

AN ANALYSIS OF THE CLASSROOM LANGUAGE OF
PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENT-TEACHERS WITH
REFERENCE TO ITS INTERLANGUAGE FORMS,
COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES AND INSTRUCTIONAL
STRATEGIES WITH IMPLICATIONS OF THESE
FOR TEACHER TRAINING IN ZIMBABWE

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ABSTRACT

This study was designed to analyse and to describe the language of non-native student-teachers who use English as a medium of instruction and who also teach it as a subject. The aim was to describe the formal and functional features of the variety of English they use and to discover whether it constitutes a language system that applies identifiable and descriptively adequate sets of rules.

In his analysis, the researcher discussed definitions and 'general properties' of communication to establish criteria within which communicative activities were described in terms of information structuring by student-teachers and information processing by learners. He observed that student-teachers' language generally consists of systematically occurring features that constitute a spoken interlanguage that can be described as a language in its own right. He also observed that the interlanguage variety consists of syntactical and stylistic features some of which are identical to those that characterise native-speaker discourse.

At the level of communication, the researcher observed that student-teachers' and pupils' communicative utterances tend to be defective in situations where higher order thinking processes and ideas need to be articulated in the L₂. Another important observation was that student-teachers do not adequately use their interlanguage to realise the important pedagogical functions of explaining, elaborating and classifying key concepts and issues that arise in teaching/learning situations. On the basis of these findings, the researcher proceeded to suggest course guidelines for a Language and Communication Course which he hopes will improve student-teachers communication skills in Zimbabwean ESL classrooms.

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A NOTE ON THE USE OF TERMINOLOGY

In this study, the following terms are used interchangeably:

- i) "Student-teachers" and "Teacher-trainees" or "trainees" are terms used to refer to the same group of students. Wherever these terms are used they refer specifically to the research sample, that is, to the 18 student-teachers involved in this study except in situations where generalisations are deliberately made.
- ii) 'Pupils' and 'learners' are also used interchangeably to refer to the 'taught' in the research classrooms.
- iii) 'Interlanguage' refers specifically to the variety that constitutes a stable form of language that deviates in its application of rules from that of native speakers. In certain cases the researcher uses the term 'language' to refer to student-teachers' interlanguage when the latter is not being compared to any other language variety but is being considered as a 'language' in its own right.

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CHAPTER I

- 1 Research Aims and Hypothesis
 - 1.1 Genesis of Research Hypothesis
 - 1.2 Aims of Study
 - 1.2.1 Statement of Research Problem and Formulation of Research Hypothesis
 - 1.3 Importance of Study

CHAPTER ONE

1 RESEARCH AIMS AND HYPOTHESIS

1.1 GENESIS OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

This study was stimulated by the researcher's experience and interest in the study of the use of English as a medium of instruction in second language situations. From 1970 to 1978, the researcher worked as a lecturer in three different colleges of education in Zimbabwe. In 1979, he was appointed lecturer in the Institute of Education of the University of Zimbabwe. His contacts with student-teachers who use English as a medium of instruction in situations where both student-teachers and learners are non-native speakers of the language made him realise the importance of language in learning.

As a lecturer in the Institute of Education (renamed Associate College Centre in 1982), the researcher's work involves monitoring English Language Courses offered in all the colleges of education in the country (see Map 2). He also assesses student-teachers' teaching practice. It was during teaching practice assessment that the researcher observed instances in which communication between some student-teachers and learners broke down. Instead of facilitating learning, student-teachers' language tended to hinder it. In certain classrooms that the researcher observed, language problems seemed to be so serious that learners could hardly understand what the student-teachers were trying to put across. On the basis of such observations, the researcher was led to agree with Rosen (1979) who, with reference to the problems raised by textbook language claims that:

Difficulties of this sort turn whole subjects into foggy mysteries and for many children the fog is so impenetrable that all higher levels of learning become unattainable.

(Rosen op. cit. :119)

TABLE I. CSC AND AEB RESULTS 1984

Examining Board	No. of candidates who sat for the examination	No. of candidates who obtained 5 'O' level passes or more with grade C or better	No. of candidates with 4 'O' level passes	No. of candidates with 3 'O' level passes	No. of candidates with less than 3 'O' passes	No. of candidates with less than 5 'O' level passes
Cambridge School Certificate	67,962	12,881	4,548	5,521	45,012	55,081
AEB	3,188	1,210	Not given	Not given	Not given	1,978

FROM THE PRESS (SUNDAY MAIL 10/3/85)

This quotation appropriately represents the researcher's assumptions about communication problems that arise in second language classrooms in Zimbabwe.

The Minister of Education in Zimbabwe, Dr. Mutumbuka, expressed a similar view when in 1985, he released the 'O' level results shown in Tables I and II on pages/3 and/4. Commenting on these results which he thought revealed a high failure rate, the Minister referred to students' inadequate proficiency in the language of instruction and learning - English - as the cause. He claimed that:

The total transition from grade 7 to Form I showed that many pupils' command of English left much to be desired and such a poor command of the language affected many other subjects. There had been little improvement as they progressed to Form IV.

(The Sunday Mail, 10/3/85)

As a remedy to this critical situation, the minister suggested that teacher training programmes should emphasise the development of communication skills in English. The need to do so was also emphasised by the Secretary for Education, Dr. Chanakira, who, in his address to teacher-trainers at a "Workshop on the Review of Teacher Education Syllabuses", said

Teachers who aspire to be effective must acquire the required content and at the same time be able to explain the complexities of their major areas. Teacher education ought to devote some time to the acquisition of communication skills.

(Chanakira, 1985: 2)

It is obvious from these claims that both the Minister of Education and his secretary are convinced that the levels of proficiency in the use of English by students who complete Form 4 leaves a lot to be desired. The researcher believed the problem could be tackled either by simply requiring college

lecturers to add to the present course programmes, course components that encourage the development of communication skills. This 'intuitive approach' to syllabus review is less costly and less time consuming than one that requires lecturers to carry out systematic studies on which the review can be based. Although college lecturers were encouraged to add communication skills components to their courses, the researcher decided to carry out research in which student-teachers discourse would be analysed and the findings obtained from the research would be used to provide guidelines for developing communication-based syllabuses or syllabuses containing both formal and communicative language components.

1.2 AIMS OF STUDY

The desire to provide research-based guidelines for reviewing and re-designing college syllabuses led the researcher to study the forms and functions of the language used by student-teachers in Zimbabwean primary classrooms. The thesis analyses, describes and discusses their language at the following levels:

- i) the sentence or grammatical level and the interlinguistic rules manifested in student-teachers' discourse (chapters five and seven);
- ii) the sociological and, or pedagogical functions of student-teachers' discourse utterances (chapter six);
- iii) the relationship between student-teachers' instructional strategies and their interlanguage (chapter eight).

Discussion at these levels is partly based on what Hatch (1983) and Rutherford (1984) describe as the main goal of linguistic analysis, which is, "... to discover the systematicity in language and then to write descriptions that capture that systematicity" (Hatch, 1983: 1). This is precisely what the researcher aimed to achieve in this study (see chapter seven). He hoped that

such a description would enable him to reveal the student-teachers' linguistic inadequacies and how their communicative activities are affected by these. The linguistic inadequacies or errors were discussed at two levels: firstly, as grammatical errors that appear in sentences, and secondly, as discourse errors that manifest themselves in the discourse exchanges participants use when they interact. The linguistic features and/or patterns observed in the analysis were classified according to their identifying properties which were then described as 'syntactic' or 'stylistic' interlanguage rules. At a functional level, the analysis also included a study of a variety of functions of student teachers interlanguage in the classroom. These range from explaining new concepts or processes to classroom control. An analysis was also made of how certain teaching strategies attract the use of certain forms and/or patterns of language or certain discourse functions. Finally, the research findings were used as evidence for the need to revise the English Language Courses in colleges of education so that teaching content and methods used in teacher training situations could improve student-teachers' communication skills. It can be deduced from this brief description that the study had three important outcomes: firstly, it provided a comprehensive linguistic description of student-teacher interlanguage as well as its sociolinguistic and pedagogic functions in the classroom; secondly, it revealed a set of interlanguage rules that student-teachers generally apply in their speech, and finally, it was used as a basis for suggesting guidelines for designing a teacher-training English Language programme.

1.2.1 STATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEM AND FORMULATION OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

It is necessary at this stage to clarify the research problem and to translate it into a research hypothesis. Before we state the research hypothesis, we need to state the research problem in as clear a manner as possible. It has already been suggested that communication in a second language was assumed

to be one of the problems that student-teachers and learners encounter in teaching/learning situations. A simple communication network can be described as consisting of the following:

- i) a communicator or sender of information;
- ii) a receiver/receivers of the information sent by the communicator;
- iii) the message or information sent;
- iv) the channel; that is, the means or code through which the message is communicated.

Classroom communication is, in the majority of cases, effected through verbal language. We can illustrate classroom communication networks as shown in Diagram 1 below:

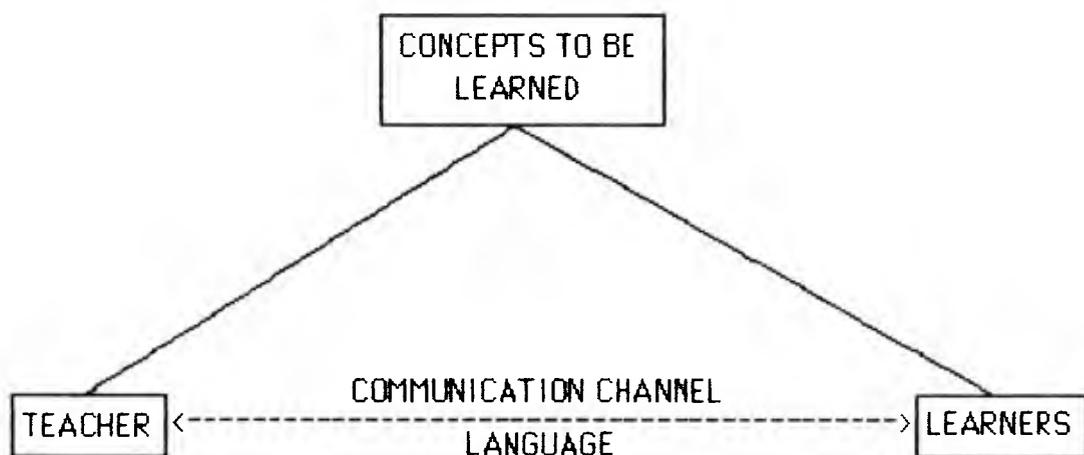


Diagram 1 Communication in the Classroom

Through language, the teacher and the learners focus on the concepts to be learned in a given lesson. This calls for the use of sets of language skills that enable the teacher to explain or communicate the concepts that comprise the subject matter to be learned and the learner to decode the teacher's language in order for him to understand the subject matter. Explaining and understanding subject matter are important tasks in a lesson. Their achievement depends largely on effective classroom interactive discourse between the teacher and learners. Allwright (1984: 158) emphasises the importance of effective interactional discourse in a lesson when he points

out that it is a necessary condition for effective teaching and that it is something that is inherently a necessary part of "classroom pedagogy itself".

Riley (1980) points out that communication breaks down when one or both interlocutors fail to bring out the clarity or communicativeness of their "interactive acts" at any of the following four levels: the interactive, illocutionary, content or realisation levels. We can briefly define each of these as follows:

- i) The interactive level of discourse requires that interlocutors successfully enact their roles in a speech situation where they are expected to obey the rules of floor-sharing and the interactive roles of addressor or addressee.
- ii) At the illocutionary level, interlocutors are expected to decode the appropriate and intended messages of the other participants and to behave or react as required.
- iii) At the content level, each of the interlocutors is expected to share the same experiences as the other participants and to contribute towards the development of the discourse.
- iv) The realisation level refers to the ability of each of the participants to use language appropriately making use of the required linguistic and sociolinguistic rules involved. It is the level at which interlocutors actualise their explicit or implicit knowledge of the language used as a medium of communication.

According to Riley (op. cit.) failure to realise one or more of these can cause a breakdown in communication.

Partly on the basis of these conditions for effective and fluent communication and partly on the basis of his observations in the classroom, the researcher proceeded to posit the following questions in connection with the interlanguage used by student teachers in the classroom.

- i) Is the student-teacher's communicative competence sufficiently adequate to enable him to explain subject content clearly and accurately?
- ii) To what extent does the student-teacher's spoken language facilitate or hinder learning when the language used as a medium of instruction is not the mother tongue of both the learner and the learners?
- iii) Do learners and teachers negotiate meaning effectively when they use English as the medium of teaching and learning?
- iv) Does the student-teacher's interlanguage constitute a variety which he successfully uses to communicate his ideas?
- v) What formal features characterise the student-teacher's interlanguage, and are these 'systematically' realised in his discourse?

Bennett and his colleagues (1973) suggest that when developing a research hypothesis, a researcher should go through three stages. They state that the first stage should consist of what they call a "common sense exposition" or general statement of the hypothesis. In this study, the questions posited above (i.e. i to v) constitute the researcher's common sense assumptions about student-teachers' classroom language. The second stage, according to Bennet et. al. (op. cit.) involves the formulation of a "research hypothesis" which should be linked to the researcher's common sense view of the research problem. Accordingly, the researcher provided tentative answers to the questions outlined above and then proceeded to formulate a general research hypothesis which he stated as follows:

Research Hypothesis

The formal and functional features of the classroom language used by second language student-teachers deviate so much from the target language that their communication through it is generally ineffective.

This hypothesis expresses the researcher's general assumptions. It does not, however, indicate what the researcher intends to do in order to prove the claims he makes. In terms of Bennett et al's suggestions (*op. cit*), the latter can be indicated effectively in the third stage of research formulation; that is, in the "operational hypothesis". The "operational hypothesis" differs from the "research hypothesis" in that the former is capable of being investigated. The variables it articulates can be subjected to analysis and/or measurement whereas the research hypothesis is a general assertion which needs to be "supported" or "refuted" by the conclusions, observations, or inferences made from the analysed data. In this study, the researcher's "operational hypotheses" were stated as research aims and outlined as follows:

Operational Research Aims

- i) To analyse and to describe the formal features and patterns of student-teachers' language.
- ii) To study and to describe the functional features of student-teachers' language.
- iii) To investigate the relationship between student-teachers' language and the teaching strategies they employ.
- iv) To suggest, in the light of the observations/inferences made, how teacher training English syllabuses in Zimbabwe can be improved.

It is clear from these operational aims that this study has a descriptive focus. Its major variables call for a qualitative description of the forms and functions of student-teachers' language. It also seeks to explain their communicative behaviour in terms of the constraints it places on learners' interactional acts. The study also focusses on other important issues such as describing how student-teachers' use of their interlanguage is related to the pedagogical and organisational techniques they employ in content and language lessons. The analyses carried out and the observations made underscore the central role of language in the classroom which led Schmidt

and Richards (1980) to make a point with which the researcher would like to conclude this section and to use as a preamble to the whole study:

Learning within a classroom context must --- be understood in relation to the highly structured and selective language which typifies classroom language and teaching situations.

(Schmidt et al, 1980: 144)

1.3 IMPORTANCE OF STUDY

The purpose for carrying out this study was to establish empirical premises for reviewing or re-designing teacher training English Language syllabuses which can be used to improve student-teachers' communicative skills in English. The assumption underlying the need for such a review is that most of the current syllabuses used in Teacher Training Colleges in Zimbabwe are literature - rather than language - based (see Appendix A). It is also based on evidence the researcher obtained from college lecturers who were asked to provide data for the researcher's M.Ed. dissertation in 1980. Their comments on student-teachers' proficiency in spoken English indicate that after passing the Cambridge School Certificate Examination, students are unable to use English communicatively. One college lecturer made the following comment.

Students, after form four, are good at literature but they still need to have a good command of English for communicative purposes, especially for communicating with children.

(see Mhundwa, 1980: 21)

Some lecturers were more specific in their comments. They indicated what they thought was missing in the 'O' level English syllabus and the effect of that on students' productive skills. At the same time, they indicated that there is need to emphasise the teaching of spoken English in Colleges of Education.

Very little attention, if any, is given to spoken English in secondary schools. Students arrive (in colleges of education) speaking badly and completely ignorant of the rules necessary for spoken English.

(see Mhundwa, op.cit.: 21)

The views quoted above refer specifically to deficiencies in spoken English. There was, however, a general belief in the lecturers' comments that when student-teachers are asked to answer comprehension or discrete language item questions, they perform better than they do in spoken English.

In the light of these observations, the researcher addressed himself to the problems of communicative discourse in the classroom. Besides describing the grammatical errors student-teachers commit when they speak, the researcher also sought to find out what they do with language in the process of teaching. Other studies involving teachers in Zimbabwe (see Gordon, 1966; Hofman, 1974) focussed on descriptions of grammatical language items ignoring their sociolinguistic and, or their pedagogical functions. It is hoped that a description of the linguistic patterns as well as the sociolinguistic and pedagogical functions of these will lead to the provision of syllabus guidelines that will enable students to develop what Brumfit (1980:2) calls the achievement of "the maximum effectiveness in language use (or) ... fluency and the ability to communicate" or what Corder (1968: 79) called "performative knowledge".

Although this study is based on a small sample of Shona-speaking student-teachers, the researcher believes that its findings are significant in the area of applied second language linguistics in the country. It should stimulate further research and thinking about the nature of interlanguage in Zimbabwe. In the not too distant future, Zimbabweans will seek to describe their own local variety of English. (NB Local varieties will be discussed in

detail in Chapter Two). The researcher hopes the findings of this study will serve as a starting point especially as they are based on the interlanguage of student-teachers who will become members of an educated group that frequently uses English as a second language.

With respect to the question of whether teachers' and learners' communicative skills are responsible for success or failure in learning, this study is significant in that it indicates instances in which ineffective communication results in failure to convey a speaker's ideas (see Chapter Six). It also indicates why on certain occasions, discourse in second language classrooms does not encourage reflective thinking which is necessary for the development of higher order concepts which learners need for further learning and creative thinking (see Chapters Six and Eight). By indicating these, the researcher implies that success or failure in learning can be partly accounted for in terms of teachers' and learners' communication skills and, by suggesting guidelines for the design of syllabuses that contain clearly defined communication skills components, the researcher offers what he considers to be a solution to the problem in the use of English in second language learning situations.

We have, in the preceding discussion, constantly referred to 'second language classrooms'. The researcher defined these as situations in which both student-teachers and learners are non-native users of English who are obliged to use the language as a medium of instruction and learning because the language policy adopted by the country in which teaching and learning take place uses English as a national official language. Often, there are socio-economic and political reasons for the adoption of such a language policy. In the chapter that follows we shall discuss these reasons indicating how they have influenced the Zimbabwean language policy.

CHAPTER II

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CHAPTER TWO

2 ZIMBABWE: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Language policies in developing countries are partly determined by the sociolinguistic contexts that characterise them. Fishman (1968), Whiteley (1974) and Quirk et al (1985) point out that African countries are multilingual. Some linguists do, however, note that 'multilingualism' is also a feature of some countries that are usually thought to be 'unilingual'. For instance, dialectal variations in the British Isles and North America constitute a certain type of multilingualism based on varieties of one language - English; (Quirk et al op. cit.). Edwards et al (1976) observe that Sauris in Northern Italy, is a multilingual area where adults speak three different languages, that is, standard Italian, a dialect of Friulian which is spoken as a social dialect and a local German dialect. Whiteley (1974) also observes that France, which is often considered a unilingual country has a number of regional dialects. In the case of France, the British Isles and North America, 'multilingualism' is defined in a wider sense in which regional varieties of one language are said to constitute a multilingual speech community. This definition differs from that associated with African and Asiatic countries where it is defined as a linguistic situation in which two or more different languages co-exist.

On the basis of these observations, linguists regard both 'developed' and 'developing' countries as multilingual. The extent to which language-related problems in "developed" and "developing" countries reveal themselves do, however, differ. They seem to be more apparent in developing countries of Africa than they do in other countries because:

developing nations are at an earlier stage in development ,
 .. the problems and processes of nationhood are more
 apparent in such nations and their transformations more
 discernible to the researcher.

(Fishman 1968: 6)

Because of their linguistic heterogeneity, independent African states have tended to adopt language policies that are, in fact, legacies of their former colonial governments. This is true of such Anglophone African states like Zimbabwe, Malawi, Zambia, Kenya, Ghana and Nigeria as well as Francophone states like Burkina-Faso, Zaire, Mali, Rwanda and others. In this chapter, we shall focus our discussion on the sociolinguistic situation in Zimbabwe, its national language policy and some aspects of bilingualism from which interlanguage varieties of English have emerged. Such information will be useful in our discussion on the role of English in the country.

2.2 THE ZIMBABWEAN SOCIOLINGUISTIC CONTEXT

The term "sociolinguistic context" is used in this study to refer to the regional distribution of languages and dialects in Zimbabwe. According to Ngara (1982) there are three major languages in Zimbabwe; Shona, Ndebele and English. Besides these, there are other minor languages such as Venda, Hlengwe, Sotho, Tonga and Tswana. Shona consists of six dialects; Zezuru, Korekore, Karanga, Manyika, Ndau and Kalanga. It can be inferred from the co-existence of these languages and dialects that Zimbabwe is a multi_lingual society. Map 1 (page 18) shows the distribution of the major indigenous languages and dialects of Zimbabwe.

2.2.1 SHONA

A study of the major indigenous languages of Zimbabwe and their dialects reveals the dominance of Shona. Shona is a collective linguistic term used to

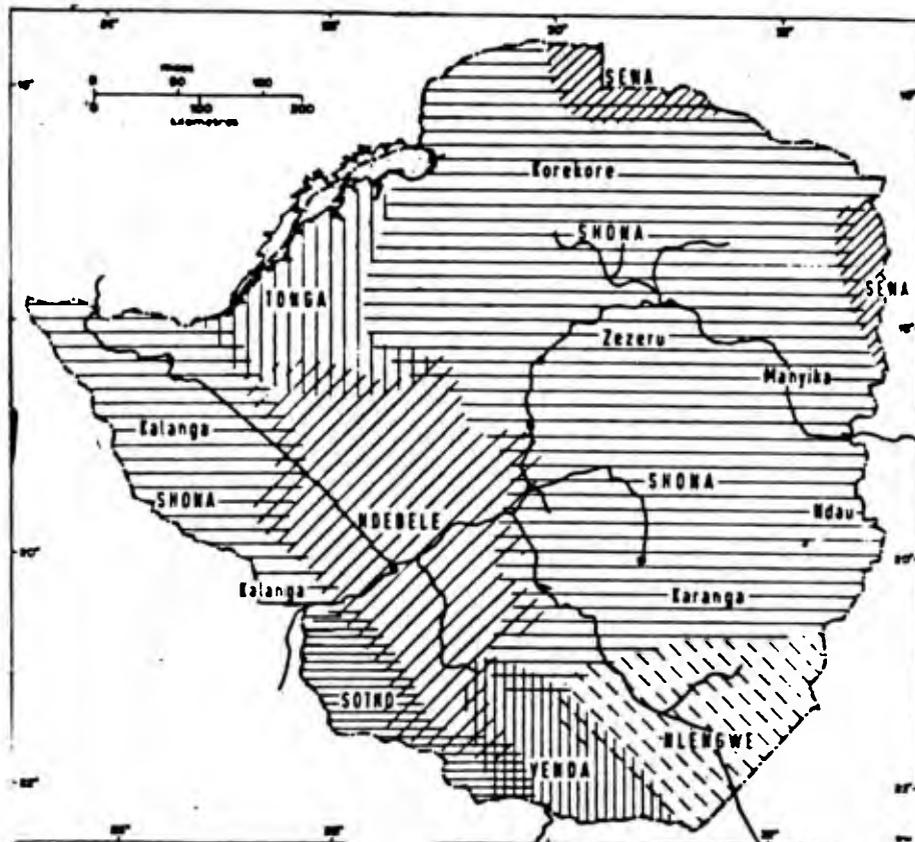
refer to the varieties spoken by the Zezuru in central Zimbabwe, the Korekore in the north; the Karanga in the south; the Manyika in the east; the Ndau in the south-west and the Kalanga in the west. Its origins can be traced to as far back as 1000 and 1200 AD (Mudenge 1974a; Bourdillon 1976). According to 16th century Portuguese records, the Shona are an offshoot of the Bantu speaking people who migrated from the north to settle in present-day Zimbabwe. Mudenge (op. cit.) hypothesises that around the 13th and 14th centuries, present-day Zimbabwe was dominated by an unknown chief who ruled over the Zimbabwean kingdom. He had control over the whole country until his kingdom began to disintegrate towards the end of the 15th century. At the same time as this kingdom was declining, the Mutapa kingdom, under chief Mutapa, rose to prominence. It flourished for two centuries until its decline at the end of the 19th century. It was replaced by the Rozvi kingdom which also disintegrated in the 1830s.

A distinctive feature of the tribes that constituted these kingdoms was their use of one language - Shona. Although there are phonological and lexical differences between Shona dialects, they are, according to Doke (1931a) "... local exemplifications of one language" (Ansre 9174: 379). Shona, according to the 1969 census, is spoken by 77% of the people in Zimbabwe. This percentage excludes Ndebele-speaking users of Shona who are found in the main town of Matabeleland in Bulawayo.

2.2.2 NDEBELE

The Zimbabwean Ndebele-speaking community consists largely of an offshoot of the South African Zulu tribe. Early in the 19th century, Mzlikazi, a Zulu general, clashed with his master, Shaka, the Zulu king. Fearing for his life, Mzlikazi gathered a group of warriors with whom he fled from the terror of

MAP I LANGUAGES OF ZIMBABWE



Shaka. He led his warriors toward the north, across the Limpopo River, until he reached present-day Bulawayo in 1837. He attacked and conquered the Shona tribes who lived in that area. After establishing himself as the King of the Ndebele kingdom, he forced the defeated Shona to learn Ndebele. It is the second major indigenous language spoken by 18% of the 7½ million Zimbabweans. It is a different language from Shona. Bullock (1950:122) observed that Ndebele is "... an entirely different language although the construction is not dissimilar (from Shona), both being agglutinative tongues ...". The fact that, generically, Ndebele differs from Shona led the researcher to exclude Ndebele-speaking student-teachers from his research sample (see sub-section 4.1.3; ii).

2.2.3 OTHER MAJOR INDIGENOUS LANGUAGES

Over and above the major languages described above, Zimbabwe has small enclaves that use what Ngara (op. cit.) describes as minor languages. A study of Map 1 shows these as Venda, spoken in the Gwanda area of Matabeleland; Sotho, in South-west Matabeleland; Hlengwe in the south, Tonga in the north-west Zambezi Valley area and Sena in the northern and eastern areas on the Zimbabwe-Mozambique border. These languages are used by small speech communities which are also proficient in and use either Shona or Ndebele for inter-tribal communication.

2.2.4 ENGLISH

According to the monthly Digest of Statistics (1977), English was at that time used as a native language by 273,000 people. As a result of emigration to South Africa after independence, this figure has gone down. Besides being used as a mother tongue by people of British and American origin in the country, English is also used by Indians and other small European communities for intra- and inter-communication purposes. According to Ngara (op. cit.) there are about 100,000 blacks who speak English fluently. Some black families have become bilingual to the extent that both English and Shona or Ndebele are used interchangeably in the home. (Bilingualism in Zimbabwe will be discussed in detail in sub-section 2.3). Although English is not included on the sociolinguistic map on Page 18, it is spoken in every region.

