed to be familiar with basic forms such as letter writing, short descriptions and convenient, basic narratives that reflected elementary patterns of sequencing and some recognition of grammaticality. These learner writers still had challenges with regard to modal auxiliaries, relative clauses, concord and structure of extended written pieces as reported in the chapter on findings. There was a need to extend their awareness of persuasive techniques, the appropriate use of register and relevant tone in writing as in discourse, and the distinctive differences in formats such as transcripts, interviews, basic dialogues and investigative reports, for instance. Such extended and fluent strategies would eventually be deployed consciously in reading passages in order to identify key words, establish the meanings of words in a given context and recognise the effects created by writers in making specific lexical choices and usages in their writing. Though the deliberate development of oral proficiency was peripheral and subsumed under reading and writing in the proposed syllabus, it was observed that these learners were effective users of their home languages.

The second observation was that even though they could make basic conversational turns in English, or indeed respond to interrogations in some comprehensible English, in the majority of situations they often consciously inhibited communication in the second language. This home language proficiency factor was considered a strength in the learners though this was also recognised as a challenge for the English language classroom, considering the diversity in home languages that they brought into the classroom. In addition, due to the processes of integration and familiarization with the ecology of the school that they had been exposed to, the learners had apparently mastered an oral proficiency level that was not matched, surprisingly, by the written competency. They were, in concrete terms, 'immersed in the heteroglossic word, determined by the languages that defined them' as Halasek (2004:8) argues. In many ways, the Telkom Foundation learners who were the participants in this study, had their individual utterances, their discourses, and rhetorics influenced and shaped by fluctuating social relationships and the dialogues in which they took part, by what Bakhtin(1984) calls heteroglossia.

7.3. Competencies anticipated

It has been argued that each syllabus design is an ideal that is hinged on promise. Theory and practice are therefore largely integrated into this pedagogical vision of possibilities. This was also the premise that buttressed the development of the present syllabus design. Based on the task syllabus model and the framework developed by Anderson (1994:178), the current proposal aimed to activate acquired prior knowledge and synchronise this with new capacities in a bid to extend language competency. It also aimed at developing the vocabulary of the learners from their entry levels and in the process teaching the learners skills for fluent reading that enhanced comprehension. Learners' reading strategies were verified through graded reading passages that in turn helped to establish the reading levels of the research participants and a summative evaluation of progress was made after the development of the syllabus proposal. Following up on the strategies outlined above, the following were designed as the reading and writing objectives for the syllabus at Form 3. "R" and "W" are used to mean reading and writing respectively.

7.4. The reading curriculum component

This empirical study has established the resources and the challenges that the research participants brought into the research site. Based on the findings (5.7.1), it is submitted that the task, as an activity carried out as the result of processing and understanding language, provides a purpose for classroom activity (Richards, Platt and Weber, 1985). Also considering the historical disadvantages that the research participants experienced in their previous schools (5.1.3), particularly under-resourced schools, rote learning and lack of sufficient reading materials, the syllabus designed sought to redress this through a carefully planned remedial and integration programme of both intensive and extensive reading. The task-based approach, being in itself hybrid in orientation, blends the "explicit teaching conventions of language and literacy" (Parmegiani, 2009:100). Embedded in the hybridity of the teaching-learning approaches recommended, it is important to ensure that their reading, appropriation and increasing expertise in English is complemented by making sufficient connections with their own mother tongue literacies (Pennycook, 1994; Canagarajah, 2005).

For purposes of practicality, reading should be divided into intensive and extensive components, while the texts should also be categorized as literary and non-literary, including verbal and non-verbal features. By the end of the Form 3 reading course, learners are expected to:

R3.1 Understand and comment on features of literary writing in relation to character, setting, theme and plot.

R3.2 Demonstrate an understanding of the features of non-literary and media texts such as travel writing and advertising material.

R3.3 Comment on the meanings and features of poems and explain the effectiveness of the writers' use of words

R3.4 Read to detect main ideas and supporting detail.

R3.5 Identify fact, opinion and bias, including focus on relating information in a text to its social and historical context.

R3.6 Recognise and comment on the attitudes of a writer.

R3.7. Understand the differences between formal and informal style.

R3.8. Recognise ways in which writers use different registers and other methods to communicate with their audience.

R3.9. Understand how words are used for different purposes, such as to create atmosphere or to persuade the reader.

R3.10. Understand linear information in relation to non-linear information.

7.2.1 (i) Unit 1: Skimming and scanning a text (Part One)

Objectives

By the end of the unit, learners should be able to:

- Select facts from a simple area of the reading texts
- Select facts from a more complex area of the reading texts
- Select key ideas from the passages and express these in own words
- Make simple deductions from various contexts in the reading passages
- Rephrase words and expressions from the text/ paraphrasing

Content

- Magazine article, newspaper report and short story

Learning tasks

- Learners read texts to select and list facts from simple and complex segments
- Learners infer meanings and implied meanings
- Learners write summaries based on stimulus reading

Assessment

- List of facts submitted in written form
- Write up of selected points in continuous writing, demonstrating use of own words (substitution skills)

7.4.1.(ii) Intensive Reading Unit 2: Cohesion (Part One)

Objective

At the end of the unit, learners should be able to:

- identify linking devices between sentences and paragraphs
- classify various linking devices
- state the various functions of the linking devices discussed

Content

Short literary and non-literary texts

A list of linking devices, including:

- repetition of a word from a previous sentence or part of a sentence
- use of a synonym or synonymous phrase
- use of an antonym or phrase indicating the opposite
- use of a pronoun to replace an antecedent noun

- repetition of a sentence structure or familiar pattern used earlier in the text

Learning tasks

- Learners compare two given texts and explain why one is better linked than the other.
- Learners read the texts and classify the linking devices in them
- Learners indicate what the functions of the classified linking devices are.

Assessment

- A written exercise on linking devices
- Completing a flow chart of appropriate linking devices
- A cloze test based on linking devices

7.4.2. Extensive Reading Unit 3: Cohesion (Part Two)

Objective

At the end of the unit, learners should be able to:

- identify and comment on the usage of linking devices in a literary text
- adopt some linking devices identified in the text for use in their own writing
- describe how the text hangs together through the use of appropriate linking devices

Content

A short literary story between 2000 and 3000 words

A partial list of linking devices in the story used as content:

- co-reference
- conjunctive relations (logical connectors)
- ellipsis
- substitution
- implicature

Learning tasks

- Learners examine the story, marking and identifying the cohesive links
- Learners state the functions of the cohesive links identified
- Learners comment on the strength of the linking devices
- Learners adopt the devices and use them in their own writing

Assessment

- Examining the text and marking the linking devices
- Completing the partial list through collaborative work
- An exercise in writing where linking devices are incorporated

7.4.3. Coherence

Objectives

By the end of the unit, learners should be able to:

- Identify and use coordinating clauses
- Identify and use substitution
- Identify and use time relaters

Content

- Short stories, formal speeches and self-contained extracts from novels

Learning tasks

- Identifying and clarifying how one sentence or paragraph relates to another
- Identifying which sentence summarises the main idea of a paragraph
- Providing a topic sentence
- Linking a flow chart to a linear text
- Identifying the topic sentence in a multiple choice comprehension test

Assessment

- Synthesizing information through sentences
- Writing a multiple choice comprehension where learners identify topic sentences
- Identifying subordinate ideas
- Sketching theme charts in order to link the ideas expressed in a linear text
- Identifying non-related sentences that impede the global coherence of a text

7.4.4. Extensive Reading Unit 4: Vocabulary

Objectives

At the end of the unit, learners should be able to:

- Read a long text
- Identify and state how certain words are formed
- Classify various word formation strategies, including the following:
 - i. Affixation (prefixation and suffixation)
 - ii. Conversion
 - iii. compounding
- State the meanings of new words encountered through application of word derivation skills

Content

Short literary text

A chart of word-formation strategies:

- prefixes (negative prefixes, reversative prefixes, pejorative prefixes, prefixes of degree, prefixes of attitude, locative prefixes, number prefixes and conversion prefixes)
- suffixes(noun suffixes, adjective suffixes, verb suffixes and adverb suffixes)
- compounding(subject and verb compounds, verb and object compounds, verb and adverbial compounds, verbless compounds, reduplicatives, clipping and blends)
- blending
- adjectives and adverbs
- the noun and the verb

Learning tasks

- Learners apply the word formation chart principles to words encountered in content text
- Learners classify the words according to the table word roots
- Learners state the difference between denotation and connotation
- Learners state the range of emotive words encountered and rate them on a scale

Assessment

- An exercise on neutral and emotive words
- An exercise on denotation and connotation
- An exercise on suffixes and affixes

7.4.5. Intensive Reading Unit 5: Direct meaning and inferences

Objectives

By the end of the unit, learners should be able to:

- read texts with the purpose of answering questions that seek to assess comprehension levels based on what the messages that texts communicate
- read texts in order to learn, understand, substitute and explain the usages of some vocabulary items embedded in texts

Content

- Literary texts, short plays, poems and short stories between 3000-5000 words
- A glossary of words and terms used in the extract

Learning tasks

- Learners read a selected text and identify main ideas and supporting ones
- Learners extract points from text and tabulate them as opinion, fact or bias
- Learners substitute and explain selected words with synonyms and antonyms

Assessment

- Synonyms and antonyms exercise based on contextual usages
- Graded comprehension exercise based on the literary text

7.4.6.1. Intensive reading

Unit 6: Levels of formality

Objectives

By the end of the unit, learners should be able to:

- identify and state the degree of formality and informality in a narrative text, a comic strip and a public lecture
- define the characteristic markers such as colloquialism, jargon and code-mixing
- examine the (un)suitability of such markers in the context of the text

Content

- Short story, cartoon strip, and a public figure's speech

Learning tasks

- Learners read the three content extracts and state the differences in wording
- Learners extract and list specific items suggesting differences in tone and audience
- Learners suggest the intention and effect of use of different levels of formality

Assessment

- Note-making assessed as a skill
- Report-back to peers assessed as demonstration of confidence and understanding

7.4.7. Intensive Reading Unit 7: Summarizing information from texts

Objectives

By the end of the unit, learners should be able to:

- read texts set as comprehension in order to select specific points
- list in hierarchy the points selected for the summary draft
- write a summary of the text using own words

Content

- Two texts, one literary and the other non-literary, from a magazine and a short story anthology, based on contrasting themes

Learning tasks

- Identify and comment on a text's explicit or implicit opinions and prejudices through careful reading of what is voiced or unvoiced
- Select a specified number of summary points
- Set out and use appropriate connectors to link the summary points
- Paraphrase some parts of the summary text
- Edit the points for grammaticality

Assessment

- Note-making assessed as a skill
- Connectors assessed to establish flow and coherence of summary
- Use of own words assessed as indication of vocabulary range
- Use of past tense and reporting voice assessed to check understanding
- Final write up assessed for comprehensiveness of points covered

7.4.8. Grammar (Part One) Unit 8: Sentence type and variety

Objectives

By the end of the unit, learners should be able to:

- state a range of sentence types
- identify the components of a sentence
- create compound and complex sentences following the models identified

Content

Two texts, one literary and the other one a diary or journal entry

A list of sentence types and models extracted from the two texts including:

- imperatives (commands)
- interrogatives
- exclamations and interjections
- compound sentences and the connectives
- complex sentences
- the periodic sentence

Learning tasks

Learners:

- build on knowledge of simple sentence to highlight component parts
- describe the various purposes and functions of each sentence type
- identify subordination as well as coordination
- locate examples of coordinating and subordinating aspects in the selected content texts
 - comment on variation in sentence types and effects created by the variety

Assessment

Learners assessed on ability to:

- identify the type of sentences used: simple, complex, interrogative, imperative and compound
- explain the effects achieved through these various sentence types.

•demonstrate increased awareness of patterns and effects achieved by varying sentences

7.4.9. (i) Intensive Reading Unit 9: Paragraphing (Part One)

Objectives

By the end of the unit, learners should be able to:

- Identify the various paragraph types, including
- Problem solution paragraphs
- Comparative paragraphs
- Chronological paragraphs
- Mixed paragraphs
- Name the variety of sentence types encountered
- Break down sentences into constituent units
- Use a variety of sentence types in their own writing, based on the framework of those encountered in the tasks

Content

- Short magazine article
- Newspaper report
- Extract from a well-written novel or short story

The articles selected should demonstrate instances of:

- the loose paragraph
- the periodic paragraph

Learning tasks

Learners, in pairs or small groups:

- identify the topic sentences in each paragraph
- identify and list supporting ideas
- identify and list devices that hold paragraphs together
- state logical connectors and sequencing techniques within paragraphs

Assessment

- Ability to list and state paragraph components assessed per pair or group
- Ability to identify and highlight topic sentences in paragraphs
- Ability to state, in writing, the cementing devices that bind the text(s) together
- Ability to construct similarly patterned sentences

7.4.9 (ii) Paragraphing (Part Two)

Objectives

By the end of the unit, learners should be able to:

- Identify and talk about chronological, loose and periodic paragraphs
- Identify and list main and supporting ideas in specified paragraphs
- Identify the logical connectors and other sequencing connectors that bind the paragraphs
- Demonstrate an awareness of, and use different types of paragraphs in their own writing tasks
- State and explain
 - (i) phrasal meaning clauses
 - (ii) noun-centred meaning clauses
 - (iii) verb-centred meaning clauses
 - (iv) Sentential meaning: the principle of compositionality
 - (v) The anomaly of “no sense” and “nonsense”
 - (vi) The distinction, in sentences, between metaphor and idiom

Content

Short literary and non-literary texts

Learning tasks

- Learners read, discuss and examine the three ways in which meaning may be veiled or even absent in specific paragraphs.

- Learners explain anomaly: expressions that appear to follow rules of syntax but go awry semantically.
- Learners identify metaphor: non-literal, indirect meanings and
- Learners explain difference with idiom: meaning of expression unrelated to the meaning of parts, but conventionally understood.

Assessment

- Sense-making in compound, subordinate and complex sentences
- Written exercise on making sense in sentences such as
 - “My brother is an only child”
 - “The bachelor is pregnant”
 - “Our doubts are traitors”
 - “Mapule is a snake in the grass”

Learner paragraphs on stimuli provided that use devices in this unit.

7.4.10.(i) Intensive Reading Unit 4: Non-verbal features of a text (punctuation, graphs, pictures and colour)

Objectives

At the end of the unit, learners should be able to:

- state similarities in pairs of pictures and pairs of graphs
- use specific discourse markers in stating the trends and patterns observed
- write a sustained piece on the comparative and contrastive elements identified
- decode differences in pairs of pictures and graphs

Content

Trend graphs

Contrasting pictures depicting both setting and appropriate atmosphere

A chart with terms used for comparing and contrasting features:

- comparative + *than*
- comparisons using *than* and *as*
- comparisons using *as* and *like*

- the neutral, comparative and the superlative
- conditionals and *if-clauses*
- *very, fairly, rather and quite*
- the adjective in comparison

Learning tasks

- Learners compare pairs of non-verbal texts such as pictures and graphs
- Learners demonstrate the similarities and differences
- Learners use appropriate selected terms to discuss and write about the observed trends and patterns

Assessment

- A written exercise on terms for comparison and contrast
- A sustained written piece showing skills in using the appropriate markers of similarity and difference

7.4.10. (ii) Intensive Reading Unit 10: Skimming and scanning a text (Part Two)

Objectives

By the end of the unit, learners should be able to:

- state the differences between skimming through a text and scanning it
- state what they recall from skimming and state differences with recall after scanning a text
- skim through a text, identify topic sentences, key points and layout features
- notice style features of a text and engage in deep processing
- identify style features of each text and judge the (de)merits of each
- match differences of skimming and scanning different texts provided
- scan a text and make notes
- state the information structure of a given text after skimming and subsequent scanning

Content

Magazine article, newspaper report and short story with subtitles

Table distinguishing skimming from scanning and showing:

- pitfalls of glossing over detail
- information structure in texts

Learning tasks

- identifying context of the writing
- identifying the intended audience
- identifying stylistic features of the writing, including among others, the use and effect of punctuation, themes, foregrounding, repetition, parallel constructions, humour, sarcasm
- locating information and taking short notes in scanning
- transferring information from one mode to another
- explaining the information structure of the texts provided

Assessment

- Skimming for main ideas
- Homework on deep text processing (scanning)
- Reflections on texts skimmed and scanned after a period of 24 hours
- Short written comments on typeface, italics, bold, subtitles and content
- Note-making and transforming information from one mode to another

7.5. The writing curriculum component

Taking the cue from Vygotsky's ideas on the interactivity between learners and language (1985), and the capacity of the learners to reconstruct ideas and knowledge in their multilingual minds, the writing programme in this empirical study was premised on the contrastive approach between English and the research participants' home languages (cf 2.4). Whereas the trajectory was defined as "standard English," it was necessary to tap into the linguistic resources of the learners, establish equivalents and challenges and, in the process, become explicit when challenges occurred. The

relevance of the writing tasks, their purposeful inclusivity of experiences and the conventions of the texts were considered paramount in both the content specifications and sequencing of the syllabus (cf.6.2). The writing curriculum at Form Three was therefore envisaged as entailing the following broad and generic objectives:

W3.1 Begin to develop appropriate register and a personal voice.

W3.2 Demonstrate a sense of audience and engage the reader's attention.

W3.3 Learn to use structures appropriate to genre and understand the need to link paragraphs.

W3.4 Write persuasively, e.g. in letters / script of a commercial

W3.5 Add detail, tension and climax to narratives.

W3.6 Understand the difference between a narrative and a description.

W3.7 Write an argument without repetition, but with a sense of linked progression.

W3.8 Write to analyse, review and comment.

W3.9 Draft, revise and edit

W3.10 Write to demonstrate the effective use of cohesive devices in order to produce coherent texts.

7.5.1. Writing narratives

Unit 1

Objectives

Learners should be able to:

- identify style, register, figures of speech and rhetorical devices exploited by writers to achieve specific effects.
- plan and write for creative narrative purposes and consistently use the register, figures of speech and rhetorical devices encountered in their reading
- use different stylistic and literary devices explicitly taught in order to make writing more effective
- identify and differentiate different registers and tone for narratives
- translate stories from home language and try to capture the idiom and notice how idioms and values are different in two languages

- demonstrate ownership of comparisons, such as simile, metaphor, image and personification

Content

- Mythical story displaying timeless intrigue and suspense
- Fable displaying timeless interest
- Modern short story with sufficient plot, atmosphere, characterisation

Learner tasks

- Learners read the selected stories
- Discuss characterization, plot, setting and language
- Identify stylistic devices deployed
- Explain the effects achieved by the devices identified

Assessment

- Reading speed and facility individually assessed
 - Dramatization in reading assessed on an individual and group basis
 - Re-writing and summarizing stories in additional language and own words
 - Written assessment based on narrative stimulus provided: to write a continuation, imagine a time and place
- Evaluating storytelling techniques displayed and providing feedback

7.5.2. Writing descriptions

Unit 2

Objectives

Learners should be able to:

- identify styles exploited by writers to achieve specific descriptive effects
- use developing knowledge of language structure and use to describe defined stimulus

- plan and write for creative descriptive purposes and consistently use the sensory details and rhetorical devices encountered in their reading
- use different stylistic and literary devices explicitly taught in order to make descriptive writing more effective
- identify and differentiate different appeals in descriptions
- demonstrate ownership of comparisons, such as simile, metaphor, image and personification

Content

- Visuals, photographs, artworks and recipes
- A powerful descriptive piece of writing
- A tourist brochure and hotel flier

Learning tasks

Learners

- read the brochures, fliers and the descriptive piece of writing
- identify especially the use of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs and comment on the use of emotive language and appeal generated
 - discuss euphemism, exaggeration and hyperbole as features of marketing
 - design own advertorials and use emotive appeals
- write paragraphs and ultimately sustained descriptive pieces

Assessment

- Advertorials and wording, especially colourful language
- Use of sustained exaggeration for comic or other effect
- Specific nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs in the descriptive pieces
- Sustained descriptions of place, tour and experience, between 250 and 350 words

7.5.3. Writing to persuade

Unit 3

Objectives

At the end of the unit, learners should be able to:

- argue persuasively
- express opinions and support these with reasons
- express agreement and disagreement persuasively
- switch specific language registers creatively

Content

- Extract from a recent parliamentary debate on a topical issue
- Newspaper report on a controversial action by a public official
- Letters to the editor on topical and contested issues
- A public rally speech (Martin Luther King, Mahatma Gandhi, Nelson Mandela, Barack Obama speeches)

Learning tasks

- Learners read the content texts provided and identify the specific suasion tools
- Learners express opinions and support these based on plausible evidence
- Learners express how far they agree or disagree with the text both critically and persuasively

Assessment

- Class debates on topical issues arising from content materials
- Stress and emphasis techniques evidenced by deliberate repetition, listing and referring back through logical connectors
- Written pieces demonstrating persuasive techniques explicitly taught

- **Magazines:**

- Write for the specific purpose, to entertain or inform.
- Use the proper format correctly, with each paragraph dealing with an important element
- Identify and use the tone for the specific audience - formal or informal, depending on the type of magazine.

- **Reports :**

- Formal in tone and diction.
- Use the correct format of a report: purpose, method, findings, recommendations.
- Write in the third person to avoid being too personal.

- **Reviews :**

- Note difference between a favourable and critical report: very persuasive in tone or very critical and identify specific reasons for each perspective
- Identify purpose as well as the audience, which will influence the tone.

Assessment

- Written assessment covering format, content and style features of report and review
- Group presentations

7.5.7. Writing autobiography and biography

Unit 7

Objectives

By end of the unit, learners should be able to demonstrate and discuss from informed positions that autobiography:

- can be critical or positive about oneself
- uses first person narrative and emotive language
- reveals (and conceals) something about oneself that the general public would (not) have known.

Content

- Personal voice and collective voices in autobiography and biography; including political agendas such as Martin Luther King and Nelson Mandela,
- films such as “*Sarafina*” and Alex Haley’s “*Roots*”.
- Extracts from Eldridge Cleaver (*Soul on Ice*) and Richard Wright (*Eight Men*)

Learning tasks

- writing own biography;
- imagining oneself as “foreigner” in another country and writing an autobiography of the foreigner or refugee.
- differentiating between biography and autobiography
- reading journalistic biography and writing responses to questions based on the stimulus, such as “Suffer Little Children.”
- writing interview scripts with various imagined situations in order to develop appropriate registers.
- writing dialogues between characters in order to illustrate the range of voice and register for specific situations.

Assessment

- Written submissions of biographies and autobiographies
- Writing on comprehension tasks set based on the extracts

7.5.8. Using a dictionary and other references

Unit 8

Objectives

- Learners should learn a range of vocabulary appropriate to their needs and use words in writing to clarify meanings and to interest their audience.
- Learners should spell correctly most of the words that they use by using good dictionaries and a thesaurus

- Learners should use the dictionary and thesaurus to extend and develop their vocabulary.

- (i) In a recursive format, learners are expected to develop consciously their language skills and continue to extend their range of language and to use it appropriately.

- (ii) continue to study personal spelling errors and to correct them.