The co-existence of these languages in Zimbabwe gave rise to the emergence of a section of the black community that uses two or more languages in different situations and for different functions, that is, English for official purposes and Shona or Ndebele for non-official ones. (A detailed discussion on the functional differences between these languages is given in section 2.3 and

illustrated in table 3 and diagram 3). In certain situations these bilinguals do also use varieties or dialects of either Shona or Ndebele. A description of bilingualism as a general concept and as a linguistic feature that characterises Zimbabwe as a speech community is given below.

2.3 BILINGUALISM IN ZIMBABWE

Bilingualism, as a concept, is not easy to define. Numerous definitions have been given by a number of linguists but these have been heavily criticised and, in some cases, rejected. Some definitions can be grouped together under the term "classical definitions". These include Bloomfield (1933: 56) who defined bilingualism as the "speaker's native-like control of two languages"; Haugen's (1953: 7) definition which suggests that bilingualism is the ability to produce "complete meaningful utterances in the other language"; Diebold (1961: 111) on the other hand, suggests that bilingualism implies "contact with possible models in a second language and the ability to use these in the environment of the native language" and Mackey (1968: 55) says "We shall ... consider bilingualism as the alternative use of two or more languages by the same individual". Weinreich's definition (1953) is similar to Mackey's but he refers to the use of more than two languages suggesting that bilingualism is shorthand for the use of three or more languages.

These definitions presuppose that the bilingual lives in a community where two languages co-exist and that he can switch from one to the other when the need to do so arises. Romaine (1982: 13) described such definitions as 'unidirectional'. By this she meant that languages in a community vary along a "sociolinguistic dimension" or continuum; each differing from the other in the same way as English differs from French or Swahili or in the case of Zimbabwe, in the way English differs from Shona or Ndebele. Applied to

Zimbabwe, in a broad sense, unidirectional variation would mean switching from one regional dialect to the other as follows: from Zezuru to Ndau or from Ndau to Zezuru; from Karanga to Manyika or from Manyika to Karanga; from Korekore to Kalanga or from Kalanga to Korekore.

Unidirectional variation is acceptable as a form of bilingualism but the classical definitions given above have shortcomings that need pointing out. Some linguists do not accept the implications of the view that bilingualism is the ability to produce meaningful utterances in a given language. It is possible, they argue, to produce meaningful utterances in a foreign language but this does not guarantee one's ability to carry out an effective conversation in that language. For instance, the writer can produce a number of meaningful utterances in Chichewa but is unable to converse effectively with a Malawian who speaks Chichewa as his mother tongue. Beardsmore (1982: 7) calls this "a minimalist definition of bilingualism". He distinguishes it from the 'maximalist' definition which he quotes from Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1970). The latter describes a bilingual as one who is "capable of functioning equally well in all domains of activity and without any trace of the one language in his use of the other". Such a bilingual is said to be "ambilingual". Bilinguals who can handle two languages in this manner are difficult to find. In most second language situations, bilingual speech is phonologically and syntactically influenced by the mother tongue of the speakers. In the case of Zimbabwe, reference will be made below (Diagram 4) to such local varieties of English as Shona English, Karanga English and others. This is indicative of the traces of the mother tongue in the English used by bilinguals in different regions. It should be pointed out at this stage that the student-teachers whose language was analysed in this study are bilingual in the sense that, for them, English is a language they use

for a specified set of functions in the classroom. When the need to do so arises, they switch to their L₁, thereby demonstrating their bilingual tendencies (see Appendix M, lesson 7).

The other criticism that has been levelled against classical definitions of bilingualism is that they do not suggest a practical, achievable degree of proficiency that a speaker should attain in each language. We might refer to such degrees as acceptable levels of proficiency in listening, speaking, reading and writing. In view of the criticisms that have been levelled against the 'minimalist' and the 'maximalist' definitions, the acceptable levels suggested here should be defined in terms of the communicative effectiveness of the bilingual's performance in each skills area. Hence the emphasis on the communicative effectiveness of student-teachers language in Chapter six.

In contrast to the classical definitions of bilingualism and the concept of unidirectional variation, a different definition of bilingualism has been proposed by some sociolinguists. These include, among others, Trudgill (1974a) whose work was based in Norwich; MacCauley (1977) in Glasgow and Millroy and Margrain (1978) in Belfast. Calling themselves Post-Labovians, they attempted to use Labov's (1966) 'sociolinguistic theory' which he applied to New York City to study the social 'stratification of English' in English-speaking communities. Studies by Trudgill and others revealed that within one language, there are varieties which speakers use in different settings. This led them to the conclusion that there are a number of 'sub-speech communities' in what appears to be a fairly homogenous speech community. This suggests that switching from a 'main stream language' to a 'sub-speech' variety is a linguistic behaviour identical to that revealed by a

'traditional bilingual' who switches from one language to the other. Post-Labovian linguists refer to this form of code switching (from the mainstream language to a sub-speech variety) as bimodal "distribution of language use". Bimodality of language use in this sense refers to functional variations made by speakers in their use of one language.

The notion of functional variation leads to a discussion on bilingual situations in which languages or varieties of one language are functionally varied by one speaker. Ferguson (1972) used the term 'diglossia' to refer to this phenomenon. His theory of diglossia was conceived in the context of such classical languages as Greek and Arabic which utilise vernacular and classical languages that are functionally differentiated. He used the term 'High variety' (H) to refer to a set of functions in the domains of religion, education and other formal situations. It is a 'superposed variety' that is acquired through formal instruction. The 'Low variety' (L) was used to refer to a set of functions in the domains of family, friendly circles and other informal situations. The 'L' variety corresponds to a regional dialect or vernacular which speakers acquire and use as their mother tongue. In Greece 'Katharevousa' is used as the 'H' form and 'Dimotiki' as the 'L' form.

Linguists refer to the Greek and Arabic diglossic situations as 'classic'. In fact, the notion of classical diglossia cannot be transferred to situations where two different languages instead of two different varieties of the same language are functionally differentiated. In a number of multilingual or bilingual societies, two distinct languages are functionally differentiated in the same way as 'Katharevousa' and 'Dimotiki' are differentiated in Greece. This observation calls for a different definition of diglossia, a definition broad enough to include linguistic communities that use different languages

for different functions into the category of diglossic communities. According to Fishman (1972) , Gumperz (1961, 1962, 1964a, 1964b, 1966) redefined diglossia claiming that it does not only exist in societies that use vernacular or classical varieties "but also in societies which employ separate dialects, registers or functionally differentiated language varieties of whatever kind" (Fishman, op. cit. :74). Gumperz's definition of diglossia is applicable to societies like Zimbabwe where English is accorded different functions from Shona, Ndebele and other minor languages. There is, however, a form of diglossia in Zimbabwe which is identical to Ferguson's classical diglossia. One might refer to it as 'regional diglossia'. It functions as follows: standard Shona is used as an H form in regions where its dialects such as Ndau or Karanga are in common use. When a government official, say an Agricultural Extension Officer, addresses a group of peasant farmers in Manicaland, he can use Shona but when he participates in their group discussions, he switches to Manyika, the local dialect of the farmers. We can illustrate this phenomenon as follows:

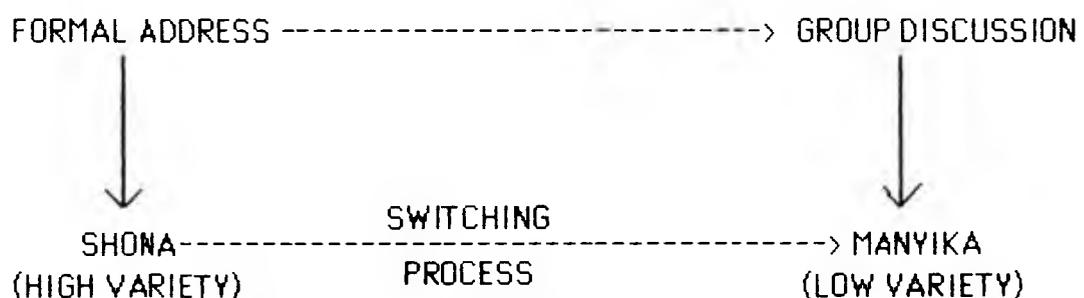


Diagram 2 A Bilingual/Diglossic Speech Event

This is a limited form of bilingualism with diglossia. It is not easy to define since in the 'formal address', speakers can use both Shona and Manyika linguistic forms. The other problem is that with the exception of some phonological and lexical differences, Shona and Manyika are syntactically identical.

Bilingualism with diglossia is a term that Fishman used in 1972. He claimed that for a country to be considered bilingual-diglossic, the languages or varieties involved should be spread and spoken 'through the entire nation'. One is inclined to disagree with Fishman on this issue and to suggest that it is difficult to make a general statement about bilingual/diglossic communities. In certain societies, as Whiteley (1972: 174) observed in Kenya, bilingualism with diglossia obtains in rural areas and, in urban areas there is a clear "complementarity of work language where status differences are involved. Here, while English is retained as H, Swahili is used as L".

This situation is similar to what one would find in Zimbabwe. In the rural areas there are many people who use English as H and Shona or Ndebele as L. In towns, there are clear cases of the complementary functions that Whiteley refers to. If we adopt Whiteley's (op. cit.) rather than Fishman's (op. cit.) view of a bilingual/diglossic community, we arrive at the conclusion that Zimbabwe is both bilingual and diglossic.

Having said that, we need to illustrate and to describe the extent to which English and Shona/Ndebele are functionally differentiated. The table on p.26 is based on Strevens's (op. cit.: 66) list of 'differentiating parameters' and Ngora's (op. cit.) list of 'language functions'.

Out of the twenty-one functional domains indicated in Table 3, page 26, English is used in all of them, and Shona and Ndebele, in only eight. We can conclude from this evidence that English has a higher functional status than both Shona and Ndebele. The functions accorded to English do not only give it a high status but make it the official language of the country. On the other hand, Shona and Ndebele are used as regional languages. In future they will

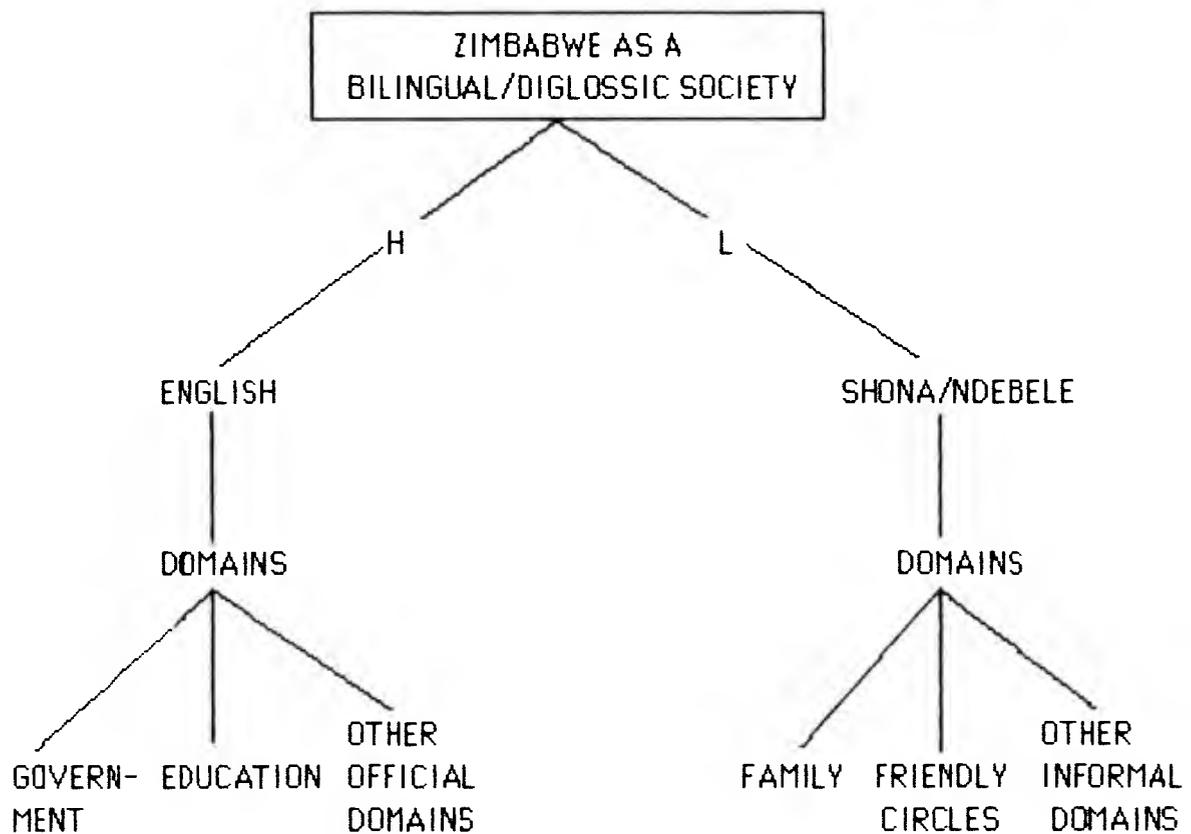
also be used as media of instruction in grades 1 to 3 in the regions where they are spoken. And, currently they are used for local administration and publicity directed towards those who can neither speak nor read English. We can use a tree diagram to illustrate the bilingual/diglossic status of English vis-a-vis English and Shona/Ndebele (Diagram 3 on Page 27).

The use of English by black Zimbabweans has given rise to a number of local varieties that differ from region to region depending on the phonological system of the indigenous language spoken in the area.

TABLE 3 FUNCTIONAL DIFFERENTIATION OF LANGUAGES IN ZIMBABWE

DOMAIN	ENGLISH	SHONA	NDEBELE
Public Administration	X	-	-
Local Administration	X	X	X
Public Education	X	-	-
Science and Technology	X	-	-
International News	X	-	-
Entertainment	X	X	X
Publicity	X	X	X
Literature	X	X	X
The Law Courts	X	-	-
Official Documents	X	-	-
Parliament	X	-	-
Lingua Franca (i.e. between members from different speech communities)	X	-	-
International Communication	X	-	-
Radio	X	X	X
Religious Worship	X	X	X
Medium of Instruction			
- in Lower Grades	X	-	-
- in Upper Primary Grades	X	-	-
- in Secondary School	X	-	-
- in Technical Colleges	X	-	-
- in University	X	-	-
Taught as a School Subject	X	X	X

Diagram 3: Diglossia with Bilingualism in Zimbabwe



Such variation also depends on the level of education of the speakers; their exposure to L_1 and L_2 language input and their motivation to become efficient in the use of the target language.

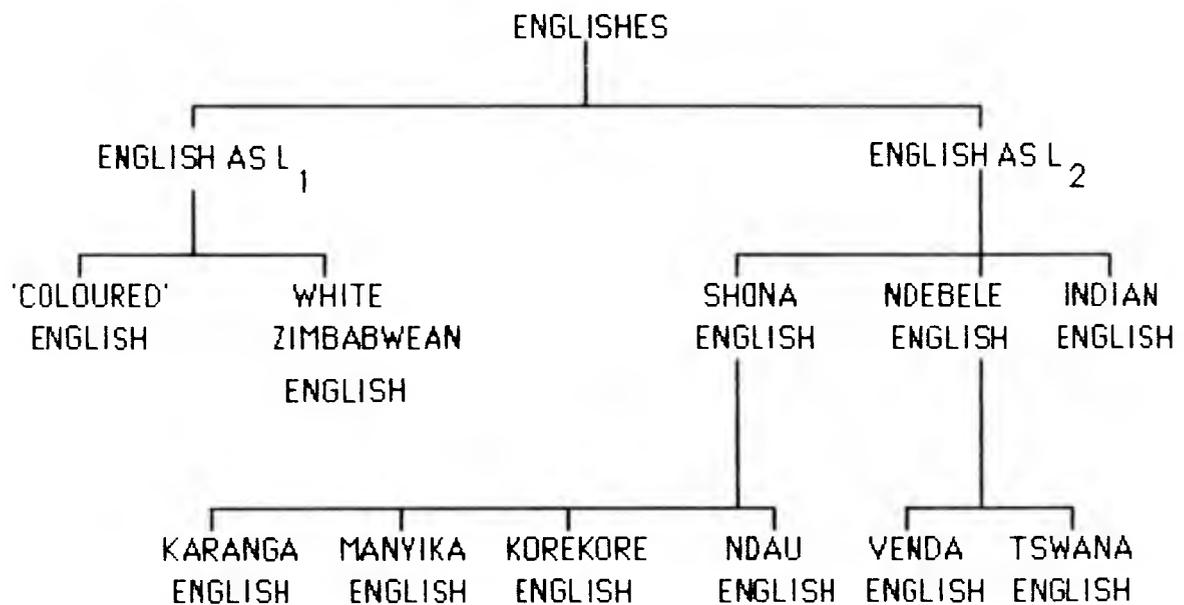
The preceding discussion focuses on the functional differentiation of the major languages spoken in Zimbabwe. In the section that follows, we focus on a brief description of the types of local varieties of English presumed to obtain in Zimbabwe and the probable implications of these in the development of student teachers' interlanguage.

2.4 LOCAL FORMS OF ENGLISH IN ZIMBABWE

The forms of English spoken by black Zimbabweans constitute local varieties marked by pronunciation and intonation patterns that differ from those of the

variety spoken by white Zimbabweans. 'Shona' and 'Ndebele' English are umbrella terms we can use to refer to the two major local varieties of English. They have sub-varieties that can be distinguished from each other by the speakers' accents. Invariably, speakers transfer the accents of their regional L_1 dialects to their L_2 speech. It is common among educated blacks in Zimbabwe to refer to an accent as 'Manyika English', 'Shona English' or 'Ndebele English'. Similarly, 'Indian' or 'Coloured' English varieties are easy to identify. Coloured English is spoken as a first language by people of mixed parentage. Diagram 3 below shows the major local forms of English in Zimbabwe.

Diagram 4: LFEs in Zimbabwe



It should be pointed out that these LFEs can be identified on the basis of their phonological differences. Shona and Ndebele varieties comprise different 'regional dialects' of what may be called a nascent Zimbabwean local variety of English. Quirk et al (1985: 17) observed similar dialects in the British

Isles. They claim that these dialects "seem to be realised predominantly in phonology" and that speakers

recognise a different dialect from a speaker's pronunciation or accent before (they) notice that the vocabulary (or lexicon) is also distinctive. Grammatical variation tends to be less extensive and less obtrusive.

(Quirk et al op. cit.: 17)

We also observe that in Diagram 4, Shona has more sub-varieties than any other language. If Zimbabwe were to choose one indigenous language as its national official language, Shona would be the best candidate since it is the language of the majority and is also used by some speakers of other minor languages. In fact, the Minister of Education in Zimbabwe expressed such a desire when in the 'foreword' to a book by Ngara (1982) "Bilingualism, Language Contact and Planning" he said,

The English that we are going to have in this country is Zimbabwean English. Dr. Ngara's book alerts us to the problems we should expect in this process of domesticating the English language.

(Mutumbuka 1982; in Ngara op. cit.: ix)

In this statement the minister expressed the desire to adopt an "endo-normative" model for teaching English as opposed to an "exo-normative" one. Endo-normative and exo-normative models are synonymous with the terms that Kloss (1966) used to refer to two types of language policies. The first one, the endo-normative model, adopts a local variety of English or an indigenous language as the official national language which may also be adopted as the medium of instruction in schools. Kloss (op. cit.) called this type of policy "endoglossic". The second type, the exo-normative adopts a non-indigenous language as the national official language which, for practical purposes, also becomes the medium of instruction in schools. According to

Kloss (op. cit.) such a policy is "exoglossic". It would, however, not be proper to refer to the use of English in Zimbabwe as being either endo- or exoglossic since, although English is not the mother tongue of the indigenous population, it is spoken by white Zimbabweans as a mother tongue. This includes Zimbabwean 'coloureds' and a small number of 'blacks' who were born outside the country and who also use it as their first language (see Ngara 1982). For this reason it is appropriate to refer to it as an "endo-exoglossic" policy. Bell (1976) referring to Kloss (1966) describes an "endo-exoglossic" policy as one that is based on a language that was historically imposed on a people (exoglossic) and which is used as a mother tongue by a small section of the indigenous population (endoglossic).

When a country adopts an "exoglossic" or "endo-exoglossic" policy based on a local variety spoken by the majority of the indigenous population, problems related to the "formal description", "typology" and educational suitability of that variety may arise (Strevens 1980). Typological problems are related to the developmental stage of the local variety; that is, whether it is a "pidgin" or a "creole" or whether it is a phase in the development of an interlanguage. If it has not been creolised or fossilized sufficiently to be recognised as a local variety, it becomes difficult to pinpoint its phonological and syntactical features since it would still be in a state of flux. If it has been creolised or has developed into a recognisable local variety the problem that might arise is that such a variety may not be deemed suitable as a model for instruction. We can, however, overcome this problem by identifying and using the lectal variety used by the indigenous educated people, that is, the "acrolect". Unlike the "basilect" used by the less educated or less proficient L₂ speakers, and the "mesolect" which is used by the averagely proficient speakers, the "acrolect" tends to have the highest prestige in L₂ situations and it

approximates most closely to the target language. An acrolect may be more suitable for use as a teaching model than a basilect or a mesolect since the latter two varieties do not frequently develop sufficiently to function as media of instruction or to communicate scientific concepts. The problem of "description" is probably the most significant. A Zimbabwean local variety such as Shona English would need a comprehensive description of its 'essential or differential features', that is, features that characterise it as a language in its own right, and those that distinguish it from native-spoken English (Strevens *op. cit.*: 64). Such a description would provide useful information that syllabus designers, textbook writers and teachers need in order to teach the local variety.

Some linguists do, however, argue that local forms of English need not be described before they are used as teaching models. They claim that what is needed in a second language situation is an approach that distinguishes between 'productive' and 'receptive' L₂ skills. Learners should be able to understand a wide variety of forms of English such as RP, American English, Nigerian English and Indian English. The ability to understand these will enable them to communicate with as many people as possible. Their productive skills, that is, the manner in which they speak and the sentence structures they use will evolve from the input provided by their teachers in the classroom and from other forms of input such as T.V. and the radio. It is further argued that to apply a single model such as RP in situations where learners are exposed to non-RP models through the radio and T.V. will not produce the desired results.

The type of model that influences learners' performance in such situations is what Norrish (1976) in a discussion on the development of a model for teaching English in Ghana called an 'eclectic model'; that is, a model that evolves from a combination of a variety of Englishes such as RP, American English and Zimbabwean English. The adoption of an eclectic model does not suggest that teachers should not use RP or American English as a model to teach certain features of English such as pronunciation or intonation. Instead, it acknowledges the influence of other sociolinguistic factors that intrude into the learning process. The influence of these factors greatly affects the learners' linguistic performance. Arguing in favour of the 'eclectic model', Norrish (1967) observes that in the past, RP models were used in situations that were dominated by native speaker teachers of English. This was possible in colonial days because there were few schools and education was offered to only a small proportion of black pupils. After attaining political independence, the number of schools in these countries increased and education was made accessible to a large number of pupils. The result of this increase is that qualified teachers who can use an RP model or something like it are very few. The problem is compounded by the fact that the majority of teachers of English and other subjects that are taught in English are non-native speakers of English. This is illustrated by the number of L₁ and L₂ teachers working in colleges of education in Zimbabwe as shown in Table 4 on Page 34. We observe from this table that the total number of lecturers who speak English as a first language and who teach it in the colleges is 12 out of 35, that is, about 34.3% of the staff in all the English departments. The total of all L₁ users of English in all the colleges is 43 out of 340, that is, about 11.2% of the staff of all colleges. The number of non-native users of English in the colleges is 340 out of 383 lecturers (about 88.8% of the staff members in all the colleges). It is clear from these figures

members in all the colleges). It is clear from these figures that student-teachers in these colleges are more exposed to and learn English more from non-native than from native users of English. In other words, they are more exposed to a non-native variety of English – an interlanguage spoken by their non-native lecturers – than they are to the native model spoken by their native English lecturers.

Because student-teachers learn and develop their second language communicative competence in colleges and, because they usually have very little contacts with native English speakers outside the college, we can safely assume that the bulk of the spoken language input they receive in the target language is from non-native speakers. Their use of English outside the lecture room is usually between them and the other students or regular L₂ teachers. So, in such situations, interactive discourse in the target language is carried out between participants who are both non-native speakers (NNS_s) of English. Because of the nature of such input, the researcher assumed that their classroom language comprises interlanguage structures that are formally and functionally idiosyncratic. Hence, the purpose of this study – to analyse and describe such features.

Having discussed the general sociolinguistic context in Zimbabwe; the functional differentiation between the major languages and the L₂ varieties associated with these, we need to proceed to look more closely at the role and status of English in the country. The discussion that follows in the next sections underscores why the use of English by student-teachers in Zimbabwe deserves the careful study the researcher has accorded it.

TABLE 4 COMPARISON OF L1 AND L2 MEMBERS OF STAFF IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE (1985)

ENGLISH DEPARTMENT		STAFF AS A WHOLE									
College	Total no of Lecturers	L1	L2	% of L1 Lecturers	% of L2 Lecturers	Total no of Lecturers	L1	L2	% of L1 Lecturers	% of L2 Lecturers	
MKOBA	2	1	1	50%	50%	52	1	51	1.9%	98.1%	
MORGENSTER	3	0	3	0%	100%	20	0	20	0%	100%	
MUTARE	3	1	2	33.35%	66.6%	34	2	27	20.6%	79.4%	
UCE	2	1	1	50%	50%	47	2	45	4.3%	95.7%	
BONDOLFI	4	1	3	25%	75%	25	2	23	8%	92%	
NYADIRE	3	1	2	33.3%	66.6%	16	4	12	25%	75%	
SEKE	4	1	3	25%	75%	46	2	44	4.3%	95.7%	
GWERU	6	3	3	50%	50%	57	7	50	12.3%	87.7%	
BELEVEDERE	3	0	3	0%	100%	48	6	42	12.5%	87.5%	
HILLSIDE	5	3	2	60%	40%	38	12	26	31.6%	68.4%	
TOTAL	35	12	23	34.3%	65.7%	383	43	340	11.2%	87.7%	

2.5 THE ROLE AND STATUS OF ENGLISH IN ZIMBABWE

2.5.1 NATIONAL FUNCTIONS

The choice of a national official language reflects the political and social expectations of a society. It depends on what Strevens (1980: 11) called "the public will". By this he meant the desire by members of a society to achieve certain ends through the language chosen. For instance, Tanzania's choice of Swahili as a national official language reflects its desire to implement socialist socio-economic and political principles. To achieve this goal in a society where the majority do not speak English, Tanzania chose Swahili as her national language, the language spoken by the majority of the indigenous population. On the other hand, Kenya, which chose a capitalist approach to its socio-political and economic development chose English. Although Zimbabwe has declared its intention to adopt a socialist socio-political and economic ideology, she has not, like Tanzania, chosen an indigenous language as its national official language. Instead, she has continued to use English as the national official language.