Content

- Tense usage, spelling and word meaning in context

Learning tasks

- The progressive aspect: present and past (temporary happenings, habitual uses, future, repetition of events in a limited duration), present perfect, present perfect progressive and past perfect progressive.

- Future time (shall, will) present progressive+ future meaning, mixed tenses.

- Common morphological errors: adjectives and adverbs, prepositions and phrasal verbs, articles (definite and indefinite), passive voice.

- Modal auxiliaries (may/might, will/would, must, have to, ought to, had better& need.

- Indirect speech: back-shifting rules, auxiliary verbs and introductory verbs.

- Conditional sentences: generic factual conditionals, habitual factual conditionals, imaginative conditionals and future predictive conditionals.

Assessment

- Recursive tests and exercises on:

- Linking verbs and adverbs

- Linking nouns and adjectives

- using the past perfect tense and the past perfect progressive tense

- vocabulary for specific occasions such as disasters, new technologies, ecotourism, global warming, traditions and the meta-language of English

- modals showing obligation

- verb phrases and pronouns in complex sentences

- Spelling Olympiads of words encountered in reading texts

7.5.9. Unit 9: Grammar (Part two)

Objectives

By the end of this unit, learners should be able to:

- Use conjunctions over and above “and”, “but”, “ since”
- Use present participles, i.e. the –ing form of the verb ending
- Use relative pronouns in combined sentences and complex sentences

Content

- Series of sentences to combine through co-ordination, subordination and the grammatical structures in the objectives
- A non-literary text with several structures for modeling
- A short story

Learning tasks

- Learners use two present participles in writing own sentences
- Learners use conjunctions to make complex sentences out of three simple sentences
- Learners use relative pronouns to link simple sentences

Assessment

- Sentence structures
- Semantic rules for adjective – noun combinations
- Co-reference
- Verb – centred meaning (agent, theme and goal roles of the verb)
- Note-making

7.5.10. Unit 10

Grammar: Spelling and the morphology of lexical verbs

Objectives

By the end of the unit the learners should be able to:

- Apply morphological rules to ensure correct spelling
- State and apply inflectional spelling rules to words encountered such as the treatment of “-y” and deletion of “-e)

Learning tasks

- Learners demonstrate understanding that final base consonants are doubled before inflections beginning with a vowel letter and the exceptions
- Learners demonstrate understanding of the “y”, “ie”, “ei” and “e” rules

Assessment

- Spelling Olympiads
- Irregular verbs assessment practice
- Exercises in tense, aspect and mood concepts
- Note-making

7.6. Conclusion

This chapter presented a task-based syllabus largely in the form of lists covering specific linguistic aspects to be taught within a specific ecology. The South African schooling landscape is a disparate one in terms of economic, social, geographic, racial, linguistic and cultural differences. This syllabus and the case study from which it is generated must therefore be read in the context of a private school whose student body comprises a heterogeneous population of nationalities, races and cultures from relatively affluent backgrounds but one where the research participants were from previously disadvantaged schools. It is imperative that research be extended to include the complexities and dynamics that characterize other South African schools, for instance, schools that are overcrowded and would pose new challenges in terms of teaching time, teaching-learning resources, individual attention and feedback quality.

CONCLUSION

8.1. The proposed course

This study sought to investigate possibilities of designing an effective, relevant and efficient syllabus for L2 learners that would empower them with CALP reading and writing skills. In critiquing second language acquisition theories, it was possible to refute claims that the process of second language learning only resides within psychological domains but that contextual, social, economic and cultural aspects have to be accounted for. In assessing the historically inequitable language learning contexts, establishing the language needs of the learners and asking them to suggest input into the syllabus, this study addressed how different ways of teaching and asking questions might have major repercussions on learners' perceptions of and strategies for SLA.

Education in the new democratic dispensation in South Africa has been beset by innumerable problems, ranging from the design of a new curriculum, redressing the imbalances of apartheid and the acute shortage of skilled labor to implement, monitor and evaluate the programmes. In spite of the fact that the Department of Education has perennially received the largest share of the national budget for the past fifteen years, the performance of learners in key areas such as the English language, mathematics and science at the school certificate and matriculation levels has been depressingly low and a cause for concern.

In order to improve learner outcomes, there is an urgent need to re-look at the priorities set out for the specific learning areas, and in particular in English language; all this in a bid to increase support and more effective utilization of available resources so that there is a measurable upturn in the quality of the education and the concomitant cognitive skills that the learners are equipped with at the end of their schooling. The syllabus designed in this study is an endeavour to foster effective and efficient language learning, especially CALP skills in reading and writing in a private institution, ISSA, in order for this learning site to be a beacon of how sustainable and empowering learning could be achieved despite the learners' poor background. In its academic and intellectual curiosity, this syllabus seeks to fulfill that social

engagement contract through effective teaching as suggested in the recommendations that follow.

Writing and reading offer boundless possibilities for the secondary school learner. Both offer the learner new horizons of possibility, principally by affording the learner agency in the language learning process. The task-based syllabus developed in this study demands active engagement on the part of the learner in a dynamic and interactive interrogation with the English language. Interaction, which is the foundation of this task-based syllabus, anticipates multiple levels of exchanges (learner-content, learner-learner, and learner-educator), thus attention is paid to the ecological and discursive factors that mediate the acquisition of CALP skills at the secondary school level in South Africa.

8.1.1. A task-based English language syllabus, as outlined and designed in this study, entails a grounded inventory of what is established as critical for the learners to do. Administering a formative assessment tool upon their entry into the secondary school ensures a comprehensive organisation of the language curriculum to guarantee that the gaps noted from the previous learning experiences are covered. Such curricular organization ensures that, in its instructional delivery and assessment strategic units, the intended learning ultimately takes place.

8.1.2. Additional language elements, cascading in spiral form, are integrated into the task-based syllabus in order to provide expanded opportunities for the cohort of learners participating in the acquisition programme, as outlined in the introduction to this study.

8.1.3. A task-based, CALP skills development syllabus design clearly describes and explicitly states the writing and comprehension abilities that the learners ought to demonstrate at the end of the instructional period. Such an orientation in the curricular specifications essentially makes both the learners and educators involved pedagogically accountable to the interested stakeholders. From the moment of situational needs analysis, through the execution of tasks and finally the summative assessment, such an orientation should, logically, measure the degree to which a resultant syllabus meets the research participants' needs. This procedure conforms to

what Biggs (1999) precisely calls “constructive alignment,” i.e. the curricular process of creating a task-based learning environment that supports the learning activities appropriate to the attainment of CALP skills as the learner decodes and constructs meaning through grade-appropriate language activities. Such a procedure ultimately leads to the production of a relevant syllabus.

8.1.4. In the selection of teaching and learning activities (which are derived from defining intended learning objectives and the setting of goals), the task-based language syllabus is guided by an over-arching quest to establish interconnections between what was learnt and what is anticipated, a quest to integrate the learners’ old and new learning. The interconnections established develop, inter-alia, meta-cognitive CALP skills, especially in being explicit about language learning and extending the learners’ awareness of their own knowledge construction. The learners are consequently encouraged to be actively involved in their learning and to reflect on the set tasks through individual, peer and group activity.

8.1.5. Consistent and objective observation of the learners as they were going through the language processing protocols in order to accomplish the set tasks provided context-rich information about the challenges that they faced, and about the cognitive demands of the syllabus designed in situ, yielding insights into how such a syllabus had to be re-defined and refined on implementation.

8.1.6. In the context of the classroom, in their written responses, in their (in) consistent approximations towards information retrieval and setting out the answers, the learners provided further information that was sorted and categorized for inclusion in the task-based syllabus. Errors that recurred for instance, provided direct indications of the (in)accessibility of some tasks, and, at times, the researcher’s interpretation of problems which had been encountered enriched the final syllabus. The recommendation arising from this is that the researcher’s inductive and deductive strategies must not take precedence and interfere negatively with the learners’ reflections and suggestions, but rather blend with those experiences, so that, even the pre-fabricated design should allow for modifications.

8.1.7. In the literature survey on syllabus design, it was observed that

i) Prabhu's design pays attention to grammar only incidentally and is, because of this, not conducive for maximal language acquisition.

ii) Breen's design is too open-ended, especially in its suggestion of a complete blank before the entry of the learners into a language programme. Consequently, it is not entirely suitable for learners who have been schooled in rote learning like the participants in this study.

Since the design by Long and Crookes allows for some pre-selected syllabus items and continual adaptation, it was the model recommended for such a research context as provided by the Telkom Foundation learners enrolled at ISSA. It was clear that the OBE, C2005 orientation had contributed to their BICS, and the higher order CALP skills anticipated in the CIE English First Language syllabus were relatively accomplished through deliberate juxtaposition and recursive refinement of writing and reading procedures. Efficiency and pedagogical practicability were therefore foregrounded in the design, allowing for critique and contributions from all stakeholders.

8.1.8. In the questionnaire administered to the research participants, respondents were asked to reflect back on their exit language programmes in the primary school and identify the gaps that they felt should be urgently filled. It emerged that the participants' competency in sentence level grammar was at the basic level, and that writing compositions had many errors related to compound and complex sentences. The sentence-based problems were relatively easier to solve but subordination and coordination posed a challenge for many of the research participants as reflected in the results of the hypotaxis index (cf 5.6). This observation implied that in the primary schools attended by the research participants, teaching was largely unistructural learning (where simple and obvious connections are made) and that even though there were official declarative statements of English being the LoLT, the greater part of the teaching still occurred in the teachers' L1. Three interconnected recommendations emerge from this observation:

8.1.8.1. The task-based syllabus developed in this study was oriented to extend BICS towards CALP competency where relational connections could be made by the

learner. These connections were critical for cohesion and coherence in tasks set. At the relational level, according to Biggs (1999), the learner is able to appreciate the significance of the parts in relation to the whole writing and comprehension task; the learners can indicate connections between the language parts and the composition-comprehension continuum. At this level of operation, the learners can compare and contrast, explain causes, integrate information, analyze, relate and apply. For a language programme at the secondary school level, they fully require these CALP competencies.

8.1.8.2. There is an anomaly when teachers use their L1 to teach English but insist on flawless grammatical accuracy in the learners' written responses. It has been demonstrated too in the study that the assessment rubrics and schemes for grading learners' writing in both CIE and OBE (South Africa) examinations rigorously insist on lucid and effective expression (Table 10). This challenge can be addressed in South Africa by the Department of Education and individual schools through a deliberate, high-fund quality assurance programme that ensures local English language teachers are appropriately trained in terms of language pedagogy and are, themselves, proficient users of the language.

8.1.8.3. From the field trips, it was established through interviews and direct observation that the research participants had received some MT instruction in addition to the English language instruction. In many cases the MT teachers are not sufficiently qualified or pedagogically trained to teach in the MT. Since the development of South African indigenous languages was arrested by apartheid, these languages are not sufficiently developed to use academically and scientifically, particularly at secondary and higher education levels. This makes it extremely difficult for learners to transfer requisite academic literacy skills from the primary school to the higher levels. For both first and second language, it was evident that the research participants had not acquired sufficiently developed CALP skills that would ensure academic success at the secondary school level. It is recommended that language instructional programmes must be formatted in such a fashion that there is evidence of developed CALP skills in the learner's home language before the shift and introduction to a second or additional language is made.

There have been calls in South Africa from education officials each time the matriculation results come out that learners' poor results are a consequence of late introduction to the English language (*Sunday Times*, 10 January 2009); and therefore English should be introduced to them as early as Grade 00 (4 year olds). The understanding of these officials is related to immersion programmes that fallaciously argue for "the earlier-the better and the more orally proficient" principle (Phillipson, 1997). Such calls are obviously in conflict with the endorsements of the South African Constitution (1994) that all eleven languages are equal and enjoy official status.

This study accepts the fact that learners who demonstrate developed decoding and spelling skills achieve greater academic success than those that do not (Monareng, 2009; Weidman & van Rensburg, 2002). The resistance of the majority of black parents to the practice of MT instruction perhaps emanates from the vestiges and experiences of apartheid, but when learners cannot articulate and interrogate issues in MT, it appears futile to expect a fully developed repertoire of CALP skills in English. The situation in the more cosmopolitan classroom at ISSA, where four out of the eleven official languages were spoken further complicated and made impossible the use of MT instruction since choosing any particular one minoritised the others (cf. 2.5 and 4.4).

8.2. Limitations of the study

8.2.1. As a longitudinal study on a group of learners selected through purposive sampling, a comparability framework of emerging CALP competencies could have been done with the other learners who remained to pursue a language development curriculum in the formal South African, revised national curriculum (RNCS), Outcomes Based Education system. Such a research edge could yield insights into the comparative efficiency or otherwise of the syllabus designed in this study, for purposes of enhancing learner strategies in the acquisition of reading and writing competencies.

8.2.2. Similarities and differences between the 2007 and 2008 sponsored groups of learners could have been more systematically documented, again, to provide for baseline comparability of the learner entry and exit competencies. Research literature underlines critical ethical considerations, including the advice to avoid "laboratory

experimentation” with human subjects, especially if the experiment is likely to disadvantage the participants. This prohibited the possible research design of comparing the 2007 group with the 2008 one as experimental and control group where one of the groups would have followed the original syllabus specifications of RNCS and OBE in a South African context, while the other group would have followed the CIE English as a first language syllabus *stricto sensu*. This research would have been more elaborate and informative in the extended descriptions and comparisons of the two groups of learners. The emergence of CALP skills and language development strategies described in this study arose from learning and teaching based on an emergent syllabus, designed and workshopped in the classroom, and is effectively “silent” on strategies and routes that would have provided confirmation or contradiction of the paths taken by the two groups had they followed the “official” OBE specifications.

8.2.3. The lack of comparable reported and documented studies dealing with similarly selected learners in South Africa meant that curricular implementation at ISSA was a relatively isolated, context-bound process, relying on the peculiarities of the sample, their linguistic challenges and competencies, and educator strategies rather than any reported educational and evaluation research in comparable contexts. The closest reported research has focused on learners and interventionist syllabus design protocols at either tertiary or primary school level, such as Ngwenya (2001) who designs a syllabus for Law students at university level, Kilfoil (1998) who develops an appropriate ESL syllabus again at tertiary level, Foli and Jackson (2008) who report on additive bilingual language education (ABLE) in the Western Cape primary schools in South Africa and Hendricks (2006) who examines grade level appropriate skills in primary schools in the Eastern Cape.

In the writing of this study, there was an uneasy tension between the discourse on syllabus design and the discourse of the practical demands of the classroom, between the desire to carve a research niche on language pedagogy through theorizing syllabus design and the practical reading and writing needs of the research participants described in this study. There was an awareness that this study should not be construed as a prescriptive textbook, yet still there had to be inserted into it thick descriptions of errors, the challenges and the successes emanating from the grounded

field data of this longitudinal case study as the learners strove to extend their CALP skills.

8.2.4. The actual pedagogic situation had apparent contradictions: learners came into ISSA with preconceptions of what it could offer; the sponsors had their own motivations for identifying the school as ideal for the financial and corporate investments they were making; and the teachers in the school were faced with a novel situation that demanded transformative approaches to the teaching of their subjects, particularly English Language. This introduced the concept of reciprocity, to ensure that the goals and outcomes of the research process would meet the needs and interests of the sponsors, researcher and the research participants. All stakeholders in this research needed something the other could offer and this contributed to helping secure the commitment and participation of the research partnerships. Each one was accountable to the other and it was hoped this constellation of stakeholders – the sponsors, the learners, the school, the parents and the teachers - would improve quality and quantity of ideas, strategies and pedagogical approaches generated in this study.

8.3. Guidelines for implementation of the syllabus

The study recommends the following guidelines:

8.3.1. This study attempted to situate the teaching of reading and writing by focusing on the contact zones between the participants' home languages and English. A Bakhtinian polyphony was generated by the dynamic set of sociolinguistic and rhetorical negotiating strategies of the learners. Learners' writing revealed complex if often problematic textual cohesion and coherence and this was perceived to be attributable to the learners' conscious modifications and approximations to CALP skills. The dialogic elements between learners' home language and English contributed to the specific heteroglossic texts that the learners produced.

In order to achieve logical flow and textual coherence, learners continually modified their writing at both the local and global levels. The local and global levels were, in themselves, dynamic and multi-linguaged since the learners were concerned about constructing stylistically efficient writing by focusing on various components: syntax, isotopes of meaning, overall organization (sentence level and paragraph level),

intertextuality and commonplaces such as spelling and punctuation (Donohue, 2004). The recommendation that follows is not a contradiction of the previous one on proficient teachers of English and rigorous marking for accuracy and grammaticality. Rather, it acknowledges the learners' long walk towards the narrow, though useful, limitations of written assessment. It emerges therefore that a relevant syllabus would be task-based, varied and integrated by a combination of reading, writing, spelling and punctuation tasks. A focus on form and meaning is imperative and the progress of the learners could be closely monitored through continual summative assessment as consolidated by the term reports and test instruments in this study.

8.3.2. It is recommended that in the period of implementing the task-based syllabus, the marking and evaluation of written tasks ought to recognize and appreciate the variety of educational, experiential and sociolinguistic influences that are brought to bear on the learners' genre repertoires. Through a systematic analysis and interpretation of learners' writing, it is possible to trace how the previous genre knowledge was acquired or developed (Leki, 2004). Intervention then becomes possible through maintaining, transforming, abandoning or expanding the genre strategies in the face of the new curricular orientations and evolving communicative strategies that the learners sought to acquire. The syllabus that emerges should be implemented in a cyclic fashion, specifically recycling complex language areas.

8.4. Further research

This study could have been strengthened had the other learners who remained in the impoverished schools been followed up in order to compare their results in OBE and those of the research participants in CIE. This is a fertile area for comparative studies in differing ecologies. A second area suggested for research is in the theories of language acquisition and the advocacy for learner empowerment. Impeccable English continues to be a means to accessing powerful positions and examination boards continue to insist on conciseness of written expression. In a multilingual environment such as South Africa, where is the "empowerment" of the indigenous languages?

Another area for further research resides in the 2010 curricular reforms to OBE and the more robust streamlining suggested by the MEC for education. The decisions, revisions and strategies developed point to new tensions in the RNCS and the

challenges of syllabus design, publishing and making available the teaching-learning resources in secondary schools, including the re-orientation of educators.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Ager, D. 2001. *Motivation in language planning and language policy*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Aitchison, J. 2001. *Language change: Progress or decay*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Alderson, J. C., Clapham, C. and Wall, D. 1995. *Language test construction and evaluation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Alexander, N. 1995. *Education and the struggle for national liberation in South Africa: Essays and Speeches*. Braanfontein: Stockaville Education Division.
- Alexander, N. 2000. *English unassailable but unattainable: The Dilemma of language policy in education in South Africa*. (Praesa Occasional Papers, No.3) Cape Town, Praesa, University of Cape Town.
- Alexander, N. 2005. Linguistic rights, language planning and democracy in post-apartheid South Africa. In Baker, S. (Ed.), *Language Policy: Lessons from global models*. Monterey, CA.: Monterey Institute of International Studies.
- Anderson, R.C., Hiebert, E.H., Scott, J. and Wilkinson, I. 1985. *Becoming a nation of readers*. Washington: National Institute of Education.
- Anderson, E. and Oliver, R. I. 1987. Perspectives on behaviour-based versus outcome-based salesforce control systems. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol.52 .pp 76-88.
- Appadurai, A. 2002. The capacity to aspire: Culture and the terms of recognition. Paper presented at the WISER Seminar Series, Johannesburg.
- Appadurai, A. 2003. Disjuncture and difference in the global cultural economy. http://www.intcul.tohoku.ac.jp/~holden/MediatedSociety/Readings/2003_04/Appadur. Accessed 26/03/2009.
- Apple, M. 1979. *Ideology and curriculum*. London: Routeledge and Kegan Paul.
- Apple, M. 1986. *Cultural and economic reproduction in education*. Boston: Routeledge and Kegan Paul.
- Apple, M. 1986. *Teachers' and texts: A political economy of class and gender relations in education*. Chapman Hall: Routeledge.
- Apple, M. 1992. The text and cultural politics. *Educational Researcher*, 21(7):4-11.
- Auerbach, E, and Wallerstein, J. 1987. *ESL in action: Problem-posing at work*. Reading M.A.: Addison-Wesley.
- Au, K. 1993. *Literacy instruction in multicultural settings*. New York: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

- Bachman, F. 1990. *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bachman, F. 1991. What does language testing have to offer? *TESOL Quarterly*, vol. 25, No.4.
- Bakhtin, M. 1984. *The Dialogic imagination: Four essays by M. Bakhtin*. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Balfour, R. 1993. Multilingualism, power, and language rights in South Africa after 1994. Conference of Language of Learning and Teaching at Schools in KwaZulu-Natal.
- Balfour, R. 2007. Naming the Father: Re-evaluating the efficacy of English as a medium of instruction in South African schools. *Changing English*.3 (1): 103-113.
- Ball, A. and Freedman, S.W. 2004. *Bakhtinian perspectives on language, literacy and learning*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Barbour, R.S. 1998. Mixing qualitative methods: Quality assurance or qualitative quagmire? *Qualitative Health Research*, 8(3), 352-361.
- Barkhuizen, G.P. 1992. Discovering learners' perceptions of ESL classroom teaching/learning activities in a South African context. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(1): 85-107.
- Barkhuizen, G.P. 1998. English language learners' perceptions of classroom oral activities. *Journal for language teaching*, 32(4): 249-255.
- Bazely, P. 2002. Issues in mixing qualitative and quantitative approaches to research. Paper presented at the first international conference – Qualitative research in marketing and management, Vienna.
- Bazerman, C. 1988. *Shaping written knowledge: The genre and activity of the experimental article in science*, Madison, Wisconsin University Press.
- Berlin, L.N. 1988. The role of gender in complimenting in American English: Implications for second language learning. University of Arizona.
- Berriter, C. and Scardamalia, M. 1987. *Surpassing ourselves: An inquiry into the nature and implications of expertise*. Chicago: Open Court.
- Berwick, R. 1988. The effect of task variation in teacher-led groups on repair of English as a foreign language. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC.
- Bhabha, H.K. 1983. *The Other Question...The stereotype and colonial discourse*. London: Routledge.

- Bhabha, H.K. 1990. *Nation and narration*. London: Routledge.
- Bhabha, H.K. 1994. *The location of culture*. New York: Routledge.
- Bialystock, E. 1985. The compatibility of teaching and learning strategies. *Applied Linguistics*, 6, 255-262.
- Bialystock, E. 1990. *Communication strategies*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Biggs, J. and Lam, R. 1999. Teaching through action learning: Helping innovation in Hong Kong. *New Horizons in Education* 38: 76-84
- Bizzell, P. 1988. Language and literacy. In Enos, T. (Ed.), *A sourcebook for basic writing teachers*. New York: Random House.
- Bizzell, P. 1992. *Academic discourse and critical consciousness*. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh.
- Bogdan, R. and Biklen, S. 1992. *Qualitative Research for education: An Introduction to theory and Methods*, Boston: Allwyn and Bacon, Inc.
- Bourdieu, P. and Passeron, J. 1997. *Reproduction in education, society and culture*, Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Bowles, S. and Gintis, H. 1986. Schooling in capitalist America. In Haralambos, M. and Holborn, M.(Eds.), 2000. *Sociology of education –Themes and perspectives*. London: Collins. pp.786-790.
- Breen, M.P. 1984. Process syllabus for the language classroom. In C.J. Brumfit (Ed.), *General English syllabus design*. (ELT Documents No. 118, pp. 47-60). London: Pergamon Press and The British Council.
- Breen, M.P. 1987. Contemporary paradigms in syllabus design. *The International Abstracting Journal for Language Teachers and Applied Linguists*, Vol.20.no.2, Cambridge University Press.
- Breen, M. 1987. Learner contributions to task design. In Candlin, C.N. and Murphy, D. F. (Eds.) *Language learning tasks*. Lancaster: Lancaster University.
- Breen, M.P. 2001. The social context for language learning- A neglected situation? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 7: 135-158.
- Brown, D. 2000. *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Third edition. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Brown, R. 1991. Group work, task difference, and second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics* 11, 1-12.
- Brown, G.A. and Yule, G. 1983. *Teaching the spoken language*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.