Zimbabweans regard this as a pragmatic rather than an ideological choice. They admit that although they have chosen to follow a socialist ideology, they have at the same time decided to maintain a strong private (capitalist) industrial sector which depends heavily on the use of English for both intra- and international communication. They also recognise the fact that Zimbabwe inherited a sophisticated infrastructure in public and private sector administration which, as Fishman (1968) points out, has compelled a number of new African states to use English or French as national official languages. The main reason for such a choice is that such languages have a wider communication potential. The extent to which this has influenced Zimbabwe's choice of a national official language will be discussed in the section that follows.

2.5.2 LANGUAGE POLICY IN ZIMBABWE

Zimbabwe's language policy has essentially remained the same as the one that operated before independence. English still functions as the national official language in government departments, law courts and for international communication. Recently, Shona and Ndebele have been accepted for use in Parliament but the general policy recognises English as the national official language.

There is as yet no document that outlines the language policy of Zimbabwe. The fact that the Government has not produced one suggests that they would like the 'colonial' language policy to continue operating. Such a policy allows English to function as the national official language and Shona and Ndebele to function as languages for intra-tribal communication.

There are indications that, in future, the three languages - English, Shona and Ndebele - will be taught in all the schools. When suggesting this, the Minister of Education announced, in the press (The Herald, 7/7/82) that "All Zimbabweans should aim to be trilingual" in order to promote inter-racial cooperation and understanding. There are also indications that in future the two major indigenous languages will be used as media of instruction from grade one to grade three in the regions where they are used as L₁. English will, in that case, be used as a medium of instruction from grade four up to university level. Such a language policy will not, in fact, introduce any serious changes in the 'colonial' language policy that is currently in operation. The question is 'Why has Zimbabwe not changed the language policy imposed on it by its colonial masters?'

There are two reasons why this has been the case. Fishman (1968) refers to these reasons or factors as 'nationalistic' and 'nationistic'. The nationalistic

role of English in a multilingual state like Zimbabwe serves to unite tribal groups that speak different languages. It was pointed out above that in Zimbabwe, there are six different languages plus five Shona dialects. If one of the indigenous languages, say Shona, were chosen as the national official language, the other tribal groups would feel disadvantaged since Shona speakers would find it easy to get public service jobs that require a knowledge of and proficiency in the national language. English is neutral in the sense that it is a second language for everyone. In almost every independent Anglophone African State, English has been chosen as the national official language. Referring to Nigeria, Afolayan (1976) praised the unifying role of English. He wrote:

English, therefore, by its neutrality, recommends itself as the only choice available for adoption as a national language. No one ethnic group can feel cheated through its use as it naturally would if the language of another ethnic group was adopted.

(Afolayan, op. cit.: 14)

The same can be said about Zimbabwe where the Ndebele speaking community would strongly resist moves to make Shona the national language. It is for this reason that the use of English in Zimbabwe is regarded as a means whereby inter-tribal conflicts can be reduced. Current Ndebele-Shona relationships in the country can best be described as volatile. Any move to give Shona a higher status than Ndebele can result in serious inter-tribal conflict. When, for instance, some politicians mooted the idea of replacing English with Shona and Ndebele, some people advised that caution should be exercised on the issue. In his editorial comment, the editor of the Sunday Mail (October 19, 1980) observed that:

While greater use will be made of African languages, both written and spoken in this country, it is to be hoped that any temptation to have more than one 'official' language (other than) English will be resisted.

It is, amongst other reasons, such warnings as these that led Zimbabwe to adopt English as a national official language.

The use of English also serves a nationistic function. This refers to the country's efficient handling of its affairs in government, education, commerce and external affairs. Whiteley (1974) notes that such institutions are legacies of the colonial period which new independent African states take over and maintain. To ensure continuity and efficiency, English is used in these institutions. He also observes that the reasons behind the choice of English as a national official language seem to be more 'nationistic' than 'nationalistic'.

The nationistic functions of English are further necessitated by the fact that most of the economic institutions in Zimbabwe are legacies of British and American multinational consortiums. They have therefore, a strong tradition of conducting their business in English; and, they depend on it for efficient organisation, internal and external communication. It is feared that a sudden change in the national language policy might bring about chaos in the administration of these institutions or that such a policy might be rejected by those native English speakers who own and manage some of these institutions.

Despite these facts about the value of the adoption of English as a national official language in multi-lingual Zimbabwe, there are some people who

strongly feel that the functions reserved for English should be taken over by Shona and Ndebele in the regions where these indigenous languages are spoken. However, the position of the government with regards to this issue seems clear: English should be accepted in some socio-economic and politico-cultural institutions. This point was made clear by the Minister of Education when he stressed the need to use English in a variety of domains:

On a broader basis, the relevance of teaching English must be linked to the economic, social, political and cultural life of Zimbabweans.

(The Herald, August 25, 1982)

The inclusion of social and cultural domains in the minister's statement illustrates the wide range of functions accorded to English in the country. We should not however misconstrue this statement to mean that English should be used in every speech domain but that, after differentiating its functions from those of the indigenous languages, it should be effectively used in those domains which accept it as a medium of communication. This ensures that its co-existence with and relationship to the indigenous languages develop into a stable bilingual/diglossic speech community in which their functions are complementary.

Education is one of the domains in which English has been widely accepted as a means of communication and instruction in Zimbabwe. In the section that follows, our discussion will focus on the role and importance of English in the education system from grade one (the first year at school) up to University level.

2.5.3 THE ROLE OF ENGLISH IN THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN ZIMBABWE

English is the medium of instruction in all educational institutions in Zimbabwe (see Appendix B). In the primary school, all subjects except Shona and Ndebele are taught in English from the first year of schooling (grade 1) up to grade 7. The use of English as a medium of instruction in all the African primary schools grades started in the early 1960s at Hope Fountain Mission. There, an experiment in the use of English as a medium of teaching was carried out and reported to be 'effective'. It was believed such an approach would ensure high oral proficiency in the second language. Its use in the first three grades was supported by the Judges Report (1962) which recommended that English should be used in the teaching of other subjects. This recommendation has been criticised for ignoring the fact that learners in the first three grades need to master basic concepts in the subjects they learn at school. Misconceptions at these grade levels are likely to persist throughout the learners' school career and they may inhibit further learning. This has led some educationists to claim that teaching through the medium of learners' L₁ is the best language policy in the early grades. In Zimbabwe, some educationists like Mukanganwi (1980) and Ngara (1982) oppose the implications of the Hope Fountain experiment on the grounds that it deprives the learner of the:

opportunity to learn the basic concepts in his own language and to give him freedom to express himself without the inhibitions imposed by insufficient mastery of the medium of instruction.

(Ngara op. cit.: 124)

the researcher's observations in interactional discourse in L₂ classrooms support Ngara's view. He has observed that in these grades, self-expression and communicative interaction is more effective through the medium of L₁

than it is through an L₂ which learners, at these grade levels, have not sufficiently mastered to communicate their ideas. For similar reasons, Peren and Holloway (1965: 19 footnote 1) (quoted by Ngara 1982: 126) recommend - on the basis of the findings of the British Advisory Committee on Colonial Education - that in order to avoid a sudden change-over from L₁ to L₂ as a medium of classroom interaction and teaching, there is need to teach English as a subject for at least three years before it is used as a medium of instruction. Despite this recommendation, the then Ministry of Education in Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe) continued to implement the Hope Fountain policy. This policy was upheld by the Ministry of Education of the Zimbabwe government which came to power in 1980 when the country became an independent African state. However, plans to change the policy are underway. The Ministry of Education has drawn up plans to use Shona and Ndebele as media of instruction in the first three years of schooling and to teach English as a subject in those grades. From grade 4, English would be used as a medium of instruction and Shona and Ndebele, taught as subjects, (Chanakira, 1985).

Primary education in Zimbabwe covers seven years. At the end of the seventh year, pupils write a public examination in English and Mathematics. Until 1981, no pupil could be admitted into the secondary school (Form 1) unless he/she had passed English and Mathematics in the grade seven examination with at least a division four pass or better in both subjects. Those who failed to meet these entry requirements could be enrolled in 'Junior Secondary Schools' or drop out of the school system altogether. Some of those who dropped out could, however, study privately under the tuition of a correspondence college. After 1981, pupils with low grade seven passes were

admitted into 'Rural Secondary Schools'. At this point, a description of primary and secondary school categories in Zimbabwe should be given to clarify the preceding discussion and other issues that will be raised in succeeding chapters.

Primary school categories

There are five categories of primary schools in Zimbabwe:

(i) Government urban schools (multi-racial) or former Group A schools

Before independence, these schools admitted European children only. When the Land Tenure Act (a law which differentiated African and European residential areas) was abolished after independence, black pupils were admitted into these schools. They are the best primary schools in the country. They are well equipped and well staffed. Enrolment figures range from 30 to 45 in each class.

(ii) Government urban schools or former Group B schools

These are situated in black urban residential areas. They are less well equipped and staffed than Group A schools. Enrolment figures are high, ranging from 50 to 60 in a single class. "Double sessioning" was introduced in these schools to accommodate the large numbers of pupils. The system enables two classes to use one classroom: one in the morning and the other in the afternoon.

(iii) Private schools

These are mainly rural boarding or day schools run by church organisations. They are grant-aided by the government to cover teachers' salaries. Enrolment figures are reasonable by Zimbabwean standards, ranging from 45 to 50 per class but are higher in private day schools which have been compelled to introduce double sessioning.

(iv) Rural primary schools

These are run by local authorities in rural areas. They are government aided. Most of them are badly equipped and poorly staffed. Enrolment figures are very high; as in government Group B schools, they range from 50 to 60 pupils in each class.

Independent private schools

These are very few in number. They are run by 'Boards of Governors' which are not responsible to the Minister of Education except in professional matters. They charge very high fees but are well equipped and well staffed. Enrolment figures are controlled by "Boards of Governors". Enrolments range from 25 to 30 pupils per class.

At the end of the 1983 academic year, total enrolments in these schools were as shown in Table 5 below.

SCHOOL CATEGORY	NO. OF SCHOOLS	TOTAL ENROLMENT GRADE 1 - 7
Government Urban or Group A	112	39,424
Government Urban or Group B	156	202,648
Private Schools plus - Rural Primary Schools - Independent Schools	3,691	1,802,415
TOTAL	3,959	2,044,487

(From the Annual Report of the
Secretary for Education 1983)

TABLE 5 PRIMARY SCHOOL ENROLMENT FIGURES

Secondary school categories

There are six secondary school categories in Zimbabwe although only three of these are mentioned in the Secretary's report of 1983. The six categories identified by the researcher are as follows:

(i) Government urban day secondary schools or Group A secondary schools

Before independence, these schools admitted European children only. They are well equipped and well staffed. Enrolment figures are not very high. Students in these schools are prepared for the ordinary and advanced level examinations of the Associated Examining Board (U.K.). Examination success records for African students in these schools have been poor. Because of that, African parents prefer sending their children to boarding missionary or private schools rather than to government urban day schools.

(ii) Government urban Group B secondary schools

These are situated in black residential areas. They are reasonably well equipped but enrolments are very high. Double sessioning has been introduced in some schools. Students are prepared for the Cambridge School Certificate and the Cambridge Higher School Certificate Examinations (U.K.). Examination pass records have also gone down in some of the schools in this category.

(iii) Government boarding African secondary schools

There are only two such schools in Zimbabwe. They have had excellent Examination pass records at both 'O' and 'A' levels. Places in these schools are offered on a competitive basis. The schools are very well equipped and staffed by highly trained teachers. About 40% of African students entering the University are from these two schools.

(iv) Private boarding secondary schools

These are scattered all over the country in both rural and urban areas. They are run by missionary organisations and are grant-aided by the government. Admission into these schools is on a competitive basis. They have a reputation for producing good results. Teachers in these schools include British, American and Canadian trained missionaries as well as local highly trained ones.

(v) Independent private secondary schools

These are financed and run by private companies or groups of parents such as white farming communities. They are comparable to the English Grammar Schools. They charge very high fees. As a result, very few African pupils are enrolled in these schools. To be admitted, applicants should obtain high grades in English and Mathematics in the grade 7 examination. Results at 'O' and 'A' levels in these schools are generally good.

(vii) Junior secondary schools (F₂)

This secondary school category was abolished in 1980. It is mentioned in this study because some of the students who attended these schools are training as teachers in some colleges of education.

Students who were admitted into F₂ secondary schools were those who had failed to qualify to get into the F₁ schools, that is, secondary schools that prepared students for the Cambridge School Certificate or the AEB examinations. F₂ secondary schools put emphasis on such practical subjects as Building, Metalwork, Woodwork, Agriculture and Home Economics. Academic subjects such as English, Mathematics, Social Studies and Commerce were also offered. The content of the academic subjects was less

rigorous than that of subjects offered in F₁ secondary schools. The course extended over four years from grade 8 to grade 11. At the end of grade 11, students wrote a public examination set by the Rhodesian Ministry of Education.

At the end of 1983, enrolment figures in secondary schools were as follows:

CATEGORY	NO. OF SCHOOLS	TOTAL ENROLMENT FORM 1 TO FORM 7
Government Group A Schools	34	26,752
Government Group B Schools	110	88,530
Private Boarding Secondary Schools plus Rural Secondary Schools and Independent Public Schools	646	201,106
TOTAL	790	316,388

TABLE 6 SECONDARY SCHOOL ENROLMENT FIGURES (FROM SECRETARY'S
REPORT 1983)

Students enrolled in 1984 in all secondary schools will write the Cambridge School Certificate and the Cambridge High School Certificate Examinations from 1987. The University of Cambridge Examinations Syndicate is assisting the Ministry of Education in its efforts to localise syllabuses and to set up the Zimbabwe Examination Board.

Differences between former Group A and Group B schools are fast disappearing. In fact, the terms 'Group A' and 'Group B' are used to refer to the past rather than to the present situation.

Out of the six secondary school categories described above, (iii), (iv), and (v) are the most popular. Since category (v) schools charge very high fees, very few blacks aspire to get admission to these. To be admitted into (iii) and (iv) school categories, applicants are required to have obtained high pass grades in the grade 7 examination. These schools also administer entrance examinations of their own and in certain cases an applicant's spoken English is assessed before he/she can be offered a place. Thousands of applicants seek places in these schools but only a few are selected.

After two years of secondary schooling, students write a public examination set by the Ministry of Education – the Zimbabwe Junior Certificate (ZJC). In order to get a full certificate, they are required to pass a minimum of five subjects including English. To secure a place in Form three in (iii) and (iv) school categories, students need to have obtained at least 6 passes at pass grades 1, 2 and 3 in English and any other five subjects. At the end of the fourth year of secondary schooling they write the AEB or the Cambridge examinations as described above.

Requirments for entry into 'A' level schools are slightly different. Potential Arts students are required to have passed at least 5 'O' level subjects including English. Science students can be admitted without English but they are required to follow a General English Proficiency course. At the end of the sixth year, they write a General English Language Examination Paper set by the Cambridge Examinations Board (U.K.).

The University of Zimbabwe

University studies demand high proficiency in English, Dickinson (1980) carried out a study to investigate problems encountered by Shona speaking students at the University of Zimbabwe. He discovered that language

problems, especially during lectures and seminars, were one of the problems Shona-speaking students encountered. In 1981, many undergraduate students failed their final examinations. A committee of enquiry was set up by the vice-chancellor to investigate the possible causes of failure. Language problems, amongst other factors, were cited as having contributed towards the high failure rate.

As a result of these findings, it was decided to strengthen the activities of the English Language Unit (ELU) in the Department of Linguistics. The functions of the ELU can be summarised as follows:

- (i) In the first week of the first term, all undergraduate students entering the university write an English Language proficiency test. Those who pass the test are exempted from attending remedial English proficiency tutorials.
- (ii) It organises tutorial programmes for those who fail the test and offers remedial tutorials for one year. The focus of the lectures is on written, spoken, listening and reading skills.
- (iii) Besides these functions, the ELU also provides tuition to students from different faculties and departments who need help in the preparation and writing of course essays.

Polytechnical Colleges

These offer a variety of courses ranging from metalwork to academic 'O' and 'A' level courses. Entry requirements differ depending on the course an applicant wishes to follow. However, a pass in English is a major requirement for entry into the polytechnics. To get a full certificate in certain courses such as Management Studies, a pass in 'functional English' is compulsory.

Teacher training

Students who obtain five 'O' level passes can opt to train as primary or secondary school teachers. The latter specialise in teaching Forms one and two.

In 1982, the Minister of Education changed the qualifications for entry into colleges of education. Previously, only students with five 'O' level passes at grade C or above, including English, could be admitted. After 1982, entry qualifications were changed to five 'O' level passes at grade C or better, including a language, that is, either English, Shona, or Ndebele. The implication of this change is that students who fail English but pass Shona or Ndebele at 'O' level can train as teachers. This move has been opposed by the university and other college lecturers who argue that a pass in English should be made a necessary condition for admission into colleges of education. They also contend that:

- (i) since English is the national official language and, since it is the medium of instruction in the whole education system, potential teachers should prove, beyond doubt, that they can use it competently;
- (ii) unless teachers' competence in the medium of instruction is high, students' performance in it and learning through it are likely to be negatively affected. These arguments partly influenced the research aims stated in Chapter one.

Studies on the teachers' levels of proficiency in English in Zimbabwe have revealed that their spoken language is weak. Gordon (1961: 9) observes that the use of English by teachers in Zimbabwe needed improvement. She claimed that "of first importance, ... is the teacher's own command of spoken English, and this, on the whole, is not good". In a separate study, Hofman (1974: 42) re-emphasised the point when he wrote:

English proficiency, in particular, and language performance, in general, are essential elements of educational development in the African primary school. The Ministry is well advised to re-examine all relevant factors such as teacher-training, reading materials ... and classroom methods in order to improve the level of achievement.

Teacher training programmes need to emphasise what Strevens (1980: 51) called 'Language Awareness'. He believes this can be achieved by exposing teachers and student-teachers to English language courses that are "at one and the same time a teaching text for both foreign and native English speaking students, a descriptive grammar of present-day English". He distinguishes this type of course from the traditional literature courses.

English language courses offered in colleges of education in Zimbabwe emphasise the study of literature although recently, through the advice of the researcher in his capacity as a member of the Associate College Centre of the University which monitors and guides the work of colleges associated to the university, a shift towards language-based syllabuses can be found in some colleges. In their first year, students are required to follow a general English language course, which they should pass at the end of the year. Failure to pass the examination will delay promotion into the second year of the course. In addition to this course, students also follow a Language and Communication course which is taught for 60 hours in each of the first and third years. It was pointed out in Chapter one that this course is rather deficient in that it offers little guidance on the use of language. Instead, it emphasises studies in the development of language in children and teaching methods (see Appendix A). Student-teachers' knowledge about and use of language are taken for granted. There is no clear programme intended to raise their levels of fluency in spoken English and their awareness of the nature

and functions of language as suggested by Strevens (1980).

2.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher discussed linguistic issues that will help the reader understand the general sociolinguistic environment from which research data is collected. More important perhaps, is the fact that English in Zimbabwe is used as a second language and that although it is not the mother tongue of the indigenous population, it is used as a national official language. Its official status makes it so important that success in education and employment depends on how proficient one is in it. Hence, the researcher's motivation to ensure that student-teachers can use as well as teach it effectively in schools (see Chapter nine).

It was also indicated that the adoption of English as a national official language influenced the national language policy of the country as well as the language policy in education. Entry into most institutions in the country requires that applicants should have studied and passed English as a subject at specified levels. Besides that, it was observed, English is also used as the medium of instruction in schools, polytechnics, teacher training colleges and the university.

Discussion on national and personal bilingualism in Zimbabwe revealed that English and Shona/Ndebele are functionally differentiated. English is accorded official functions whereas Shona and Ndebele are accorded informal ones except in a few cases such as Parliament. We can therefore claim that when student-teachers use English in classrooms, they use it to achieve specific functions which they are not normally expected to achieve through either Ndebele or Shona. The exclusive use of English in such situations

raises certain problems which the researcher assumed and expressed in his hypothesis (see chapter four).

It also gives rise to the development of a variety of language that is formally and functionally constrained by the sociolinguistic factors that obtain in classrooms; the subject matter the teacher selects to present in each lesson and the methods he uses in his teaching. It was assumed that such a variety of language has its own characteristics which we can collectively refer to as an 'interlanguage'.

This study aims to describe the formal and functional features of that interlanguage or, more specifically, the interlanguage used by student teachers in classrooms. Since the focus is on 'classroom interlanguage', the literature review in the next chapter will focus on studies related to the notion of classroom interlanguage and their findings on its formal and functional characteristics.

CHAPTER III

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CHAPTER THREE

3 LITERATURE REVIEW

The review of literature for this study focusses on classroom-oriented research. A number of studies have been carried out in this field and some of them have been reviewed by, amongst others, Long (1980). In his review of studies in second language research and learning, he evaluates such research approaches as the experimental method, interactional analysis and ethnographic methods. He highlights the strengths and weaknesses of these and recommends that, to be effective, L₂ classroom research studies should apply synthetic approaches involving these types. Allwright's (1983) review presents a historical survey of research processes in second language. He reviews studies in teacher education programmes, interaction analysis, ethnographic studies and classroom talk as input to second language acquisition. On the other hand, Gaeis (1983b) reviews studies that focus on the linguistic aspects of teacher talk, interactional behavior and the ways in which teachers handle errors in the classroom. In another study, Long (1983a) reviews twelve studies on the relationship between "instruction" and second language acquisition. He concludes his review claiming that instruction has a role to play in second language acquisition. A broad over-view of studies on "process research in second language classrooms" is provided by Mitchell (1985). Hers is a "state of the art article" which merely summarises the findings and foci of major studies carried out in second language classrooms.

Most of the studies that Long and others have reviewed analyse and describe classroom processes taking particular note of the way "teachers and pupils communicate with each other in real classrooms" (Stubbs, 1976: 100). The major assumptions in such studies is that formal/functional analysis of classroom language provides researchers and teachers with useful

information related to teaching and learning processes (Stubbs, *op. cit.*). Such information, Seliger and Long (1983) claim, has the advantage that it can be readily applied to improve teaching/learning activities in the classroom. This is precisely what the researcher aimed to achieve. The syllabus guidelines provided in chapter nine are intended to improve classroom interaction so that the teaching and learning processes which depend on the effective use of its discourse features can be rendered more effective.

Seliger and Long (*op. cit.*: viii) also observe that compared to other research environments such as 'psycholinguistic laboratories' where verbal behavior is highly controlled and clinically analysed and the uncontrolled 'naturalistic contexts' where linguistic input is not controlled by the researcher, classroom research environments "may be seen as quasi-naturalistic or quasi-clinical". This suggests that there is a certain amount of data control in classroom-based research as well as a certain amount of freedom for the interlocutors to express themselves as naturally as those in naturalistic environments do.

On the basis of these few observations, we can proceed to define classroom-oriented research as research which draws its data from classroom processes such as those which Allwright (1983) refers to. He discusses classroom-centred research and distinguishes three stances a researcher can possibly take. The first is what he called "inputs to the classroom". These include studies that focus on syllabuses and teaching materials. The second type, which he refers to as "outputs from the classroom" involves the study and analysis of learner achievement scores. He refers to the third and final type as one which focusses on "language classroom not just as the setting for investigation but, more importantly, as the object of investigation" (Allwright, *op. cit.*: 191).

In this study, the researcher looks at classroom language and describes how it is used by student-teachers to realise their various roles in the classroom namely, explaining, questioning, controlling subject matter and lesson topics and managing classroom activities. More specifically, the study is concerned with the analysis of student-teachers' classroom interlanguage. Hence, the focus on the notion of interlanguage as a linguistic concept in the section that follows.

3.1 INTERLANGUAGE AS A 'LINGUISTIC CONCEPT'

Broadly defined, interlanguage (IL) is a term used to distinguish between the use of language used by adult native speakers of a given language and that of those engaged in the process of learning it. This definition includes the varieties spoken by children learning their own native language and those spoken by young and adult second language learners or users who are not fully proficient in its use. It is Schmidt (1980) who provides information upon which the researcher's view of interlanguage discussed above is based. He points out that in any community, we find that children learning their native or first language (L_1) use structures that deviate from adult language. Such child language, he says, has come to be called interlanguage; a linguistic term whose origins are found in second language (L_2) systems.

Faerch et al (1984) also note the distinction between L_1 and an IL when they define the latter as characterised by formal and communicative reductions of the language normally used by adult native speakers. They further claim that such formal/functional reduction of language is also observable in adult native speaker discourse in situations where they address non-native speakers of a given language. In such situations, native speakers modify their language to match the comprehension levels of their addressees and, by so doing indulge in "foreigner talk" (FT) (see also Hatch et al, 1975; Gaeis, 1977;

Chaudron, 1983; Long and Sato, 1983). Foreigner talk consists of such formal and functional features that classify it as an interlanguage. In this study, aspects of formal and functional reduction will be discussed in chapter six.

Selinker (1972) coined the term 'interlanguage' to refer to the variety of language used by second language learners in their attempt to communicate in a second language. The term became more popular and more widely used than other terms such as "approximative system" (Nemser 1971) and "transitional competence" (Corder, 1967) all of which were used to refer to the same linguistic phenomenon. Interlanguage has also been defined in different but related ways. Ellis (1985) provides three definitions that are usually associated with this concept. The first one looks at "interlocking systems". Corder (1967) refers to such systems as "états de dialecte" and Nemser (1972) calls them "intermediate variables". Tarone (1983) in a description of the development of an interlanguage continuum, refers to interlocking systems as "heterogeneous styles". Each of these "systems" or "styles" constitutes a phase in second language acquisition which is quantitatively and qualitatively linked to preceding and succeeding phases along the interlanguage continuum (Timm, 1986).

The second definition, according to Ellis (op. cit.) refers to a single stage of development. That is, to any one of the 'systems' or 'phases' alluded to in the first definition. And, the third definition is associated with specific combinations of mother tongue/target language features. The researcher's description of local varieties discussed in chapter two (see diagram 4) was based on this definition.

In his definition of interlanguage, Timm (1986: 86) observes that second language acquisition "... moves from one systematic stage to another... In each case, the process of second language learning itself must be seen as

systematic in nature" (own emphasis). The notion of systematicity in interlanguage has received a lot of attention since 1970 when Labov first discussed it in his study on 'Language in its Social Context'. Studies in this area have demonstrated that second language learner-language is not a haphazard collection of utterances but one that has an internal structure which is systematically governed by sets of rules which function in the same way as those of other *natural* languages do. In this sense, interlanguages have been defined as languages in their own right (see Corder, 1967; Schmidt, 1980; Tarone, 1983; and Faerch, et al 1984). This view of interlanguage is also supported by Timm (1986) who carried out a study in which he investigated "the stability and consistency of ^{the} pupils' interlanguage at any moment in his language learning". He discovered that there was about 40% accuracy consistency and about 10% error consistency in learners' language. He used this evidence to support the view that "pupils' interlanguage seems, on the whole, to be more consistent than one generally assumes it to be" (Timm op. cit.: 101).