- Brown, G. A. and Yule, G.** 1983. *Discourse analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brumfit, C.J. and Johnson, K.** (Eds.), 1987. *The communicative approach to language teaching*. Oxford: OUP.
- Bruton, A.** 2005. Process writing and communicative task-based instruction: Many common features, but more limitations. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, vol.9, Number 3.
- Butler, H.G.** 2007. To flout or not to flout – Academic writing conventions in education. In *Ensofort : Perspectives on academic and organizational discourse* 11, Number 2. Compiled by Jurie Geldenhuys.
- Canale, M. and Swain, C.** 1980. Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, vol.1 No.1.
- Canale, M.** 1983. From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. Richards and R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication*. pp.2-27. London: Longman.
- Candlin, C.N.** 1984. Syllabus design as a critical process. *ELT Documents No. 118*, pp29-46. London: Pergamon Press and The British Council.
- Canagarajah, S.** 2005. Ethnographic methods in language policy. In T. Ricento (Ed.), *An Introduction to language policy*. pp153-169. Malden: Blackwell.
- Canagarajah, S.** 1999. *Resisting linguistic imperialism in English teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Canagarajah, S.** 2006. Changing communicative needs, revised assessment objectives: Testing English as a second language. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, vol 3, Issue 3. pp 229-242.
- Celce-Murcia, M.** 1979. *The grammar book: An ESL/EFL teachers' course*. Massachusetts: Heinle and Heinle.
- Chabot, A.U and O'Malley, J.A.** 1990. *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Chaudron, C.** 1994. *Second language classrooms: Research on teaching and learning*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Chierchia, G.** 1998. Reference to kinds across languages. *Natural Language Semantics* 6, 339–405.

- Chisanga, T.** 1997. Owing the other tongue: The English language in Southern Africa. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*. Vol. 18. Issue 2. pp 89-99.
- Chomsky, N.** 1995. *The minimalist program*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Clahsen, H.** 1989. Parameterized grammatical theory and language acquisition: A study of the acquisition of verb placement and inflection by children and adults. In Flynn, S. and O'Neil, W., editors, *Linguistic theory in second language acquisition*. Dordrecht: Kluwer, 47-75.
- Clahsen, H., Eisenbeiss, S. and Vainikka, A.** 1994. The seeds of structure: A syntactic analysis of the acquisition of case marking. In Hoekstra, T. and Schwartz, B., (Eds.), *Language acquisition studies in generative grammar*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 85-119.
- Clements, D.H.** 2004. Curriculum research: Toward a framework for research-based curricula. New York, State University at Buffalo.
- Cohen, A.D.** 2002. Assessing and enhancing language learners' strategies. In *Hebrew Higher Education: A Journal for Methodology and Pedagogy*, vol. 10. 1-11.
- Cohen, L. and Manion, L.** 1995. *Research methods in education*, Canberra: Groom Helm.
- Cook, G.** 2003. *Language play and language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Crain, S.** 1993. Language acquisition in the absence of experience. In P. Bloom (Ed.), *Language acquisition: Core readings*. London: Harvester Wheatsheaf.
- Cresswell, J.W.** 1994. *Research design: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Cronbach, L.** 1963, 2010. Course improvement through evaluation. *The Teachers' College Record*. Vol. 2. pp. 204-207.
- Crookes, G. and Long, M.H.** 1992. Three approaches to task-based syllabus design. *TESOL Quarterly*, vol.26, No. 1, pp27-25
- Crookes, G. and Gass, S.** (Eds.), 1993. *Tasks in a pedagogical context: Integrating theory and practice*. Clevedon: Language Matters.
- Cummins, J.** 1988. *Minority languages: From shame to struggle*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Cummins, J.** 1984. *Bilingual education and special education: Issues in assessment and pedagogy*. San Diego: College Hill.

- Cummins, J. and McNeely, S. 1987. Language development, academic learning and empowering minority students. In Tukunoff, K. *Bilingual education and Bilingual special education: A guide for administrators*. Boston: College Hill.
- Cummins, J. 1994. The Acquisition of English as a second language. In Spangenberg-Webschat, K. and Pritchard, R. (Eds.), *Reading instruction for ESL students*. Delaware: International Reading Association.
- Cummins, J. 2000. *Language, power and pedagogy: Bilingual children in the crossfire*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Datta, M. 2000. *Bilinguality, literacy and principles*. London: Continuum International Publishing.
- De Kadt, E. 2005. English language shift and identities: A comparison between “Zulu-dominant” and “multicultural” students on a South African university campus. *South African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 23(1): 19-37.
- de Klerk, V. 2006. *Corpus linguistics and world Englishes: An analysis of Xhosa and English*. London: Continuum.
- de Klerk, V. 2002. Language issues in our schools: Whose voice counts? *Perspectives in Education*, 20(1), 1-14.
- Department of Education. 2002. *National Curriculum Statement R-9*.
- Department of Education. 2003. *National Curriculum Statement 10-12*.
- Department of Education. 2007. *Revised National Curriculum Statement 10-12*.
- Delpit, L. 2006. *Other people's children: Cultural conflict in the classroom*. New York: New Press.
- Delpit, L. 1992. Acquisition of literate discourse: Bowing before the master? *Theory into Practice*, 31(4), 296-302.
- Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. 1995. *Handbook of qualitative research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Department of Education. 2008. English Home Language Assessment Rubric for Writing, December Examinations, 2008.
- Dewey, J. 1938, 2004. *The experience of education*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.
- Diaz-Rico, T.L. 2004. *Teaching English learners: Strategies and methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Donohue, C. 2004. Analysis and interpretation of student texts: Complementary readings across cultures. Farmington: University of Maine.

- Donato, R.** 1994. Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In J. P. Lantolf and G. Appel (Eds.), *Vygotskian approaches to second language research* (pp33-56). Norwood: Ablex.
- Dornyei, Z.** 1996. On the teachability of communication strategies. *TESOL Quarterly* 29 (1) 55-85.
- Doughty, M. and Williams, R.** 1998. *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Duffield, N., White, L., Bruhn de Garavito, J., Montrul, S. and Prévost, P.** 2002. Clitic placement in L2 French: evidence from sentence matching. *Journal of Linguistics* 38, 487–525.
- Dulay, H. and Burt, M.** 1975. A New perspective on the creative construction process in child second language acquisition. *Language Learning* 24: pp.253-278
- Eldesky, C.** 1990. *With literacy and justice for all: Rethinking the social in language education*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Ellis, R.** 1992. *Second language acquisition and language pedagogy*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Ellis, R.** 1993. The structural syllabus and second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly* 27: 91-113.
- Ellis, R.** 2003. *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R.** 2004. *Planning and task performance in a second language*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Ellis, R. and Barkhuizen, G.** 2005. *Analysing learner language* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Eisner, E.W.** 1979. *The Educational imagination: On the design and evaluation of educational programs*. New York: Macmillan Publishing.
- Evans, R and Cleghorn, A.** 2010. Complex language encounters in post-apartheid classrooms. Paper presented at the "Worlds in Dialogue Conference," North-West University, Potchefstroom, South Africa.
- Faltis, C and Wolfe, P.M.** 1999. *So much to say: Adolescents, bilingualism and ESL in the secondary school*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Fairclough, N.** 1995. *Language and power*. London: Longman.

- Flower, L and Hayes, J. 1981, 1997. The dynamics of composing: Making plans and juggling constraints. In L. Gregg and E. Steinberg (Eds.), *Cognitive processes in writing* (pp.31-50) Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Flower, L. and Stein, V. 1990. *Reading-to-write: Exploring a cognitive and social process*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Ferris, D.R and Hedgcock J.S. 2005. *Teaching ESL composition: Purpose, process and practice* (2nd edition) Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Finch, A. 1999. *It's up to you*. Seoul: Chonghab Publishing.
- Foli, C., Jackson, M.J., Landon, J. and Koch, E. 2009. First brushstrokes: Initial comparative results on the Additive Bilingual Project (ABLE). *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*. Vol. 27, Issue 1. pp 93- 111.
- Franceschina, F. 2001. Morphological or syntactic deficits in near native speakers? An assessment of some current proposals. *Second Language Research* 17, 213–47.
- Freedman, S.W. 1993. Student characteristics and essay test writing performance. *Research in the teaching of English*, 17, pp.313-325.
- Freedman, A. and Pringle, I. 1985. *A comparative study of writing abilities in two modes*. Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Education.
- Freire, Paulo 1970. *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. Harlow: Continuum Publishing Company.
- Friedlander, A. 1987. Composing in English: Effects of a first language in writing in English as a second language. In Kroll, B. (Ed.), *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Frodesen, J. and Starna, N.1999. Chapter 4 in Harklau, L., K. M. Losey and M. Siegal.(Eds.), 1999. *Generation 1.5 meets college composition: Issues in the teaching of writing*. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gardner, R.C. and Lambert, W.C. 1972. *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Hillsdale: Erlbaum.
- Garrett, M.F. 1975: The analysis of sentence production. In Bower, G., (Ed.), *The psychology of learning and motivation*. Volume 9. New York: Academic press, 133–77.
- Gass, S. and Selinker, L. 1994. *Second language acquisition: An introductory course*. Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Gee, J.P. 1990. *Social linguistics and literacies: Ideologies in discourse*. London: Falmer Press.

- Gillham, B.** 2000. *A case study in research methods*. London: Methuen.
- Giroux, H.** 1989. Literacy and the pedagogy of political empowerment. In Freire and Macedo.(Eds.), *Literacy: Reading the word and the world*. New York: Bergin and Carvey.
- Glesne, C. and Peshkin, A.** 1992. *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction*. New York: Longman Publishing Group.
- Goad, H. and White, L.** 2004. Ultimate attainment of L2 inflections: effects of L1 prosodic structure. In Foster-Cohen, S., Ota, M., Sharwood Smith, M.A. and Sorace, A., (Eds.), *EUROSLA Yearbook*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 119–45.
- Goad, H., White, L. and Steele, J.** 2003. Missing surface inflection in L2Acquisition: A prosodic account. In Beachley, B., Brown, A. and Conlin, F., editors, *BUCLD 27 Proceedings*. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Press, 264–75.
- Grabe, W.** 2003. Reading and writing relations: Second language perspectives on research and practice. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Exploring the dynamics of second language writing* (pp.242-262) New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Grabe, W., and Kaplan, R.B.** 1989: Writing in a second language: Contrastive rhetoric. In D.M.Johnson and D.H. Roen (Eds.), *Richness in writing: Empowering ESL students*. pp 263-283. New York: Longman.
- Granfeldt, J.** 2000. The acquisition of the determiner phrase in bilingual and Second language French. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition* 3,263–80.
- Granville, S., Janks, H., M. Mphahlele, M., Reed, Y., Watson, P., Joseph M. and Ramani, E.** 1998. English with or without g(u)ilt: A position paper on Language in Education Policy for South Africa, Vol. 12, No.4, 1998.
- Guthrie, E. and Kirsch, S.** 1978. The concept and measurement of functional literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 12, 485-507.
- Halasek, K.** 1999. *A pedagogy of possibility: Bakhtinian perspectives on composition studies*. Illinois: Southern Illinois University.
- Haley, M.H. and Rentz, P.** 2002. Applying SLA research and theory to practice: What can a teacher do? *Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language, Vol 5. No.4*. www-writing.berkeley.edu/TESL-EJ/ej20/a2.html
- Hall, Graham.** nd. 'Redefining the syllabus: An investigation into whether syllabuses can meet learners' linguistic and social needs.' Retrieved from syllabus design and models; yahoo.com.search. PDF 10.04.2008.

- Hall, S.** 1996. Gramsci's relevance for the study of race and ethnicity. In D. Morley and K.-H. Chen (Eds.), *Stuart Hall: Critical dialogues in cultural studies*. London: Routledge.
- Hall, S.** and **du Gay, P.** (Eds.) 1999. *Questions of cultural identity*. London: Sage Publications.
- Haralambos, M.** and **Holborn, M.** 2004. *Sociology – Themes and perspectives*. Hillsdale: Erlbaum.
- Harklau, L.** 2002. The role of writing in classroom second language acquisition. *Journal of second language writing*, Vol.11, 329-350.
- Harklau, L., Losey, K.M.** and **Siegal, M.** 1999. *Generation 1.5 meets college composition: Issues in the teaching of writing*. New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Harley, T.** 2001. *The psychology of language: from data to theory*. Second edition. Hove: Psychology Press.
- Hatch, E.M.** 1978. 'Discourse analysis and second language acquisition.' In E.M. Hatch, (Ed.), *Second language acquisition: A book of readings*, 401-435, Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
- Hatch, E.M.** 1983. *Psycholinguistics: A second language perspective*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Hattingh, K., Mostert, A.** and **Louw, H.** 2010. Language change in the development of NWU students' academic literacy: From subtractive to additive bilingualism. Paper presented at the "Worlds in Dialogue Conference" North-West University, Potchefstroom, South Africa.
- Hawes, H.** 1983. *Curriculum and reality in African primary schools*. Harlow: Longman Group Ltd.
- Hawkins, J.A.** 1991. On (in) definite articles: Implicatures and (un)grammaticality predictions. *Journal of Linguistics* 27, 405–42.
- Hawkins, R.** 2001. *Second language syntax: a generative introduction*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Hawkins, R.** 2003. Representational deficit theories of (adult) SLA: evidence, counterevidence and implications. Unpublished paper presented at European Second Language Association annual conference (EUROSLA 13), Edinburgh.
- Hawkins, R.** and **Chan, C.Y.-H.** 1997. The partial availability of universal grammar in second language acquisition: The failed functional feature

hypotheses. *Second Language Research* 13, 187–226.

Hawkins, R. and Liszka, S. 2003. Locating the source of defective past tense marking in advanced L2 English speakers. In van Hout, R., Hulk, A., Kuiken, F. and Towell, R., (Eds.), *The lexicon–syntax interface in second language acquisition*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 21–44.

Haznedar, B. and Schwartz, B.D. 1997. Are there optional infinitives in child L2 acquisition? In Hughes, E., Hughes, M. and Greenhill, A., (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 21st annual Boston University conference on language development*. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Press, 257–68.

Heaven, C. and Trubidy, M. 2004. *Global youth culture and youth identity*. New York: Youth Media.

Hendricks, M. 1999. Writing practices in additional languages in Grade 7 classes in the Eastern Cape Province, Wits: UJ.

Hendricks, M. 2006. Grade-appropriate literacy and South African Grade 7 learners' classroom writing in English. Rhodes University e Documents, Grahamstown.

Heugh, K., Murray, S., Reagan, T.G. and Ntshangase, D. K. 2002. Project for alternative education in South Africa. Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

Hinkel, E. 2004. *Student writing tasks and written academic genres*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Holquist, M. 1990. *Dialogism: Bakhtin and his world*. New York: Routledge.

Horning, A.S. 1998. *Reading across the curriculum as the key to student success*, Oakland University. <mhtml:file:///C:/user/Documents/Horning, Reading Across the Curriculum.mht>

Hornstein, N and Lightfoot, D. 1981. *Explanation in linguistics: The logical problems of language acquisition*. London: Longman.

Howie, S.J. and van Staden, S. 2006. South African teacher profiles and emerging teacher factors: The picture painted by PIRLS 2006. Centre for Evaluation and Assessment: University of Pretoria.

Howie, S.J., Venter, E., van Staden, S. and Zimmerman, L. 2007. Progress in International Reading Literacy Study, (PIRLS) 2006. Centre for Evaluation and Assessment: University of Pretoria.

Huberman, M. A and Miles, M.B. 1994. Data management and analysis methods. In Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research*. pp.428-444.

- Huebner, T. 1983. *A longitudinal analysis of the acquisition of English*. Ann Arbor: MI: Karoma.
- Hyland, K. and Hyland, F. 2006. *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- ICAS. 2002. Academic literacy: A statement of competencies expected of students entering California's public colleges and universities. <http://www.academicstate.ca.us/icas.html> Accessed 30.08.2010.
- Janks, H. 1992. *Language, identity and power*. Johannesburg: Hodder and Stoughton.
- Janks, H. 1995. Contested terrain: English education in South Africa 1948-1987. In I. Goodson and P. Medway (Eds.), *Bringing English to order*. London: Falmer Press.
- Janks, H. 2010. *Literacy and power*. London: Routledge.
- Jansen, J. D. 1999. Why outcomes-based education will fail: an elaboration. In Jansen, J.D. and Christie, P. (Eds.), 1999. *Changing curriculum: Studies in OBE in South Africa*. Kenwyn: Juta.
- Jansen, J.D. 2011. Sinking deeper into mediocrity. <http://blog.the3rdrock.com/2011/03/10sinking-deeper-into-mediocrity>. Accessed 14March, 2011.
- Janzen, J. 2002. Teaching strategic reading. In Richards, J. and Willy, A. (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Johns, A. M. 1990. L1 composition theories: implications for developing theories of L2 composition. In Barbara Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing: Research for the classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. pp.24-36.
- Jordan, W.J., Stephen, D.F. and Welman, J.C. 2004. English language proficiency as an indicator of academic performance at a tertiary institution. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 2004 2(3) 42-53.
- Kachru, B.B. 1986. The power and politics of English. In *World Englishes*. Vol. 5, Number 2.
- Kasule, D. 2005. Teachers' strategies of teaching mathematics in a second language: A case of Botswana. *International Journal of Educational Development*, Vol.25, Issue 6. pp. 602-617.
- Kaplan, R. 1987. Cultural thought patterns revisited. In U. Connor and R.B. Kaplan (Eds.), *Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text* (pp.9-22) Reading: Addison-Welsey.

- Kelly, A. V.** 1989. *The curriculum: Theory and practice*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Kilfoil, W. and Van der Walt.** 1997. *Learn 2 Teach*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Kincheloe, J.L. and McLaren, P.** 1994. Rethinking critical theory and qualitative research. In Norman K. Denzin and Yvonna S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Kleinmann, H.H.** 1977. Avoidance in adult second language acquisition. In W.C. Ritchie (Ed.), *Second language acquisition research: Issues and implications*. New York: Academic Press.
- Krashen, S.D.** 1982. *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.
- Krashen, S.D.** 1985. *The Input Hypothesis*. London: Longman.
- Krashen, S.D.** 1994. The Input Hypothesis and its rivals. In Ellis, N. (Ed.), *Implicit and explicit learning of languages* (pp.45-77). London: Academic Press.
- Krashen, S.D. and Terrell, T.S.** 1988. *The natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Krashen, S. D.** 2002. *Explorations in language acquisition and use: The Taipei lectures*. Taipei: Crane Publishing Company.
- Krashen, S. D. and Brown, C.L.** 1999. What is Academic Language Proficiency? University of Southern California.
- Kress, G.** 1994. *Learning to write*. London: Routledge.
- Kriegler, S and Skuy, M.** 1996. Perspectives on psychological assessment in South African schools. In Engelbrecht, P. Kriegler, S. and Booysen, M. (Eds.), *Perspectives on learning difficulties: International concerns and South African realities*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Kroll, B.** 1990. *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Kroll, B.** 1987. Cognitive egocentrism and the problem of audience awareness in written discourse. *Research in the teaching of English*, 12. pp.269-281.
- Kumaravadivelu, B.** 1999. The name of the task and the task of naming: Methodological aspects of task-based pedagogy. In G. Crookes and S.M. Gass (Eds.), *Tasks and language learning*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters. 69-89.
- Lado, R.** 1957. *Linguistics across cultures: Applied linguistics for teachers*. Mendeley: Ann Arbor.

- Lanham, L.W. 1995. *Getting the message in South Africa: Intelligibility, readability, and comprehensibility*. Pietermaritzburg: Brevitas.
- Lantoff, J.P and Appel, G. (Eds.), 1994. *Vygotskian approaches to second language research*. Westport: Ablex Publishing.
- Lantoff, J. (Ed.), 2000. *Socio-cultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. and Cameron, L. 2008. *Complex systems and applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. and Long, M.H. 1991. *An introduction to second language research*. London: Longman.
- Lawton, D. 1989. *Education, culture and the national curriculum*. London: Hodder and Stoughton.
- LeCompte, M.D. and Schensul, J.J. 1999. *Analyzing and interpreting ethnographic data*. London: Alta Mira Press.
- Leki, I. 1990. Coaching from the margins: Issues in written response. In Kroll, B. (Ed.), *Second language writing* pp.57-68. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Levelt, W.J.M. 1989. *Speaking: From intention to articulation*. Cambridge: MA, MIT Press.
- Lightbown, P.M. and Spada, N. 2006. *How languages are learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lightbown, P.M. 1983. Exploring relationships between the developmental and instructional sequences in L2 acquisition. In H.W. Seliger and M.H. Long (Eds.), *Classroom oriented research in second language acquisition* (pp.217-243) Rowley: MA, Newbury House.
- Lodge, A. 1997. The pragmatics of slang. University of St. Andrews. <http://wjml1.ncl.ac.uk/issue02/lodge.htm#3>. Accessed 15 October 2011.
- Long, M. and Crookes, G. 1995. Units of analysis in syllabus design: The case for a task. In Crookes, M and Gass, S.M. (Eds.), *Tasks in a pedagogical context*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Long, M. and Crookes, G. 2004. Three approaches to task-based syllabus design. <http://www.iei.uiuc.edu/TESOLOnline/texts/longcrookes/> retrieved 13.11.2007.
- Luke, A. 2000. *Beyond science and ideology critique: Developments in critical discourse analysis*. CDA: University of Queensland.