Descriptions of systematicity in both L₁ and IL studies have shown two major categories, that is, categorical (systematic) rules and systematic variable rules. Categorical rules or "invariant rules" (Ellis 1985b: 74) are rules "that specify the set of well-formed sentences in the grammar of a language". Their occurrence in given linguistic environments or speech contexts is predictable. In a second language situation, structures that deviate from the target language can occur as interlingual categorical rules if they have been fossilised. That is, if they have been internalised in an incorrect form and cannot be corrected either by teaching or exposure. Systematic variable rules, on the other hand, involve the alternative use of two or more, rules or linguistic forms to "perform the same functions" (McLaughlin, 1987). Such variation is systematic because, despite the fact that two or more potentially usable rule systems are available to a speaker, we can

contextually predict which rule or set of rules will be used (Ellis 1985b: 306). Ellis (1987) further supports his claim using evidence gathered in a study he carried out on 'Interlanguage Variability in Narrative Discourse'. He discovered that second language learners perform differently in different tasks depending on the conditions or contexts in which they use language. His subjects varied their use of the regular past tense form, irregular past tense form and the past copula depending on whether the task was planned writing, planned speech or unplanned speech.

Ellis (1985a, b; 1987) also argues that over and above categorical and systematic variable rules, interlanguage also consists of "non-systematic variable" rules. These function in free variation in the learner's interlanguage in the early stages of its development. Since these are used haphazardly, they do not constitute systematic patterns of the learner's linguistic competence. It is therefore not easy, in such cases, to predict which rules or sets of rules will be used in given contexts. Despite their non-systematicity, McLaughlin (op.cit.: 73) observes that Ellis (1985) claims that non-systematic variable rules constitute "a necessary part of the acquisition process". They indicate the learner's first attempts to hypothesise and test the rules of the target language before these develop into stable categorical and, or systematic variable rules.

The pedagogical importance of interlanguage analyses and their findings is that we are able to establish the fact that despite the variations which characterise interlanguage rules, there is a certain amount of stability and consistency within it which teachers and educators can use as a basis for organising language teaching materials. This point will be emphasised in chapter nine where syllabus guidelines based on the findings of this study will be provided.

We have up to this point discussed interlanguage as a linguistic concept. What we need to discuss more closely in the sections that follow are interlanguage studies carried out in classroom settings. As a general introduction to such studies, a brief historical survey of approaches used in interlanguage studies is given in section 3.2. below.

3.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND TO INTERLANGUAGE STUDIES

McLaughlin (1987) observes that interlanguage studies that proliferated in the 1970s are "reactive" in the sense that they were a reaction to the "then prevalent views on second language learning" (McLaughlin, *op. cit.*: 65). The second language learning principles of the 1950s and 1960s were based on the theories of neo-behaviorism and Contrastive Analysis. Language learning and teaching were then based on the assumption that learners acquire their first language through habit formation. They use the language spoken in their environment as a resource from which they learn how to control the complex patterns of their first language and to use these to communicate with different people in different situations (Wells, 1985). In the case of L₂ learners, it was assumed that since the languages spoken in their environments differ from those spoken in L₁ environments, lexical, phonological and syntactic differences between them influence the learning process. This assumption gave rise to studies that focussed on comparisons between the learners' L₁ languages and the target language, that is, studies in "Contrastive Analysis" (CA).

Contrastive Analysis was defined as a systematic comparison of two or more languages with the intention to identify similarities and differences between their phonological, lexical, syntactic and semantic features (Wardhaugh, 1974). The similarities and differences between the languages were assumed to have implications for second language teaching and learning. These have been discussed in the context of the strong and weak hypotheses of CA.

Proponents of the strong hypothesis claim that it is possible to predict errors that second language learners are likely to commit and to prevent them from doing so by providing instruction based on Contrastive Analysis teaching materials (Lado, 1957). On the other hand, proponents of the weak version claim that CA offers nothing more than "explanatory adequacy". That is, it merely aims to account for the origins of some of the errors committed by second language learners (Wardhaugh, *op. cit.*).

Claims made by the proponents of CA were subsequently disproved by research findings reported in the early 1970s. It became clear then that CA had in fact, "overpredicted" and "underpredicted" second language learners' problems. Some features of the target language that were described as potentially problematic were found to be easy for learners and some of those that had been predicted to be easy or had not been predicted at all were found to be difficult (McLaughlin 1987). It was also shown that errors are not only due to what Wenreich (1953) called "intersystemic interference" but also to intrasystemic factors as well as to the methods used in teaching and learning (Selinker, 1972; George, 1972). The claim that differences between two languages can be equated with learning difficulty was also disputed by Duskova, (1969); Buteau, (1970); Whitman and Jackson, (1970) and Corder, (1973). In fact, Fowler (1973) reported that the Skaggs-Robinson hypothesis suggests that in some cases, learning a second language is easier when features of contrasting languages are different than it is when they are similar.

Results obtained from morpheme studies also show that second language acquisition is not influenced by learners' L₁ to the extent claimed by the proponents of CA. In their study Dulay et al (1973, 1974b) discovered that second language learners acquired fourteen selected morphemes in roughly the same order or sequence irrespective of their L₁ backgrounds. McLaughlin

(1987) also claims that morpheme studies show that learners follow "similar developmental sequences" in their acquisition of those morphemes.

CA was also criticised on pedagogical grounds, Van Els et al (1984) point out that it has not been easy to translate CA data into teaching programmes. And, Norrish (1983) makes a similar point when he observes that CA does not suggest how a learner goes about acquiring a second language. Instead, it emphasises the elimination of errors without suggesting how we can develop communicative skills.

Reaction against CA led to a shift towards analytical methods that focus not on the differences and similarities between languages but on the actual language that learners produce. The earliest of such research approaches is Error Analysis (EA) which will be discussed briefly in the section that follows.

The preceding discussion on CA was intended to illuminate the theoretical ideas which researchers reacted against before they switched to what has come to be known as Interlanguage Analysis (IA). The researcher's purpose in giving this brief survey is to provide a theoretical framework upon which to base his account of the origins of some of the errors committed by student-teachers. In doing so, the researcher did not contrast the whole data corpus with L₁ features. Instead, such CA notions as generalisation or transfer which are the psychological basis of CA were used to explain some of the student-teachers' errors in chapters five and six.

3.3 ORIGINS OF INTERLANGUAGE STUDIES

Celce-Murcia et al (1985) trace the origins of IA to Corder's articles on "The Significance of Learner's Errors" (1967); "Describing the Language Learner's Language" (1971a) and "Idiosyncratic Dialects" (1971b). They also point out that Selinker's (1972) article on Interlanguage was the greatest impetus to

interlanguage analysis. These articles focus on the nature of second language-learner language and in particular, on the errors they commit and the significance of these in understanding the process of second language acquisition and their pedagogical implications. Together with findings obtained from morpheme studies, they were used by researchers to make claims about the "natural sequence of development which is the result of innate internal processes" (Ellis, 1985: 68). The main findings of Error Analysis and Morpheme Studies (MS) and the strengths and weaknesses of these approaches to IL analysis will be discussed in the sections that follow.

3.3.1 ERROR ANALYSIS

Error analysis can be defined as a technique for identifying, describing, explaining and evaluating errors committed by learners in the process of learning and using a second or foreign language. Before the publication of Corder's (1967) "The Significance of Learners' Errors", teachers studied learners' errors in order to develop remedial learning materials that could be used to improve learners' performance in the target language. But when CA studies became popular in the 1960s, EA declined in popularity and use, only to be revived in the early 1970s when Corder's work viewed it as a theory for language learning and language teaching. Strevens (1971: 10-11) quoted by Bebout (1974) describes the new EA role as a "... source of information about the progress of a learner towards his eventual competence...". George (1972: 189) puts it more succinctly when he observes that "at the beginning of the sixties the word error was associated with correction, at the end, with learning."

The new attitude towards errors is different from the traditional one which views errors as undesirable elements in the learner's language. Corder (1967) and George (1972) regard errors not as a sign of failure in using a second language but as evidence that the learner is using certain strategies in his

attempt to learn the language through "hypothesis testing". The new attitude and the theoretical assumptions it generated made EA "a more rigorous methodology for the study of second language acquisition" and resulted in a "richer theoretical perspective on language acquisition" (Richards, 1985: 63).

As a consequence of this renewed interest in EA, a number of studies were carried out. Richards (1974) discusses errors in verb phrase structures. Other studies investigated and reported error categories that were classified as intralingual and developmental error-types. These are listed by Richards (1985: 55-61) as errors in the use of verb phrases, prepositions, articles and questions. Faerch et al (1984) report the findings of an EA study carried out with Danish learners of English in written texts. The findings of the study are reported in detail, category by category. We can summarise their findings as follows:

- i) the most frequent type of error is in the use of prepositions;
- ii) other problem areas include such aspects of syntax as "determiner usage and adverbial placement;"
- iii) the morphological aspects of English were generally found to be satisfactory.

The studies referred to in the preceding paragraphs focus on linguistic error categories. They are important in so far as they show us quantitatively or otherwise, areas in which learners commit the most or least errors. In this study, the researcher used the same approach in chapter five where he indicates areas that present problems to student-teachers. The frequency of errors is illustrated to indicate linguistic features that are easy or hard for them to use in classroom talk. The error categories that emerge from the analysis of data in this study are similar to those identified by Richards (op. cit.) and Faerch et al (op. cit.).

EA studies have also focussed on the sources of errors committed by L₂ learners. There is ample evidence in these studies to suggest that some errors are due to L₁ interference, that is, they are "interlingual" and that others are due to complexity within the target language itself, that is, they are "intralingual". It has however, not been easy to determine which of these sources has more explanatory adequacy than the other. Burt et al (1973, 1974a) do however, claim that most of the errors committed by L₂ learners have an "intralingual" source and, on the other hand, Green and Hecht's (1985) study shows that most of the errors committed by their subjects are "interlingual".

It is not easy in EA to reconcile such contradictory conclusions as these since, as Faerch et al (1984) and Ellis (1985) point out "identifying the internal causes of errors in specific cases as being either transfer or generalisation is not straightforward" (Faerch et al op. cit.: 287). This observation is based on the notion that EA categories, both linguistic and psycholinguistic, are not easy to distinguish. What may be classified as a "transfer error" by one researcher may be classified as a "generalisation error" by the other.

Despite the problems relating to category distinctions in EA, researchers have given a number of possible sources of learner errors. Richards (1971) classifies errors into three categories; interlingual errors, intralingual errors and errors that are due to the overgeneralisation of target language rules, incomplete application of rules or failure to understand when certain rules should be applied, that is, developmental errors. Selinker (1972), on the other hand, discusses five categories which, besides those suggested by Richards (1971), include transfer of training and learning strategies.

The significance of these research findings is that in the researcher's analysis of student-teachers' errors in chapter five, it was necessary to identify the source of errors observed. Most of the errors discussed in that chapter were found to be either intralingual or were due to inadequate mastery of target language rules. Very few of the errors observed were found to be interlingual.

EA studies also focus on the effect of errors on the speaker's communicative message. Burt and Kiparsky (1974) classify errors according to whether they are "local" or "global". They define local errors as those that violate rules that operate within clause or phrase structures and, global errors as those that violate rules that determine the overall structure of a sentence. They conclude that global errors cause miscommunication whereas local errors do not. Corder's (1981) error categories are identical to those discussed by Burt et al (op. cit.). He refers to them as "covertly idiosyncratic" and "overtly idiosyncratic" errors. Covertly idiosyncratic errors appear in sentences/utterances whose surface structure conform to the rules of the target language or appear to be grammatically well-formed but are semantically ambiguous. Overtly idiosyncratic errors on the other hand, occur in sentences that appear to be superficially ill-formed but whose meaning may be transparent to the listener. Such error types were observed in the research data. They will be discussed in chapter six which focusses on the descriptive analysis of communicative activities of student teachers' interlanguage. In that chapter both Burt et al's and Corder's views were used to develop what the researcher referred to as a "communicative formula". It takes into account and analyses the cohesive/coherent relationships between student-teachers' elicitations and learners' responses.

We need, however, to clarify what we mean by error in this study. Dulay et al (1982) distinguish between "performance" and "competence" errors. The former are said to be due to fatigue, inattention and slips of the tongue and the latter, to the speaker's lack of or inadequate knowledge of target language rules. On the basis of this definition, we can define 'true or genuine errors' as those that occur as a result of the learner's lack of or inadequate knowledge of the rules. On the other hand, 'mistakes' or performance errors, which can be "self repaired" are not due to inadequate knowledge. Speakers can easily correct or edit these when called upon to do so. In this study the researcher classified as errors only those items that were considered due to lack of knowledge of target language rules.

Despite its merits over Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis was criticised for having methodological and pedagogical weaknesses. Dulay et al (1982) noted its "explanatory and descriptive" weaknesses and its lack of precision and specificity in the definition of error categories. It was also criticised for its failure to give an account of how fluency is achieved in a second language (see Larsen-Freeman, 1980; Hatch, 1983; and Varadi, 1983) and its failure to cope with situations where learners commit errors that are due to communicative avoidance strategies (Schacter, 1974).

With regards to the "explanatory and descriptive" weakness, opponents of the EA hypothesis claim that there is confusion over the descriptive and explanatory methods of learners' errors. It is not clear, they claim, whether the evidence used to describe an error is different from that used to account for its occurrence. Dulay et al (op. cit.) claim that the confusion has affected the development of descriptive criteria that researchers should use to classify errors and to formulate theories that can be used to account for the occurrences of errors in learners' language. Dulay et al (op. cit) also draw attention to the failure of EA to be precise and specific in its definitions of

error categories. They claim that some definitions fail to make EA a systematic scientific study which allows replication. The problem is that theoretical definitions of major concepts are not precise enough and, in some cases, linguists vary in the way they define them. The consequence of this lack of precision is that researchers can report different findings from the same data. To illustrate the seriousness of this weakness, Dulay et al (op. cit.: 143) cite differences between definitions of 'intralingual errors' given by Richards (1974) and Lococo (1976). The problems caused by such definitional differences is that error frequencies derived on the basis of each of these will vary even in situations where the same set of data is analysed. This problem is compounded by the fact that error taxonomies have not been precisely defined. Some errors have more than one source. This can lead the researcher to make arbitrary decisions about the categories of the errors he observes.

On the other hand, Larsen-Freeman (1980), Hatch (1983) and Varadi (1983) and other linguists are critical about both CA and EA on the grounds that they are exclusively concerned with the identification of errors. They do not attempt to show how "fluency" in a second language is achieved. In this connection, Varadi (op. cit.: 180) criticises CA and EA for putting too much emphasis on learners "overt errors". She also points out that there is more to second language acquisition than "error-free speech".

In her study, Schater (1974) provides further evidence against the value of EA as an adequate research instrument for interlanguage analysis. She demonstrates that the EA hypothesis is limited in its capacity to identify certain problems in learner language. In her study on the use of restrictive relative clauses in English, she hypothesised that native Persian and Arabic speakers find it more difficult to use this language feature than native speaking Chinese do. After analysing and studying the written compositions

of selected students, she came to the conclusion that Persian and Arabic students use the clause type more often and commit relatively more numerous errors. On the other hand, Chinese students avoid using restrictive relative clauses. They use them sparingly and therefore commit relatively fewer errors than Persian and Arabic students. According to Schacter (op. cit.), this proves that EA is unable to identify those errors that do not manifest themselves in the language of learners who avoid using structures that cause them difficulty.

From the researcher's point of view, the EA movement made a great contribution towards applied linguistics and interlanguage analysis. Two such contributions have emerged from the preceding discussion. Firstly, it changed the attitude of teachers towards learners' errors and, secondly by focussing on the language actually produced by learners, it provides learner-centred principles of analysing classroom interlanguage. Despite its weaknesses, the EA hypothesis should be introduced to student-teachers in Zimbabwe where a lot of emphasis is put on accuracy in language teaching. Both regular and student teachers should be made to understand "the significance of learners' errors" and to appreciate the fact that they are not undesirable elements as such but a sign that the learner is psycholinguistically applying the TL principles he has learned. Such tolerance of learners' errors does not mean errors should be completely ignored but that it should encourage learners to express meaning through the target language without paying too much attention to the linguistic forms they use. Paying undue attention to the linguistic forms tends to inhibit the expression of meaning. We shall further discuss this point in chapter eight where student-teachers' corrective styles will be analysed with reference to the research data.

3.3.2 MORPHEME STUDIES

It was suggested in sub-section 3.3 that besides EA, morpheme studies (MS) also provided research evidence that led to a shift from CA as a method of studying interlanguage. MS research findings showed that regardless of their first language, second language learners seem to follow a common sequence in their acquisition of such linguistic items as auxiliaries, copulas, prepositions, nouns, verb inflections and articles (Dulay and Burt 1973, 1974b quoted by McLaughlin 1987). Dulay and Burt arrived at this conclusion after carrying out a study using the 'Bilingual Syntax Measure' (BSM). Their aim was to find out if learners from different L₁ backgrounds (i.e. Chinese and Spanish) would show a different or identical sequence in the acquisition of eleven selected morphemes. Their findings show that the accuracy orders for the eleven morphemes were the same for the two groups.

In another study, Bailey, Madden and Krashen (1974) replicated the Dulay-Burt study using as their subjects 33 adult Spanish speaking learners and 40 L₁ adult speakers of other languages. Their findings agreed with Dulay and Burt's (op. cit.). Another study by Larsen-Freeman (1978) aimed to verify the accuracy orders suggested by Dulay and Burt (1974) and Bailey, Madden and Krashen (1974). She studied and compared the frequency of morphemes in input and output data. She then studied the morphemes that were likely to occur in the input of native speakers and then compared these with the morphemes occurring in the learner's output. Her findings correlated with the accuracy orders of Dulay et al (op. cit.) and Bailey et al (op. cit.). On the basis of these findings, proponents of morpheme studies claim that because the accuracy orders found among second language learners from different linguistic backgrounds are the same or correlate highly, there is a "natural order" which learners follow when they acquire a second language. Such an order through which "... all learners irrespective of their L₁ (learn) the

grammar of the L_2 in a fixed order", (Ellis, 1985: 8), is not affected by the learner's L_1 . This fact renders the Contrastive Analysis hypothesis insignificant as a theory of second language acquisition.

Like Contrastive and Error Analysis, criticism has been levelled against the morpheme studies. McLaughlin (1987) cites Porter (1977) who observes that the main weakness of the MS is that their findings seem to depend on the research instruments used. He made this claim after using the Bilingual Syntax Measure in a study involving "monolingual English-speaking children". Previously, Dulay and Burt (1973) had used the BSM with second language learners and Brown (1973), studied acquisition morpheme order among children learning English as a first language. His study did not involve the use of the BSM. Normally one would expect Porter's (op. cit.) study to correlate more with Brown's findings rather than with Dulay and Burt's. This was, however, not the case. Porter's findings correlated more with Dulay and Burt's and less with Brown's. This suggests that the accuracy orders found in the morpheme studies are "instrument specific", that is, the results depend on the research instruments used.

Doubts have also been cast on the reliability of the MS findings on the grounds that they are not related to language "acquisition sequence" as such but to "accuracy of use" (McLaughlin 1987). This claim is based on the fact that studies which yield the accuracy orders described in the preceding paragraphs are "cross sectional". In that case they measure the frequency at which learners supply the correct morphemes in given contexts. Longitudinal studies, which in fact investigate learners' acquisition sequences such as those cited by McLaughlin (op. cit. : 168), do not corroborate the acquisition accuracy orders found in most MS studies.

It appears from these criticisms that although the MS findings seem to be "instrument-specific" their value lies in the fact that they are more revelatory about "accuracy of use" than they are about "language acquisition". Recent studies on the "markedness theory" have explored this phenomenon and have produced noun phrase and syntactic hierarchies observable in second language learner-language (Rutherford 1983, Zobl 1983). Because of its importance to this study, we shall briefly review literature on the 'markedness theory' and its implications.

3.3.3 THE MARKEDNESS THEORY

In its general sense the 'markedness theory' refers to the presence of a particular linguistic feature (Crystal, 1983: 220). Given a pair of contrasting but related linguistic forms or structures, one of which is marked and the other unmarked, it will be observed that the marked member has an additional formal feature or features. Quirk et al (1985) distinguish between marked and unmarked items as follows:

When a grammatical or semantic distinction is realised morphologically by a contrast between the presence and the absence of an inflection, the word-form with the inflection is termed marked and the form without it, unmarked.

(Quirk et al, op. cit.: 68)

In the case of the singular form of the word 'boy' and the plural 'boys' the former is unmarked and the latter, marked. The pluralised form 'boys' contains an additional bound morpheme (s) which the singular 'boy' does not have. At the syntactic level, the normal sentence structure SV (0) is unmarked whereas, transformations of the structure such as passivised structures, negations or cleft constructions are marked.

Rutherford (1983) observes that in second language studies such as those by Eckmann (1977a); Jordens and Kellerman (1978); Rutherford (1982) and Zobl

(1982) it has been observed that unmarked forms and structures are learned first and are easier for the learner to retrieve than marked structures. They also appear more frequently in the learner's language. Rutherford (*op. cit.*) discusses markedness referring to hierarchies of accessibility, that is, the learner's ability to retrieve linguistic information from a series of dependent elements such as those that we identify in relational grammar. His discussion focusses on the noun phrase accessibility hierarchy, complement hierarchy and the hierarchy of 'raising processes'. He also reports that a hierarchy of the noun phrase acquisition was discovered in a study carried out by Woodbury (1977). The hierarchy consists of a scale of marked relativised noun phrases. The top end of the scale consists of simple unmarked noun phrases and the bottom end consists of complex marked relativised noun phrases. Gass and Ard (1984) note that learners use simple relativised noun phrases that appear at the top end of the scale more frequently and more accurately than those at the bottom end. They also observe that learners' order of acquisition was from top to bottom, that is, from the unmarked items to the marked ones.

In other studies such as those by Dryer (1980), Frawley (1981) and Gass and Ard (1984), an acquisition hierarchy similar to that of the noun phrase was found for complements and raising processes. The 'complement hierarchy' shows that complement structures are more easily accessible depending on their positions in a sentence. Their accessibility hierarchy is given by Dryer (1980) and others. It was also observed that clause-final complements are more easily accessible followed by initial complements and clause-internal complements. This suggests that clause-final complements are easier for second language learners to understand and to use than are clause-initial and clause-internal complements. A study of the raising processes revealed a hierarchy which showed that subject-to-object raising was more easily accessible to second language learners than subject-to-subject and

object-to-object raising (Eckman 1977b).

The relevance of these studies to this research is that we can use the markedness theory and the notion of acquisition hierarchies to explain and to describe the interlanguage styles we observe in our data. We can also use the notions to explain why certain linguistic forms and/or utterance patterns are more easily productively and/or receptively accessible to second language users than other structures and forms. "Productive Accessibility", in this case, refers to the user's ability to use certain forms, rules and utterance patterns in their spoken or written discourse and, "receptive accessibility" refers to their ability to understand the communicative intentions of the utterances. We see here a dichotomy that compares favourably with teacher "initiation" and pupil "response" in classroom talk. Such discourse exchanges which focus on productive and receptive accessibilities will be discussed in chapter six.

In chapter seven productive accessibility is discussed with reference to student teachers' ability to articulate the majority of "command" and "suggesting" speech acts and SVO patterns without difficulty. The regularity of patterns and their formal simplicity suggests that these are unmarked sentence patterns. On the other hand, it will be shown in chapter six that certain irregular forms and sentence patterns that student-teachers find difficult to use are either structurally complex or that they involve the use of irregular forms and language rules. They are in that sense, marked utterances which, according to the findings of acquisition hierarchy studies are difficult for learners to acquire.

The researcher also used the notion of accessibility in his discussion of what constitutes effective and defective communication. In order to determine when communication is likely to be effective or defective, the receptive

accessibility of questions was analysed (see chapter six). The receptive accessibility hierarchy shown in table 11 and diagram 11 illustrates that most of the questions that are more easily accessible, that is, those which receive the largest number of correct responses tend to be formally and semantically unmarked, whereas those that receive fewer correct responses tend to be formally and semantically marked. Discussion in the preceding two chapters shows the extent to which the researcher made use of notions based on MS and the markedness theories. Only those principles that could help account for the occurrence of certain interlanguage features were applied in cases where it was necessary to do so.

We have in the preceding sections, focussed on what the researcher referred to as background information to interlanguage studies. We now turn to a review of studies that focus on specific aspects of classroom discourse.

3.4 ASPECTS OF CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

3.4.1 THE LINGUISTIC ENVIRONMENT

Learning takes place in environments that are either specifically designed for the purpose or are naturally conducive to the acquisition of the knowledge desired. These environments have been respectively referred to as formal learning environments or settings and, naturalistic environments or informal settings. Gaeis (1983) refers to them as "instructional" and "non-instructional" settings. Whichever environment is provided, second language learners will be exposed to a "linguistic environment" which influences the manner in which they learn and use the target language. Krashen (1982, 1985) refers to the linguistic environment to which a learner is exposed as "input". He claims that input is a necessary condition for second language acquisition (SLA). The two linguistic environments mentioned above differ in that in instructional settings input is centered on and evolves from the teacher whereas in non-instructional settings, it is *provided by those with whom the Learner*

interacts outside the classroom.

The claims that Krashen (op. cit.) makes about the value of input have raised some academic altercations. Before we discuss these, it is necessary that we look at the concept itself and how Krashen defines it. When defining input Krashen (1985) claims that

humans acquire language in only one way - by understanding messages, or by receiving 'comprehensible input' ----. We move from i , our current level, to $i + 1$, the next level along the natural order, by understanding input containing $i + 1$.

(Krashen 1985: 2)

What Krashen suggests in this statement is what has come to be known as the strong claim of the input hypothesis. It asserts that comprehensible input is causative to SLA. He postulates that for a learner to move from one developmental stage to the other, his or her current state of knowledge is expanded through an incremental process which adds new semantico-grammatical items to the current semantico-grammatical items. The product of this incremental process, $i + 1$, reflects the semantico-grammatical structures of the new developmental phase. In order for the learner to get to the new stage, Krashen argues, he needs to be presented with input that is comprehensible to him but which, at the same time, contains new structures which are a 'little beyond' his comprehension, that is 'roughly-tuned' input. By using his current knowledge (i), the learner will interpret the new structures. For Krashen, understanding the form and meaning of input is crucial to second language acquisition. Once understanding occurs, the learner will automatically acquire the grammar of the target language (McLaughlin (1987).

This theory has not been well received by some linguists. It has been criticised both from a theoretical and from a pedagogical point of view.

White (1987) points out that because Krashen focusses on meaning and context as necessary conditions for second language acquisition, he fails to realise that learner s'acquisition of grammar is 'psycholinguistic', that is, it is 'internally driven' and is independent of meaning and context. McLaughlin (1987) and White (1987) claim that the input hypothesis does not explain how learners come to understand and to apply irregular semantico-grammatical rules and different positions of adverbs. These, they claim can be more effectively presented through "finely-tuned" input which Krashen tends to discount, rather than through "roughly-tuned" input.

White (op. cit.) and McLaughlin (op. cit.) also criticise the input hypothesis for failing to identify those aspects of input that trigger development. They claim that Krashen does not clarify what constitutes comprehensible input. On this point, McLaughlin (op. cit.) observes that Krashen does not define comprehensible input but that he merely states that it is comprehensible when it is "meaningful to and understood by the learner". McLaughlin sees this as a "tautological" statement and not an adequate definition of a concept which is crucial to the understanding and application of Krashen's theory.