- Luke, A. and Freebody, P.** 2002. Towards research-based innovation and reform: Singapore schooling in transition. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*. Vol. 25, Issue 1. pp. 15-28.
- Luneneburg, F.C. and Irby, B.J.** 2008. *Writing a successful thesis: Tips and strategies for students in the social and behavioural sciences*. Thousand Oaks : Corwin Press.
- Lyons, C.G.** 1999. *Definiteness*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mackey, A. and Gass, S.M.** 2005. *Second language research: Methodology and design*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Publishers.
- Manchon, R.M., Murphy, L. and Roca, J.** 2007. Lexical retrieval processes and strategies in second language writing: A synthesis of empirical research. *International Journal of English Studies*.² University of Murcia. www.um/ijes.
- Matsuda, P.L., Canagarajah, A.S. and Harklau, L.** 2003. Changing currents in second language writing research: A colloquium. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, London: Pergamon.
- Master, P.** 1990. Teaching the English articles as a binary system. *TESOL Quarterly* 24, 461-78.
- McLaughlin, B.** 1988. *Second language acquisition*. Hillsdale, N.J.: Elrbaum
- McKinney, C. and Norton, B.** 2004 *Identity in language and literacy education*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- McKnight, D.** 2004. Task of the teaching life: Self through Bakhtinian dialogue and ideological engagement. *Interchange*, 25(3) 281-302.
- McMillan, J.H. and Schumacher, S.** 2001. *Research in education: A conceptual introduction*. New York: Longman.
- Mesthrie, R., (Ed.)**, 1995. *Language and social history: Studies in South African sociolinguistics*. Cape Town and Johannesburg: David Phillip.
- Mesthrie, R. (Ed.)**, 2002. *Language in South Africa*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mesthrie, R.** 2005. Language, transformation and development: A sociolinguistic appraisal of post-apartheid South African Language policy and practice. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Linguistic Studies*, 24, 151-163
- Merriam, S.B.** 1998. *Qualitative research and case study Applications in education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

- Miller, R. K. 1998. *The informed argument: A multidisciplinary reader and guide*. Florida: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Mkhabela, T.L. 1999. An investigation into Foundation Phase educators' attitudes and classroom practices in relation to C2005, unpublished MA dissertation. Johannesburg: University of the Witwatersrand.
- Monareng, R.R.R. 2009. Critical language awareness. ujdigispace.uj.za:8080/dspace/bitstream/10210. Accessed 11 June 2008.
- Morson, G.S. 1986. *Bakhtin: Essays and dialogues on his work*. Chicago: University of Chicago.
- Moyana, R. 2000. *Reading literacy at junior secondary school level in Zimbabwe*. Harare: University of Zimbabwe Publications.
- Mphahlele, E. 1984. Prometheus in chain: The fate of English in South Africa. *English Academy Review* 2: 89-104.
- Myles, F. 2002. 'From data to theory: The over-representation of linguistic knowledge in SLA.' *Transactions of the Philological Society*, 102, 139-432.
- Nation, P. 2000. Designing and improving a language course. *Forum* 38(4): 2-11
- Naves, R., Rivard, M-E., Rothenberg, A. and Thordardottir, R. 2006. Bilingual assessment: Can overall proficiency be estimated from separate measurement of two languages? *Journal of Multilingual Communication Disorders*. Vol. 4, No. 1. pp. 1-21.
- Ngwenya, T.L. 2001. Designing an English syllabus for first-year law students. Thesis submitted for Philosophiae Doctor in English, Potchefstroomse Universiteit vir Christelike Hoer Onderwys.
- Ngwenya, T.L. 2010. n.p. Using learners' immediate environment to facilitate the acquisition of critical reading skills. Paper presented at the "Worlds in Dialogue" Conference, Northwest University, Potchefstroom, 8-11 July 2009 (underground personal collection).
- Norton, B and Toohey, K. (Ed.), 2004. *Critical pedagogies and language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. 1989. *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. 1995. Closing the gap between learning and instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29 (1), 133-158.

- Nunan, D.** 2002. Task-based syllabus design: Selecting, grading and sequencing tasks. National Centre for the English language Teaching Research: Macquarie University.
- Nuttall, S. and Michael, C-A.** (Eds.), 2000. *Senses of culture: South African culture studies*. Oxford: OUP.
- O'Keefe, J.** 1990. *The role of consciousness in second language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- O'Malley, M. J. and Chamot, A.U.** 1990. *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Oxford, R. L. and Scarcella, S.** 1994. Effect of presence and difficulty of task on strategy use: An exploratory study. *IRAL* 42: 1-47.
- Oxford, R.L.** 1996. *Language learning strategies around the world: Cross-cultural perspectives*. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Second language curriculum centre.
- Oxford, R.L.** 2005. Language learning styles and strategies: An overview. <http://web.ntpu.edu.tw/~language/workshop/read2>. Accessed 04/11/2009.
- Oztürk, B.** 2005. *Case, referentiality and phrase structure*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Parmegiani, A.** 2009. The power of English and academic literacy: Students' perceptions and theoretical, political and pedagogical implications. A case study of students at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. A thesis submitted to the graduate faculty in English in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. The City University of New York.
- Parrish, B.** 1987. A new look at methodologies in the study of article acquisition for learners of ESL. *Language Learning* 37, 361-83.
- Peet, M. and Robinson, D.** 1992. *Leading questions*. Cheltenham: Nelson Thornes Ltd.
- Peirce, B.N.** 1989. Toward a pedagogy of possibility in the teaching of English internationally: People's English in South Africa. In *TESOL Quarterly*, vol. 28, No.3, September 1989.
- Pennycook, A.** 1994. *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. London: Longman.
- Pennycook, A.** 1998. *English and the discourse of colonialism*. London: Routledge.
- Peperkamp, S.** 1997. *Prosodic words*. The Hague: Holland Academic Graphics.
- Phillipson, R.** 1992. *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Phillipson, R. 2009. *Linguistic imperialism continued*. London: Routledge.
- Pica, T. 1983. Adult acquisition of English as a second language under different conditions of exposure. *Language Learning*, 33, 465-497.
- Pienemann, M. 1984. Psychological constraints on the teachability and learnability of languages. *Studies in Second language Acquisition*, 6, 186-214.
- Pienemann, M. 2000. *Learnability and syllabus construction*. In *Modelling and assessing second language acquisition*. M. Pienemann and K. Hyltenstam (Eds.), Clevedon: Avon. Multilingual Matters.
- Prabhu, N.S. 1984. Procedural syllabuses. In T.E. Read (Ed.), *Trends in language syllabus design*. Singapore: Singapore University press/ RELC.
- Prabhu, N. S. 1987. *Second language pedagogy*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Pretorius, E.J. 2002. Reading ability and academic performance in South Africa: Are we fiddling while Rome is burning? *Language Matters*, 33, 169-196.
- Pretorius, E.J. and Currin, S. 2007. Do the rich get richer and the poor poorer: the effects of an intervention programme on reading in the home and school language. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 30, 67-76.
- Pretorius, E.J. 2007. Looking into the seeds of time: Developing academic literacy in high poverty schools. In *Ensovoort: Perspectives on academic and organizational discourse* 11 Number 2. Compiled by Jurie Geldenhuys.
- Prévost, P. and White, L. 2000. Missing surface inflection or impairment in second language acquisition? Evidence from tense and agreement. *Second Language Research* 16, 103-33.
- Raimes, A. 1985. Language proficiency, writing ability, and composing strategies: A study of ESL College writers. *Language Learning: A Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 37(3), 439-468.
- Rampton, M. 1990. Displacing the native speaker: Expertise, affiliation and inheritance. *ELT Journal*, 44, 97-100.
- Rampton, B. 1995. *Crossing: Language and ethnicity among adolescents*. London: Longman.
- Richards, J.C. 1986. Focus on the learner. Honolulu. University of Hawaii at Manoa., (mimeo).
- Richards, J.C. 1986. *Approaches and methods in language teaching: A description and analysis*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

- Robertson, D. 2000. Variability in the use of the English article system by Chinese learners of English. *Second Language Research* 16, 135-72.
- Rubin, J. 1981. Study of cognitive processes in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, 117-131.
- Sanchez, A. 2004. The task-based approach in language teaching. *International Journal of Language Studies* (4)1: 39-71.
- Saville-Troike. 1984. What really matters in second language learning for academic achievement? *TESOL Quarterly* 18: 199-219.
- Scarcella, R. 1984. How writers orient their readers in expository essays: A comparative study of native and no-native English writers. *TESOL Quarterly*, 18, 671-688.
- Scardarmalia, M., and Berreiter, C. 1986. Research on written composition. In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching*. New York: Macmillan.
- Schlebusch, G. and Thobedi, M. 2004. Outcomes-based education in the English language classroom in South Africa. *The Qualitative Report*, 9 (1), 35-48.
- Seidman, I. 2005. *Interviewing as qualitative research*. New York: Teachers' College Press.
- Selinker, L. 1972. Interlanguage. *IRAL* 10: 219-231.
- Selkirk, E. 1996. The prosodic structure of function words. In Morgan, J.L. and Demuth, K., editors, *Signal to syntax: bootstrapping from speech to grammar in early acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 187-214.
- Shohamy, E. 2004. *The power of tests: A critical perspective on the uses of language tests*. London: Longman
- Sidorkin, A. M. 1999. *Beyond discourse: Education, the self and dialogue*. Albany, NY: SUNY.
- Silva, T. 1993. Toward an understanding of the distinct nature of L2 writing: The ESL research and its implications. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27(4), pp.657-675.
- Sims, W.R. 1996. Fossilization and learning strategies in second language acquisition. *Minne TESOL Journal*, 7.
- Skehan, P. and Foster, P. 1997. Task type and task processing conditions as influences on foreign language performance. *Language Teaching Research* 1.3: 185-211.

- Skehan, P.** 1998. *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Smith, N. and Tsimpli, I.M.** 1995. *The mind of a savant*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Smitherman, G.** 1997. *Talkin' and testifyin': The language of black America*. Detroit: Wayne State University Press.
- Sousa, D.** 2004. *How the gifted brain learns*. New York: Cornwin Press.
- Sperber, D. and Wilson, D.** 1995. *Relevance: communication and cognition*. 2nd edition. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Spolsky, B.** 1990. *Measured words*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Spolsky, B.** 1989. *Conditions for second language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Stake, R.R.** 1967. The Countenance of educational evaluation. *Teachers' College Record*, vol. 68 No. 7.
- Stanovich, K.E.** 1986. Matthew effects in reading: Some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, Fall 1986, xxi/4.
- Starfield, S.** 1991. Contextualising language and study skills. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, Special edition: 142-148.
- Starfield, S.** 1994. Multicultural classes in higher education. *English Quarterly*, 26(3), 16-21.
- Statistics South Africa.** 2001. South African languages statistics and graphs. Retrieved 10 April 2011, from www.cyberspace.ca.za/users/jako/lang/stats.htm
- Stenhouse, L.** 1975. *An introduction to curriculum research and development*. London: Heinemann.
- Stephen, D.F., Welman, J.C. and Jordaan, W.J.** 2004. English language proficiency as an indicator of academic performance at a tertiary institution. *South African Journal Human Resource Management* 2 (3), 42-53.
- Stern, H.H.** 1994. *Issues and options in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Sternglass, M.** 1997. *Time to know them: A longitudinal study of writing and learning at the college level*. Mahwah NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Stern, H.H.** 1975. What can we learn from the good language learner? *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 31, 304-318.
- Stubbs, M.** 1986. *Educational linguistics*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

- Hall, S.** 1999. *Representation: Cultural representations in signifying practices*. The Open University: Sage Publications.
- Subreenduth, S.S.** 2003. Black Teachers' (Re) Negotiation and (Re) Construction of their pedagogical practice within South Africa's Post-Apartheid Curriculum. Unpublished PhD Thesis. Ohio State University.
- Suter, C.** 2001. Describing and evaluating a syllabus in a context of compulsory secondary schooling. Birmingham: University of Birmingham.
- Swain, M.** 1985. Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In Gass, S. and Madden, C. (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition*. New York: Newbury House, 235-256.
- Swain, M.** 1998. Focus on form through conscious reflection. in C. Doughty and J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp 64-81). Cambridge: University of Cambridge Press.
- Swain, M. and Lapkin, S.** 2002. Focus on form through collaborative dialogue: Exploring task effects. In Bygate, M., Skehan, P. and Swain, M. (Eds.), *Researching pedagogic tasks: Second language learning, teaching and testing*. Harlow: Pearson Educational.
- Swales, J.M.** 1990. *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tarone, E.** 1985. Variability in interlanguage use: a study of style-shifting in morphology and syntax. *Language Learning* 35, 373-404.
- Tarone, E. and Parrish, B.** 1989. Task related variation in interlanguage: The case of articles. *Language Learning* 38, 21-44.
- Tarone, E. and Yule, G.** 1989. *Focus on the language learner*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Thomas, M.** 1989. The acquisition of English articles by first and second language learners. *Applied Psycholinguistics* 10, 335-55.
- Tollefson, J.W.** 1991. *Planning language, planning inequality*. London: Longman.
- Tollefson, J. W.** 1995. *Power and inequality in language education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Toohey, K.** 2000. *Learning English at school: Identity, social relations and classroom practice*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Toohey, K.** 1998. Breaking them up, taking them away: Constructing ESL students in Grade 1. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(1), 61-84.

- Tsimpli, I.-M.** 2003. Clitics and determiners in L2 Greek. In Liceras, M. Zobl, H. and Goodluck, H., (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 6th Generative Approaches to Second Language Acquisition conference (GASLA2002): L2 Links*. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Proceedings Projects, 331–39.
- Tsimpli, I.-M.** and **Roussou, A.** 1991. Parameter-resetting in L2? *UCL Working Papers in Linguistics* 3, 149–69.
- Tyler, R.** 1949. *Basic principles of curriculum design*. Chicago: University of Chicago.
- Umalusi** 2008. Learning from Africa: A report of Umalusi's research comparing English syllabuses and examinations in South Africa with those in Ghana, Kenya and Zambia. Umalusi Council for Quality Assurance: Pretoria.
- University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate.** 2009. May /June Mark Scheme for 0500/2.
- Valdes, G.** 1999. Incipient bilingualism and the development of English language writing abilities in the secondary school. In C. Faltis and P.M. Wolfe (Eds.), *So much to say: Adolescents, Bilingualism and ESL in the secondary school*. pp.138-175, New York: Teachers College Press.
- Van der Walt, J.L.** 1982. The practical English course: A proposed syllabus for an Afrikaans University. Unpublished D.Ed. thesis. University of Potchefstroom for Christian Higher Education: Potchefstroom.
- Van der Walt, J.L.** 1986. The analytic approach to second language syllabus design. *Journal for Language Teaching of the South African Association for Language Teaching* 22(1): 33-37.
- Van Lier, L.** 1996. *Interaction in the language curriculum: Awareness, autonomy and authenticity*. London: Longman.
- Van Rooyen, B., Le Grange, L., and Newmark, R.** 2002. (De)Constructions of functionalist discourses in South Africa's Education. White Paper 6: Special Needs Education. In *International Journal of Special Education*, 2002, Vol. 17, No. 2.
- Vithal, R.** 2001. In search of a pedagogy of conflict and dialogue for Mathematics education. Dissertation for Doctoral degree in Natural Science, Department of Mathematics and Computer Science: Aalborg, Denmark.
- Venter, M.** 2000. *Assessing outcomes-based education assessment*, NUE.
- Vygotsky, L.S.** 1978. Interaction between learning and development, from *Mind and society*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

- Vygotsky, L.** 1986. *Thought and language*. Cambridge M.A.: MIT Press.
- Weideman, A.** 2010. *A Framework for the study of linguistics*. Grand Rapids: Paideia Press.
- Weideman, A.** 2010. Stability amid change: what our theoretical frameworks accomplish for us. Paper prepared for the LSSA/SAALA/SAA:LT joint conference, Unisa: Pretoria.
- Weissberg, R and Buker, S.** 1990. *Writing up research: Experimental research report writing for students of English*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Wertsch, J.V.** 1991. *Culture, communication and cognition: Vygotskian perspectives*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- White, L.** 1987. Against comprehensible input: The input hypothesis and the development of L2 competence. *Applied Linguistics*, 8(1), 95-110.
- White, L.** 1988. *The ELT curriculum: Design, innovation and management*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- White, L.** 2003. Fossilization in steady state L2 grammars: Persistent problems with inflectional morphology. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition* 6, 129–41.
- Widdowson, H.G.** 1978. *Teaching language as communication*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Widdowson, H.G.** 1983. New start and different kinds of failure. In Freedman, A. Pringle, I. and Yalden, J. (Eds.), *Learning to write: First/Second language*. London: Longman.
- Widdowson, H.G.** 1994. The ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly* 28 (2): 377-389.
- Wigglesworth, G.** 2005. Current approaches to researching second language learner processes. In *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 25, pp 98- 111. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wilkins, D.A.** 1976 : *Notional syllabus*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Wilson, K.** 2003. A social constructivist approach to teaching reading: Turning the rhetoric into reality. Proceedings of the 16th Educational Conference: Melbourne
- Woods, A., Fletcher, P. and Hughes, A.,** (Eds.), 1986. *Statistics in language studies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wong-Fillmore, L.** 1985. When does teacher talk work as input? In S. Gass and C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition*. Rowley, Newbury. pp.17-50.
- Wray, A.** 2002. *Formulaic language and the lexicon*. Cambridge: Cambridge

University Press.

Wray, D., Medwell, J., Fox, R. and Poulson, L. 2000. The teaching practices of effective language teachers of literacy. *Educational Review*, 52 (1), 75-84.

Yalden, J.J. 1987. *Principles of course design for language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Yin, R.K. 2003. *Case study research: Design and methods*. (3rd ed.) Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Yule, G. and Tarone, E.1989. *Focus on the language learner*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Yule, G. and Shilcock, M. 1991. The other side of the page: Integrating communication strategies and negotiated input in SLA. In R. Phillipson, E. Kellerman, L. Selinker, M. Sharwood Smith and M. Swain (Eds.), *Foreign/Second language pedagogy research*: 177-196. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Zamel, V. 1982. Writing: The process of discovering meaning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 16, 195-209.

Zamel, V. 1983. The composing processes of advanced ESL students: Six case studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17, 165-18.

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TELKOM FOUNDATION STUDENTS
NORTHWEST UNIVERSITY
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

Research in the acquisition and teaching of English suggests that one of the most efficient ways to meet learners' needs is to get the propositions from the learners themselves. As learners, you obviously have your own ideas of how English should be taught and learnt so that you make the best out of this subject and other areas. You have been enrolled at the International School of South Africa and it is critical that your ideas be considered in the planning, delivery and improvement of your English language course: this is the purpose of this questionnaire. Your name will not be made public, so feel free to say as much as you want about your progress or lack of it in English – do not say what you think the school would want to hear. Complete the questionnaire as sincerely as possible and return it to me.

1. State your age when you enrolled at ISSA _____
2. What is the language do you speak most at home? _____
3. What other language(s) do you speak? _____
4. At the end of your primary school, what was your symbol for English Language? _____
5. In your primary school, what English language course were you doing?

English as a first additional language		
English as a second additional language		

6. You wrote an entrance selection test administered at your primary school in order to enter ISSA. Tick the most appropriate response to the test:

ISSA Entrance Test Descriptors	Yes	No
Generally, the test was similar to the other tests we had done		
The comprehension section was fairly easy		
The language used in the comprehension test was challenging		
The grammar segment tested familiar concepts		
The vocabulary was pitched at an accessible level		
The composition topic allowed for fresh expression		
The paper tested language skills I could handle well		

7. In the table below, tick the boxes that best describe your challenges in English:

Language area	Completely mastered	Need assistance	New: need urgent assistance
Article usage ('the'/'a'/'an')			
Subject- verb agreement (concord)			
Modal auxiliaries (would/should/could/can)			
Possessives and pronouns			
Relative clauses (which, that/who/whose)			
Tense aspect system (simple and perfect)			
Logical connectors(although, in spite of, in addition, as a result)			
Structure (sentence form- simple, compound, complex); paragraphing)			

8. Of the four language skills, which are the most critical for success in English Language at your level? The most important will be assigned 4 and the least will be assigned 1:

- Listening comprehension _____
- Reading comprehension _____
- Speaking fluently _____
- Writing accurately _____
- Understanding visuals _____

9. Tick in the box the relevant and appropriate number:

1=strongly agree 2=agree 3=disagree

to indicate how far you agree with each of the following ideas about English Language as a subject at your secondary school level:

Language aspect	1	2	3
The topics covered are interesting			
The topics covered are relevant			
The topics covered are varied			
My teacher accepts my challenges			
My teacher builds on my shortcomings			
My vocabulary keeps improving with each cycle of reading lessons			
My spelling keeps improving with each cycle of spelling lessons			
My teacher accepts my previous experiences			
My teacher extends my previous experiences			
My study skills in other subjects keep improving through English			
Answering comprehension questions keeps improving through English			
Summary skills continue improving from exposure to lessons			
My punctuation skills have been extended			
My punctuation skills are varied			
I can use various sentence structures effectively			

10. You speak and write your home language competently. How can these skills be used to help you gain the same reading and writing skills in English?

11. What additional aspects in English language do you think need more attention and reinforcement at your current level in English language studies?

Additional language areas for extension programmes	1	2	3
Content for comprehension topics ought to be varied			
Vocabulary extension skills			
Spelling skills			
General varied punctuation skills			
Information selection skills in comprehension work			
Extending skills in sentence co-ordination			
Extending skills in subordination			
Skills in summary points selection			
Skills in co-coordinating selected summary points			
Skills in making connections between paragraphs			
Information retrieval skills in comprehension work			
Collating information skills in comprehension work			
Evaluation skills with regards language use			
Evaluation skills with regards language effects			
Sentence level repair skills with regards meaning			
Sentence level repair skills with regards accuracy			
Word level skills with regards finding synonyms			
Sentence level skills with regards function of comma			
Sentence level skills with regards function of the dash			

12. In your composition work, tick the aspects that you strongly feel your teacher should offer corrective feedback:

Aspect to be corrected	Tick
Content in my composition should be directed	
Storyline in my composition should be directed	
Relevance of my writing should be assessed	
Technical aspects such as grammar	
Technical aspects such as punctuation	
Technical aspects such as spelling	
Technical aspects such as subject-verb concord	
Technical aspects such as misuse of words and other vocabulary	
Only those aspects that affect the meaning of the writing	
Vague expressions in the writing so that the product is perfect	

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW WITH PARENTS AND GUARDIANS OF THE
TELKOM-SPONSORED LEARNERS: POLOKWANE, WELKOM, BLOEMFONTEIN

PERIOD: BEGINNING OF SCHOOL TERM/ END OF SCHOOL TERM 2009

MUCHATIVUGWA LIBERTY HOVE

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY, MAFIKENG

1. How was your schooling ? (When/Where).
2. Were you, at any point in your schooling, sponsored?
3. Can you tell me something about your own involvement in your child's academic experiences and progress?
4. Do you work? How does this sponsorship affect you – financially and in terms of your interest in the progress of your charge?
5. What subjects do you regard highly and that you feel your child/dependant should particularly focus upon/pass? Please elaborate and say why you think the subjects you state are critical.
How do you regard your child's involvement in sports and other extramural activities? Are these important to your child's progress?
6. Could you describe your son's/daughter's previous school/its strengths/challenges? What are the obvious differences with her new school?
7. How would you describe your involvement with your child's teachers and present school?
8. In the previous school, your son/daughter was following OBE, C2005: do you regret the change to CIE? What are your perceptions about the new syllabus followed at ISSA? Are you concerned that your daughter/son is not going to write "Matric"?
9. Do you think the education provided at ISSA is better or comparable to what your daughter would have got from the secondary school you would have sent them to?
10. In terms of English language, how would you say your daughter/son has coped? Is there an improvement in command of the language? Do you notice any change in the way s/he uses the language at home? Is this change important to you? Please elaborate.

11. Are there any changes, positive or negative that you have observed in your child since enrolment at ISSA? What has been your child's general attitude to the school?
12. Are there any problems or concerns that you wish to highlight?
13. Are there any other ideas or suggestions that you would want to make besides the issues that you have raised already?

APPENDIX (i)

FRAMEWORKS FOR ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

SAMPLE OF LEARNERS' WRITTEN WORK

TSHEPISO MALOMA: FRAMEWORK PROVIDED SHOWN BY
UNDERLINED CLAUSES IN THE TEXT

YEAR THREE (14 -15YEARS); September 2008

*TEXT NOT EDITED; NOT CORRECTED FOR GRAMMAR, SPELLING OR
OTHER ERRORS*

I submit that criminals, by virtue of their collective name, are not part of our morally conscious society because they break up our ideals. The people in our society suffer from murders and hijacks because of these criminals.

The creation of a police department, a correctional services department and the various other security organisations proves that the society does not approve of, nor accept criminals. In order for us to feel safe and secure, instead of suffering and pain, we need the police officers to protect us. At night, streets are not safe at all; that is why the police wander around in their cars overnight since this is the time that criminals strike the most – in the dark.

Criminal acts, ranging from robbery, murder, rape to petty violations of the law all cause severe strains on normal society. In some societies, these criminals are even famous because of the bad things that they do. During school hours, weekends, holidays, the criminal wave is incessant and they strike when least expected. U won't always be safe because they're everywhere, especially public places. They violate everyone, poor or rich, young or old, clean or dirty. They break into ppl's houses, rape old women. Nowadays, you may find stupid 16 year old rapes an 84 year old woman: that shows how wicked and disrespectful criminals are. Another tyme it's been found that a man raped a new-born baby: criminals endanger people's lives.

Huge resources are spent on anti-terrorism, anti-corruption, anti-hijack devices – all as a result of criminals. They waste public resources. The government can ill afford fixing and stopping the destructive trail left by criminals. Mandela fought for freedom

but this is apparently abused by criminals and we, the free, are caged by criminals once more. Should need be, this is another battle we need to collectively fight, in the same manner that the freedom fighters fought to remove oppression. They steal cables and other irreplaceable goods and it does take its toll on all of us, especially when you have to go to an ATM and you find it out of service because some thief has bargained the cables for a pittance.

I have fully demonstrated that criminals are undesirable, and, really, should be eliminated through more systematic means such as capital punishment if they commit more than three serious crimes.

In conclusion, criminals are bad; hate them or love them; they are not a part of our society. We strive to live perfect and happy lives; they ruin all this for us. They deserve to live in hell for the rest of their miserable lives.

Researcher's comment

There is some considerable evidence of a logical and coherent argument. Communication is quite effective. Some of the opinions have been sufficiently backed by illustrations and examples from your experiences. The few mistakes in spelling and the shaky concord at points do not, however, affect the total meaning of the argument and its structures. This start, using the scaffolds provided, should enable you to develop a more sophisticated and persuasive style of your own.

MOTSHABI BOJOSI

LOVE THEM, HATE THEM, CRIMINALS ARE A PART OF OUR SOCIETY

According to the South African Students' Dictionary, hate means a strong dislike for a person, while despise means regarding someone with scorn. Criminals are defined as a person guilty of committing a crime; you also describe something as criminal if it is morally wrong. Society refers to people in general, considered as a single community, especially with regard to the customs, laws and institutions that enable them to live together.

It is my strong belief that we should not discriminate those who are doing wrong because they are part of our societies and if you consider this aspect seriously, you will realise that criminals, in their own way, make our societies complete. Without them, there are no norms, laws or regulations to govern the day to day functioning of what we call 'normal' society!

Our famous leader, Jacob Zuma, committed a crime by raping a woman, yet we South Africans still accept him as part of our society and we even want to vote him in as our next president. Is he a criminal or not? I could put across my own assessment, but think about it!

My question is, why do you have to hate only those who live in townships, poor villages for committing crime? Killing them, taking the law into our own hands; what does this all tell us? You become a criminal too if you kill the criminal; and why should the hangman be an accepted member of our society when we are all criminals, anyway? Why would you want to be accepted and forgiven by society when you cannot extend the same to the convicted criminal?

You should stop thinking of yourself only and start considering yourself in the shoes of the criminal, who committed whatever offence only in an attempt to make ends meet.

The offending criminal is the unequal distribution of resources and if this is not addressed, then criminals should live side by side with those that are richer, and take a little every time from them as part of leveling the field.

The other strong reason for my point of view is that if a child steals, the mother warns and reprimands the trespass; she never reports this to the law-enforcement agents. This correctional approach is necessary: the mother needs her child as much as we, the general society, need the criminal. We should continue to warn them when we nab them.

In conclusion, I would say our duties as Christians are to forgive other people and love them rather than hate them. Criminals are a lasting part of our society as all our laws and the people who enforce them are, ironically, employed to monitor and correct, but not eliminate criminals!

Researcher's comment

Thank you!

I realize that you are writing from a morally difficult position. Nonetheless, you remain convincing in spite of this position since you provide a set of points that many would find difficult to defend. There are a few problems in the use of 'you' and, at times, the subject - verb agreement patterns. You should continue working in this manner. Quite an achievement!

Narrative writing

Write the opening to a short story in which things begin to happen in slow motion.

A lonely swallow flew against the vast emptiness of the sky. In the setting sun, the wheat fields shone like gold as they swayed rhythmically with the wind. Behind the house, a thin wisp of smoke rose up tainting the blue above. Bent over the fire, Mason looked up, hearing the distinct rattle of a Volkswagen engine. His brown eyes examined the landscape for a moment, before turning back rather indifferently to the fire.

An old Beetle was making its way up the dirt road, leaving a cloud of dust in its wake. Mason stared absent-mindedly into the fire. The heat from the flames was uncomfortably hot on his face but Mason did not lift his gaze, not even blinking. The flames of orange and gold licked at the dry foliage.

The old Beetle had pulled up to the house, its wheels grinding over the dirt. There was a slight click as the engine switched off, followed by the slam of a car door. Mason heard the light nimble footsteps tread up the porch steps.

'Mason?' she called enquiringly. When she spoke her voice had a beautiful low timbre, soft and modulated, and yet with ringing overtones. There was a time when Mason had been drawn by her voice, but now he could not respond. He could only stand and stare while the smoke from the fire stung at his eyes, making them tear.

The door was unlocked and having received no reply, Andrea entered the house, moving from one room to the next as she looked for him. She looked disapprovingly at the dirty dishes in the sink, still caked with dried potato and untouched meat, remnants of last night's attempt at dinner. He had barely swallowed a morsel before

ending up hunched over the bathroom sink, abdominal muscles contorting as he retched. A simple day-to-day chore like eating had become impossible for Mason.

There was a slight thud as Andrea tripped on the edge of the rug in the lounge. On the coffee table, a cup of tea, left half-full from the morning and next to it was an old newspaper clipping dated January 2nd, nearly four months ago. The corners were starting to curl and the clipping was creased, as though handled and read a thousand times over by the same hands, with each crease emphasized in exactly the same place. She ran her finger across the text. The heading read 'Sterling sentenced to four months at McAlester.' From the bedroom, there was the sound of breaking glass and startled, Andrea rushed to see what was creating the commotion. A thin tabby cat, its ginger coat faded and thin, had knocked over a photo frame resting on the bedside table, and shattered its glass front. The cat curled itself around Andrea's leg, lingering for a moment, and then just as quickly moved away, flicking its tail nonchalantly.

Andrea lifted the photo out of its frame. It was a picture of her and Mason, taken only six months ago. It was one of those perfect summer days that only came around once in a very long while. They had spent the day at the lake. The weather was hot and the water particularly inviting, so they swam and fished and laughed, and just as the picnic was ending, it had started to rain; a warm, humid rain that was more tempting to run about in than seek shelter from. Andrea looked at the photograph, a memory of happier times and let out a sigh. It was impossible to think how quickly things had changed in the past four months. A single impure thought, a hand willing to act on it and their world was altered forever.

Mason heard the swing of the back door and knew that Andrea was standing behind him. Very teary and bleary-eyed from all the smoke, he turned as if to face her and then continued tending the fire, stealing a quick glance at her so she wouldn't see his

scar. There was nothing but the crackle of the fire and the sound of Mason crushing more dry foliage to feed it.

‘How are you doing?’ she asked. Mason didn’t reply; he continued feeding the flames. Andrea watched him quietly, sadly. Once bright and full of life, his eyes were now dulled and sad. The mouth that had smiled and laughed was set in a grim, hard line.

‘You are like a ghost in broad daylight,’ she said. ‘I never see you anymore.’

Mason stopped. ‘I’ve been here,’ he said, ‘or out fishing, you know.’

Andrea hesitated. ‘I’ve been wondering if you’re alright,’ she said.

‘I’m surviving, you know.’ Mason picked a few stray leaves and threw them on the fire load.

‘Maybe you should take me out fishing again,’ she said with a nervous laugh.

Mason looked at her and half-smiled. Encouraged, Andrea went on.

‘We should go out tonight,’ she said. Mason’s expression fell.

‘Connor’s throwing his birthday party tonight; it’s going to be quite an event,’ she finished. He bit his under lip.

‘I’ll catch you later, alright,’ he said, and walked past her to go back into the house.

‘Mason, you can’t expect to just drop out of the world,’ she called after him. ‘It’s just looks! You’re still the same person, you’re my best friend.’

Mason walked slowly up to her until they were face to face. ‘It’s just looks,’ he said, his voice dangerously quiet. ‘You want to try walking around like this?’ Mason lowered his gaze and swallowed. Then he looked up at her again with tears in his eyes. ‘I’m trying to keep my heart clean, Andrea.’

Assessor's comment: Excellent work! I so wanted to read on to find out exactly what happened and how the story would end. Wonderful use of vocabulary

Qualitative 6

14th July 2019 English Language
Cecilia Gonzalez Form 3-120
25Lesly MontgomeryAn effective diction
evident here

Lesly Montgomery aka "The flesh hammer" was every child's nightmare in junior high. Every one knew that if whenever Lesly walked into the cafeteria and his seat was being copied there would be hell to pay (to) whoever the unsuspecting victim would be. This was very hard to avoid, given that Lesly did not always have one particular chair in the cafeteria. Sometimes he would sit at the back of the cafeteria, sometimes the front and sometimes right in between.

Lesly's apeal contributed most to all our fears. He was a massive 9th grader with whip-chord muscle and caged strength. He had a big, round face and on his forehead were level brows, dark splendidly brown angry eyes, a small nose and a mouth that later always had that evil grin. A grin so evil that it made your hair sit up. I, being a small boy in the 7th grade, tried as much as I possibly could to stay out of Lesly's way.

Until one day in English class, our English teacher, Mrs. Dubose gave us some Essay work and said that we should right about anything in the school. I wrote about Lesly. Mrs. Dubose marked it and gave me an A and said I had done well with describing Lesly's character. Although I knew that I had written a good Essay that earned me an A, I inside I was terrified of what Lesly would do if he found out. I should have changed the name. ✓

Quarantine 7

In the cafeteria it was warm and children ~~was~~ were chattering about how the day had been for them. The air was warm and yet I felt so cold. I walked with my tray of chicken, potatoes, beans and an apple to the table where my friends were already feasting ~~on their~~ meals. I walked with my head on my food as if it was glued there, but as I walked something stopped me. In front of me I saw a pair of ^{back} biker boots and ~~ess~~ as I looked up I saw some jeans, a black leather jacket, and ~~er~~ and a ^{head} ~~face~~. (On top of this ^{head} ~~face~~ were peroxide tufts. *Well done!*) It was Lesly.

'Oh... Exc - Excuse me.' I said, giving him way to pass, but he blocked my path. 'Yeah...' he grinned, revealing yellow, sharp pointed teeth like those of some kind of wild beast.

Why wouldn't he let me pass through?

'I heard about the essay you wrote about me.'

What? Oh my gosh? In deed.

'Ess... ess-ey?' I asked, now petrified of what would become of me in a matter of seconds.

Now turning crimson, Lesly hauled me by my collar and dragged me out of the cafeteria and out to the garbage dump behind the cafeteria. 'You know Benny, I'm not a bad person! I'm only doing this because it's what you expec, what you wrote!'

Then, with no warning at all, I felt myself fly into the stinky, deadly rubbish bin. I lay there for a few minutes until I was sure that Lesly was gone. At that moment I knew that I had to do something about Lesly. I went to the headmaster and informed him of everything that happened, and right now, Lesly is no longer at that school and will have a hard time applying at any other.

Confident and creative style. *Impressed - hugely!*

C S H
in 5 11

14 July 2009 - English

The Intruder21
25

Superb description

I got out of Sally's car with a huge smile on my dial. What a great night! I stood on the lawn in front of my average-sized house and waved goodbye. I turned around, looking at the house and walked up the stoep. Little did I know what was waiting inside for me.

My warm hand sat on the golden door knob as I turned it. As I opened the door, I heard a scream and before I knew it, I was laying on the paroch-back down- with a little monster on my stomach. My baby sister - Bella - was giggling away. The baby sitter was panting by the door and mumbling, "I'm sorry! I tried," she took a breath, "to catch her, but she runs so fast!"

I yanked my sister off of me with no expression on my face. Nothing was going to spoil my night. I pulled out my purse and gave the baby sitter fifty rand. I stormed passed her, hand-in-hand with Bella, and shut the door once with were inside. ??

I was starving and so was Bella. While Bella watched her annoying cartoons, I disappeared into the kitchen. I turned on all the lights - like mom told me to - and began to prepare two sandwiches. The lights went out. Bella scream^{ed}. The television was off. I ran into the living room only to find Bella gone. My heart started to pound. I did not dare call her name. When I am scared my brain seems to go blank. I slowly creep^{ed} upstairs to go check the electricity box which was in my parent's room. I could not see much, but I felt my way around.

When I was upstairs I grabbed the torch which dad always leaves on the oak wood table in the hallway. "Damn," I thought to myself. There were no batteries. "Thanks a lot, dad!" I walked down the hall, carefully feeling my way, until I found the second door on the right.

It was open - ^{!! Good perversion time} not unusual. I felt for the electricity box, flipped one of the switches and gave a fat smile. I was proud for doing all that with no one's help. I stepped back and stepped on one of Bella's toys - which ^{are} not supposed to be in here! When I ^{??} turned around to pick up the broken toy, I saw a man with a black mask over his face. A gun in his hand. A gun pointing to my ~~4~~ four year old sister - sitting in his lap - with tears streaming down her cheeks. "My night is officially ruined!" I thought.

I stood there frozen as if I was an ice sculpture. He looked at me with cold eyes and said in a rough voice, "Hello pretty." Not thinking - as usual - I threw the toy I still had in my hand at him. He laughed the devil's laugh. "Please let her go," I begged. "Here you go," he pushed her towards me, "I'm not here for her anyway."

"He's here for me! Oh crap!" I thought. (Silent thought? ...)

He stood up and walked towards me. "Don't you remember me?"

"No," I managed to get out a pathetic whimper.

"Oh, that's right you don't know me, but I know you." He took a step forward as I took a step back. He was tall and had the same brown, straight hair as me sticking out of his beanie.

"Take what you want, just leave," I took another step back. As soon as he lifted his foot to move forward, I reached for the electricity box and turned off the light. I grabbed Bella and sprinted out of the room. I felt for the panic button in the vase on

Quarative 8

the table in the hall, but he was already two feet away from us.

Bella was silent. All you heard were breaths of the only three people in the house. I grabbed the vase and threw it at him. It hit his head and he fell to the ground. I got on my hands and knees and started feeling for the panic button and his gun. I pushed Bella towards the stairs and she slowly went down the stairs. I found what I needed and pushed the only button on the remote, while pointing the gun down with my limp hand.

I walked slowly, not turning away from the body laying on the floor. I finally turned and ran down the stairs. I met Bella at the bottom of the staircase and together, we reached for the front door and ran outside.

I collapsed on the lawn of our neighbour. For the first time during this whole disaster, Bella spoke and all she said was, "I love you, Sarah."

I closed my eyes and pulled her down to lay with me on the grass as we heard the police sirens down the road.

~~Quite some hair-raising reflex-packed drama.~~

Thank you for the apt description.

N 9 S 4 L 8
C 10 5 10

Quarantine 14

14 July 2009

19
25

Essay Exam

Number is A Zulu wedding

Uniquely done - thank you.

The loud buzzing of excited people. The smiles on their faces. The welcoming smell of the flavour-filled food. The new faces and old faces. The day had finally arrived! OK

In the magnificent and colossal cream white tent is a sound peculiar & yet inviting. It is the sound of people, waiting anxiously for the celebration to begin. It is like the sound of bees buzzing around the honey nest. Right in the middle of the tent is a stage, where the royal two and their family members sit. The stage is decorated with wild flowers, shooting out at the marvelled audience. ~~is~~ The flowers make the tent seem like a haven. A haven of flowing rivers and colour-filled bushes.

On one side of the tent is where the distinct smell of Africanised flavour-filled and chuck-making food comes alive. The smell is weaving through the tent, around the audience and beyond, bringing each of its victims to a halt. The smell makes me want to fast forward the whole celebration until I can finally get a meal of its simply delicious self. App - wonderfully expressed

On the stage is the bride. I notice her first because of her radiant smile. When she smiles, it's as if the whole tent is hit by the sunshine coming from her wide broad smile. She is wearing an extremely long she dress. Her dress flows like a waterfall, never-ending. The bold, bright and beautiful colours, brown which symbolise the richly fertile land and white, the peace in

Quarantine 15

her kind. Her smile makes me forget about the sinful smell.
And the dress brings light to the whole tent ^{of} as
a smile to my own face.

The groom is standing right next to ~~the~~ his ~~is~~ glowing bride.
He is not as radiant as she is, for he is wearing a pitch
black suit and pants. The only ~~mark~~ on him is a leopard skin
kardes, delicately placed on his shoulders. The leopard skin makes
me scared, shiver and ^{squirm} ~~shudder~~, yet I feel like brushing
hands slowly against its soft and feathery ~~the~~ fur. I do not
like the serious look on the groom's face, ~~and~~ and the fact
that his mouth is smiling but his eyes aren't.

The celebrations have finally ^{to} ~~begin~~ ^{begin}! The loud, powerful and
pressing sound of the drums are beating. The men are dancing
to the ~~central~~ beat. The continuous beat merges with my
heart beat. The sound gets more intense, like a ~~snake~~ lion
chasing its prey! The men are dancing (as if they are possessed
by the spirit of the animals ~~and~~ that have become their
outlets. ^{food} They dance as if on a hunt. On the prowl to kill.
They ~~now~~ ^{went} to start up and move to the drums.

^{is? Time shifts?}
It was now time for speeches. An elderly woman was now talking
to the bride. Her wrinkles on her face were like a crispy
growing ~~deeper~~ deeper. This was a clear sign of her wisdom.
Her words must have pierced through the bride like the
sharpest sword.

C/10 S/10 L/10
At the end of it all, the
feeling of joy settled on me. It was the best! The best
celebration of my life. Some slight problems with
punctuation and spelling. Care to examine these streaks
and rocks at the point otherwise. hahaha.

14 July 2009

hedgehog Mosaic - Mrs MATARA

Quratul76

Fame - a curse.

21
25

Solid

The glamorous lifestyle; your name in lights, designer clothes, jewellery worth millions. It sounds perfect! But, under "The Million Dollar Smile", under "The Gucci Gown" is there happiness?

Behind all the glamorous aspects of fame, lies ~~the~~ "The Curse!" Confident start - thank you.

Everywhere you go, cameras are flashing. ~~They~~ ~~hit you~~ ~~All at the same time.~~ One-by-one, they punch you in the face. The paparazzi are out of control! They follow "The Stars", ~~and~~ and bombard them ^{with} flashing cameras, which can damage a person's sight. ~~They are~~ like children in pre-primary school - you cannot control them. The situation with paparazzi is so out of hand, that a program has been created specially for following celebrities. What ever happened to privacy? ~~to show that there is no privacy,~~ ~~I~~ ~~is~~ ~~the~~ ~~during~~ ~~the~~ ~~Michael~~ ~~Jackson's~~ ~~funeral~~ Michael Jackson's family had to use an underground tunnel to transport his body into, and out of the arena where his ~~family~~ ^{family} memorial was held in ^{an} attempt to avoid journalists and cameras.

Though fame may be a first class ticket to wealth, the strain that it puts on ~~a person~~ the human

body is undeniable. ^{the} Majority of actors, working on a project - work for more than ~~the~~ fifteen hours on a set. Research ^{has} shown that the human body needs at least eight hours of sleep, to be fully

Statistics show that

Quarantine 17

rested. All the damage to your body - for a fancy lifestyle? ~~Well the lifestyle can send you to your grave!~~ ~~First class tickets~~ Your name in lights? Wealth? Miami mansions? First class tickets? Well - that lifestyle can be your first class ticket to ~~the~~ your grave!

Because of ~~stress~~ ^{stress} the ~~+~~ that comes with fame, some celebrities ~~feel forced to take~~ ^{feel} depend on the prescription pills, for comfort. And - If too many pills are combined - the results may be fatal!

Heath Ledger was confirmed dead ~~is~~ after being found ~~is~~ bare in his room. After months of investigation, it was revealed that he died from an over-dose of six different prescription pills!

Princess Diana died in a car crash, because she was being followed by people. Trying to avoid cameramen, she crashed ~~under~~ ^{under} a bridge and died instantly!

If this is what fame brings, why do people crave for it? Fame is like a box of chocolates. It always looks good in the outside, but it may not be as ~~taste~~ good as you never know what to expect!

with fame,
~~In the inside~~ ^{under the cover.}

C $\frac{8}{10}$ S $\frac{4}{5}$ L $\frac{9}{10}$

2. In the table below, give the plural form of the word in the left column:

Singular	Plural
Echo	
Mosquito	
Volcano	
Crisis	
Mouse	

[5]

3. In order to show possession (that something belongs to somebody), an apostrophe (') is used. Insert the apostrophe in the following statements:

- This is the dogs basket and the cats is on top of the shelf.
- It is always a happy occasion on mothers birthday but it seldom is on her husbands because hers is properly planned.
- I've noticed in the heart of Durban they've got so many dustbins and the cleaners work is made much simpler.

4. Adjectives tell us more about nouns: they give more detail and make the descriptions effective and vivid. Underline the adjectives in the following sentences:

- Some people think that wild animals are not fearful creatures.
- The nervous children had locked the door and were still wide awake when the alarm sounded.
- My best friend, Usha, has been going out with Brian Harris.
- Zane's rich parents are getting divorced and Allen, her brother, is terribly upset.
- Miss Xaba lives in the gloomy house at the end of the road.
- The cool weather has been delightful this summer.

Summative assessment instrument

Time allocated 1 hour 30 minutes

You are advised to spend 40 minutes on section A

Section A - Comprehension

Read the following passage carefully and then answer the questions that follow.