Krashen's claim that input that has been understood is not only a necessary condition for acquisition but actually causes it has been queried by linguists. The causal relationship between understanding and acquisition is not easy to establish. On this point Pica et al (1986: 7) observe that it is not certain whether the new linguistic items received from input become a permanent part of the learner's "interlanguage" repertoire or contribute to its eventual expansion".

McLaughlin (op. cit.) extends his criticism to other notions related to the input hypothesis. He finds the 'monitor hypothesis' so restricted in its definition that one can easily dispense with it in an account of second

language acquisition. He also claims that the affective filter has not been clearly defined and that there is no indication as to how it can be linked to individual differences in second language acquisition. Gregg (1984) also criticises the emphasis on comprehension in the input hypothesis. White (1987) does however, unlike Gregg (1984) who tends to dismiss the whole theory, suggest that

second language acquisition theory should indeed include an input hypothesis, and, consequently, that we should try and tighten up Krashen's formulation to deal with the objections rather than abandoning it.

(White, op. cit.: 95)

Perhaps what we need is a weak claim of the input hypothesis. Discussing the value of linguistic simplification in the classroom, Chaudron (1985: 128) referred to the weak version of the input hypothesis saying: "the simple accommodations to the learner help improve the learner's chances to comprehend the meaning of the speech addressed to him or her". The difference between the strong and the weak versions of the input hypothesis is that whereas the strong claim refers to acquisitional processes the weak one refers to comprehension processes and how input facilitates rather than causes second language acquisition. In this study, input will be associated with the weak version.

Studies on teacher input have focussed on a number of issues. But for the purposes of this study we shall review studies on the linguistic characteristics of teacher input and linguistic simplification in teacher-talk.

3.4.2 LINGUISTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF TEACHER-TALK

According to Gaeis (1983: 207) "early studies in classroom language focussed on the linguistic characteristics of teacher input". Such studies aimed to find out how teacher talk differs from normal native speaker language and, how

teachers modify their language in an attempt to make it comprehensible to learners. The latter objective was based on observations made on "caretaker talk" and "motherese" which are modified versions of the TL intended "to accomodate children learning their L₁". The assumption in these studies was that teacher talk constitutes a simplified variety which facilitates second language acquisition. In his study, Gaeis (1977) investigated the "syntactic features" of second language teachers by comparing the language they use inside and outside the classroom. He discovered that teachers' classroom speech was syntactically less complex than that used outside the classroom. It was finely-tuned to the learners' proficiency levels. These findings according to Gaeis (1983) were corroborated by Chaudron's findings (1979) and by Studies on L₁ acquisition by Snow (1979) and Wells (1983). Snow and Wells observed that interaction between the caretaker and child-learner involved the use of simplified structures and other discourse features which facilitate the acquisition of the learners' L₁. It should be noted here that these researchers do not see any causative relationship between these features and second language acquisition as other studies tended to show.

In their study, Hamayan and Tucker (1980) investigated input on 3rd and 5th grade immersion French classes. They isolated such linguistic structures as indirect questions, contractions, reflexes and subjunctives and compared the occurrence of these in teacher input and learner output data. They observed that there was high correlation between the frequency of occurrence of certain language forms in input and the frequency with which they occur in learner output. These findings supported what Larsen-Freeman (1976) had observed in her study. Chaudron (1983) observes that other studies by Hatch (1974); Boyd (1975); and Long (1981) do also support the high correlation between input and output. He summarises their findings saying there are

significant correlations between frequency of morphological and syntactical structures in NS input and their output in learner's language.

(Chaudron, op. cit.: 438)

Instead of explaining such correlations as being causative to second language acquisition, Meisel (1977) claims that such "superficial similarities" do not exist in a causal relationship to second language acquisition but occur as a result of "the operation of identical universal processes". They facilitate rather than cause second language development.

Some notable studies on classroom talk in L_1 need to be mentioned here. Barnes (1969) focussed on the study of the language used by teachers. His aim was to discover the influence of the language on the learning that goes on in the classroom. He exposed ways in which teachers' language can confuse, constrain pupils and how, at times, it leads to a misunderstanding of what is being taught. Sinclair et al (1975) also carried out an important study on classroom talk but the focus was not on linguistic features as such. Theirs was a discourse analysis study which identified the functions of discourse acts such as elicitations, responses, and feedback or follow-ups. These combine into "exchanges" which in turn combine into 'transactional exchanges'. Gaeis (1983) observes that recently, there has been a shift from linguistic analyses of the type described above to "interactional adjustments" that native speakers make when talking to non-native speakers. Such adjustments are aspects of linguistic simplification which will be discussed in the section that follows.

3.4.3 LINGUISTIC SIMPLIFICATION

High correlations have also been found in studies that investigate simplification processes in classroom language. Simplification, in this context, refers to ways in which a speaker reduces or expands the formal and

semantic features of his language so that the second language learner finds it easy to comprehend the message (Ellis, 1985). Linguistic simplification and, or adjustment has been investigated by a number of researchers. Long (1983b) and Scarcella and Higa (1981) discovered that when a native speaker speaks to a non-native speaker his/her discourse shows a higher frequency of "discourse procedures" which are not found in native-native speaker discourse. Such features include those that are related to communication breakdowns. Aston (1986: 129) lists the following as some of the markers of communication breakdown; comprehension and confirmation checks, clarification requests, expansions and self- and other-initiated repetitions. Studies by Varonis and Gass (1985: 73) provide further information on discourse features. They observed high frequencies in native speaker-non-native speaker discourse of what they called "non-understanding routines". They defined these as "---some overt indication that understanding between participants has not been complete" Varonis et al (op. cit.: 73). Such adjustment features, they claimed, show the extent to which interlocutors negotiate meaning. They also indicate that upon failing to understand the communicative intention of an utterance, an interlocutor appeals to the other for clarification. Such clarification can be effected in a number of ways. In second language situations, simplification of the original utterance or elaboration of the original idea are the commonest means of simplifying language.

Linguistic simplification or adjustment, therefore, refers to a process in which a speaker restructures the form or content of his message in order that the listener comprehends it more clearly than he would without the simplification/adjustment process taking place. Chaudron (1983: 128) claims that "the simpler accommodations to the learner help improve the learner's chances to comprehend the meaning of the speech addressed to him or her". A question that needs to be answered is, what exactly constitutes

simplification in classroom discourse. The answer to this question can be inferred from Chaudron (op. cit.). He points out that simplification in educational settings involves adjustments/simplifications of phonological, morphological and lexical items as well as syntactical and clause structures. Simplification of these features is intended to facilitate the learner's comprehension of the meaning conveyed.

Simplification plays an important role in second language classrooms. There, both 'linguistic' and 'semantic' simplification are assumed to aid learning as well as facilitate second language acquisition. Pica (1987) claims that restructuring and modifying discourse in order to achieve mutual comprehension "facilitates the learner's comprehension and production of the target language". This claim is supported by Chaudron (1983) who says that modifying and restructuring input to non-native learners

is the principal task of teachers, not only in second or foreign language classrooms, but also in many other educational programmes throughout the world in which second language learners must learn subject matter via the medium of a second language.

(Chaudron op. cit.: 440)

This is an important claim to which the researcher paid special attention. He analysed student-teacher discourse in an attempt to discover the extent to which modifications/adjustments were used to aid comprehension. For want of better alternative terms, he referred to these as occurring in "recitation" teaching approaches "with" or "without" elaboration. Hence, the use of "recitation with elaboration" and "recitation without elaboration" in chapter eight.

Pica's (1987: 4) findings on the extent to which simplifications/adjustments are used in classrooms are also relevant to this study. She discovered that classroom talk reveals very few of those crucial features of interactional

discourse which aid comprehension. She accounted for her observation in terms of the unequal statuses between teachers and pupils in classrooms and "the unequal distribution of participation rights" that obtain between them. The other reason is that negotiating meaning during a lesson takes up a lot of learning time. So, in order for teachers to realise their pedagogical objectives, they avoid lengthy negotiating discourse acts. Interactional modification is also restricted by the role the teacher assumes in the classroom. S/he assumes the role of one who knows and considers learners to be less knowledgeable about the matter under consideration. S/he therefore tends always to assume the role of tester or one who evaluates what pupils know or say. On this, Pica (op. cit.) observes that most classroom interaction is structured in such a way that learners can display their knowledge and skills to the teacher. In such situations, the teacher controls the knowledge and skills to be displayed through his elicitations and directives and his evaluation of pupils' response. As a result of this, students do not endeavour to work towards mutual comprehension but towards meeting "the teacher's expectations as to what is an appropriate response to their questions" (Pica op. cit. :11).

In this study, no detailed discussion on negotiating features is provided but there is a detailed discussion in chapters six and eight which shows the extent to which the formal patterns of teacher's questions constrain the use of negotiating discourse acts.

3.5 INTERACTIONAL ASPECTS OF CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

3.5.1 COMMUNICATIVE DISCOURSE IN THE CLASSROOM

Riley (1980: 203) defines communicative discourse as "the collaborative construction of two or more participants mutually engaged in other-directed communicative behavior". Central to communicative discourse is the intention by participants to convey to the other, ideas or information that is

not known by the other participant. As illustrated in diagram 1 in chapter 1, communication in the classroom is, bi-polar. It involves the teacher and pupil or group of pupils and focusses on a given discussion topic. The conveying of communicative intentions makes interaction take the form that we refer to as "genuine communication". Mitchell (1983) emphasises this point in her definition of foreign language communication:

Any instance of the use, productive or receptive, will be considered 'communicative' if it appears that the people, in producing/attending to the discourse have another purpose/intention additional to the general purposes of modelling/practising/displaying competence in formal aspects of the target FL.

(Mitchell *op. cit.*: 43)

Literature on communicative discourse emphatically states that for interaction to be genuinely communicative, it should involve the conveying of information from one participant who knows something which the other does not know. In other words, the notion assumes a state of disequilibrium in the listener which the addressor resolves when he conveys the required information (Littlewood, 1977; Widdowson, 1978).

The importance of communicative discourse is noted by such researchers as Allwright (1984) who claims that communicative discourse enables learners to use what they learn in the classroom, in other situations outside it. Edmondson (1980) observes that it is not easy to elicit genuine communication in classroom language lessons. He calls upon teachers to realise what he calls "the sincerity criterion" which compels learners to express sincerely, their own feelings and beliefs. Barnes and Todd (1977: 158) discuss the value of communicative discourse in groups as effective since it enables learners to discuss learning content and share ideas. In such situations they learn and practise using the second language "from the very act of attempting to articulate their own understanding". This is more

effective in content lessons where the discussion topic itself constitutes what is to be learned.

Studies in classroom discourse have revealed that sociolinguistic factors in second language as well as first language classrooms are not conducive to the realisation of communicative discourses. Such problems were alluded to in the preceding section on the simplification/adjustment of classroom talk (see Chaudron, 1983; Long and Sato, 1983; Pica, 1987; Pica and Long, 1986). The underlying assumption in these studies is that in classroom situations where corrective discourse and simplification/adjustment of linguistic input aimed at achieving mutual comprehension are realised, teachers and learners are compelled to use language communicatively. Unfortunately, there are, according to Long and Sato (1983) Pica et al (1986), very few opportunities for learners to develop their second language from such interactional patterns. They observe that such occasions seldom arise because the generally accepted patterns of classroom interaction are not geared towards negotiating meaning or restructuring language forms. Pica et al (1986) referring to Mehan, (1979); Sinclair et al, (1975); and Long (1983b) make the point that what is considered normal classroom interaction consists of initiation, response and feedback acts (the IRF pattern) and that such a pattern tends to discharge "a two-way flow of information aimed at mutual comprehension". This, together with the predominance of certain types of questions in the classroom discourage teachers and pupils from exchanging ideas, a process which would otherwise result in communicative discourse. In saying so, Pica (op. cit.) was referring to the predominance of "display questions" over "referential questions" in classroom talk (Long and Sato, 1983). Display questions are those that elicit information already known to the teacher whereas referential questions elicit information that is not known to the questioner or teacher.

Pica (1987) also observes that not only display question types or unequal statuses in classroom talk discourage communication in second language classrooms but that certain methods do also have the same effect. In her study, she used the frequency of occurrence of confirmation checks and clarification requests as indicators of communicative discourse. She found that in a "decision making lesson" where groups of learners were asked to discuss a topic and make a decision about a desired course of action, 11% of the total utterances used were either confirmation checks or clarification requests. In an information exchange lesson where learners contributed ideas towards a problem solving task, 15% of the total utterances belonged to these categories. She concluded that what is needed in order to make discussion effective

--- are activities whose outcome depends on information exchange and which emphasise collaboration and an equal share of responsibility among classroom participants.

(Pica, 1987: 17)

From the preceding discussion we note two suggestions for making classroom talk genuinely communicative. These are greater use of referential questions and the use of methods that encourage the negotiation and exchange of ideas. These suggestions are useful for ESL teachers. In Zimbabwe, teachers believe they use communicative teaching methods simply because the syllabus specifications are said to be communicatively oriented. Johnson (1981) warns against thinking that as soon as we produce communicatively oriented syllabuses, all will be well and that learners will become efficient communicators. The effectiveness of a syllabus depends on teachers' ability to interpret and implement it. For this reason, the researcher analysed language lessons in order to determine the method that is commonly used in Zimbabwean second language classrooms (see chapter seven and Appendix N).

3.5.2 PATTERNS OF CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

Although Riley (1980) observes that communicative discourse is a collaborative construction between two or more interlocutors, classroom discourse tends to be asymmetrical at times. It becomes so when one of the interlocutors monopolises the discourse floor, the selection of discourse topic and the control of what is regarded as acceptable or unacceptable information.

Studies that focus on classroom interactional patterns have sought to explain the amount of teacher and pupil talk in the classroom and who speaks to whom and when. Flanders (1970) was the first one to carry out, on a large scale that is, studies in interactional analysis. He investigated issues related to dominant speakers in the classroom and how much talk the addressor and addressee produced. His rule of two-thirds emerged from his observation that teacher talk comprises two thirds of the time and amount of classroom talk and that pupils produced one third of the talk. The system he used has come to be called the Flanders Interactional Analysis Category (FIAC). Modifications of this system were produced and applied by Moscovitz (1971, 1976) whose system came to be known as the Foreign Language Interaction Analysis System (FLINT). Politzer (1969) focussed on classroom language, recorded the frequencies of the occurrence of certain teaching techniques and then correlated these with the achievement of learners. He concluded that on the evidence available to him, it was not easy to make absolute judgemental statements about the superiority of certain methods over others. Bellack et al (1966) also studied classroom interaction but, instead of focussing on linguistic units, they focussed on such pedagogical units as structuring, soliciting, responding and reacting moves. In a lesson, these moves are repeated in a circular pattern which Bellack et al (op. cit.) called a "teaching cycle". Each lesson consists of a series of cycles each containing two or more moves. Nuthall and Church (1973) carried out a study

whose findings supported those of Bellack and his colleagues.

Interest in Flanders-based systems declined because of certain weaknesses within it. Long (1983) says that the systems are weak because the interpretations they lead to are observer-rather than learner-centered. Right from the beginning of an observation, the observer decides what he wants to look for and gives his own interpretation. The instruments do also lay too much emphasis on what the teacher does or says and less on what learners do. Besides that, they also focus on a limited sample of teacher/pupil behavior. There is for instance, no way in which group work talk or communicative discourse can be studied. FIAC instruments also ignore differences between cultures. For this and other reasons, researchers shifted towards other research approaches such as discourse and interlanguage analysis.

In another study on patterns of classroom interaction, Seliger (1983) showed that participation in the classroom is highly variable. He identified two participant categories which he described as "high" and "low" input generators. The study revealed different patterns in which learners in each category perform in and acquire a second language. High input generators showed greater interest in participating in out-of-class conversation than low input generators did. This study suggests that the more learners are prepared to generate their own talk in conversations the quicker and more effective their learning of a second language becomes.

It might be argued, however, that 'high' and 'low' input generating tendencies depend on socio-cultural factors some of which might inhibit active participation in talk that is adult-initiated. Sato (1981) investigated turn-taking among university ESL classes to explore the relationship between "ethnicity and the distribution" of interactional turns. She used as her subjects 19 Asian and 12 non-Asian learners. In comparing the turn-taking

patterns revealed by these groups she discovered that Asian learners initiated fewer turns than non-Asian learners. The result of this was that teachers called upon non-Asian students to respond to questions more frequently than they did Asian students. In another study Schinke-Llano (1983) investigated patterns of participation in L₁ English classes of pupils of 'Limited English Proficiency' (LEP). She discovered that, on the whole, interaction between teachers and LEP learners was significantly less than that between the teacher and non-LEP learners. Whenever teachers interacted with LEP learners they focussed on classroom and lesson management rather than on "instructional goals".

It is clear from these studies that classroom talk is carried out in different ways. Of particular interest to the researcher are the implications of studies by Sato (1983) and Schinke-Llano (1983). Sato's study reveals that to a certain extent, socio-cultural factors inhibit learner participation. Although no studies have been carried out in this area in Zimbabwe, the researcher has observed and believes that learners in second language classrooms are not prepared to initiate talk because of socio-cultural factors that obtain in their society. Adults are expected to lead in all discussions and children play passive recipient roles. Schinke-Llano's findings are interesting to the researcher in that they suggest interactional problems that are due to limited proficiency levels in the target language. Zimbabwean learners involved in this study are in the same category. Their proficiency levels are severely limited. This compels teachers to use certain communicative strategies which enable them to get their ideas across to learners. A review of communication strategies is therefore necessary and is given in the section that follows.

3.5.3 COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES IN CLASSROOM TALK

Because of their limitations in the use of the target language, second

language speakers often run into problems when they attempt to express their communicative intentions. Such problems often arise when second language interlocutors engage in what Faerch et al (1984) call "asymmetrical conversation". Such conversation is characterised by discrepancies between one of the interlocutor's communicative intentions and his linguistic capacity to express these or, as Corder (1983: 2) says, when the interlocutor's "communicative ends outrun his communicative means". To overcome such problems, second language speakers use techniques that have come to be known as "communicative strategies". Faerch et al (1984) discuss these under four main headings: formal reduction, functional reduction, achievement and compensatory strategies.

Through formal reduction strategies the L_2 speaker uses a reduced rule system consisting only of those rules and forms of the target language which he has mastered. He hopes such reduction will enable him to produce fluent and correct speech. Functional reduction strategies enable the L_2 speaker to avoid communication problems by reducing his "communicative goal". Such reduction, according to Faerch et al (1984: 43) can be "global" or "local". Global reduction affects the entire communicative intention of the discourse whereas "local" reduction affects only a part of the speakers communicative goal. Achievement strategies, on the other hand, are used when a speaker, instead of reducing his communicative intentions or his rule system, expands his communicative resources in an attempt to solve his communicative problems. The L_2 speaker can also use compensatory strategies. Such strategies can either be L_1 based involving such sub-categories as code-switching, and inter-intra-lingual transfer or, they can be L_2 based in which case simplification/adjustment processes, generalisation of L_2 rules, paraphrasing and word coining will be used.

Definitions of communicative strategies vary depending on whether the definer emphasises 'production' or 'communication' strategies. The former approach refers to the learner's attempts to express meaning in the TL at a time s/he has not mastered the appropriate rules whereas the latter refers to his/her attempts to "express or decode" meaning in similar circumstances (Tarone, 1983). Chesterfield et al (1985) also distinguishes between a production and a communication strategy. He states that a production strategy

--- is seen as an attempt to use one's linguistic system efficiently and clearly, but does not require the negotiation of meaning that defines a communication strategy.

(Chesterfield et al, op. cit.:46)

This definition emphasises the fact that a production strategy utilises linguistic knowledge of the TL but does not concern itself so much with the expression or understanding of meaning in the same way a communication strategy does.

Systematic studies in communication strategies were pioneered by Varodi (1983). She discovered that in order to adjust his message, the learner either replaces the meaning or form of his intended message by using items which are part of his interlanguage or reduces his intended message on either the formal or functional level. In another study, Bialystok (1983: 100) investigated "who uses which strategy, when and with what effect". Her findings show that advanced learners prefer L₂ to L₁ based strategies and that L₂ based strategies seem to be more effective than L₁ based strategies. This observation is supported by Haastrup and Phillipson (1983). Their study investigated how learners cope when they experience a hiatus in their communication and what resources they draw on to solve their communicative problems. They also tested the hypothesis that some achievement strategies

are more effective than others. They used as their subjects, eight Danish learners of English as a FL aged between 16 and 17 who had been learning English for five years. They discovered that IL-based strategies help learners cope with communicative problems and that L₁ based strategies seem to be "least effective".

One of the commonest communication strategies is lexical simplification. Blum-Kulka and Levenston (1983) investigate the processes in which lexical simplification is used as a communicative strategy. They discovered that "lexical simplification" as a strategy is caused by the speaker's lack of knowledge and the addressee's inadequate proficiency in the target language. They also discovered that lexical simplification is effected through the strategies of overgeneralisation and transfer and the use of "superordinate terms". For instance, the word "thing" is generalised and applied for a number of objects instead of their actual referents.

Many studies have associated communication studies with communication problems. But Wagner (1983) claims that this is not always the case. In his study on the "Analysis of Interlanguage Communication in Instructions", he observed that communication strategies of different types are also used in situations where instructions are given. In such cases instructors and learners use confirmation checks and clarification requests. There are also occasions when the instructor uses "semantic paraphrases" and "reduction strategies" for clarification.

Codeswitching is another common strategy used in second language classrooms especially in situations where the teacher has learnt and uses the target language as a medium of instruction to learners who speak the same first language as the teacher's. Genishi (1981: 133) defines codeswitching as *the* "alternation of languages or dialects to convey social meaning". In the

process of doing so, the learner can "code-change" that is switch from language A to language B or "code-mix" that is, use forms of languages A and B in one utterance (McClure, 1981). Codeswitching can either be "situational or "conversational". It is situational when it involves change of discussion topic, setting or participants and conversational when it occurs within a single activity.

Studies in codeswitching have focussed on a variety of issues. Poplack (1981) focusses on two major issues; what motivates it and where, in the speaker's speech, it occurs. Answers to these questions vary but McClure (1981) claims that codeswitching in the classroom is largely functional, that is, the L₂ teacher uses it for emphasis as in commands or to clarify issues which appear to be ambiguous to learners. It is also used to elaborate concepts or processes, that is, to provide further information for the sake of adding meaning to or clarifying a point (see also: Mitchell et al, 1981; Mitchell, 1983; and Guthrie, 1984).

Studies by Huerta-Macias (1981), McClure (1981) have shown that second language teachers can code-switch entire sentences if the purpose is to emphasise, clarify or elaborate a point. If, because of their linguistic limitations they cannot access certain words in the TL, they will code-mix. In her review Mitchell, (1985) observes that generally, codeswitching in second/foreign language classrooms *is* used for managerial, informational and meaning negotiation. Instances of such use were observed in this study. The observations made are discussed in chapter six.

3.6 PEDAGOGICAL ASPECTS OF CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

In the preceding section, we reviewed literature related to teacher-pupil interaction. Such interaction is meant to achieve a number of functions in the classroom some of which are pedagogical. That is they are intended to

instruct or enable learners to acquire new knowledge. Teacher-initiated instruction is marked by elicitation utterances which are usually but not always followed by pupil responses and teacher feedback (Sinclair et al, 1975). Feedback can be used to reject or accept pupils' responses, evaluate them, explain key concepts, provide corrective feedback or to clarify and elaborate misconceptions. Studies have been carried out in these and other areas. In this section we shall review those that are relevant to our study.

3.6.1 CLASSROOM QUESTION CATEGORIES

Questions that teachers use in classrooms can be classified according to the intellectual demands they make on learners and the type of information they elicit. Developments in linguistics have also led researchers to provide linguistically defined categories such as 'Wh-', 'Yes/No' and indirect questions. Most of the studies reviewed for this research focus on the functional question categories and the linguistic features that characterise them.

In their review of the properties of good questions, Macleod et al (1975) observe that good questions are those that have "substantive logical" meanings. By this they meant that the content of questions or their propositions should be coherent and easily decodable by the listener. They also suggest that an analysis of questions should look into their structures in order to determine whether the wording appropriately limits the range of possible answers. This is necessary in cases where questions elicit specific information. In such cases Macleod et al (1975: 203) suggest that "information in the question which explicitly or implicitly specifies the answer should be given". This ensures that the question and the response it elicits are "coreferential" Halliday et al (1976).

In chapter six of this study a critical analysis of question forms, their propositions and the propositions of pupils responses is provided. Amongst other things, the analysis investigates the coherence between, student-teachers' elicitation and pupils' responses.

A number of researchers have focussed on the types of questions that teachers use. In her review, Holmes (1978) discusses "open" ended questions which she defines as questions that elicit information not known to the teacher and "closed" questions which elicit information that the teacher already knows. Referring to the teacher's use of closed questions, Sinclair et al (1975) observe that teachers generally ask questions not because they do not know the answers but because they want to find out whether pupils know the answers to these questions or not. Other similar classifications are given by Galton, Simon and Croll (1980). Their categories are based on the types of cognitive responses they evoke. They identify three types of questions: factual recall questions which elicit known, memorised information, reflective questions which call for higher order thought processes (i.e. associative thinking and making comparisons) and problem solving questions. Macleod et al (1975) note that researchers such as Bellack et al, (1966); Davis and Tinsley, (1968); Gallagher, (1965), Hudgins and Ahlbrand, (1969), and Taba et al, (1964) claim that the use of higher order questions in the classroom raises levels of communicative discourse.

Some researchers have carried out correlational studies on question types and pupil achievement. Macleod et al (op. cit.) reports that varying findings have been reported from different studies; Spaulding (1964) found a negative relationship between higher order questions and pupil achievement and Kleinmann (1964) found a positive relationship whereas Rodgers and Davis (1970) found the relationship to be non-significant. On the other hand,

factual questions were found to correlate with achievement in *Mathematics* and *Arithmetic* (Soar, 1966; Spaulding, 1965).

Long (1981) investigated ways in which questions are presented in foreign language discourse. His study was carried out in the framework of discourse adjustment/restructuring processes. He observed that

when learners show lack of comprehension, messages are repeated, recorded (e.g. through paraphrase, the substitution of difficult vocabulary with more frequent lexical items, and the repair of wh- to yes/no questions) or abandoned altogether

(Long op. cit.: 136)

similar strategies were analysed in this study in chapter six.

Long and Sato (1983) carried out a study in which they hypothesised that second language teachers' questions consist of "display questions" which require learners to display or show what they know to the teacher; "test questions" which check on pupils understanding of what has been taught or learned and "known-information questions" which elicit information that the teacher already knows. They also hypothesised that L₂ teachers ask more display than information or referential questions. Their subjects included three male and three female teachers. Their questions were compared with those used by native speaker- non-native speakers outside the classroom. They discovered that native speaker/non-native speaker conversation outside the classroom made greater use of referential questions than display questions. In the classroom, display questions far outnumbered referential questions (display questions= 80% and referential questions = 20%). The predominance of display questions was interpreted by Long and Sato to have a diminishing effect on the value of classroom interaction as a means for teaching communicative discourse since display questions do not invite

learners to respond at length nor to initiate new topics.