(In the passage, Betty MacDonald describes the trials of the first rainy season on her chicken farm)

It rained and rained and rained. It drizzled – misted – drooled – spat – poured – and just plain rained. Some mornings were black and wild, with a storm raging in and out and around the mountains. Rain was driven under the doors and down the chimney, and Bob went to the chicken house swathed in oilskins like a Newfoundland fisherman and I huddled by the stove and brooded about inside toilets. Other days were just grey and low hanging with a continual pit – pat – pit – pat – pitta – patta – pitta – patta which became as vexing as listening to baby talk. Along about November I began to forget when it hadn't been raining and became as one with all the characters in all the novels about rainy seasons, who rush around banging their heads against walls, drinking water glasses of straight whisky and moaning, 'The rain! The rain! My God, the rain!'

In case you are wondering why I didn't take a good book, settle down by the stove and shut-up, I would like to explain that Stove, as we called him, had none of the warm, friendly qualities ordinarily associated with the name. In the first place, he was too old and, like some terrible old man, he had a big strong frame, a lusty appetite and no spirit of co-operation. All attempts to get Stove to crackle and glow were as futile as trying to get the Rock of Gibraltar to giggle and cavort. I split pure pitch as fine as horsehair and stuffed his ponderous belly full, but there was no sound and no heat.

Yet, when I took off the lids, the kindling had burned and only a few warm ashes remained. It was as mysterious as the girl in high school who ate enormous lunches without apparently chewing or swallowing.

Incongruously, things did boil on Stove. This always came as a delightful shock, albeit I finally stopped rushing to the back door and shouting hysterically to Bob, quietly and competently at work, 'The water is BOILING!' as I had done for the first few hundred times I had witnessed this miracle.

On the coldest dreariest mornings, Stove sulked all over his end of the kitchen. He smoked and choked and gagged. He ate load after load of my precious live bark and by noon I could have sat cross-legged on him and read Pilgrim's Progress from cover to cover in perfect comfort.

Stove was actually a sinister presence and he was tricky. The day we first looked at the place, I remarked that he seemed rather defiantly backed up against the wall, but such an attitude could come from neglect, I thought, and so when we moved in the first thing I did was to clean his suit, take all the rust off his coat and vest, blacken every inch of him, except his nickel which I polished brightly, and then I built my first fire, which promptly went out. I built that fire five times and then Bob came in and poured about a gallon of kerosene on top of the kindling and Stove began balefully to burn a little. I learned by experience that morning and that it took two cups of kerosene to get his blood circulating in the morning and that he would only digest bark at night. In the summer and spring I didn't care how slow he was or how little heat he gave out. Bob and I were out doors from dawn and we allowed plenty of time for cooking things and all of the wood was dry and the doors were open and there was plenty of draught. But with the first rainy day I realized that Stove was my enemy and would require the utmost in shrewd, cautious handling.

From the first rain, until late spring, across the kitchen in true backwoods fashion, were strung lines and lines of washing, only slightly less damp than when first hung up days and sometimes weeks ago. Those things directly over Stove flapped wetly against me as I cooked, but I dared not take them down for they were the necessary things like underwear and socks which had to get dry before summer. Try turning the chops, and stirring the tomatoes with someone slapping you across the back of the neck with a wet dish towel – you’ll get the idea. I was cold all winter – it seemed that I moved around inside of but without direct contact with my clothes, and my skin became so damply chill that put side by side with a lot of clams I would have found them cosy. Another factor was that being so cold kept me running to the outhouse and each trip made me colder and the next trip frequenter.

Our spring and summer had been strenuous to the point of exhaustion and I, at least, having read many books about farms and farmers, had looked forward to winter as a sort of hibernation period. A time to repair machinery, hook rugs, patch quilts mend harness and perform other leisurely tasks. Obviously something was wrong with my planning, for it took me sixteen hours a day to keep the stove going and three meals cooked. I leaped out of bed at four a.m., took two sips of coffee and it was eleven and time for lunch. I washed the lunch dishes and pulled a dead leaf off my kitchen geranium and it was five o’clock and time for dinner.

(from *The Egg and I* by Betty MacDonald)

1. What did the narrator long for as she huddled by the stove? [1]
2. In what ways is “Stove” like a ‘terrible old man’? Give three points and answer in your own words. [3]
3. What was as ‘mysterious as the girl in high school who ate enormous lunches without chewing or apparently swallowing? [3]
4. What was the ‘miracle’ mentioned in paragraph one? [1]

5. Why does Betty describe the stove as 'tricky'? [1]
6. How did she manage to get the stove going in the morning and in the night?[2]
7. Why is Betty 'cold all winter'? Give two points. [2]
8. What does Betty look forward to in winter? Give three points. [3]
9. State the meaning of each of the following words as they are used in the passage:
- (i) Swathed
- (ii) Futile
- (iii) Kindling
- (iv) Competently [4]

Total: 20 marks

Section B - Language

1. Use each of the following words in a sentence to show clearly the differences in their meanings:

Gilt/guilt

Advise/advice

There/their

2. Write down all the adjectives you can identify in the sentence below:

The town was glad with morning light; places that had been ugly and unpleasant during the long night were now cheerful. The sparkling sunbeams danced on the opening windows and chased away the murky shadows of the night. [5]

Punctuate the following sentence:

In his book called mukiwa, peter godwin gives an account of his many observations of black and white people in a war the destruction and misery that is bred and the final triumph of understanding each other [4]

Total: 15 marks

Section C - Composition

Choose one of the following titles and write a short composition.

- a) My favourite book.
- b) A family quarrel.
- c) Winter.
- d) What I would do if I won the lottery.

Total: 15 marks

Language use and the effects created by the writer

FADE TO BLACK

Why is it that when some people achieve stardom, they try their hardest to end up as stardust?

I watched Amy Winehouse performing at the Grammy Awards a couple of weeks back and was struck by two things. The first was the uniqueness of her voice, which switches from baby-doll sexiness to a raw, throaty intensity that sounds like the great Mahalia Jackson trying to sing hip-hop.

The second was her look, with the tattoos and the 'slut chic' image that she, and very few others, are able to carry off with such nonchalance. That mound of black hair piled on top of her head like an exploded beehive should make her look like a train wreck, but instead it looks sensual and oddly glamorous, like a torrid '50s diva who has tumbled out of a dysfunctional time machine.

She's a fascinating original but as I looked at her, I found myself remembering that old cliché, 'Live fast, die young and have a good looking corpse,' because there is every possibility that Winehouse will do exactly that.

She sings songs entitled 'Rehab' and 'I told You I Was Trouble', and her perpetually outrageous behaviour with drugs has become a sort of trademark. There are not many young music stars who, when photographed by a tabloid newspaper what they alleged was a crust of cocaine around her nostrils, does not deny it.

I was reminded of another phrase, used to describe the poet, Byron – 'mad, bad, and dangerous to know', and because pedantry is hard-wired into my DNA I immediately had to look up to see who said them. The Byron quote was from Lady Caroline Lamb, another scandalous celebrity who was one of Byron's mistresses.

The first quote has been slightly rearranged over the years. It comes from a 1949 movie called *Knock on Amy's Door*, starring Humphrey Bogart as a liberal-minded lawyer trying to save a young hoodlum accused of murder.

The hoodlum, Pretty Boy Romano, was played by John Derek who was, indeed, one of the best-looking actors who ever stood before a camera. The exact phrase, as he said it in the movie, was: 'I wanna live fast, die young and leave a beautiful corpse.'

The film's title derives from the lawyer's courtroom speech, talking about how society is rigged in such a way that many young people have no option but to destroy their lives. 'Knock on any door,' the lawyer says to the jury, 'and you'll find another Pretty Boy Romano.'

That sixty-year old quote really got me thinking about this 'doomed youth syndrome', what F. Scott Fitzgerald called the 'beautiful and damned.'

It has almost become an expected thing. Is Winehouse rehearsing to be the next Janis Joplin? Is poor – but very rich – little Britney heading for the next Marilyn Monroe exit?

Has being a self-destructive diva become a career option? It puzzles me that for many people, especially the young, the coincidental combination of great talent, media success and a sudden inrush of money, which should open doors and endless possibilities, has become like the witch's poisoned apple for the gifted few.

When I heard about Heath Ledger's death I was angry about its futility. That 'accidental' overdose of pills destroyed so many things. A child lost a father. A family lost a son. A man lost his life. The people who loved him lost a friend and, crucially, Hollywood lost a good actor, along with the prospect of a lot of money.

What annoyed me the most was that within 10 minutes of the news of Ledger's death, there was a media buzz about how it might affect the last movie he completed – the costly *The Dark Knight*, a Batman movie in which Ledger plays The Joker. Suddenly, the Internet was seething with questions.

Perhaps the media and industry pressure turns into an insupportable burden that translates, in turn, into reckless defiance. And when major fame comes, it's not the final goal but it's the last straw.

From Marilyn Monroe to Lindsay Lohan, young stars are placed in a bubble maintained by people who will do anything to keep the stars happy because they are a luxurious meal ticket.

Total freedom and lack of accountability can be as corrosive as acid, and I hope that somebody gets inside Amy Wine house's bubble to offer her real protection because that's one good-looking corpse I don't want to see as a breaking-news feature on CNN.

Tone, turn of phrase and language effectiveness

Explore and explain the following phrases:

1. 'The mound of black hair was...like an exploded beehive...and made her look like a train wreck.'
2. 'Amy has ...perpetually outrageous behaviour with drugs.'
3. From the information in paragraph 5, why do you think it would have been 'mad, bad and dangerous to know' to know the poet Byron?
4. Lady Caroline Lamb shares the quality of 'scandalous celebrity' with many contemporary personalities in this passage: identify the names of the characters and say what else they share.
5. 'I wanna live fast, die young and leave a beautiful corpse': what is your reaction to this outlook on life? State the point of view of the writer towards this perception of reality.
6. When the writer thinks of 'the doomed youth syndrome' he also finds an equivalent thought in which writer? Sharing this common thought, what is the writer implying about today's young artists?
7. 'Winehouse is rehearsing to be the next Janis Joplin': even though the writer never really tells us who this character is, what could you guess her to have been in life? From the tone of the passage at this point, how could her life be described? Would you say her ending was tragic?
8. 'The Internet was *seething* with questions': what does seething suggest? Media reporters and cameramen have contributed to the publicity of artists: what negative term or word describes their endless trail of any kind of news relating to the day's stars?
9. 'When major fame comes, it's not the final goal; it's the last straw': what is the technical term given to such a statement? What is its effect in this story as a whole?
10. 'Total freedom and lack of accountability can be as corrosive as acid': what is being compared here? What is the warning carried in the comparison? In your opinion, why is the title 'Fade to Black' appropriate to this article?
11. Explain the following as they are used in the passage:
 - (i) throaty intensity

- (ii) nonchalant
 - (iii) look like a train wreck
 - (iv) outrageous behaviour
12. 'Rehab' and 'I told you I was trouble': what do these song titles suggest about Amy's personality and lifestyle?
 13. 'Trademark': what do you understand of Amy's performance behaviour from the use of this word?
 14. Byron the poet was 'mad, bad and dangerous to know.' What makes Byron similar, implicitly, to Amy?
 15. 'Hoodlum' is used to describe Pretty Boy Roman. What other word can you suggest to replace 'hoodlum'?
 16. From the word you substituted, what connection is there between Amy Winehouse, the poet Byron and pretty Boy Romano? Can hoodlum ever be used in a positive sense?
 17. What is the 'doomed youth syndrome' that this writer finds as a typical feature of celebrities? What phrase does Fitzgerald use to express the same trait or quality in pop stars?

DARK NIGHTS IN SHINING ARMOUR

Eskom's blackouts may be driving us bonkers, but they're getting us off our bums and out and about.

This week I woke early on a chilly autumn morning, contemplating a day on which I would have no access to water from 6am to 6pm. I also knew that, just as the water supply was being turned back on, Eskom would turn my power off.

Then I checked the Eskom website, a profoundly fallible source, to discover my two morning appointments were both in suburbs that could only be accessed by roads that would be badly affected by load shedding.

I had an hour's traveling time because Joburg drivers are, in some mysterious way, altered by the power cuts. Their brains go dead at the exact same time that power goes down.

On every other day these drivers can safely – and even courteously- negotiate a four-way stop-street or a traffic circle. But faced with an intersection controlled by a traffic light that is not working, they lose control and the result is like a pub brawl – on wheels.

It's hard to say who the worst culprits are, but to my mind it's a toss between the taxis and the four-wheel drive luxury vehicles. To both those sets of drivers, a continuous stretch of main road on which there are five or six disabled traffic lights is like a declaration of war, a 'survival of the fittest' derby.

It starts with the aggressive exclusion of any car that is not taller than its driver, and escalates into an intensely focused class war that is no longer about race. This is equal opportunity aggression, pitting the 'haves' – in their costly wheeled weapons against the 'have-nots' – who relish the chance to mount a counter offensive against the capitalist overlords. The rest of us are just collateral damage.

But long before I even start worrying about dealing with the roads, I had to deal with the impending water cut. I had to shower especially early, while there was still enough cold water to temper the scalding hot water which would otherwise cause my skin to blister.

Then I had to set about filling various jugs, pots and bottles so the routine business of dish-washing and other household chores could be dealt with. It also meant an extra trip to the supermarket to buy bottled water for tea, coffee and cooking.

I'm wary of municipal water at the best of times, but who knows what might be lurking in that first flow that gushes out of old, empty pipes and tanks after people have been working on them all day? It's not a chance I choose to take.

But cope with it we must. We can fulminate against inept, greedy executives and spineless politicians. We can rage at the people who get vast bonuses which are awarded at much the same time that vast consumer price increases are announced.

But what good does shouting do? Nobody listens. At least not anybody who could actually make a difference, and to be just another droning voice in a chorus of complaint that is totally ignored by everyone, is boring.

But it's changing the way we live. I gather that there are now Eskom nomads, a unique urban tribe who study the load-shedding grid to try and determine where they must dine and look for fun.

They literally follow the electric lure from mall to mall, cinema to cinema and from club to club, like moths, in search of a perpetually elusive flame and still they land up in the dark.

The worst thing, however, is when the Eskom site says your lights will go out at 6pm. You make sure your laptop is powered so that you can use it into the night. By 5.50pm you light the lamps and candles in all the strategic places, and call your relatives to ensure that they remember to record the TV shows you are going to miss.

That's what the human race does best: we adapt. That's why the *tyrannosaurus rex* is extinct, and we feeble human creatures are still here.

Then you sit there, waiting for the lights to go out – but they don't. This ought to be a relief, but human nature does not work that way. After all the trouble you have taken to deal with the darkness, keeping the bloody lights on is like a contemptuous practical joke.

It's as if Eskom has crept up behind you to yell "Gotcha!" and that's exactly where the dangerous spirit of rebellion is born.

This article, written by a *Sunday Times* columnist, relies on witty invective, ridicule, irony of situation and sarcasm to make its pointed criticism of non-performing, poorly administered and inept organisations.

1. Identify the two major targets of criticism in this article.
2. Identify three 'new' behaviours that have become characteristic norms because of the blunders of the two bodies.
3. 'A survival of the fittest derby': what figure of speech is employed by the writer here? In what ways would the race between the rich and the poor in this instance be seen as both comic and tragic? Explain fully.
4. Comment on the way the writer calls the executives 'inept' but calls the politicians 'spineless.' What effect is achieved by the use of these adjectives?
5. 'Eskom nomads': what new breed of urban dwellers is this? How different are they from the everyday urban dweller?
6. 'The human race adapts': is this actually true from the tone and style of the article? Closely support your opinion by reference to the details in the article.
7. State the ways in which Eskom breeds 'the dangerous spirit of rebellion.'
8. Comment on the significance and relevance of the title of this article, focusing on the content and style of the writer.

Appendix vi

Short story: 'The Maternal Instinct' by V.S. Naipaul

The Maternal Instinct

I suppose Laura holds a world record.

Laura had eight children.

There is nothing surprising in that.

These eight children had seven fathers.

Beat that!

It was Laura who gave me my first lesson in biology. She lived jut next door to us, and I found myself observing her closely.

I would notice her belly rising for months.

Then I would miss her for a short time.

And the next time I saw her she would be quite flat.

And the leavening process would begin again in a few months.

To me this was one of the wonders of the world in which I lived, and I always observed Laura. She herself was quite gay about what was happening to her. She used to point to it, and say, 'This thing happening again, but you get used toot after the first three four times. Is a damn nuisance, though.'

She used to blame God, and speak about the wickedness of men.

For her first six children she tried six different men.

Hat used to say, 'Some people hard to please.'

But I don't want to give you the impression that Laura spent all her time having babies and decrying men, and generally feeling sorry for herself. If Bogart was the most bored person in the street, Laura was the most vivacious. She was always gay, and she liked me.

She would give me plums and mangoes when she had them; and whenever she made sugar-cakes she would give me some.

Even my mother, who had a great dislike of laughter, especially in me, even my mother used to laugh at Laura.

She often said to me, 'I don't know why Laura muching you up so for. Like she ain't have enough children to mind.'

I think my mother was right. I don't think a woman like Laura could have ever had too many children. She loved all her children, though you wouldn't have believed it

from the language she used when she spoke to them. Some of Laura's shouts and curses were the richest things I have ever heard, and I shall never forget them.

Hat said once, 'Man, she like Shakespeare when it come to using words.'

Laura used to shout, 'Alwyn, you broad-mouth brute, come here.'

And, 'Gavin, if you don't come here this minute, I make you fart fire, you hear.'

And, 'Lorna, you black bow-leg bitch, why you can't look what you doing?'



Now, to compare Laura, the mother of eight, with Mary the Chinese, also mother of eight, doesn't seem fair. Because Mary took really good care of her children and never spoke harshly to them. But Mary, mark you, had a husband who owned a shop, and Mary could afford to be polite and nice to her children, after stuffing them full of chop-suey and chow-min, and chow-fan, and things with names like that. But who could Laura look to for money to keep her children?

The men who cycled slowly past Laura's house in the evening, whistling for Laura, were not going to give any of their money to Laura's children. They just wanted Laura.

I asked my mother, 'How Laura does live?'

My mother slapped me, saying, 'You know, you too fast for little boy.'

I suspected the worst.

But I wouldn't have liked that to be true.

So I asked Hat. Hat said, 'She have a lot of friends who does sell in the market. They does give she things free, and sometimes one or two or three of she husbands does give she something too, but that not much.'

The oddest part of the whole business was Laura herself. Laura was no beauty. As Boyce said one day, 'She have a face like the top of a motor-car battery.' And she was a little more than plump.

I am talking now of the time when she had had only six children.



One day Hat said, 'Laura have a new man.'

Everybody laughed, 'Stale news. If Laura have she way, she go try every man once.'

But Hat said, 'No, is serious. He come to live with she for good now. I see him this morning when I was taking out the cows.'

We watched and waited for this man.

We later learned that he was watching and waiting for us.

In no time at all this man, Nathaniel, had become one of the gang in Miguel Street. But it was clear he was not really one of us. He came from the east end of Port of Spain, which we considered dirtier; and his language was really coarse.

He made out that he was a kind of terror in the east end around Piccadilly Street. He told many stories about gang-fights, and he let it be known that he had disfigured two or three people.

Hat said, 'I think he lying like hell, you know.'

I distrusted him myself. He was a small man, and I always felt that small men were more likely to be wicked and violent.

But what really sickened us was his attitude to women. We were none of us chivalrous, but Nathaniel had a contempt for women which we couldn't like. He would make rude remarks when women passed.

Nathaniel would say, 'Women just like cows. Cow and they is the same thing.'

And when Miss Ricaud, the welfare woman, passed, Nathaniel would say, 'Look at that big cow.'

Which wasn't in good taste, for we all thought that Miss Ricaud was too fat to be laughed at, and ought instead to be pitied.

Nathaniel, in the early stages, tried to make us believe that he knew how to keep Laura in her place. He hinted that he used to beat her. He used to say, 'Woman and them like a good dose of blows, you know. You know the calypso:

Every now and then just knock them down.

Every now and then just throw them down.

Black up their eye and bruise up their knee

And then they love you eternally.

Is gospel truth about woman.'

Hat said, 'Woman is a funny thing, for truth, though. I don't know what a woman like Laura see in Nathaniel.'

Eddoes said, 'I know a helluva lot about woman. I think Nathaniel lying like hell. I think when he with Laura he got his tail between his legs all the time.'

We used to hear fights and hear the children screaming all over the place, and when we saw Nathaniel, he would just say, 'Just been beating some sense into that woman.'

Hat said, 'Is a funny thing. Laura don't look any sadder.'

Nathaniel said, 'Is only blows she really want to keep she happy.'

Nathaniel was lying of course. It wasn't he who was giving the blows, it was Laura. That came out the day when Nathaniel tried to wear a hat to cover up a beaten eye.

Eddoes said, 'It look like they make up that calypso about men, not women.'

Nathaniel tried to get at Eddoes, who was small and thin. But Hat said, 'Go try that on Laura. I know Laura. Laura just trying not to beat you up too bad just to keep you with she, but the day she start getting tired of you, you better run, boy.'

We prayed for something to happen to make Nathaniel leave Miguel Street.

Hat said, 'We ain't have to wait long. Laura making baby eight months now. Another month, and Nathaniel gone.'

Eddoes said, 'That would be a real record. Seven children with seven different man.'

The baby came.

It was a Saturday. Just the evening before I had seen Laura standing in her yard leaning on the fence.

The baby came at eight o'clock in the morning. And, like a miracle, just two hours later, Laura was calling to my mother.

I hid and looked.

Laura was leaning on her window-sill. She was eating a mango, and the yellow juice was smeared all over her face.

She was saying to my mother, 'The baby come this morning.'

And my mother only said, 'Boy or girl?'

Laura said, 'What sort of luck you think I have? It looks like I really blight. Is another girl. I just thought I would let you know, that's all. Well, I got to go now. I have to do some sewing.'

And that very evening it looked as though what Hat said was going to come true. For that evening Laura came out to the pavement and shouted to Nathaniel, 'Hey, Nathaniel, come here.'

Hat said, 'But what the hell is this? Ain't is this morning she make baby?'

Nathaniel tried to show off to us. He said to Laura, 'I busy, I ain't coming.'

Laura advanced, and I could see fight in her manner. She said, 'You ain't coming? Ain't coming? But what this I hearing?'

Nathaniel was worried. He tried to talk to us; by he wasn't talking in a sensible way.

Laura said, 'You think you is a man. But don't try playing man with me, you hear. Yes, Nathaniel, is you I talking to, you with your bottom like two stale bread in you pants.'

This was one of Laura's best, and we all began laughing. When she saw us laughing, Laura burst out too.

Hat said, 'This woman is a real case.'



But even after the birth of his baby Nathaniel didn't leave Miguel Street. We were a little worried.

Hat said, 'If she don't look out she go have another baby with the same man, you know.'

It wasn't Laura's fault that Nathaniel didn't go. She knocked him about a lot, and did so quite openly now. Sometimes she locked him out, and then we would hear Nathaniel crying and coaxing from the pavement, 'Laura, darling, Laura, *doux-doux*, just let me come in tonight. Laura, *doux-doux*, let me come in.'

He had dropped all pretence now of keeping Laura in her place. He no longer sought our company, and we were glad of that.

Hat used to say, 'I don't know why he don't go back to the Dry River where he come from. They ain't have any culture there, and he would be happier.'

I couldn't understand why he stayed.

Hat said, 'It have some man like that. They like woman to kick them around.'

And Laura was getting angrier with Nathaniel.

One day we heard her tell him, 'You think because you give me one baby, you own me. That baby only come by accident, you hear.'

She threatened to get the police.

Nathaniel said, 'But who go mind your children?'

Laura said, 'That is my worry. I don't want you here. You is only another mouth to feed. And if you don't leave me right now I go and call Sergeant Charles for you.'

It was this threat of the police that made Nathaniel leave.

He was in tears.

But Laura was swelling out again.

She said, 'Oh, God! Two babies by the same man!'



One of the miracles of life in Miguel Street was that no one starved. If you sit down at a table with pencil and paper and try to work it out, you will find it impossible. But I lived in Miguel Street, and can assure you that no one starved. Perhaps they did go hungry, but you never heard about it.

Laura's children grew.

The eldest daughter, Lorna, began working as a servant in a house in St Clair and took typing lessons from a man in Sackville Street.

Laura used to say, 'It have nothing like education in the world. I don't want my children to grow like me.'

In time, Laura delivered her eighth baby, as effortlessly as usual.

That baby was her last.

It wasn't that she was tired or that she had lost her love of the human race or lost her passion for adding to it. As a matter of fact, Laura never seemed to grow any older or less cheerful. I always felt that, given the opportunity, she could just go on and on having babies.



The eldest daughter, Lorna, came home from her typing lessons late one night and said, 'Ma, I going to make a baby.'

I heard the shriek that Laura gave.

And for the first time I heard Laura crying. It wasn't ordinary crying. She seemed to be crying all the cry she had saved up since she was born; all the cry she had tried to cover up with her laughter. I have heard people cry at funerals, but there is a lot of showing-off in their crying. Laura's crying that night was the most terrible thing I had heard. It made me feel that the world was a stupid, sad place, and I almost began crying with Laura.

All the street heard Laura crying.

Next day Boyee said, 'I don't see why she so mad about that. She does do the same.'

Hat got so annoyed that he took off his leather belt and beat Boyee.

I didn't know who I felt sorrier for – Laura or her daughter.

I felt that Laura was ashamed now to show herself in the street. When I did see her I found it hard to believe that she was the same woman who used to laugh with me and give me sugar-cakes.

She was an old woman now.

She no longer shouted at her children, no longer beat them. I don't know whether she was taking especial care of them or whether she had lost interest in them.

But we never heard Laura say a word of reproach to Lorna.

That was terrible.

Lorna brought her baby home. There were no jokes about it in the street.

Laura's house was a dead, silent house.

Hat said, 'Life is helluva thing. You can see trouble coming and you can't do a damn thing to prevent it coming. You just got to sit and watch and wait.'



According to the papers, it was just another week-end tragedy, one of many.

Lorna was drowned at Carenage.

Hat said, 'Is what they always do, swim out and out until they tired and can't swim no more.'

And when the police came to tell Laura about it, she had said very little.

Laura said, 'It good. It good. It better that way.'

Context questions

1. Identify the major ironic twists in this story.
2. Laura's life is compared to that of Mary, the Chinese woman who also has eight children. State the similarities and differences between the two.
3. Hat, Eddoes and Boyee share similar experiences that somehow make them different from Nathaniel. State these experiences and show why they should have reason to fence off Nathaniel from their circle.

4. 'In time Laura delivered her eighth baby, as effortlessly as usual. That baby was her last.' Why does the author stress that the eighth baby was her last? Explain in your own words why this reality is shattering for all: Laura, Lorna and Miguel Street.

5. Evaluation question

▣ 'Lorna came home from her typing lessons late one night and said, 'Ma, I going to make a baby.' Why does this statement shatter Laura, and Lorna herself? What eventually becomes of Lorna? Why does Laura not regret the death of Lorna?

▣ How does V.S. Naipaul achieve the sense of the tragic in this story? (You need to examine such detail as the picture we get of Laura and her men, the stern control she has over her family, the sense of desperation in all the boys of Miguel Street and the culmination in Lorna's devastating news of her pregnancy and, later, her suicide. You need to look specifically at the word use, the use of dialect and the tone of the story: it is very bleak indeed.)

'A letter to God'

Gregorio López y Fuentes, Mexico

THE HOUSE – the only one in the entire valley – sat on the crest of a low hill. From this height one could see the river, and next to the corral, the field of ripe corn dotted with the kidney-bean flowers that always promised a good harvest.

The only thing the earth needed was a rainfall, or at least a shower. Throughout the morning, Lencho – who knew his fields intimately – had done nothing else but scan the sky toward the north-east.

'Now we're really going to get some water, woman.'

The woman, who was preparing supper, replied:

'Yes, God willing.'

The oldest boys were working in the field, while the smaller ones were playing near the house, until the woman called out to them all:

'Come for dinner...'

It was during the meal that, just as Lencho had predicted, big drops of rain began to fall. In the north-east, huge mountains of clouds could be seen approaching. The air was fresh and sweet.

The man went out to look for something in the corral for no other reason than to allow himself the pleasure of feeling the rain on body, and when he returned he exclaimed:

'Those aren't raindrops falling from the sky, they're new coins. The big ones are ten centavo-pieces and the little ones are fives...'

With a satisfied expression, he regarded the field of ripe corn with its kidney bean flowers, draped in a curtain of rain. But suddenly, a strong wind began to blow and together with the rain very large hailstones began to fall. These truly did resemble the silver coins. The boys, exposing themselves to the rain, ran out to collect the frozen pearls.

'It's really getting bad now,' exclaimed the man, mortified. 'I hope it passes quickly.'

It did not pass quickly. For an hour, the hail rained on the house, the garden, the hillside, the cornfield, on the whole valley. The field was white, as if covered with salt. Not a leaf remained on the trees. The corn was totally destroyed. The flowers were gone from the kidney-bean plants. Lencho's soul was filled with sadness. When the storm had passed, he stood in the middle of the field and said to sons:

'A plague of locusts would have left more than this... The hail has left nothing: this

year we will have nor corn or beans...'

That night was a sorrowful one.

'We'll all go hungry this year...'

But in the hearts of all who lived in that solitary house in the middle of the valley, there was a single hope: help from God.

'Don't be so upset, even though this seems like a total loss. Remember, no one dies of hunger...'

All through the night, Lencho thought only of his one hope: the help of God, whose eyes, as he had been instructed, see everything, even what is deep in one's conscience.

Lencho was an ox of a man, working like an animal in the fields, but still he knew how to write. The following Sunday, at daybreak, having convinced himself that there is a protecting spirit, he began to write a letter which he himself would carry to town and place in the mail.

It was nothing less than a letter to God.

'God,' he wrote, 'if you don't help me, my family and I will go hungry this year. I need a hundred pesos in order to resow the field and to live until the crop comes, because the hailstorm...'

He wrote 'To God' on the envelope, put the letter inside and, still troubled, went to town. At the post office, he placed a stamp on the letter and dropped it into the mailbox.

One of the employees, who was a postman and also helped at the post office, went to his boss laughing heartily and showed him the letter to God. Never in his career as a postman had he known that address. The postmaster – a fat, amiable fellow – also broke out laughing, but almost immediately he turned serious and, tapping the letter on his desk, commented:

'What faith! I wish I had the faith of the man who wrote this letter. To believe the way he believes. To hope with the hope that he knows how to hope with. Starting up a correspondence with God!'

So in order not to disillusion that prodigy of faith, revealed by a letter that could not be delivered, the postmaster came up with an idea; answer the letter. But when he opened it, it was evident that to answer it he needed something more than goodwill, ink and paper. But he stuck to his resolution: he asked for money from his employee, he himself gave part of his salary, and several friends of his were obliged to give something 'for an act of charity.'

It was impossible for him to gather the hundred pesos, so he was able to send the farmer only a little more than half. He put the bills in an envelope addressed to Lencho and with them a letter containing only a single word as a signature: GOD.

The following Sunday Lencho came a bit earlier than usual to ask if there was a letter for him. It was the postman himself who handed the letter to him, while the postmaster, experiencing the contentment of a man who has performed a good deed, looked on from the doorway of his office.

Lencho showed not the slightest surprise on seeing the bills – such was his confidence – but he became angry when he counted the money...God could not have made a mistake, nor could he have denied Lencho what he had requested!

Immediately, Lencho went up to the window to ask for paper and ink. On the public writing table, he started in to write, with much wrinkling of his brow caused by the effort he had to make to express his ideas. When he finished, he went to the window to buy a stamp which he licked and then affixed to the envelope with a blow of his fist.

The moment the letter fell into the mailbox the postmaster went to open it. It said: 'God: of the money that I asked for, only seventy pesos reached me. Send me the rest, since I need it very much. But don't send it to me through the mail, because the post-office employees are a bunch of crooks. Lencho.'

1. Outline the storyline in the form of plot boxes.
2. List the main events in this story.
3. What do you observe about the length of the paragraphs. Explain, in your own words, why you think the writer organizes the paragraphs the way he does.
4. List the images and metaphors that you can identify in this story.
5. What is the purpose of direct speech in this story?
6. "Lencho was an ox of a man": what kind of man is this?
7. "The field was draped in a curtain of rain." Explain the figure of speech used here.
8. Extended writing based on the story:

After building a modest house from your only savings, a sudden earthquake destroys your entire village. You survive - miraculously. Write to someone in authority (civic group, your former employer, the president, God...) What would be your possible ironic end?

B BLOCK**“SOCIAL LIFE IN THE INSECT WORLD”: J.H. FABRE**

We are near the end of August. The male Mantis, a slender and elegant lover, judges the time to be propitious. He makes eyes at his powerful companion; he turns his head towards her; he bows his neck and raises his thorax. His little pointed face almost seems to wear an expression. For a long time he stands thus motionless, in contemplation of the desired one. The latter, as though indifferent, does not stir. Yet the lover has seized upon a sign of consent; a sign of which I do not know the secret. He approaches: suddenly he erects his wings, which are shaken with a convulsive tremor.

This is his declaration. He throws himself on the back of his corpulent companion; he clings to her desperately, and steadies himself. The prelude to the embrace is generally lengthy, and the embrace will sometimes last for five or six hours.

Nothing worthy of notice occurs during this time. Finally the two separate, but they are soon to be made one flesh in a much more intimate fashion. If the poor lover is loved by his mistress as the giver of fertility, she also loves him as the choicest of game. During the day, or at latest on the morrow, he is seized upon by his companion, who first gnaws through the back of his neck, according to use and wont, and then methodically devours him, mouthful by mouthful, leaving only the wings. Here we have no case of jealousy, but simply a depraved taste.

I had the curiosity to wonder how a second male would be received by a newly fecundated female. The result of my enquiry was scandalous. The Mantis in only too many cases is never sated with embraces and conjugal feasts. After a rest, of variable duration, whether the eggs have been laid or not, a second male is welcomed and devoured like the first. A third succeeds him, does his duty, and affords yet another meal. A fourth suffers a like fate. In the course of two weeks I have seen the same Mantis treat seven husbands in this fashion. She admitted all to her embraces, and all paid for the nuptial ecstasy with their lives.

1. What is the meaning of, 'The male Mantis...judges the time to be propitious'?
2. How does the female Mantis react to the male Mantis' 'making eyes' at her?
3. What noticeable difference is there in the physical appearance of the male and female Mantis?
4. What do you think was the writer's purpose in this passage?
5. What explanation does the writer give for the female's killing of the male Mantis?
6. What evidence can you find to show that the writer allows his own feelings to be revealed?
7. What evidence can you find to suggest that the writer is a dedicated naturalist?
8. What do the following words mean:
 - a) prelude
 - b) tremor
 - c) nuptial?
9. What does the writer mean by 'conjugal feasts'?
10. Did you sympathize with the male Mantis? Why?
11. What comments would you make about the style of the writer? Would you expect a scientist, biologist or naturalist to write like this? Why?
12. What is the writer's tone in this passage

COMPREHENSION (2)

No Smoking

Tobacco is dirty weed; I like it.

It satisfies no normal need; I like it.

It makes you thin, it makes you lean,

It takes the hair right out of your bean;

It's the worst darn stuff I've ever seen,

I like it.

GRAHAM HEMMINGER

Smokers know that they are addicted to cigarettes. But it doesn't feel like an addiction until they try to stop.

And only then do they experience the callousness of this addiction, which abandons them to the anguish of knowing that one cigarette, that butt in the ashtray, just a tiny puff – will release the mind held hostage.

Smokers know too that succumbing to an addiction does not advance man as a species on the evolutionary scale. They know their lungs are dripping with slag and every cigarette is a nail in their coffin. They feel the sting of the polite sign in the doctor's waiting room – 'Thank you for not smoking' – and the cancer advertisement in the train – 'Kiss a non-smoker today – enjoy the difference'.

Thus the segregation begins. Smokers smell distinctly of nicotine which they cannot smell themselves because, as any non-smoker will tell them, tobacco dulls the senses. They have two or more orange fingers and the occasional orange tooth. Smokers who started young are stunted.

Because of a basic insecurity that is either consequence or a cause of smoking, they always have cigarettes upon their person, and fresh packets are never far away – stacked in the pantry, behind the piano or in the sock drawer.

And always there is the problem of disposing of those major pollutants – butts, ash and smoke. Cigarettes meet a thankless end in the ashtray, the aluminum pie plate, the empty beer can, the dregs of coffee or the toilet bowl. The smoke permeates the drapes and the carpets and sours the air like a cremated memory.

Cigarette ash also burns holes in the furniture, clothes and people. It falls into drinks and food and blows out of the ashtray onto the cream carpet. And so the segregation continues.

Smokers are not allowed to smoke on trains, government buses and large sections of planes. Traditionally, they have never smoked in theatres but they are always the first into the foyer, lighting up the rescuing cigarette before they suffocate.

Smoking is discouraged while others eat, but some cheat and smoke during dessert, preferring the cigarette to the sweet. They cling to the inalienable right to smoke with coffee, cup after cup after cup.

While smokers are digesting social pressures to stop smoking, they must also absorb internal shocks to their wallets. The tax on cigarettes, increasing with every budget, is gradually pricing some low-income smokers clear out of their addiction. But not the hardened smokers, even if they have to roll their own. They smoke on – in moments of boredom, of stress, of calm. They hold the cigarette scissored between the first two fingers and, whenever they remember, they put it in their mouths and breathe it in.

If both hands are engaged, they clench the cigarette between the teeth. The smoke wafts into the eyes, producing the famous smokers' squint. And until the filter sogs and sags, they can still talk with their lips together, although they may not pronounce their vowel as roundly as they would like.

No one really knows why smokers must smoke. Non-smoking theorists suggest smokers were deprived of their dummies when they were babies, and this, combined with a defect in their personalities, creates a compulsion to suck something. Smokers answer that a cigarette is merely a mechanical device that stops them eating and drinking too much, or climbing the walls with tension, at the same time keeping the economy fluid and besides, everybody should mind their own business.

But it is everybody's business because cigarette smoke, as a pretty cloud, floats unerringly to the nearest non-smoker, whose lungs are innocent of smoke. Nature, in her wisdom, abhors a vacuum.

Some smokers smoke in bed and, if they go to sleep with the cigarette in their mouths, it falls on their nylon nighties and burns them up. Sometimes they survive.

Some smokers, with criminal apathy, drop live cigarette butts out of car windows into a forest. It is a mystery why they do that. Perhaps no one told them not to, or maybe they do not know how hard it is to extinguish a fire in a forest.

Some smokers see another smoker have a massive heart attack, and this terrifies them into giving up smoking. If this terror is stronger than the desire to smoke, the separation from cigarettes will be permanent.

Nevertheless, those first weeks of withdrawal are an agony, not only for ex-smokers, but for all who speak to them, sit beside them, look at them, live with them or do anything that could suggest cigarettes, such as burning a toast.

Time pacifies them and they become non-smokers, but always they are divided by two emotions: a yearning for this dear dead friend, the cigarette; and pride that they have mastered the killer, the cigarette.

But, in moments of doubt, they wonder if they have really been snatched from the jaws of death. All around them they see smokers still in the grip of the addiction that kills and maims. Why don't they all, without exception, die of heart or lung failure at 35 years of age? Why do some smokers live long, full, rich, healthy lives? Is there any justice?

ROBIN ROBERTSON: SYDNEY MORNING HERALD

1. Explain why the writer says that ex-smokers' minds are 'held hostage'?
2. What is the meaning of 'succumbing to an addiction'?
3. What does the word segregation mean? In what ways are smokers segregated?
4. What evidence does the writer provide to show that smoking is a dirty habit?
5. What economic pressures are brought to bear on smokers to give up smoking?
6. What impression of smokers does the writer offer the reader?
7. What do smokers mean when they argue that smoking keeps the 'economy fluid'?
8. What is the meaning of apathy? Why does the writer refer to the dropping of live-cigarette butts out of a car window into a forest as 'criminal apathy'?

9. How can fear influence smokers to give up smoking?
10. Explain in your own words the meaning of 'Time pacifies them'.
11. Explain what the writer means by 'their dear dead friend'.
12. What evidence can you find to suggest that the writer is against smoking?
13. What evidence can you find to suggest that the writer sympathises with smokers?
14. Explain the meaning of:
 - a) The smoke permeates the drapes and the carpets;
 - b) Whose lungs are innocent of smoke?

FORM THREE CYCLE SUMMATIVE ASSESSMENT

ASSESSOR: M. L. HOVE

Read the two articles below and, based on your comprehension of the ideas in them, respond to the questions that follow. Use your own words as far as possible, unless you are instructed otherwise.

THE HORROR RETURNS!

The dogs barked. They howled. They bayed at the moon. They knew. That night, the Horror would return. Their teeth flashed in the black night. They were ready to kill...

In her bedroom, Melissa Mercury combed her hair. She listened to the sounds of the storm. The thunder banged in the heavens. The lightning cracked. The rain lashed against the windows. The breakers thumped heavily onto the battered shore of Plattenberg Bay. She still combed her hair, methodically and carefully.

From the bay, through the wet, dark night, a shape moved up the beach. A deep, slimy green glinted now and then. The shape stopped. It seemed to sniff the air. Then, from the depths of its black, black heart, it uttered a soul-tearing shriek. The sound sliced through the little town. The dogs yelped. Their tails between their legs, they fled for cover.

Melissa heard the noise. She knew. It was the Horror. She had waited for this night for nearly a year. It had been a long wait. Now it was over. She rushed to her desk. She pulled out her diary. Feverishly, she began to write. This was to be the last entry recounting her experiences with the Horror. In the morning, she would be dead.

She went to the window and looked out. There, on the lawn below, was an evil glint of green, and the smell of decay. The Horror had come to fetch her. She had a promise to keep.

DRAMA IN PLET: HEIRESS MISSING

Strange sounds in night

Pat Clancy, Plettenberg Bay

Residents of Plettenberg Bay were awoken round midnight last night by a cry that seemed to echo through this sleepy little Garden Route village.

No one could say what it was, although Ms Blumberg of Watery Street described it as 'soul-tearing.' 'It seemed to cut right through your body,' she said. 'I can hear it still.'

In addition to the terrifying sound of last night, heiress to the Fortress Beer millions, ex-beauty queen and socialite Ms Melissa Mercury, has disappeared. There is no trace of breaking or entering at the palatial Mercury residence above the town. The dogs were found cowering in an outhouse.

Most confusing of all is the presence of a dark green slimy substance which is smeared on the lawn below Ms Mercury's bedroom window. Traces of the slime have been found on the beach and in some streets of the town. Forensic experts are tight-lipped about what this substance might be. Meanwhile, police spokes person, Lieutenant Mhlambiso, said that a full investigation was under way. 'We are at this moment following up some

clues, but this is going to be a difficult nut to crack. We appeal to anyone in the Plet community who knows anything about this incident to please come forward.'

The Mayor of Plettenberg Bay, Councilor Ashley Rudie, was distraught at the news of Ms Mercury's disappearance. 'She was such a well-loved person. Her charity bazaars and fun-runs were loved by all residents of Plet. She really doesn't have an enemy in the world.'

Scientists dismissed comments that the shriek in the night was uttered by some non-human source. 'There was a storm last night, and the noise was probably thunder or the wind,' said Belldon Bradnick of the CSIR.

Fisherman and long-standing resident of Plet, Sellasie Parker, said, 'I've heard a lot of noises in my life, but that noise wasn't human or animal. It was unearthly.'

The investigation into the disappearance of Ms Mercury continues.

The newspaper article states that investigations into the disappearance of Ms Mercury continue. The short story states that she 'feverishly began to write' what would be her last entry in her diary. Imagine that this diary is discovered with the entry below as the last one:

July 4, [Full moon] .

This diary is a record of everything that has happened in the past year. If anyone reads it after I have gone, I beg you to believe every word of it. As you can see this is the very last entry. If you have read everything up to this point, you will understand my fear that I will be regarded as a mad woman who suffered from wild delusions and fantasies. Although it may seem beyond comprehension, everything that I have written here is the truth.'

Write Ms Mercury's five entries for the year, describing the **encounters** with and **features** of the Horror, and the **promise** that she had to keep. [25 marks]

Extended language work

The Horror Returns! consists entirely of simple sentences: every sentence has only one subject and one finite verb.

1. Combine into one the first two sentences in paragraph one.
2. Combine sentences 3, 4, and 5 into one sentence.
3. Look at paragraph four of 'The Horror Returns!' combine each of the sentence groups given below into one:
 - a) She knew. It was the Horror.
 - b) It had been a long wait. Now it was over.
 - c) She rushed to her desk. She pulled out her diary. Feverishly, she began to write.
 - d) Rewrite each of the sentences below by first removing the *ands* and the *but* and then use the conjunction provided.
 - (i) He has returned, *and* I must now leave behind all that I love. (*since*)
 - (ii) I love my father more than he ever might imagine, *and* I am doing this for him. (*because*)
 - (iii) I am filled with sadness, *but* I know that this is what I must do. (*although*)

4. Rank the words in each of the groups from what you think is the least emotive to the most emotive. Here is an example:

<i>Scare</i>	<i>frighten</i>	<i>startle</i>	<i>terrify</i>
Startle	scare	frighten	terrify
a) untamed	savage	wild	uncivilised
b) hopeful	confident	expectant	optimistic
c) winner	victor	conqueror	first-placed
d) bad	disobedient	mischievous	misbehaved
e) rival	enemy	opponent	adversary
f) proud	arrogant	conceited	snobbish
g) outraged	angry	irritated	disgusted
			[25 marks]

NAME:
3.....

CLASS:

INSTRUCTIONS

Write your name on this paper.
Write in dark blue or black pen in the spaces provided on the Question Paper.
You must answer all questions.
The number of marks is given in brackets (...) at the end of each exercise.

Section A	30
Summary	15
Language structures	20
Poetry	15
TOTAL	80

Section A

Read the following passage and then answer the questions that follow.

The writer had been travelling and working in Brazil for three months. A pilot, who had been recently dropped by a party of climbers near Mount Roraima, offered to fly him there to join them.

1 This was a chance not to be missed, not only to climb a legendary mountain, but also to have a quiet period of intense physical activity. This would give me an opportunity to unwind after my hectic labours of the past three
2 months.