3.6.2 ERROR HANDLING

In section 3.3.1 we discussed, in general, the theory of error analysis. It was noted then that linguists' interest in EA as a theory gradually declined. Recent research has focussed a great deal of attention on "error handling" techniques in second language classrooms. Gaeis (1983) observes that teachers seem to

have abandoned an 'all out' global approach to error correction in the classroom and have sought a basis on which errors might be selectively treated.

(Gaeis op. cit.: 211)

A study by Fanselow (1977) who pioneered research into error treatment shows that about 22% of the errors committed by learners in an oral drill lesson went uncorrected or were ignored. In his review, Gaeis (op. cit.) also observes that error treatment studies by Cathcart and Olsen (1976), Fanselow (1977) Ramirez and Stromquist (1979) and Nystrom (1983) have shown that errors are treated differently depending on whether they are phonological, lexical or syntactic.

Research has also focussed on the types of "corrective feedback" teachers provide in classrooms. Corrective feedback according to Chaudron (1977b: 31) is "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of learner's utterance". Two types of feedback have been identified. These are indirect or implicit feedback and direct or explicit feedback. In explicit corrective feedback the teacher's response to a learner's utterance provides the correct form whereas an implicit feedback merely informs the learner that he has committed an error which needs correcting. According to Allwright (1975), Chaudron (1977a) and Long (1977) there is a wide variety of implicit error treatments such as

repeating the wrong response without correcting it. On the same topic Nystrom (1983) says in explicit feedback, teachers tend to rephrase pupils utterances in order to model the current response and, in implicit feedback they may initiate drill practice aimed at enabling pupils to correct their own errors.

Referring to studies by Holy and King (1971) and Fanselow (1977), Nystrom (op. cit.) points out that teachers do not always locate the source of error, that is, whether an error committed is formally or content related. But Chaudron (op. cit.) observes that teachers usually stress and give immediate feedback for content errors and not for lexical or phonological ones. In the same study, Chaudron discusses teachers' corrective styles. He notes that a teacher's correction of errors does not involve a single utterance but a series or cycle of verbal responses. Allwright (1975) provides a more detailed description of what he calls a "corrective exchange". It consists of moves similar to those discussed by Sinclair et al (1975). When a learner gives an erroneous response, the teacher comments on it. He either rejects and improves it or tells the learner that his response is wrong without improving it. He then proceeds to ask the same student or other students to give an improved response which he again evaluates by accepting or rejecting it. According to Allwright (op. cit.) a series of such "corrective exchanges" constitutes a "corrective transaction".

Student teachers' error handling techniques in this study will be discussed in chapter eight. A sample of the analytical method used to study error handling techniques observed in the data is given in Appendix H.

3.7 SOCIOLINGUISTIC FUNCTIONS OF CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

Stubbs (1976) states that classroom oriented research can be carried out from two angles, that is from a linguistic perspective and, or from a

sociolinguistic perspective. We have so far reviewed studies on linguistic and interactional aspects of classroom talk. We need also to review studies on sociolinguistic aspects of classroom discourse in order to provide a theoretical foundation for the discussion of sociolinguistic functions of classroom discourse in chapter six.

3.7.1 CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT TALK

The researcher defines classroom management talk as discourse that is intended to ensure that classroom procedure and routines follow certain classroom norms. It is also intended to ensure that teaching and learning take place in orderly, disciplined environments. Such a definition, however, tends to ignore or discount the value of classroom management talk in second language acquisition. Contradicting observations have been reported on this issue. Mitchell (1985) reports that French researchers such as Dalgalian (1981) and Weiss (1982, 1984) have argued that classroom management talk has no positive contribution towards second language acquisition and that it has the least communicative value. On the other hand, Ellis (1980) argues that it is beneficial to learners' L₂ development and that it has communicative value. This view is supported by Allwright (1984b) who views the "cooperative management" of classroom talk by teachers and pupils as an important means of "maximising learning opportunities".

With respect to the managerial aspects of classroom talk Bossert (1971) claims that there is a relationship between the nature of tasks and class control. His argument is that teachers do not necessarily decide to be autocratic, democratic or laissez-faire in their control. But that this is determined by the nature of tasks they plan to assign to learners. It therefore follows that the extent to which certain managerial utterances are used depends on the nature of the task. Bossert (op. cit.) points out that when a teacher decides to use a "recitation approach" which emphasises going

through a number of facts either through telling or telling and questioning, he is likely to demand that pupils pay attention and listen carefully to him. The managerial language used in such cases is likely to consist mainly of commands to keep quiet and to listen. Teachers in such situations tend to be "more control oriented" than teachers who use "class task or discussion" methods (Bossert, *op. cit.*).

Other sociolinguistic factors in the classroom involve learners' understanding of the rules of interaction. Mehan (1979) refers to this as a process whereby learners become competent members of the classroom society. To qualify for such membership, pupils need to know when to speak; what to say and how to speak to different people. They should also respect the rules of floor-sharing and turn-taking. Learners come to know these and other interactional rules that the teacher uses.

De Landesheere (1973) discusses classroom control and management which he refers to as the "controlling functions" of language. The utterances used for this purpose have the effect of controlling who should speak, when and to whom. To effect this he usually nominates pupils, groups of pupils or the whole class to speak out at any given time. De Landsheere also points out that such utterances also control movement in the classroom by individuals or groups. He also points out that the purpose of such control is to ensure that conditions that make for efficient teaching and learning obtain in the classroom. Besides these, the teacher also uses language to realise functions of "positive affectivity" that is, s/he rewards, praises, encourages pupils to participate in classroom activities. At times such activities are "negative" as when the teacher punishes, threatens or criticises what he considers to be unbecoming classroom behavior. Stubbs (1976) also lists and discusses some of these controlling functions. He points out that the teacher controls conversational topics, the amount of talk each learner can contribute, content

of topic and how language should be used.

Some studies have shown that patterns in classroom control are influenced by socio-cultural norms. Mitchell (1985) cites a number of studies that discuss the effect of cultural norms on classroom behavior. Schmidt (1980) observes that in some societies such as the Arucanian, the amount and quality of talk expected from different members of society varies and Coulthard (1977) observes that among the French, children are expected to remain silent when visitors are present at dinner but in Russia, they are encouraged to talk. Similar conditions obtain in Zimbabwe where children are discouraged from participating in adult discussions. Schmidt (op. cit) points out that such behavior can be transferred into the classroom by both teachers and learners. Patterns of interaction may be used by teachers to establish their authority and by learners, to distance themselves from those in authority.

3.7.2 GROUP WORK AND CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

Linguists have accepted the value of group work in classrooms as a means by which learners enhance their "fluency skills" as well as practise what they learn (Barnes and Todd, 1977; Brumfit, 1981). Research by Long et al (1976) and Long and Porter (1985) has shown that group discussion significantly enhances second language acquisition. Bennett (1985: 106) summarises some studies on group work saying it promotes higher "achievement at all age levels". He however makes the important observation that other linguists and researchers have questioned the value of group work as it is currently used in classrooms. Boydel (1975) carried out a study which shows that cooperative groups are not working as effectively as expected. He claims that there is a lot of sex bias in group discussion; boys talk to each other and girls address themselves to members of their sex only. He also observed that only one half of the talk that goes on in groups is work-related. This is supported by Galton et al (1980) who found out that pupils work in groups but rarely

cooperate with each other. They do not work as groups. On the basis of these findings Bennett (1985) concludes that

The reality of groups as currently organised is generally a physical juxtaposition of individual pupils operating without clear purpose or adequate management (own emphasis). As such cooperation is limited and rarely task enhancing, and off-task interaction is frequent and often inadvertently encouraged by lack of supervision. Such classroom groups are unlikely to be effective vehicles for efficient learning.

(Bennett op. cit.: 116)

The researcher analysed the effect of group discussion in this study and made observations discussed in chapter six. Suggestions for improving group work were also made on the basis of ideas discussed by Slavin (1983) who advocates individual accountability in group work. That is, every member of the group should be given a task which contributes towards the success of a group assignment. That contribution "should be visible to and quantifiable by other members of the group" (Slavin, 1983).

3.8 CLASSROOM DISCOURSE AS A BASIS FOR DESIGNING A TEACHER TRAINING SYLLABUS

It was noted in sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2 that linguists found contrastive and error-based syllabuses deficient in many ways. Pica (1984) observes that such syllabuses were based on descriptions of the target language. It was assumed then that the way in which a language is described determines the parameters on which a syllabus should be designed. New trends in linguistic studies have led to a shift from this approach. There has been a switch towards syllabuses that take into account "language competence in terms of the expression and understanding of linguistic notions and functions needed for effective communication" (Pica op. cit.: 690). Such an emphasis is seen in the work of Trim, Van Ek and Wilkinson (1973); Van Ek, (1975); Van Ek and Alexander, (1977). Their emphasis on functional/notional syllabuses was

also criticised for presenting an "unordered specification of teaching items" which make it difficult to produce a systematic teaching/learning programme (Widdowson, 1978; Brumfit, 1979; Hammerly, 1982).

Spada (1987) carried out a study in which she used as her instrument, the "Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching" (COLT) developed by Allen et al (1984). This instrument is believed to be sensitive to the communicative orientation of second language teaching. Applications of the COLT have provided information that defines minimum communicative competence as consisting of three components: grammatical competence, discourse competence and sociolinguistic competence. Faerch et al (1984) also discuss these competences under the headings: linguistic competence, pragmatic and discourse competence and, communicative competence. They further claim that the acquisition of these three competences should lead to the development of "communicative fluency".

According to Spada (1987) and Faerch et al (1984) grammatical or linguistic competence involves proficiency in phonology, orthography, lexis and syntax. These constitute the linguistic instruments that are necessary for effective communication. Kress (1985) also finds linguistic competence necessary but points out that

syntactic ability is significant and important but it is regarded as facilitative and hence secondary to abilities which are in the first place social.

(Kress op. cit.: 138)

This suggests that besides linguistic competence, learners need discourse and pragmatic competence which involves the ability to use language in cultural social situations. This enables interlanguage learners to use language appropriately in discourse situations and in the contexts in which discourse takes place. Faerch et al (op. cit.) add to these, communicative competence

which refers to the learner's ability to solve his communicative problems. Spada (op. cit.) excludes this competence from her list.

The researcher pointed out in chapter 1 that the aim of this study was to improve teacher training syllabuses on the basis of the findings that will be made. The views discussed above especially the three COLT components were used as a guide in suggesting the syllabus guidelines given in chapter nine.

3.9 SUMMARY OF REVIEW

The aim of this review was to explore the use of language in the context of the classroom. Classrooms are complex situations in which a lot of activity is realised through the medium of language. In the case of second language classrooms where teachers are themselves non-native speakers, the realisation of these activities is, to a certain extent, limited by their limited proficiency in the second language.

What this review does for the researcher is to provide a theoretical framework on which analysis and discussion of research data in chapters five, six, seven, eight and nine were based. This framework suggests that functions that teachers realise in the classroom include:

- a) the pedagogical functions of questioning pupils, correcting and improving their responses, and facilitating second language acquisition through communicative discourse interaction;
- b) organisational functions of classroom language with special reference to classroom management talk and group work talk.

On the basis of the research studies reviewed, the researcher proceeded to analyse the major functions of language in the lessons taught by the student-teachers selected for this study. These were discussed in the context of the interlanguage that student-teachers use to realise these functions.

CHAPTER IV

- 4 Research Methodology
 - 4.1 Research Design
 - 4.1.1 Factors That Influenced the Research Design
 - 4.1.2 The Multi-Stage Sampling Design
 - 4.1.3 Application of the Multi-Stage Sampling Design in the Study
 - 4.2 Data Collection Procedures
 - 4.2.1 Primary Data
 - 4.2.2 Secondary Data
 - 4.3 Tape Transcription
 - 4.4 Data Analysis
 - 4.4.1 The Error Analysis Method
 - 4.4.2 Interlanguage Analysis

CHAPTER FOUR

4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter is devoted to a description of the research method used in the study. As indicated in chapter three, the research focusses on interlanguage analysis from a linguistic as well as from a sociolinguistic perspective.

The selection and sampling of research subjects is based on "Multi-Stage Sampling Design" which combines principles derived from random, cluster, opportunity and stratified sampling designs (Bennett, 1973; Wilson, 1979). The way in which this method was applied is discussed below.

4.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1.1 FACTORS THE INFLUENCED THE RESEARCH DESIGN

Government policy towards teacher education in Zimbabwe influenced the choice of 'subjects' for this research. When Zimbabwe became independent in 1980, the new government introduced new policies in the education system. One of these policies was to expand primary education and to make it available to every normal child. As a result of this, enrolment figures in primary schools doubled from 3,610 in 1982 to 6,502 in 1983 (Annual Reports 1982: 27; 1983: 29). The new policy gave rise to an acute shortage of teachers. In order to alleviate this problem, primary teacher education was expanded. The teacher training period was also extended from three to four years. The aim was to deploy student teachers in rural schools where teacher shortage is most acute. All second and fourth year student-teachers spend one year teaching in the schools. During that time, they carry out their teacher training course programmes using distance teaching course materials prepared by the colleges. The new teacher training programme is based on the

belief that long practical teaching periods provide effective on-the-job training for the student teachers whilst at the same time alleviating the shortage of teachers in the rural areas. This policy affects the distribution of teachers in the schools. About 95% of the second and fourth year student-teachers are deployed in rural schools and, only about 5% are in urban schools.

The student teachers selected to participate in this study were in their second year of training. No students in their fourth year of training were involved since the new teaching practice programme had just started when this study was initiated. The research sample was drawn from a student teacher population of 1,407. This excludes student-teachers enrolled for the Zimbabwe Integrated Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC); secondary school student-teachers and one private missionary primary school college that had not been affiliated to the University of Zimbabwe when the study was initiated. The selection of research subjects focussed on students enrolled in primary teachers colleges that are affiliated to the University of Zimbabwe through a special scheme of association. The scheme enables the University to certificate students in colleges of education that meet the academic, professional and administrative requirements it stipulates. A department within the Faculty of Education of the University of Zimbabwe, the Associate College Centre, in which the researcher is lecturer monitors and guides these colleges on behalf of the University of Zimbabwe. The functions of the Associate College Centre (ACC) are comparable to those of the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) in the United Kingdom. Since the ACC monitors course programmes in these colleges and since, all information about the deployment of student-teachers in Associate colleges is submitted to the chairman of the ACC, it was decided to limit the research to a sample

drawn from Associate Colleges. ZINTEC students were excluded from the project because they follow a different course programme. In fact, they follow an inservice course programme. Also, because the researcher decided to focus on the interlanguage of primary school student-teachers, secondary school student-teachers were excluded. The other reason for excluding this group was the researcher's preference to study the language of groups of students operating at a level that had led to his assumptions about student-teachers' use of language.

After identifying the research population, the researcher had to decide how he could obtain a representative sample from a population of 1,407 student-teachers. The criterion observed to obtain the sample was that in a study of this type and a subject population of this size, "size (of sample) is less important than representativeness" (Bennett et al, 1973: 46). A study of random, systematic, stratified and cluster sampling techniques revealed weaknesses which would not make it possible for the researcher to obtain a fairly representative sample from such a large population. The multi-stage sampling design was found to be the most suitable.

4.1.2 THE MULTI-STAGE SAMPLING DESIGN

The multi-stage sampling design is recommended for studies that involve large populations (Bennett et al, op. cit). A researcher who uses the "random" or the "systematic" sampling design would need long lists containing names of schools and those of students. When the numbers involved are in thousands, the sampling process becomes unmanageable. Bennett et al (op. cit.: 45) describe stage sampling as falling midway between random sampling and other techniques like cluster sampling.

The latter involves grouping research subjects or items according to their characteristics or "natural" properties. They further claim that multi-stage sampling avoids the often impossible rigour of (random sampling) but ensures wider representation than (cluster sampling)". In multi-stage sampling, the following steps are followed:

- i) randomly select (n) regions from a given number;
- ii) randomly select (n) Local Education Authorities (LEAs) from each region;
- iii) randomly select schools from each Local Education Area (LEA);
- iv) randomly select classes from each school;
- v) randomly select pupils from each class.

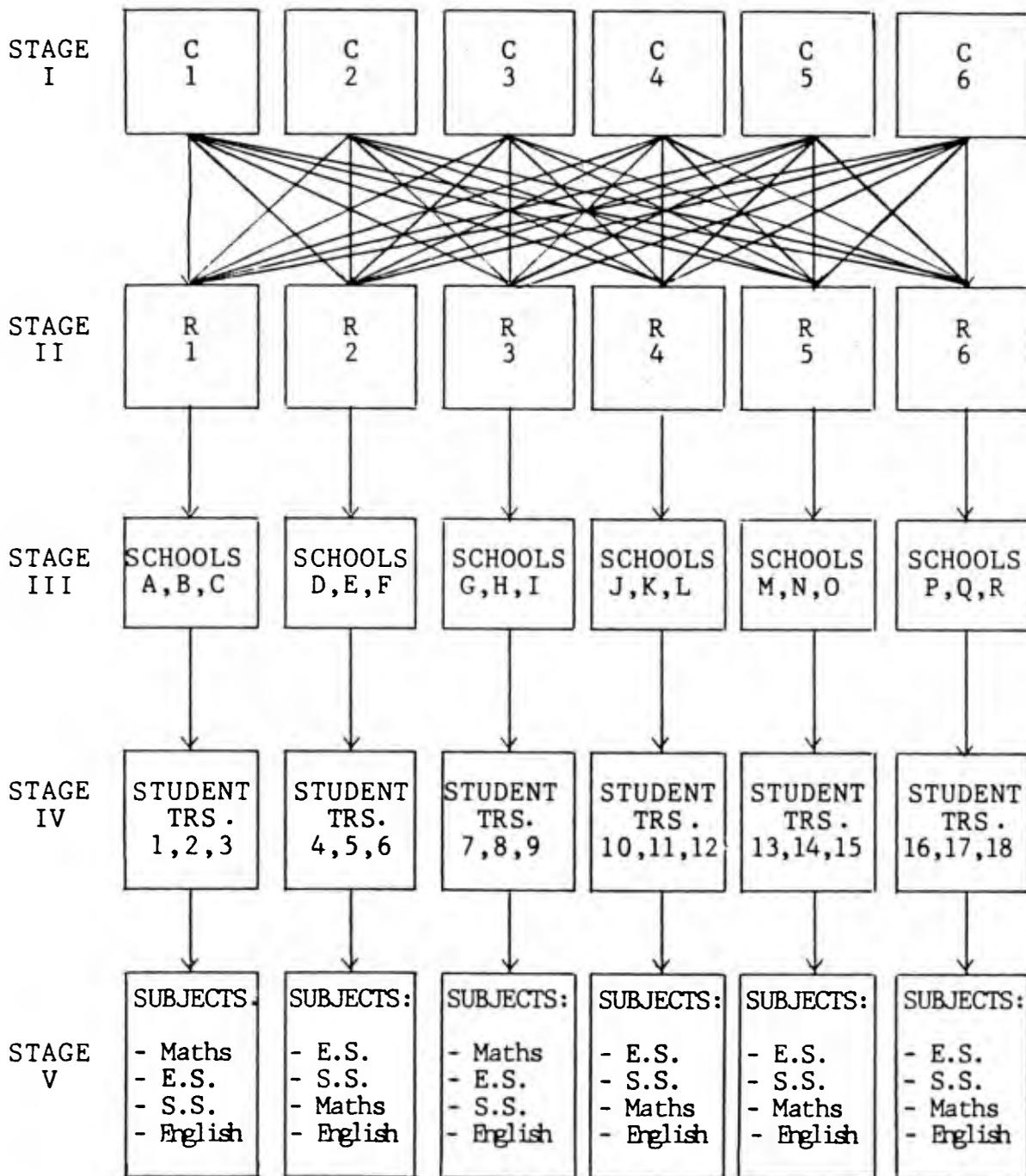
(Bennett et al, op. cit.)

These suggestions are intended for researchers in the United Kingdom. When applied by researchers in other countries certain modifications need to be made. But there was no problem applying these stages in Zimbabwe where the equivalent of British LEAs are 'Education Regions'.

Multi-stage sampling has the advantage that it is flexible; other sampling techniques can be applied within it. For instance, at each stage, the researcher can use "random sampling techniques" when the need to do so arises. Burroughs (1971: 59) observes that in multi-stage sampling the "randomization principle obtains throughout".

4.1.3 APPLICATION OF THE MULTI-STAGE SAMPLING DESIGN IN THE STUDY

The way in which the multi-stage sampling design was applied in this study is illustrated in Diagram 7 below.



Key: College = C; Region = R

Diagram 7 Application of the Multi-stage Sampling Design

STAGE I

In his application of the multi-stage sampling design the researcher was compelled to involve all primary teachers' colleges associated to the University of Zimbabwe (see Map 2 below).



MAP 2 REGIONS AND COLLEGES OF EDUCATION USED IN THIS STUDY

Diagram 6 shows that all the colleges, C_1 to C_6 feed every region with student-teachers. Student-teachers are not necessarily deployed in the regions in which their colleges are located. Instead, they are encouraged to teach in their home areas where they can stay with their parents. This

reduces the number of those seeking accommodation at the schools they teach. Since student-teachers are free to train at any college of their choice, irrespective of whether it is in their home area or not and since they are encouraged to teach in their home areas, one finds that college₁ which may be in the eastern region of Zimbabwe (R_1) feeds region 6 (R_6) which may be in the northern part.

The result of this sort of set up is that in one region one can find students from all the colleges in the country and, in one school, there may be students from three or more different colleges. This explains the emergence of a complex national deployment structure indicated by the intertwining lines in Diagram 7. For instance, college₁ (C_1) feeds all the regions (R_1 to R_6) indicated by lines drawn from C_1 to R_1 , R_2 , R_3 , R_4 , R_5 and R_6 with student teachers. A similar deployment pattern exists between other colleges and the six regions indicated. Because the number of colleges involved was small (only six), it was not necessary to sample them randomly as suggested by Bennett et al (1971) and Burroughs (1973) but to involve them all since they formed a small 'natural group'; natural, in the sense that all the colleges are primary school teacher training colleges and that in 1984 when the research design was constructed, second year students from all the colleges involved were on teaching practice.

STAGE II

There are five main education regions in Zimbabwe - Mashonaland, Matebeleland, Manicaland, the Midlands and Victoria (Masvingo). Mashonaland is further divided into Mashonaland East, Mashonaland West and Harare. Similarly, Matebeleland is divided into Matebeland North and South. When the

sub-divisions are included, we get eight education regions. At this stage, the research used 'opportunity' or 'deliberate' sampling techniques to determine which regions should be involved in the research. 'Opportunity' sampling gives the researcher the freedom to choose subjects or items to use in his study, Bennett et al (op. cit.). In this case, it was decided to use six regions and to exclude Matebeleland North and South. There were two reasons why these regions were excluded:

(i) The 'Security Factor'

After Zimbabwe attained independence in 1980, some Ndebele speaking people were opposed to the leadership of Prime Minister Robert Mugabe. Armed dissidents began to terrorise people in Bulawayo and the Matebeleland rural areas. Their targets are Shona speaking people and supporters of the government led by Robert Mugabe. As a result, some schools in rural areas were closed. This made it impossible for the researcher to collect data from these regions. The few students who were teaching in urban schools were visited but the data were not used for reasons given below.

ii) The 'Linguistic Factor'

Matebeleland constitutes a different linguistic community from Mashonaland. As indicated in Chapter I, in Mashonaland, Manicaland, Masvingo and some parts of the Midlands, Shona is the major language. Chimanyika in Manicaland; Chikaranga in Masvingo and some parts of the Midlands, Zezuru in Mashonaland and Chikorekore in Mutoko are all dialects of Shona. Intertribal communication is fluent between speakers from these regions. Ndebele, on the other hand, is a completely different language. It is an offshoot of South African Bantu languages such as Zulu,

Xhosa, Swazi and Tswana. In sampling parlance, Ndebele constitutes a different linguistic 'natural group' from Shona.

It was for these reasons that the researcher excluded Ndebele speaking student-teachers and learners from the sample. Involving them would have meant introducing a linguistic variable that would be difficult to explain since the researcher is himself not Ndebele-speaking. Because of these factors, the regions that were 'deliberately' sampled were Mashonaland East, Mashonaland West, Harare, Manicaland, the Midlands and Masvingo.

STAGE III

When the researcher had identified the education regions as suggested in Stage II, he proceeded to randomly select a sample of three schools from each region. The decision to select three schools was based on the number of 'content' lessons that the researcher wanted from each region. These were Mathematics, Environmental Studies and Social Studies. Although the researcher needed some lessons in the teaching of English, it was decided that these should be given by some of the students selected to teach content subjects. This would facilitate describing and comparing how English is taught as a subject and how it is used as a means of communication.

The schools were randomly selected as follows:

- i) the names of the schools where students were deployed were written on cards;
- ii) the cards were shuffled in a box;
- iii) the researcher picked three cards from the box, one at a time;
- iv) Steps i) to iii) were repeated for each region.

As a result of the random sampling exercise, the following schools were selected from each region:

REGION	SCHOOL
MASHONALAND EAST	GOSHA BONDAMAKARA ST. HUGHES
MASHONALAND WEST	NYAYA MAPONDERA MATORANJERA
HARARE	MUTIUNOKURA RUGARE MAKUNDANO
MANICALAND	CHIGUDU CHENDAMBUYA MUNYARARI
VICTORIA (MASVINGO)	ZHARA ST. SIMON CHITSA
THE MIDLANDS	VUNGWI ZVAMAUNJE SHAMBA

TABLE 7. SCHOOLS SELECTED WITHIN EACH REGION

The researcher also collected data from trained experienced regular teachers who had been rated as 'good' by their headmasters and education officers. The teachers were selected on the basis of their final year teaching practice results at college and the assessments of headmasters and education officers. The six teachers selected, one from each region, had obtained distinction passes in their final year of training and had been persistently rated as 'good' teachers.

The distribution of subjects among these teachers was carried out using the same method as that used for student-teachers. But this time, it was the researcher doing it in the absence of the teachers. The names of the selected teachers were written on a piece of paper against numbers (A) to (F) and six cards on which the following subjects; English, Mathematics (2 cards), Environmental Studies and Social Studies (2 cards) were prepared. The researcher shuffled the cards and then picked one of these randomly. The subject on the card picked first was assigned to teacher A; the next to teacher B until all the six cards had been picked.

The regular teachers' lessons were tape-recorded, transcribed and analysed. The data was then used to compare student-teachers' teaching approaches and those of experienced regular teachers. Criteria used to determine what "good teaching" meant to the teachers, headmasters and education officers was based on the information supplied during the structured interviews which the researcher conducted (see Appendix O₄). He then synthesised these and produced what he described as 'criteria for determining an effective lesson' (see Appendix O_{4,6}).

STAGE IV

At this stage, the researcher had to determine the grade level at which students would teach. Using the principle of 'opportunity sampling', the researcher decided to choose Grade 6 classes. The choice of this grade was determined by the following two factors:

- i) Although it is official policy that English should be used as a medium of instruction from Grade 1, it was observed that, in practice, teachers in grades 1 to 3 use Shona as a medium

of instruction. English is effectively used as a medium of instruction from Grade 4. This suggested that student-teachers involved in the research had to be those teaching in any grade from 4 to 7.