Roraima is not a particularly difficult mountain to climb. The main problem is its inaccessibility. It had been climbed before a good many times, but the parties of climbers had always needed the support of the local people in guiding them to the mountain and in ferrying their supplies there. Normally I would not have dreamt of setting off for the mountain without their help. As it turned out, the pilot had been forced to land some way away from their village. He realised that he would not have enough fuel for his return journey if he flew on to their settlement. At first he did not want to leave me on my own, saying that I would instantly be attacked by one of the dangerous wild animals which roamed the area. Somehow I convinced him

3 that his fears were exaggerated; I was confident I could work out a route 15
towards the mountain and join up with the party of climbers he had dropped
earlier.

I watched the shaky little single-engine aeroplane take off, and then sat for a
while looking around. Eventually I set off, feeling more than a little isolated.
Above me towered a steep slope culminating in a sheer, grey cliff. Somehow 20
it seemed to symbolise the task I had set myself. Elsewhere, though, there
were magnificent views. The wooded areas, looking as elegant as if they had
4 been deliberately landscaped, contrasted with the wilder scene of the hills
and rivers that stretched into the distance. Only to the west was the view
interrupted, by a bank of cloud. Somewhere behind it lay my goal – Mt. 25
Roraima – but not too far behind, I hoped. The nagging doubts returned.

It was time to make a start but, having expected to be flown straight to the
village, I was badly overloaded with presents which I had brought for the
5 local people, among them some bulky hammocks and blankets. I picked out
the essentials for my journey – compass, map, sleeping bag, torch and 30
camera, along with the only food I had with me, a bunch of bananas. I hid
everything else carefully in a dense thicket and then, with my compass in
hand, set off into the woodland, towards the mountain.

There was a track, but it kept on dividing. Part of my mind had to keep
concentrating on which path to follow, the other part wandered in a way that 35
had not been possible for some time. At long last the labours and mental
6 stress of the last three months were behind me. Now that there was no need
to plan, discuss, argue or talk, my step lightened and began to quicken as I
journeyed on through this silent place. Insects buzzed around my head, and
the hot sun beat down on the hard, burnt ground. Apart from the hum of 40
insect life and occasional stirrings and rustlings in the undergrowth, an
overpowering silence lay over the landscape. It was lonely – and all a little
frightening.

Towards evening I reached a thick belt of jungle. A glance at my map
showed me that it marked one of the rivers I had to cross. I chose a flat piece 45
7 of ground, hacked up some of the hard sandy earth to make it softer to lie on,
and laid my sleeping-bag over the top. After eating a couple bananas I
settled down and went to sleep. I slept only fitfully. Once I heard the gruff
barking of some wild animal, and a little later a few drops of rain fell.
Finally, I awoke and, warmed by the first rays of the sun, I set out for the 50
river marked on my map, looking forward to a long cool drink after some
thirteen hours without any water. Suddenly I saw the river, yet I was still
separated from it by a steep and densely overgrown slope. The jungle, too,
on the far bank looked impenetrable and forbidding.

At last I found a track which led down to the water's edge and I scrambled 55
down it. I waded across the thick river, gulping down handfuls of water as I
8 did so. Depositing everything on the opposite bank, I dived into the river for
a very refreshing and welcome swim. As I emerged, the dark stretch of

jungle confronted me. In its depths a bell-bird was calling monotonously. The solitude almost seduced me; I could gladly have stayed here, avoiding
9 the long journey ahead, but I had to continue. Following the faint track 60
through the dense, gloomy undergrowth meant that I took several wrong
turns until at last I burst into the sunlight again. Here in open country the
path was clear and easy to follow. It went winding up along a narrow ridge,
gaining height all the time. Then Mount Roraima came into view. Even so I 65
could not yet make out the summit. I began to wonder whether I could reach
the foot of the mountain before nightfall.

10 Jungle once more shrouded the path I was following. I plunged into the
undergrowth, grateful that the path was still visible, but instead of simply
having to put one foot in front of the other in order to go forward, I had to 70
keep on climbing. Moreover an ominous fog was beginning to gather and it
was getting dark.

I suddenly thought of the party of climbers I had come to join. Hoping they
11 would be somewhere near, I laboured up to the top of the highest point I
could find. I stood and shouted, as loudly as my lungs would bear it, to the 75
four points of the compass. Silence. There was no sound except for the faint
whispering of the breeze over the rocks. Scrambling from my pinnacle, I
missed my footing and rolled down helplessly, ending up in a shallow
puddle. I cursed my carelessness, and was horrified at its possible
consequences in such a place. 80

I groped on through a grotesque, deserted landscape in which strangely
distorted walls of rock, their tops invisible, often forced me to change
direction. I considered getting into my sleeping-bag and waiting for daylight.
Though wet like everything else, it was probably still dry inside. But how
was I to get myself a little drier first? And where could I put my sleeping-
bag when all around was wet? There was nothing but pools of water, mud
and slimy rock.

I struggled on for another kilometre before I thought of shouting again. This
time there was an answer. A few minutes later I saw a torch. From the
darkness a lone figure emerged; I took him to be one of the guides
accompanying the climbers. He looked at me as though I was an apparition
from the dead or one of the spirits thought to haunt the summit of Roraima.
When I reassured him that I was not, he began to laugh, and giggling and
shaking his head led me to where the party of climbers were camped. They
were sheltering in a shallow cave under an overhanging cliff. In the light of
a roaring fire I saw the seated figures of my new companions, and a
bubbling stew of meat and beans was more welcome to my nostrils than all
the spices of Arabia.

Question 1

From paragraph 1:

- a) Apart from the quietness, what did the writer expect would help him “unwind” on his expedition? 1
- b) Besides the opportunity to “unwind,” what else made the idea of climbing Mount Roraima attractive? 1

Question 2

From paragraph 2:

- a) “Roraima is not a particularly difficult mountain to climb. The problem is its inaccessibility” (lines 4-5). 1
2

Complete the following sentence with a word or short phrase of your own to show that you understand what the author is telling you in lines 4-5: “Roraima would have been relatively easy to climb if it had not been so...” 2

- b) Explain fully why the author was unable to enlist the help of local people on his journey to Mount Roraima.
- c) What two reasons, according to the passage, made such help advisable? You must answer in your own words. 1

Question 3

From paragraph 3:

The “sheer, grey cliff” (line 18) seemed to “symbolise” the task ahead of the author. Suggest what the cliff was “symbolising” about the task. 1

Question 4

From paragraph 4:

The author took a compass with him, among other essentials for his journey. From the evidence of the passage so far, what made the compass an “essential” item? 1
1

Question 5

From paragraph 5:

In line 36 the author writes, “my step lightened and began to quicken.” Apart from the notion of speed, what other idea is the author suggesting here? 1

Question 6

From paragraph 7:

- a) We have been told earlier in the passage that the jungle had appeared “forbidding” to the author. What now made it seem attractive to him?
- b) The word “burst” in line 52 is not describing the author’s speed. What effect is it describing? 1
2

Question 7

From paragraph 8:

In lines 58-59 the author writes, “instead of simply having to put one foot in front of the other.” What does this tell you about the nature of his progress so far? 1

Question 8

From paragraph 9

- a) Why did the author climb to the “highest point” he could find before starting to shout? 1
- b) Give two possible reasons why the author was “horrified” at his carelessness. 1

Question 9

From paragraph 10:

- a) Which feature of the landscape justifies the author’s description of it as “grotesque”? 2
- b) Why was he often forced to change direction?
- c) Why did the author not take the obvious course of getting into his sleeping bag and waiting for daylight?

Question 10

From paragraph 11:

After carefully reading the whole paragraph, explain fully in your own words why the “lone figure” began to laugh and giggle.

Question 11

From the whole passage:

Choose five of the following words. For each of them give one word or short phrase of not more than five words which has the same meaning that the word has in the passage. 5

- 1. exaggerated (line 12)
- 2. culminating (line 17)
- 3. interrupted (line 21)
- 4. belt (line 37)
- 5. fitfully (line 40)
- 6. monotonously (line 50)
- 7. shrouded (line 57)
- 8. bear (line 63)

Summary

Question 12

Much of the author's journey was difficult and worrying.

Using your own words as far as possible, summarise these difficulties and worries.

Use only material from line 15 to 73.

Your summary, which must be in continuous writing (**not note form**) and may not be longer than 160 words, including the ten words given below:

Begin your summary as follows:

15

As soon as I set off, I began to feel...

Section B: Language structures

Most newspaper reports are longer than one paragraph. They often say **how** or **why** something happened and they **quote** and tell us what people said about the event. Read this report about a heroic animal and answer the questions that follow.

SEAL SAVES DOG FROM DROWNING

1. A seal saved a dog from a watery death after it was swept away by strong currents in a fast-flowing river.
2. Eyewitnesses said the dog, which seemed to be injured and traumatised, scampered into the Amanzimtoti River in Kwazulu and tried to swim to the opposite bank – but the current got the better of it.
3. Suddenly, a seal appeared and gently pushed the dog onto the mudflats on the bank.
4. “I’ve never seen anything like it and I don’t think I ever will again,” eyewitness Xaba Ndabeni said yesterday. “This seal came out of nowhere. It was like a guardian angel came up.”
5. Ndabeni took care of the dog until emergency services arrived well after the rescue.

1. What does the expression “watery death” convey? 1
2. In paragraph 1, give a reason why the word “fast-flowing” is hyphenated. 1
3. In paragraph 2, state one strong verb that describes the movement of the dog. 1
4. In paragraph 2, what is the function of the dash? 1
5. In paragraph 4, re-write in reported speech what Xaba Ndabeni, the eyewitness first said to the reporter. 1
6. What is the purpose of this newspaper report? 1
7. Which paragraph summarises the main idea of the report? 1
8. Which paragraphs show how the event unfolded? 1
9. Which paragraph shows why the event occurred? 1
10. Which paragraph contains information which is really not crucial? 1

ADJECTIVES

Change each word in italics into an adjective.

5

1. *Offence* remarks
2. *Circumstance* evidence
3. A *malice* remark
4. A *vigour* game
5. *Fraud* behaviour

HYPERBOLE

Each of the following sentences contains hyperbole. Identify the hyperbole and re-write the sentence in plain English.

3

- a) At the end of the performance the applause brought the house down.
- b) His new girlfriend possessed a truly divine figure.
- c) The telephone has rung a thousand times this morning.

TENSES

Fill in the correct present tense form of the verb in brackets.

2

1. Neither the lawyer nor the prosecutor (to seem) properly prepared for tomorrow's trial.
2. Someone always (to forget) to leave one light on at night.

PUNCTUATION

Use commas where needed to punctuate the following sentences.

1. The long difficult climb to the top of Mount Roraima was attempted by three different groups. 1
2. Lindy's family doctor referred her to an eye specialist Dr Buhle Xola in the next town. 2

Parenthesis

- a) Dudu Carpenter – my old classmate - now practices law in eMthunzini. 1

What is the purpose of the parenthesis in the sentence above?

- b) Dudu Carpenter (my old college classmate) now practices law in eMthunzini. 1

What is the purpose of the parenthesis as it is used in the sentence above?

The Road Not Taken

Two roads diverged in a yellow wood,
 And sorry I could not travel both
 And be one traveller, long I stood
 And looked down one as far as I could
 To where it bent in the undergrowth;

Then took the other, as just as fair,
 And having perhaps the better claim
 Because it was grassy and wanted wear,
 Though as for that the passing there
 Had worn them really about the same,

And both that morning equally lay
 In leaves no step had trodden black.
 Oh, I marked the first for another day!
 Yet knowing how way leads on to way
 I doubted if I should ever come back.

I shall be telling this with a sigh
 Somewhere ages and ages hence:
 Two roads diverged in a wood, and I,
 I took the one less travelled by,
 And that has made all the difference.

Robert Frost

1. Do you think the road the speaker took was really the less travelled one? Why? 2
2. What do you think the chances are that the speaker will get to come back and try the other path? 2
3. Do you think the speaker regrets his choice, or is happy about it? Why? 2
4. What type of choices do you think this fork in the road represents for the speaker? 2
5. What personal choices does this poem remind you of? 2
6. What time is the poet thinking of in the last stanza? 2
7. What has made all the difference for the poet, and what do you think the two roads stand for in this poem? 3

MARKING MEMORANDUM

SECTION A

1a) In addition to the quiet atmosphere, the writer believed that the difficult physical activity of climbing the mountain would help him to unwind from his work.

b)The writer believed that climbing Mount Raraima was an attractive prospect because it was legendary mountain.

2 a) The mountain would have been comparatively easy to climb but it was rather difficult to get to.

b)The pilot was short of fuel and did not have enough to fly to the village and get back. If he had gone to the village, there would not have been enough fuel to get back. Therefore, he landed some distance away from the village and because of this, the writer was not able to get help from the villagers.

c) Climbers needed help from the villagers to guide them and to carry their supplies.

3. The “sheer grey cliff” symbolised that the task of climbing the mountain was difficult and dangerous.

4. A compass was necessary because the author was in an unknown place and had to navigate to get to where he was going.

5. Apart from “speed” the phrase suggests that the author was happy and cheerful; because he had left all his routine work behind.

6 a) Though the jungle had been “forbidding” in the earlier part of the journey, it now appeared attractive. This was because of the intense isolation he felt.

b)The word tells us that the author came into the sunlight suddenly.

7. It implies that because the climb was steep, the progress was slow.

8a) He climbed to the highest point because that would probably ensure that his voice travelled far enough for the group to hear him.

b)The two possible reasons for his being horrified could be that he could have been seriously injured and lain there helplessly or he could have been killed.

9a) The writer uses “grotesque” to describe the strangely distorted walls of the rocks with their tops hidden.

b)The writer probably changed direction every time he came to a rock, which he could not climb or which seemed too dangerous to climb.

c)Though the inside of the sleeping-bag was probably dry, the author decided not to sleep. He himself was wet and there was no dry ground where he could lay the sleeping-bag.

10. The “lone figure” looked at the author as if looking at a ghost. Then, when the writer assured him he was human, he began to laugh and giggle.

11.

- a) exaggerated = distorted
- b) culminating = completing
- c) interrupted = broken
- d) belt = stretch
- e) fitfully = with many interruptions
- f) monotonously = banally
- g) shrouded = covered
- h) bear = stand

12. SUMMARY

As soon as I set off, I began to feel lonely. In front of me rose a steep slope and the mountain appeared far away. I took only essential items for the journey. I had to concentrate intently to navigate. Everywhere it was quiet except for some rustling sounds. I felt lonely and afraid as I walked on. When it was nearly evening, I reached a thick jungle and a river. I lay down in my sleeping-bag but an animal barking and rain disturbed my sleep. When I reached the river I saw that a steep, thick and overgrown slope separated me from it. The jungle on the far bank was thick. After bathing in the river, I walked on but took several wrong turns before finally coming to a clear path. I was afraid that I might not reach the mountain before nightfall. I could only progress slowly because of the steep slope I had to climb.

160 words

SECTION B

SEAL SAVES DOG FROM DROWNING

1. A seal saved a dog from a watery death after it was swept away by strong currents in a fast-flowing river.
2. Eyewitnesses said the dog, which seemed to be injured and traumatised, scampered into the Amanzimtoti River in Kwazulu and tried to swim to the opposite bank – but the current got the better of it.
3. Suddenly, a seal appeared and gently pushed the dog onto the mudflats on the bank.
4. “I’ve never seen anything like it and I don’t think I ever will again,” eyewitness Xaba Ndabeni said yesterday. “This seal came out of nowhere. It was like a guardian angel came up.”
5. Ndabeni took care of the dog until emergency services arrived well after the rescue.

11. What does the expression “watery death” convey?

“watery death” means death by drowning; sinking to death; gulping water to death.

12. In paragraph 1, give a reason why the word “fast-flowing” is hyphenated.

The hyphen joins two different words into one new word/ hyphenation is a word forming strategy.

13. In paragraph 2, state one strong verb that describes the movement of the dog.

The strong verb is “scampered.”

14. In paragraph 2, what is the function of the dash?

The dash adds detail/ it facilitates the heightened tension in the action/ the conjunction but stands visibly to present a contrasting action/sudden event/twist.

15. In paragraph 4, re-write in reported speech what Xaba Ndabeni, the eyewitness first said to the reporter.

16. What is the purpose of this newspaper report?

The report informs the readers of an unusual event/episode.

17. Which paragraph summarises the main idea of the report?

Paragraph 1.

18. Which paragraphs show how the event unfolded?

Paragraphs 2 and 3

19. Which paragraph shows why the event occurred?

Paragraph 4

20. Which paragraph contains information which is really not crucial?

Paragraph 5. ADJECTIVES

1. *Offensive* remarks
2. *Circumstantial* evidence
3. A *malicious* remark
4. A *vigorous* game
5. *Fraudulent* behaviour

HYPERBOLE

- a) The streets ran red with blood.= There was a lot of blood on the streets
- b) At the end of the performance the applause brought the house down.

- = There was loud applause at the end of the performance.
- c) His thoughts were as black as hell itself.= He had sinister thoughts/evil ideas
 - d) His new girlfriend possessed a truly divine figure.= His new girlfriend is beautiful
 - e) The telephone has rung a thousand times this morning.= The phone has been very busy all morning/ There have been numerous calls this morning

TENSES

Fill in the correct present tense form of the verb in brackets.

- 3. (to seem) Neither the lawyer nor the prosecutor *seems* properly prepared for tomorrow's trial.
- 4. (to forget) Someone always *forgets* to leave one light on at night.

PUNCTUATION

Use commas where needed to punctuate the following sentences.

- 1. The long, difficult climb to the top of Mount Roraima was attempted by three different groups.
- 2. Dudu Carpenter, my old college classmate, now practices law in eMthunzini.
- 3. Lindy's family doctor referred her to an eye specialist, Dr Buhler Xola, in the next town.

SECTION C: POETRY

The Road Not Taken: Robert Frost

1. Do you think the road the speaker took was really the less travelled one? Why?

The poet has certainly chosen differently. It cannot be ascertained that his was a less travelled one but we believe what he tells us.

2. What do you think the chances are that the speaker will get to come back and try the other path?

Life's choices are a difficult experience. He has chosen a different path and might find challenges and therefore easily revert to the "well-known" choice. But it could also be that he would continue to explore the unusual choice he has made and not come back to take the other path.

3. Do you think the speaker regrets his choice, or is happy about it? Why?

Apparently, for the duration of the poem, he is aware of what risks he has taken and is content. The regrets, if any, are not clearly spelt out. Consequently, there are no easy statements to be made about what he has chosen.

4. What type of choices do you think this fork in the road represents for the speaker?

On a simple level, the choices are between right and wrong, good and bad. On another level, difference does not always fall into these neat binaries/categories. In making a choice, one asserts individuality and this is clear in the poem.

5. What personal choices does this poem remind you of?

The poem deals with personal experiences. The regrets and celebrations that we all go through are captured in the poem. It states what we all go through on a daily basis as we make school choices, choose friends and even careers later on in life.

6. What time is the poet thinking of in the last stanza?

He is focusing on the future as evident in the phrase "somewhere ages and ages hence."

7. What has made all the difference for the poet, and what do you think the two roads stand for in this poem?

The poet's decision has made all the difference. His decision to take the other road has made him arrive at this point where he reminisces over the past and what lessons he has learnt. The two roads obviously stand for the choices we have to make in life/ when one finds it difficult to make a choice.

Flanders Fields

1. What two meanings are conveyed by Flanders fields?

Flanders field is both a battlefield and a graveyard; it is a war zone and a place of death; Flanders field is a place of heroism and bravado.

2. The larks in stanza one seem happy and unaware of any danger. What danger awaits the men in the stanza?

The larks are natural birds. They are a part of nature and are untouched by man's battles. As the men die in the trenches, the birds demonstrate a complete sense of oblivion and innocence.

3. What do you find curious and perhaps shocking in the whole of stanza 2?

The persona is a collective voice. This voice declares "we are the dead." It is quite spooky that the dead can speak to the living, as happens in this poem. It is also curious what message the persona intends to convey to the living – a warning, a piece of advice or something they had not been able to say before they were mowed down in the war?

4. State what you observe about the rhyme and rhythm of this whole poem.

The poem moves briskly. The rhythm is regular, as if to mock the futility of life. The words are generally short and easy to say. Many lines run on to the next line without a pause, causing the reader to hurry along as they read. Rhythm is used effectively to complement and consolidate the message of the words.

5. What torch is the persona in this poem referring to?

If the voice is that of a dead soldier, then the torch he refers to must be the guns that new personnel have to man. The torch is that

sense of national duty and patriotic fervour that sees young men enlist as soldiers to defend the nation. This voice mocks the enterprise of war. It is bitter at the senseless deaths at the war front.

- 6. This is a personal response, pitched at the level of evaluation and synthesis of the reader's reaction to the poem. Reward sensible and defensible selections.*

APPENDIX (xi)

Excerpt from the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. (Act 108 of 1996)*

Provisions on Language

Section 6: Languages

- (i) The official languages of the Republic are sePedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa and isiZulu.
- (ii) Recognizing the historically diminished use and status of the indigenous languages of our people, the state must take practical and positive measures to elevate the status and advance the use of these languages.
- (iii) The national and provincial governments may use any particular official languages for the purposes of government, taking into account usage, practicality, expense, regional circumstances and the balance of the needs and preferences of the population as a whole or in the province concerned; but the national government and each provincial government must use at least two official languages. Municipalities must take into account the language usage and preferences of their residents.
- (iv) The national government and provincial governments, by legislative and other measures, must regulate and monitor their use of official languages. Without detracting from the provisions of subsection (2), all official languages must enjoy parity of esteem and must be treated equitably.
- (v) A Pan South African Language Board established by government must:
 - (a) promote, and create conditions for the development and use of all official languages;
 - (b) the Khoi, Nama and San languages and
 - (c) sign language and promote and ensure respect for
- (ix) all languages commonly used by the communities in South Africa, including German, Greek, Gujarati, Hindi, Portuguese, Tamil, Telegu and Urdu; and
- (x) Arabic, Hebrew, Sanskrit and other languages used for religious purposes in South Africa.

Section 29: Education

- (1) Everyone has the right:
- (a) to a basic education, including adult basic education; and
 - (b) to further education, which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible.
- (2) Everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable. In order to ensure the effective access to, and implementation of this right, the state must consider all reasonable educational alternatives, including single medium institutions, taking into account:
- (a) equity;
 - (b) practicability; and
 - (c) the need to redress the results of past racially discriminatory laws and practices.

Section 30: Language and Culture

Everyone has the right to use the language and participate in the cultural life of their choice, but no one exercising these rights may do so in a manner inconsistent with any provision of the Bill of Rights.

Section 31: Cultural, religious and linguistic communities

- (xi) Persons belonging to a cultural, religious or linguistic community may not be denied the right, with other members of that community:
- (a) to enjoy their culture, practice their religion and use their language; and
 - (b) to form, join and maintain cultural, religious and linguistic associations and other organs of civil society.

Section 35: Arrested, detained and accused persons

- (3) Every accused person has a right to a fair trial, which includes the right
- (k) to be tried in a language that the accused person understands or, if that is not practicable, to have the proceedings interpreted in that language.
- (4) Whenever this section requires information to be given to a person, that information must be given in a language that the person understands.