- ii) In Zimbabwe, Grade 7 pupils write a public examination. Because the results of this examination reflect the quality of education offered by each school, headmasters assign these classes to qualified teachers. Consequently, there are few student-teachers teaching Grade 7 classes. This meant that research student-teachers had to be selected from those teaching grades 4 to 6.

It was decided to use Grade 6 classes. These were found to be a suitable target since pupils in these grades would have been in school for $5\frac{1}{2}$ years learning English as a subject and effectively using it as a medium of learning for $2\frac{1}{2}$ years. It was assumed that Grade 6 pupils were capable of answering questions in English in a fairly comprehensible manner.

There were no less than four Grade 6 classes in each school. In order to decide which of the four or more Grade 6 student-teachers would be involved, the researcher used the simple random sampling technique. As Burroughs (op. cit.:58) observed, this technique ensures that "every individual must have the same chance of being picked as every other individual". The following steps were followed in the selection of research subjects:

- i) Names of student-teachers teaching Grade 6 at each school were written on cards;
- ii) The cards were shuffled in a box.
- iii) One card was picked from the box. The name on the card indicated the student-teacher who would be involved. Only one

student-teacher was chosen from each of the three schools within one region.

Steps i) to iii) were repeated for each school. The number of student-teachers randomly selected was 18, equalling the number of schools selected.

STAGE V

It was the researcher's intention to have the three student-teachers in each region teach a total of four lessons among themselves (see Table 8 on page 118). Two would teach either Mathematics or Social Studies and the other student-teacher would teach English and either Social Studies, Environmental Science or Mathematics. As in Stage IV, the researcher used simple random sampling techniques to assign subjects to student-teachers. He prepared three sets of cards on which different subjects were written as shown in Diagram 7 (Page 108).

Different sets were used at each school in order to ensure a fair distribution of combinations of English and one other content subject. If a student-teacher in region 1 chose a card with English and Environmental Science, another student-teacher in region 2 chose English and Social Studies, and, in region 3, one student-teacher would choose a combination of English and Mathematics. The combinations would be repeated in regions 4, 5 and 6. Each set was shuffled in a box and the three student-teachers at each school picked cards on which the subject/subjects they would teach were written. Once a card was picked, it was not returned into the box (sampling without replacement) (Bennett et al, op. cit.). The process was repeated at each school that had been randomly sampled for the research.

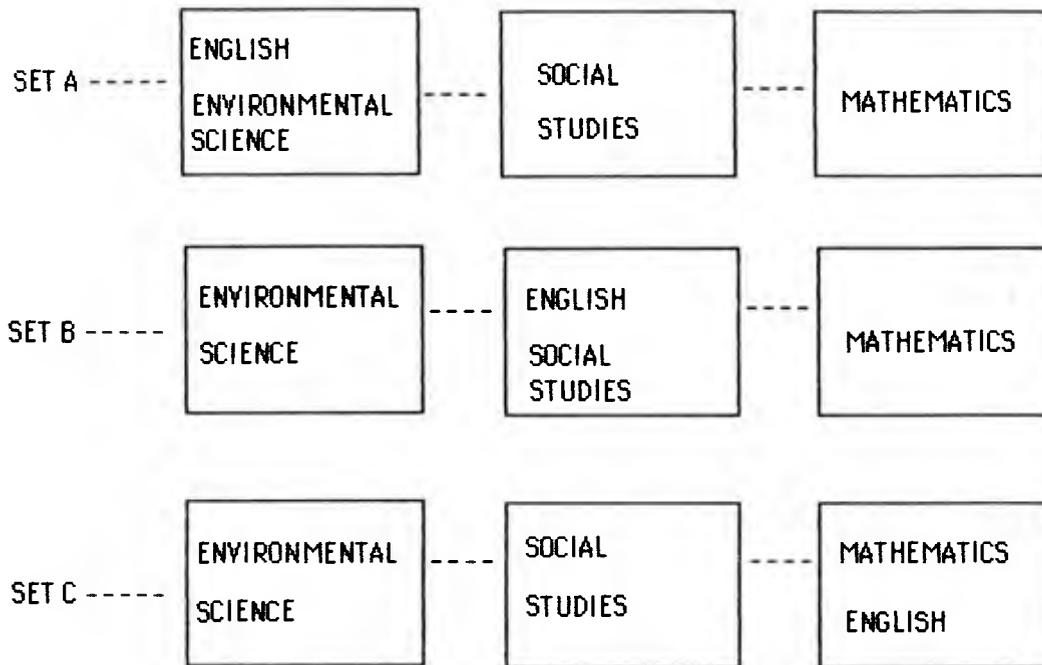


Diagram 6 Random Sampling Cards

It was pleasing to note that student-teachers found the sampling activity interesting. They had been informed about the researcher's intentions. They were pleased to take part in research that would have consequences for teacher education. Some of those who were not selected for the research volunteered to teach lessons that the researcher tape recorded. They liked the idea of listening to their voices and those of their pupils. At not time did student-teachers express displeasure towards the researcher's visits, requests and questions.

Table 8 gives the results of the stages of the 'multi-stage sampling design' discussed in this sub-section.

REGION	SCHOOL	URBAN RURAL	STUDENTS' COLLEGE	SEX	MATH	ENG	ES	SS	TOTAL NO. OF LESSONS
MASHONALAND EAST	GOSHA	R	NYADIRE	F	1	1			2
	BONDAMAKARA	R	NYADIRE	M			1		1
	ST. HUGHES	R	SEKE	M				1	1
MASHONALAND WEST	NYAYA	R	*UCE	F	1				1
	MAPONDERA	R	BONDOLFI	M		1	1		2
	MATORANJERA	R	MKوبا	M				1	1
HARARE	MUTINUNOKURA	U	MKوبا	F			1		1
	RUGARE	U	SEKE	F		1		1	2
	MAKUNDANO	U	SEKE	F	1				1
MANICALAND	CHIGUDU	R	MUTARE	M	1	1			2
	CHENDAMBUYA	R	*UCE	F			1		1
	MUNYARARI	R	NYADIRE	M				1	1
VICTORIA	ZHARA	R	*UCE	M		1	1		2
	ST. SIMON	U	BONDOLFI	F	1				1
	CHITSA	R	BONDOLFI	M				1	1
THE MIDLANDS	YUNGWI	R	MKوبا	M		1		1	2
	ZYAMAUNJE	R	MKوبا	M	1				1
	SHAMBA	R	SEKE	F			1		1
					6	6	6	6	24

*UCE = UNITED COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

TABLE 8 RESEARCH, SAMPLE, SUBJECTS TAUGHT AND OTHER INFORMATION

4.2 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

4.2.1 PRIMARY DATA

Primary data for this research consisted of tape recorded lessons. Tape recording research data in language studies seems to be the best method of collecting what Wolfson (1976) called 'natural language'. The fact that in these situations, most discourse acts are not planned, suggests a certain degree of spontaneity in the student-teachers' and learners' use of language. It is its spontaneity that gives it the qualities of a "natural language". Referring to tape recording as a method of collecting language research data, Burton (1980) said:

In a sense all conversation requires at least two primary alienation devices imposed on it by the analyst to make it in any way accessible to either analysis or theory: tape recording and transcription (own emphasis).

(Burton, op. cit.: 1)

In this research, data was alienated in the manner suggested in the quotation. The alienation process involved the following steps:

- 1) Tape recording was preceded by visits to schools. The researcher observed what went on in the classroom. General notes were made on the way teachers communicated with the pupils. The visits took the form of what ethnomethodologists call the 'Grand Tour'. The aim of the 'grand tourist' is to study all aspects of the research environment without focussing on what he intends to research on. Such aspects as routine in the distribution of learning material, desk arrangement and group work organisation are taken into account. It was easy for the researcher to carry out such tours because, as pointed out above, he is a lecturer in a department of the Faculty of Education of the University of Zimbabwe and in that capacity, he frequently visits

schools where student-teachers are deployed. He spent 3 hours at each school and 2 hours in each classroom that had been selected to take part in the research.

ii) Trial and familiarisation tours

These tours were intended to familiarise student teachers and learners with the processes involved in tape recording lessons. Although they were used to having education officers, college lecturers and university lecturers pay them frequent supervisory visits, the idea of having a visitor with a tape recorder was new to them. After the researcher explained the aim of the visit and promised the class that they would hear their own voices when the tape was replayed, both the teacher and the pupils became interested. Lesson presentation took 30 minutes. After that, the tape was replayed for another 30 minutes. The researcher paused from time to time, commenting on the clarity of the tape and the pupils' good responses. All this was aimed to give pupils confidence. After the replay, the class was told that they had done very well and that the researcher would pay them another visit to tape record another lesson. The lessons taught during the familiarisation tours were chosen by the student-teacher. They were not the lessons that had been selected for the research project. They were merely trial lessons.

iii) Final visits: collecting research data

After the trial visits, the researcher re-visited the schools he had selected for the research. Since the pupils and the student-teachers were familiar with the procedures required and were keen to have their lesson tape-recorded, the researcher was well received by both the pupils and the student-teachers.

Each student-teacher taught for 30 minutes. After that, the researcher replayed the tape to the class. During the playback, the researcher noted any issues which he wanted the student-teachers concerned to explain during their interview.

4.2.2 SECONDARY DATA

Secondary data was obtained from activities that provided additional information to the primary data. The introduction of secondary data collection techniques at this stage was an attempt to apply principles of the 'triangulation' technique which calls for a combination of more than one data collection method (Hammersley et al, 1983: 198). The importance of "triangulation" in any study is that it enables the researcher to cross validate his observations or "data sources". In this study, secondary data played a minor role. Interviews and discussions with student-teachers did, however, provide an opportunity for them to interpret some of their utterances or use of certain words which the researcher could not reliably interpret without their assistance. They also gave the researcher an opportunity to assess student-teachers' views towards their own and pupils' use of English in the classroom (see summary of views, Appendix C).

The following techniques were used to obtain secondary data:

(i) Student-teacher interviews

Not all student-teachers were available for the post-teaching interviews but efforts were made to meet those whose classroom language the researcher thought contained vague and ambiguous constructions. The aim was to give the student-teachers a chance to explain certain structures that the researcher could not interpret. This was achieved in two ways: the student-teacher explained in

English, what he meant by certain expressions the researcher considered idiosyncratic. Or, the student-teacher gave an L₁ translation of the utterance. The interpretations were given for the utterances that the researcher had noted during the lesson and the 'playback' sessions. So, only a few utterances were discussed during the interviews.

ii) Observation Notes

The researcher observed student-teachers giving lessons and made notes on class interest, vague language expressions, use of aids and any other relevant issues. The notes were made on specially prepared sheets (see Appendix D).

iii) Lesson Notes and Schemes of Work

The researcher also examined student-teachers' lesson notes in order for him to understand the topic for each lesson, the teaching objectives and the learning activities intended to realise the objectives stated. A few schemes of work were also analysed (see Appendix E for samples of lesson notes).

4.3 TAPE TRANSCRIPTION

The researcher transcribed the 24 taped lessons. It was necessary for him to do so rather than let a research assistant do the transcription because tape transcription in a study of this type is, as in ethnomethodology, a "distinct stage of the research" (Hammersley et al, 1983). As the researcher transcribed the tapes, he formulated ideas which he later used in the analysis of his data. He also gradually developed ideas which enabled him to focus on issues that needed emphasising. This is very much like what ethnomethodologists call "progressive focussing" (Hammersley, 1983; Bohannon, 1981). For ethnomethodologists, "progressive focussing" is related

to the development of a research theory or hypothesis but in this study, it was used to refer to the selection of certain elements, within the data corpus, that needed to be analysed and described in terms of the research hypothesis and its operational aims.

The following signs and symbols were used in the transcripts:

... short pause

..... long pause

----- organisational pause

_____ silence

() encloses explanatory information

---N/A not audible

'()' encloses translated utterances

----- indicates omission of parts of discourse, exchanges or translations.

As much as possible, the researcher tried to avoid what Atkinson (1981) called "tidying up" research data, that is, transcribing data not as it was said, but in language forms that the transcriber is used to or would like to have it said. All the transcripts were double checked. A research assistant was asked to listen to the tapes and to check the accuracy of the researcher's transcriptions.

4.4 DATA ANALYSIS

The analysis of linguistic data focussed upon the forms and function of the utterances that constitute student-teachers' and learners' discourse exchanges. The researcher's main analytical method was based on principles derived from the discourse analysis hypothesis which Larsen-Freeman (1980)

and Hatch (1983) recommend for the analysis of interlanguage. The EA approach was also used to analyse the grammatical deviations that were observed in the data. The analytical-descriptive steps the researcher applied in each case are described below.

4.4.1 THE ERROR ANALYSIS METHOD

In his application of the EA method, the researcher worked along the lines suggested by Norrish (1983: 87) who describes Hudson's (1977) card sorting technique in which no predetermined error categories are used. Instead, the 'errors' are left free to determine their own categories. The following procedural steps were followed:

- i) Analyse linguistic data to identify incorrectly used items or incorrect constructions.
- ii) Write incorrectly used items on cards, one item on each card.
- iii) Group cards according to error types, that is, according to their formal features.
- iv) Assign a grammatical label/category to each group of deviating items of errors.
- v) Describe the features of each deviating category and account for their possible origin.

4.4.2 INTERLANGUAGE ANALYSIS

The analytical method used in the study is discourse-based. It focusses on the cohesive/coherent features of classroom discourse acts at the formal and semantic levels. It also focusses on the analysis of the pedagogical and sociolinguistic functions of the utterances. The formal description of the discourse utterances was carried out beyond the sentence level, that is, in terms of how they relate formally and semantically to the utterances that

precede or succeed them. This is the sense in which this technique is referred to as discourse-based. It was, however, necessary for the researcher to indicate the functions of each utterance in the lessons in order for him to assess samples of communicatively effective and non-effective minimum discourse units (see Chapter six). The analysis of discourse "exchanges" and "informs" involved the following procedural steps:

- i) The researcher identified "minimum discourse units" and "informs" in each lesson as illustrated in samples shown in appendix M.
- ii) The form/function relationship between discourse utterances was studied.
- iii) The researcher provided linguistic and sociolinguistic descriptions of the utterances used in the discourse noting the cohesive devices used, if any, and the ways in which semantic coherence was effected.

The application of the research techniques described in this chapter yielded results/observations which will be discussed in succeeding chapters. These will be presented in the following order:

- i) Chapter five will provide an overview of the grammatical errors committed by student-teachers.
- ii) Chapter six will focus on the analysis of the functions of student-teachers interlanguage and the linguistic structures they use to realise them.
- iii) In chapter seven, the researcher looks back at chapters five and six and summarises the interlanguage rules that characterise student-teachers' classroom talk.

- iv) Chapter eight focusses on the relationship between student-teachers' interlanguage and instructional strategies and compares these with those used by experienced regular teachers.
- v) In the final chapter, chapter nine, the researcher provides a summary of the research findings, and, in the light of these, gives suggestions for improving teacher-training syllabuses in Zimbabwe.

CHAPTER V

- 5 Research Findings I: An Overview of Grammatical Errors
- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Grammatical Error Categories
- 5.3 Notion of Error in Interlanguage
- 5.4 Description of Error Categories
 - 5.4.1 Errors in the Use of Articles
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 - 5.4.4 Errors in the Use of Number
 - 5.4.5 Errors in the Selection of Lexical Items
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 - 5.4.8 Errors in the Formulation of Questions
 - 5.4.9 Errors in the Use of Tense
 - 5.4.10 Miscellaneous Errors
- 5.5 Conclusions

CHAPTER FIVE

5 RESEARCH FINDINGS I: AN OVERVIEW OF GRAMMATICAL ERRORS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Literature on the formal features of spoken and written language suggests that the two communication channels are qualitatively different. Their distinguishing characteristics have been pointed out and discussed by a number of linguists including Rubin (1980), Akinasso (1982), Beattie (1983), Ochs and Shieffelin (1983) and Brown and Yule (1983). Some linguists go as far as to claim that the two channels constitute different language varieties. Hudson (1984) suggests this when, in his report on the views expressed by members of the Linguistic Association of Great Britain, he writes:

The structural characteristics of the least speech-like genres of writing can be very different indeed from those of the least writing-like genres of speech, and need to be kept clearly distinct in accounts of the language concerned.

(Hudson, op. cit.: 8)

Brown and Yule (op. cit.) proceed to distinguish the two channels at a functional level. Referring to Goody and Watt (1963) and Goody (1977) who view spoken and written language as serving different social functions, they observe that written language encourages analytical thinking whereas spoken language serves an interactional function. It can, however, be argued that both language types encourage analytical thinking but that because spoken language calls for "speed and fluency" whereas written language provides the user with more time to think (Hudson op. cit.) the latter can be said to induce greater analytical thinking.

We can further distinguish the two modes by noting the manner in which each is prepared and presented. Spoken language is often spontaneous. It lacks

what Ochs et al (op. cit.: 133) call "forethought and organisational preparation" whereas written language is usually carefully "thought out and organised prior to its expression". Because of this, spoken language can be likened to "unplanned discourse" and written language to "planned discourse". Such differences led Rubin (1980) to point out that it would be misleading for anyone to compare "oral language" with "written language" because the two broad classes of language are remarkably different.

Hudson (op. cit.) also notes that there are other factors besides their formal features which make spoken and written language different. Spoken language is articulated under time pressure and written language is realised under the pressure of space. The different circumstances and conditions under which they are realised gives the two channels their distinguishing formal features. Milroy (1984) quoted by Hudson (op. cit.) observes that:

the need for speed and continuity in speech encourages the use of fillers and cliques, repetitions and other kinds of redundancy and constructions like left and right dislocation which make planning easier.

(Hudson, op. cit.: 4)

A similar observation was made by Brown and Yule (op. cit.: 15) who says that "spoken language contains many incomplete sentences, often simply sequences of phrases" and Rubin (1980) claims that such features of spoken discourse are due to the fact that unlike written language, spoken language is transient; "redundancy and repetitions are common compensations for the non-permanence of speech" (Rubin op. cit.: 422). Syntactically, written language may differ from spoken language in that the normal word order in written language consists of:

SUBJECT + PREDICATE constructions.

But in speech this is not always the case. There are occasions when it is more normal for speech utterances to consist of

TOPIC + COMMENT constructions.

Or, as Ochs (1984) prefers to call such constructions,

REFERENT + PROPOSITION constructions.

In such constructions, the speaker "foregrounds" the information which he considers important. Consequently, the syntactic order that appears in such constructions would, in written language, be classified as errors in sentence construction (see chapter nine).

The fact that spoken language differs from written language has implications for researchers investigating the nature of spoken discourse. It suggests that the criteria used to assess grammatical acceptability in spoken discourse differ from those used to assess the grammatical acceptability of written language. In analysing the grammaticality of spoken discourse we realise as Stubbs (1984) in Hudson (*op. cit.*) observes, that grammaticality is easier to observe in written than in spoken discourse. Akinasso (1982) expressed a similar view when he pointed out the fact that discourse analysts had realised the fact that the notion of sentence could not be applied to the analysis of conversational data. This, according to Akinasso, led linguists to apply a different analytical unit when analysing spoken discourse. Halliday (1973) refers to such a unit as an "informational unit", Gumperz (1977) refers to it as an "idea unit". In Chapter six the researcher refers to such units as "communicative acts or activities".

Sinclair et al (1975) refer to "communicative acts" or "informational units" simply as "utterances". The researcher used "utterances" in preference to all the other terms, throughout this study. On the distinction between a 'sentence' and an 'utterance', Crystal (1980: 370) notes that a sentence "receives its definition from a theory of grammar" whereas, for an utterance, "no assumptions can be made in terms of linguistic theory". The researcher's interpretation of this statement is that although we can discuss utterance

structures using grammatical rules that we normally apply in the analysis of sentences, it is not appropriate to use these to determine the communicative effectiveness of discourse utterances. For the latter, we need to apply different criteria. Accordingly, the researcher used as some of his analytical units, 'communicative activities' indicating how 'cohesive' and 'coherent' devices were used in the discourse data (see Chapter six).

The researcher also heeded the suggestion that a discourse analyst needs to assume the role of a grammarian but that instead of discussing "grammatical rules" only, he should also discuss the "regularities" that appear in his spoken language data (Brown and Yule, 1983: 20-21). On the basis of this suggestion, the researcher (i) analysed the grammatical rules of his data (see section 5.2 of this chapter) and then (ii) analysed and discussed the regularities, that is systematic tendencies, of student-teachers' discourse utterances (see Chapters six and seven).

Linguists have also observed that communication involves a lot more than merely articulating syntactically acceptable utterances. It is possible for a speaker/student-teacher to articulate formally acceptable utterances and yet fail to realise his communicative intention or for the listener/learner to decode the communicator's message. In an attempt to explain why this happens, linguists have developed theories based on Austin's (1965), Searle's (1975) and Grice's (1975) theories of "speech acts". The branch of linguistics that analyses speech acts in interpersonal communication is "pragmatics". It focusses on the study of the speaker's communicative intention, that is, his illocutionary meaning as it is conveyed in a speech act and the way it is interpreted by the listener. This topic will be discussed in detail in Chapter six.

The researcher realised that it was not possible to assess the illocutionary or the communicative effect of student-teachers' utterances from the over-view of errors presented in this chapter, but that we can only do so when we analyse utterances as they occur in interpersonal discourse. So, whereas this chapter focusses upon and discusses the error categories that were observed in student-teachers' discourse, the next chapter will focus on the communicative effects of their discourse exchanges.

5.2 GRAMMATICAL ERROR CATEGORIES

The categories indicated in Table 9 below are based on what the researcher identified as genuine grammatical errors. In arriving at these categories, care was taken to avoid the inclusion of such spoken language features as repetitions, fillers and redundancies. As Norrish (1983: 80) advises, only "gross errors and mistakes should be noted when classifying learner errors".

Looking through Table 9, one gets the impression that student-teachers commit the greatest number of errors in the selection of lexical items and that, next in the order of difficulty is the use of articles followed by prepositions up to the least difficult category - that of adverbials. In connection with these error categories, it should be pointed out that in a study of spontaneous spoken discourse, the researcher has no control over the language forms the research subjects use.

TABLE 9 GRAMMATICAL ERROR CATEGORIES

CATEGORY	NO. OF STUDENT-TEACHERS WHO COMMITTED ERROR	NO. OF ERRORS
<u>ARTICLES</u>		
'THE' FOR \emptyset	10	19
'THE' FOR 'A'	2	4
'THE' OMITTED	5	8
'A' FOR \emptyset	2	4
'A' FOR 'THE'	2	3
'A' OMITTED	1	1
		39
<u>PREPOSITIONS</u>		
PREPOSITION FOR \emptyset	2	4
WRONG PREPOSITIONS USED	8	24
PREPOSITIONS OMITTED	6	10
		38
<u>PRONOUNS</u>		
WRONG PRONOUN USED	8	15
<u>NUMBER</u>		
SINGULAR FOR PLURAL	4	8
PLURAL FOR SINGULAR	1	1
		9
<u>ADVERBIALS</u>		
ADJECTIVE FOR ADVERBIAL	2	2
<u>INFINITIVES</u>		
IMPROPER USE OF INFINITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS	2	3

QUESTIONSWRONG QUESTION
STRUCTURES

3

4

TENSETHE PROGRESSIVE ASPECT
THE PERFECTIVE ASPECT
OTHER

5

2

1

9

6

3

18

LEXICAL ITEMSCHOICE OF A WRONG
LEXICAL ITEM
MISCELLANEOUS

17

43

3

TOTAL173

His analysis is therefore confined to the features that subjects actively and freely select from their linguistic repertoires. Certain errors may appear less frequently in the data, but this does not necessarily mean that student-teachers are more proficient in the use of these than they are in those that appear more frequently. As Schacter (1984) points out, low error frequencies may be due to the fact that learners deliberately avoid using those features which they have not yet mastered or are uncertain about. It may also be due to the fact that the discussion topics they dealt with in the lessons observed do not make extensive use of certain grammatical categories. Such a linguistic tendency is similar to what Brown and Yule (1983) call a "topic framework" in which the use of certain linguistic forms is determined by the discussion topic. They also point out that this can be caused by the fact that in discourse, certain linguistic features in the speaker's linguistic repertoire are activated whereas others are not and that such selective use of forms is influenced by the context and topic of discussion. Similarly, the errors dealt with in this chapter are those that student teachers activate for use in their discourse. We can illustrate the

error frequencies visually as shown in Diagram 7 below.

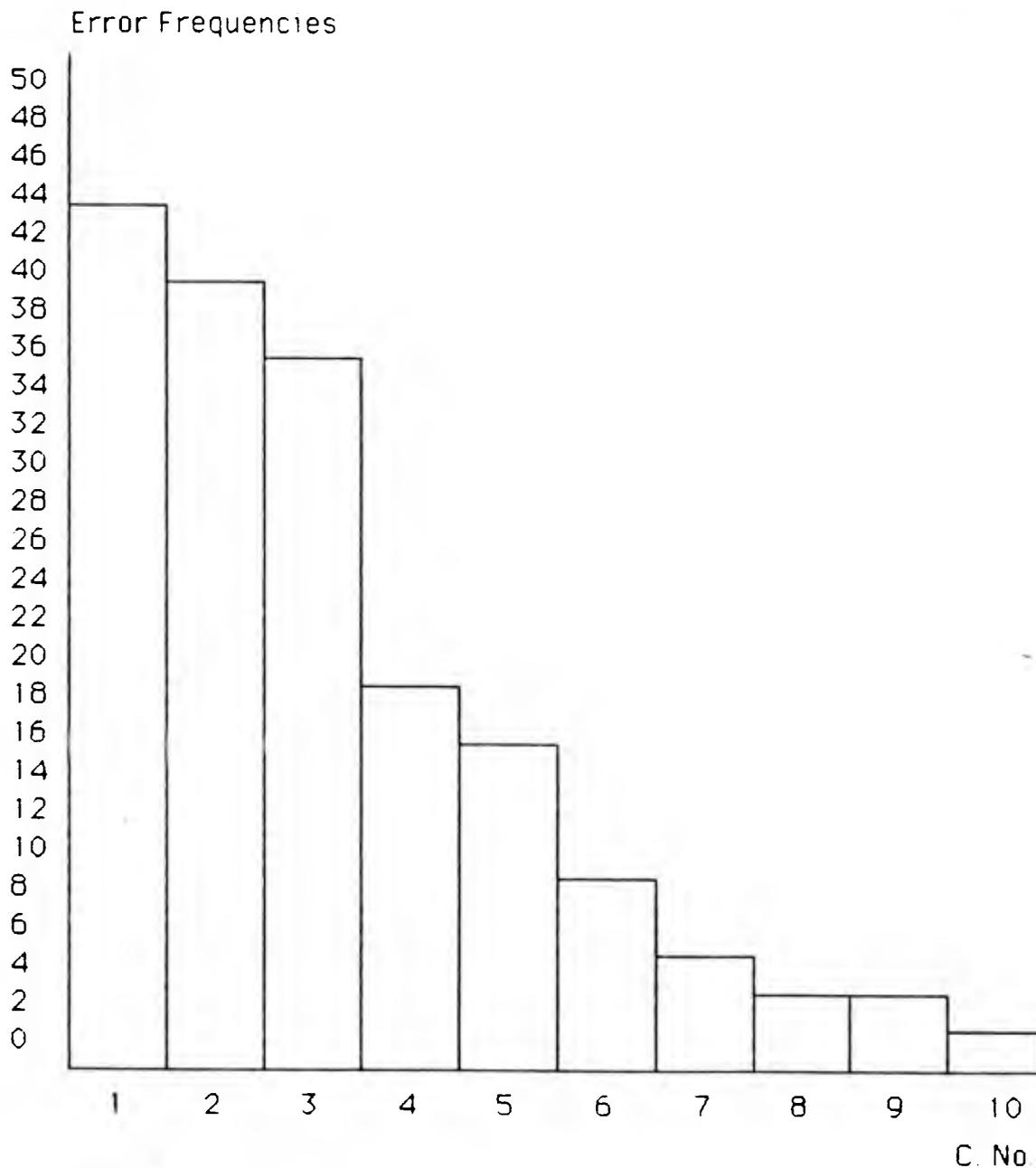


Diagram 7 Error Frequencies

KEY

C. No. = Category Number

1 = Lexical Item Errors

2 = Articles

3 = Prepositions

4 = Tense

5 = Pronouns

6 = Number

7 = Question Structures

8 = Infinitive Constructions

9 = Miscellaneous

10 = Adverbials

5.3 NOTION OF ERROR IN INTERLANGUAGE

The use of the word 'error' as a descriptive term is used in situations where interlanguage forms and rules are discussed in norm-related texts, that is, in situations where they are compared to those that obtain in the target language being learned or the learner's mother tongue. The rules of the target language do, in this case, serve as the norm to which interlanguage rules are compared. Faerch et al (1984) discuss another approach to interlanguage in the sense that Corder (1971) and Selinker (1975) mean when they refer to it as a language in its own right. This view of interlanguage dismisses the notion of error. It views 'deviations' from the target language as 'linguistic rules and forms' that characterise it.

In certain educational situations, the need to analyse interlanguage in norm-related contexts arises and in others, it does not. It arises in such countries as Zimbabwe where, at the moment, linguistic accuracy in learner language is still vital in the school system. It is likely, however, that when an institutionalised Zimbabwean variety of English is established and used as an instructional model, the need to emphasise accuracy in terms of L₁ structures will be reduced in the same way it has been reduced in India and Nigeria where local varieties function as instructional models (see Kachru 1983). It is when a norm-related description of learner-language is given that the notion of "error" can be used to refer to the learner's deviations from the TL (Faerch et al, op. cit.: 278). It is in this sense that the researcher used the term "error" in this study.

The notion of error in interlanguage does, however, raise a definitional problem. Linguists such as Beattie (1983) and Norrish (1983) point out that both native and non-native speakers commit "errors" that occur as "slips" in

discourse. But in this study, all student-teachers' deviations were regarded as errors. There were however, cases in which some deviations were taken as slips of the tongue. For instance, if a student-teacher used the plural form of a noun once, instead of the singular form, it was considered a slip, but if he did so more than once in different utterances the deviation was defined as an error.

The classification categories used in Table 9 were based on those used by Richards (1985). These were preferred because they do not only show the number of errors and their broad categories, but they also provide more delicate sub-error categories where these are required. We shall discuss each of these categories in the sub-sections that follow.

5.4 DESCRIPTION OF ERROR CATEGORIES

5.4.1 ERRORS IN THE USE OF ARTICLES

This category consists of a total of thirty-nine (39) errors committed by 13 out of 18 student-teachers. The majority of errors involve the use of the definite article "the" or an indefinite article "a" in places where a zero article should be used as in:

"Can a ship travel over a land?" instead of

"Can a ship travel over land?"

Ten student-teachers out of eighteen committed 19 errors of this type. A comparison with a study that Faerch et al (1984) reports, reveals a similar problem in the interlanguage of Danish learners. Most errors committed by Faerch et al's subjects involved "using 'the' instead of zero determiner in noun phrases which would contain a determiner in Danish" (Faerch et al, op. cit.: 107). Other instances in which the definite article 'the' is misused, in this study, include those in which it replaces the indefinite article 'a'; an error that was committed by 2 student-teachers on 4 occasions. The same article 'a' was omitted on 8 occasions by 5 student-teachers. These frequencies

indicate that the greatest problem in the use of 'the' is its overuse by student-teachers. (A total of 23 errors of overuse as opposed to 8 errors of omission was observed).

The use of the indefinite article 'a' is less problematic. It was used, instead of a zero article, by 2 student-teachers on four occasions and omitted by 2 student-teachers on 3 occasions. One student-teacher omitted it and this seems to be an instance of a 'slip' of the tongue.

Why do student-teachers overgeneralise the use of the definite article? Their native language, Shona, does not have an article system. There is therefore no question of transfer as far as this feature is concerned. The only explanation that can be given is that since the two languages, student-teacher mother tongue and the target language, are different with respect to this feature, the cause for the error is intralingual, that is, student-teachers are aware of the need to use articles but they have not yet mastered how to use these effectively in speech. There is therefore a tendency to use the definite article in linguistic environments where it is not required.

5.4.2 ERRORS IN THE USE OF PREPOSITIONS

This is another area in which student-teachers reveal problems of use. A total of 35 errors were committed by 12 student-teachers. The greatest number of errors involved the use of wrong prepositions in such linguistic environments as:

"...this fuel comes by ship and it is poured in these tanks" (= into).

24 errors of this type were committed by 8 student-teachers. Another type of error involved the omission of prepositions in environments where they were required; 10 errors of this type were committed by 6 student-teachers. In another sub-category, 2 student-teachers used prepositions in

environments where they were not required, as in:

If you watch at me.

This type of error is generally committed by many L₂ speakers in Zimbabwe.

On a number of occasions, the researcher has heard expressions like:

- * ... Watch at him.
- * ... Watch at the T.V.
- * ... Listen at the news.

The source of errors in the use of prepositions is not easy to explain. It seems, however, that the majority of these are due to intralingual factors as well as the methods of teaching used. Intralingual problems arise from the fact that different verbs take different prepositions. It is therefore not easy to describe the systematic occurrence of these. The consequences of this for a second language learner is that he fails to identify any systematic rules in the use of these since different verbs in different prepositional phrases co-occur with different prepositions. Consequently, second language teachers find it difficult to teach prepositions effectively. The commonest teaching method they use requires pupils to learn (memorise) individual prepositional phrases such as "pour into + NP", "look at + NP". When the pupils use verbs which co-occur with the prepositions they have not learned to use, they commit errors which the researcher labelled as 'the use of wrong prepositions' in Table 9.

5.4.3 ERRORS IN THE USE OF PRONOUNS

Errors in this category involve failure to use anaphoric reference items that agree with their referents. Singular anaphors are used to refer to plural referents, as in:

"At the moment we use buses to carry mealie-meal from town, and also sledges as someone said, but we use it locally": (= them).

In this utterance, 'it' is used to refer to sledges instead of 'them'. Although this was classified as a pronoun error, we could, using Halliday et al's (1976) terminology, refer to it as a reference error in which a wrong anaphoric term 'it' is used to refer to a previously mentioned item in the utterance - 'sledges'.

Another common error that was identified in this category involves lack of continuity in the use of pronominal items. Student-teachers shifted from one pronoun to the other.

"When you want to find the perimeter of a square we could measure the sides..."

This type of error occurred in the discourse of different student-teachers indicating a consistent pattern in their interlanguage. It should, however, be noted that the tendency to shift from one pronoun to the other in speech is quite common even among native speakers of English. Native speakers consulted point out that such a tendency is so common in speech that it is rarely regarded as an error and that often, speakers forget the pronouns previously used and shift to the use of different ones.

The total number of pronouns recorded as errors was 17. The majority of these involved the use of inappropriate items. It was observed that student-teachers have difficulty selecting appropriate anaphoric references. In discourse, the use of a singular anaphor instead of a plural one can cause problems when the pupils try to process or decode information. Native speaker informants who have taught English to non-native learners agreed that in situations where both singular and plural noun phrases appear in an utterance and where such pronoun shifts occur, second language learners may get more confused than L₁ learners do.

5.4.4 ERRORS IN THE USE OF NUMBER

Errors in this category were relatively few. Some of these were identified as 'slips' caused by emotional pressure rather than lack of knowledge of the appropriate forms to be used. These include:

- i) You can put the word in the plural (= words).
- ii) Can you give me a list of crop grown in Zimbabwe? (= crops).
- iii) Those centimetre are the area (= centimetres).

Some student-teachers did however encounter problems with "singular invariable nouns" which are non-count and do not take the plural form as in the following utterances:

- 'the peoples of this village' when the word 'people' is appropriate.
- 'What's the purpose of tying these maize to a string'.

Despite their low frequency in this study, these errors cannot be considered as 'slips' of the tongue. They reveal student-teachers' lack of knowledge in the use of "singular invariable nouns" which do not take plural markers like '-s or -es' or plural determiners like 'these'.

The researcher's analysis of errors in this category led him to conclude that they are due to intralingual generalisation. That is, their source is traceable to the rule systems within the target language itself. Since a good number of nouns in English form their plurals by adding '-s' at the end of a word and the plural demonstrative determiner of 'this' is 'these', student-teachers extend the application of these rules to "inappropriate contexts" (Richards, 1985: 67).

5.4.5 ERRORS IN THE SELECTION OF LEXICAL ITEMS

Errors in this category showed that student-teachers find it difficult to select appropriate lexical items. A total of 50 errors was recorded. The tendency is for student-teachers to use words that are superficially synonymous with but do not convey the same meaning as the words that would

appropriately convey their meaning.

- i) Remember the great ruler who stayed in Zimbabwe? (= lived)
- ii) They put their flag (= hoisted)
- iii) What do we protect our bodies from? (= ourselves)

Selinker (1972) and Tarone (1977) according to Richards (1985: 67) describe such errors as being "communication-based". They are the result of an L₂ based communication strategy that involves substituting a less precise item for the one that should actually be used. Although most of the utterances are semantically transparent, a native speaker listener would continuously search for the words he would use in the same contexts. In connection with such errors, it has been observed that the fewer the errors in an utterance, the easier it is to decode it. Norrish (1983: 51) observes that it is "a build-up of errors that blocks communication" and Hicks (1982: 170) observes that, in his study, multiple errors in an utterance *cause* miscommunication.

In the case of non-native listeners/pupils who are used to the student-teachers' interlanguage, the meaning can be quite clear despite the lexical errors committed (Lopez, 1983). This claim is supported by Hicks (op. cit.), who observes that:

when the speaker and lecturer share the same first language, or a first language with the same features giving rise to the error under consideration, communication will be easier.

(Hicks, 1982: 168)

The researcher found this claim to be partially true since there are instances when the use of inappropriate lexical items can lead to a misconception of the idea intended. In that case, communication in the sense of conveying new knowledge will have failed (Littlewood, 1977b). It is therefore, necessary that student-teachers should aim to select and to use the most appropriate

lexical items possible.

Having said that, it should be pointed out that in speech, there is generally a tendency for speakers to pause or hesitate at certain places before they utter certain words. Second language learners seem to regard such a linguistic tendency as a sign of the speaker's ignorance in the use of the second language (Norrish, 1983). Such an attitude compels them to avoid, as much as possible, pauses and hesitations in their discourses. This is a wrong attitude since there are a number of studies that indicate that lexical selection is not an easy task even for native speakers of the language. Beattie (1983) quoted studies by Lounsbury (1954), Goldman-Eslar (1958a, 1958b), and Beattie and Butterworth (1979) which show that in native speaker discourse, hesitations occur before lexical items of "lowest transactional probability" or of "low frequency". This suggests that a speaker needs to select his words carefully before he utters them. To give himself time to do so, a speaker uses "filled" and "unfilled" pauses (Beattie, 1983). Norrish (1983: 45) makes a similar point when he observes that "... there is often a hesitation before the first content word". In the student-teachers' discourses analysed for this study, there is no evidence to suggest that pauses are used to give speakers an opportunity to select appropriate content words. This is probably because "learners, when speaking a language new to them, frequently feel that their speech should be free of hesitations" (Norrish, *op. cit.*: 47). This is a true observation. From his experience, the researcher is aware of teaching situations in which teachers discourage hesitation in speech.

Failure to select appropriate lexical items led students to commit 43 errors of wrong lexical use. These were committed by 17 out of 18 student-teachers. 4 errors of omission were recorded and only 1 error of unnecessary lexical insertion. When accounting for the causes of errors in this category, the researcher suggested two possible factors. The first is that

student-teachers' vocabulary is limited. They are therefore compelled to overgeneralise the use of certain words since the appropriate ones are not accessible to them. The other factor is an artefact of teaching/learning strategies in which student-teachers are discouraged from using hesitations in speech. As a result, they try to avoid "pauses" and "hesitations". This does not give them time to pause, think and select appropriate words as they speak.

5.4.6 ERRORS IN THE USE OF ADVERBIALS

Error frequencies in this category were very low. Only 2 errors were recorded from the discourse of 2 student-teachers.

- i) Speak louder?
- ii) Could you put it more correcter?

The researcher regarded these errors as 'slips'. They do not seem to indicate lack of knowledge and/or proficiency in their use on the part of the student-teachers concerned.

5.4.7 ERRORS IN THE USE OF INFINITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

These also revealed low frequencies. Only 2 errors were committed by 2 student-teachers.

- i) What did the growing of crops make men to do?
- ii) What made men of the Stone Age to stay at one place?

The type of error committed here involves the use of the infinitive verb phrase (to + main verb) instead of a main verb. Although the frequencies of errors in this category are low, the type of error committed is significant. The researcher has experience of learners who find it difficult to avoid such errors in their speech.

5.4.8 ERRORS IN THE FORMULATION OF QUESTIONS

It is interesting to note that only 3 questions were recorded as wrong in the research data. There is evidence in the data analysed to suggest that the student-teachers involved in this study have mastered the rules for formulating question structures. Linguists have defined rules related to the formulation of wh- and yes/no questions. They outline the conditions under which the subject and the operator should be inverted and those under which they should not. An analysis of the formal structures of student-teachers' questions revealed that they are able to observe these rules in their discourse (see chapter seven). The question constructions that were identified as erroneous involved:

- i) the omission of a question intensifier;
Have you ~~ever~~ seen a bail? (ever).
- ii) the use of a positively oriented tag question;
It's very easy. Is it? (Isn't)

Despite their low frequencies, each of these represents categories that second language learners generally find difficult to use. We can explain the low frequencies in terms of the data collection technique used, that is, an "open-ended" technique which allows subjects to select constructions they can handle efficiently.

Errors in constructions i) and ii) were presumed to be instances of intralingual errors. They occur because for construction (i), the student-teachers concerned cannot effectively handle questions that use the form 'ever' to mean 'have you at any time in the past up to the present seen X'. Ignorance of the use of such a linguistic form to express such notions is due to incomplete knowledge of the target rules. It is therefore intralingual rather than interlingual. Utterance (ii) seems to be the result of transfer from the learner's mother tongue to the target language.

With respect to the use of tag questions, the researcher was inclined to conclude that the student-teacher's L₁ (Shona) interferes with his application of target language rules because, as Ngara (1982: 46) observes, a comparison of English and Shona tag questions shows a fundamental difference. Instead of using an L₂ rule in tag questions, the student-teacher used an L₁ rule.

5.4.9 ERRORS IN THE USE OF TENSE

Errors in this category are significant not because they have a high incidence of occurrence in the data but because of the nature of the linguistic problems they reveal. The erroneous use of the progressive aspect was committed by 4 student-teachers on 4 occasions. Statistically, this error category appears insignificant but when one considers the type of error involved one realises its importance in student-teachers' language. The over-generalised use of the progressive aspect is quite common in second language situations. Richards (1985: 51) observes that his subjects used "the progressive form instead of the simple narrative".

Aspect is a linguistic category which refers to the way in which the action of a verb is realised. There is a tendency among student-teachers to use the progressive aspect, which indicates an incomplete action, instead of the perfective aspect which refers to an action that has been completed as in:

- i) 'You are giving me two separate sentences' for
'You have given me two separate sentences'
- ii) 'You are leaving out the word "both" for
'You have left out the word "both"'

Such overuse of the progressive aspect is extended to constructions which contain verbs that denote intellectual states and which disallow the use of the progressive aspect Palmer (1974). This category of verbs includes those of perception such as 'see'. Erroneously, student-teachers used verbs in these

categories as follows:

- *i) Are you understanding me?
- *ii) Can you mention any ports which you are seeing from that map?

Comparisons between these utterances and their L₁ equivalents suggest that there is a case of transfer from L₁ to L₂ in these examples. Occasionally, student-teachers use the Shona equivalent of L₁:

Muri kundinzwa here?

which translated into English means "Are you understanding me?". It is also possible that such constructions are a result of the teaching approaches used in second language teaching where the progressive is taught first because it is easy to demonstrate. Teachers can present verbs in the progressive aspect accompanied by extra-linguistic activity. Widdowson (1972) referred to this approach as teaching by 'signification'. Overemphasis in the use of the progressive leads to overgeneralisation of its use as Richards (1985) observed.

In another sub-category, we observe the tendency by student-teachers to use the perfective aspect incorrectly. Their utterances involve an erroneous shift from one tense to the other illustrating what Godfrey (1980) described as failure by non-native speakers to maintain tense continuity in discourse. He observed that this happens even among speakers whose knowledge about English tenses is deemed adequate. In this study, failure to maintain tense continuity was observed in utterances such as:

- i) "When you want to find the perimeter of a square we measured the sides ..."
- ii) "If you answer it correctly, you got ten points"
- iii) "The servant thought his master was burning and he ran with a jug full of water and pour it over him"

In utterance (i) there is a shift from the past tense to the present tense; in

(ii) from present to past tense; and in (iii), from past to present tense. Other instances were observed in metalinguistic utterances intended to explain grammatical notions. In these cases wrong notions were implied as in:

"if you say 'I was' it means it has happened in the past".

Lack of tense continuity in this utterance gives a misleading notion of the meaning of "I was". An acceptable explanation should match "I was" with the simple past of "happen". The effect of the lack of tense continuity can also be noticed in the following utterance:

"...when we talk of what has been said yesterday or the day before, we say someone talked".

In this utterance, "has been" should be given as "was" which agrees with the notion of past action implied by the words "yesterday", "the day before" and the past tense verb "talked".

Utterances cited in the preceding discussion demonstrate problems related to communication strategies. Richards (1985) quoted Chaudron (1979, 1983c) who observes that:

the pressure to communicate appears to lead at times to ambiguous oversimplifications on the one hand, and confusingly redundant over-elaborations on the other.

(Chaudron, op. cit. quoted by Richards, 1985:71)

Such communication problems were observed in Richards' study to occur in situations identical to those in which the research students of this study operated, namely, "teacher talk in ESL classrooms" where questions were used, topics developed and explanations given.

5.4.10 MISCELLANEOUS ERRORS

Utterances classified as miscellaneous included the following:

- i) The seeds are very small so that if they are sown into the field

they will be covered by the soil.

ii) I want you to say the sentence of what you are doing.

iii) We can fill the whole board with verbs and the other side.

Linguists describe words like 'so' followed by 'that' as intensifiers used in resultative clauses. In such clauses, 'so' is used to denote the quality of the subject or object that results in the notion of the 'that-clause' as in sentences like:

He worked so hard (that) he was awarded the Ph.D. degree in 1987.

In utterance (ii) the student-teacher used a prepositional phrase to modify 'sentence' instead of a relative clause like "which describes what you are doing". In utterance (iii) it is not clear which noun phrase in the first clause is joined to 'the other side'. There is ambiguity as to what 'the other side' is syntactically related to. It could be disambiguated as follows:

"We can fill the whole board and the other side with verbs".

5.5 CONCLUSIONS

In view of the fact that the analytical system used in this chapter focusses on syntactical errors, our conclusions will be confined to these and to other issues of general interest that emerge from the observations made. We notice from the error categories in Table 9 that the greatest number of errors recorded are found in grammatical categories that do not reveal clear systematic tendencies in the way they are realised in the target language. Although there are rules which determine the use of definite and indefinite articles and prepositions in English, such rules are not as clear to a second language learner as those that determine the use of number, for instance. The researcher has observed and come to the conclusion that second language learners may easily get confused with the use of articles in English since their use varies depending on the linguistic environments in which they occur.

For instance, learners who have been taught that definite and indefinite articles differ in their determinative functions in that the former is used to refer to something specific and the latter, to something that is non-specific get confused when they discover that in the use of these in generic references "all the major forms of article (the, a/an, and zero) may be used ... to refer to the members of a class in toto" (Quirk et al, op. cit.: 281). The use of articles in such situations can lead learners to use one of these to the exclusion of the other two article types. Hence, the observation made in this chapter that 'the' is over-used and appears in places where indefinite and zero articles are supposed to occur.

Similarly, the linguistic environments in which prepositions occur are difficult for a second language learner to pin down and learn easily because, as Quirk et al (op. cit.: 673) observe "it is difficult to describe prepositional meanings systematically in terms of ... labels". In contrast to these grammatical categories we find that 'number', which is a low error frequency category in this study, consists of three major classes: singular invariable nouns, plural invariable nouns, and variable nouns. Of these three classes, variable nouns which form "the vast majority of nouns" in English have plural forms that are normally "fully predictable both in pronunciation and spelling" (Quirk et al, op. cit.: 304). The researcher believes that because these are more predictable (that is, systematic) in their occurrence, they are easier for second language learners to learn and use than are articles and prepositions. This suggests what we may call an acquisition/production hierarchy of grammatical items. By this the researcher refers to a hierarchy of items which learners acquire more readily than others and use correctly in their discourse. We can infer from the discussion above that the acquisition/production hierarchy is facilitated by the regularity or systematicity in which certain items occur in the target language. Systematically occurring items tend to be easier for learners to master and

to use in their speech than irregular items. This notion was discussed in Chapter three with reference to noun phrase and complement hierarchies. The principles discussed then with reference to the work of Woodbury (1977), Dryer (1980), Frawley (1981) and Gass and Ard (1984) were supported by the findings of this study.

Acquisition hierarchies as discussed in Chapter three suggest that irregular or complex linguistic forms appear more difficult for learners to acquire than regular simple forms. There is evidence to support this view in this study. We can illustrate this referring to student-teachers' proficiency in the use of number. Whereas it was observed that variable nouns are easier for them to use in the plural form, it was also discovered that for some, plural invariable nouns, which are irregular forms, are difficult to use. For instance, the invariable singular 'people' is changed to 'peoples' in contexts where the use of 'people' is more appropriate.

Another example involves the use of 'intellectual verbs' in the progressive aspect. In a sense, for these verbs to disallow the use of the progressive aspect is in itself an irregularity since most verbs can be used in the progressive tense. It was also observed that student-teachers were able to use *wh*-question forms, yes/no question forms and other types without difficulty but tag-questions and other irregular question types were not easy for some student-teachers. In the light of these observations, the researcher was led to conclude that irregular linguistic patterns and grammatical rules are more difficult for student teachers to acquire and to use in their speech than regular patterns and rules. He therefore defined the notion of acquisition/production hierarchy as indicating an order in which some regular linguistic items that reveal low error frequencies in this study are easier for student-teachers to learn and to use in their speech whereas some irregular or complex items that reveal higher frequencies are difficult for them.

The general conclusion made with respect to the nature of student-teachers' language is that, on the whole, the syntax of their language reveals no serious faults. This is proved by the fact that in Table 9 there is no error category based on faulty syntax as such. This means that no student-teacher revealed problems related to word order in his utterances. We can infer from this observation that the student-teachers involved in this study have reached a stage in their language development where sentence construction, especially of the simple SVO pattern and some of its transformations, is proficient. Having said that, we should also point out the fact that student-teachers make some grammatical errors when they use English, notably in their selection of lexical items and the use of prepositions and articles. The least problematic areas appear to be those related to the use of adverbials and pronouns. Since some of these, for instance question structures, are related to communicative activities, they will be discussed in the chapter that follows.

As for the origins of these errors, it was shown that the majority of these are due to intra-lingual features and learning/teaching strategies (see Selinker, 1972). Such errors are induced by the complexities within the target language itself and the methods of teaching or learning used in the classroom. A few cases were identified as having interlingual origins. These were thought to have been induced by the transfer of L₁ rules or language features to the student-teachers' interlanguage.

Finally, we should note that the error categories discussed in this chapter constitute what Burt et. al. (1982) describe as local errors. They occur in phrases or parts of clauses. The researcher observed that such errors do not

cause miscommunication. Despite their occurrence in student-teachers' utterances, their communicative intentions remain transparent to the listener. Examples of discourse errors that cause miscommunication, that is, "global errors" (Burt et al., *op. cit.*) will be discussed in the chapter that follows.

CHAPTER VI

- 6 Research Findings II: A Descriptive Analysis of Communicative Activities
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 - 6.3 Analysis of Pedagogical/Instructional Functions of Classroom Discourse
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 - 6.3.2 Informative Discourse Units
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 - 6.3.3 Controlling Functions of Student Teachers' Classroom Discourse
 - 6.3.4 Organisational Functions of Student Teachers' Classroom Discourse
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CHAPTER SIX

6 RESEARCH FINDINGS II: A DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES

6.1 TYPES OF COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES

Discussion in the previous chapter focussed on the grammatical categories of student-teachers' interlanguage. In this chapter, we shall focus upon the results of the analysis of classroom discourse exchanges and discourse units through which student-teachers provide information which they consider to be the new knowledge which learners need to acquire. We shall also focus on those utterances that relate to organisational and other sociolinguistic factors that obtain in student-teachers' classrooms. Essentially, classroom communication is dominated by teachers' questions, pupils' answers and stretches of utterances intended by student-teachers to instruct, explain or describe processes. In this chapter, such discourse is discussed under the heading 'Pedagogical/Instructional Functions of Classroom Talk'. They are pedagogical because they relate to acts of teaching in the sense discussed by Bellack et al (1966). They are also communicatively intended to convey new knowledge and skills, a function which presupposes that they carry "informational" or "communicative value". But, as we shall observe in this chapter, some of these utterances have little, if not no communicative value at all. This observation led the researcher to classify communicative utterances into types shown in diagram 10. Pedagogical classroom talk was sub-divided into question utterances and informative discourse units that serve the functions of explaining concepts or linguistic terms, and describing processes and narrating events. Also considered under this heading were communicative strategies intended to make the meaning of subject content comprehensible to learners, that is simplification/adjustment processes in the student-teachers' lessons.

The second category of classroom talk comprises utterances related to classroom organisation and other sociolinguistic factors that were observed in student-teachers' classroom talk. The review of literature in chapter three reveals that such sociolinguistic talk is necessary for efficient classroom learning (Macleod, 1975; Stubbs, 1976). It seeks to impose order in the classroom and to establish a "climate" in which teacher-pupil relationships facilitate the realisation of the teacher's pedagogical objectives. In this study, sociolinguistic talk was sub-divided into such organisational headings as class and group control, control of subject matter and teacher-pupil relationships.

Each of these function-categories is realised through utterances that exploit linguistic forms that can be semantico-grammatically described. With reference to pedagogical utterances, the researcher worked out a formula which he used to classify and to describe the communicative or non-communicative effect of student-teachers' discourse utterances. The formula will be discussed in sub-section 6.2.1.

On the basis of the definition of communicative utterances discussed in the literature review, the researcher proceeded to classify classroom utterances according to their communicative values. The classification categories are shown in the diagram below.

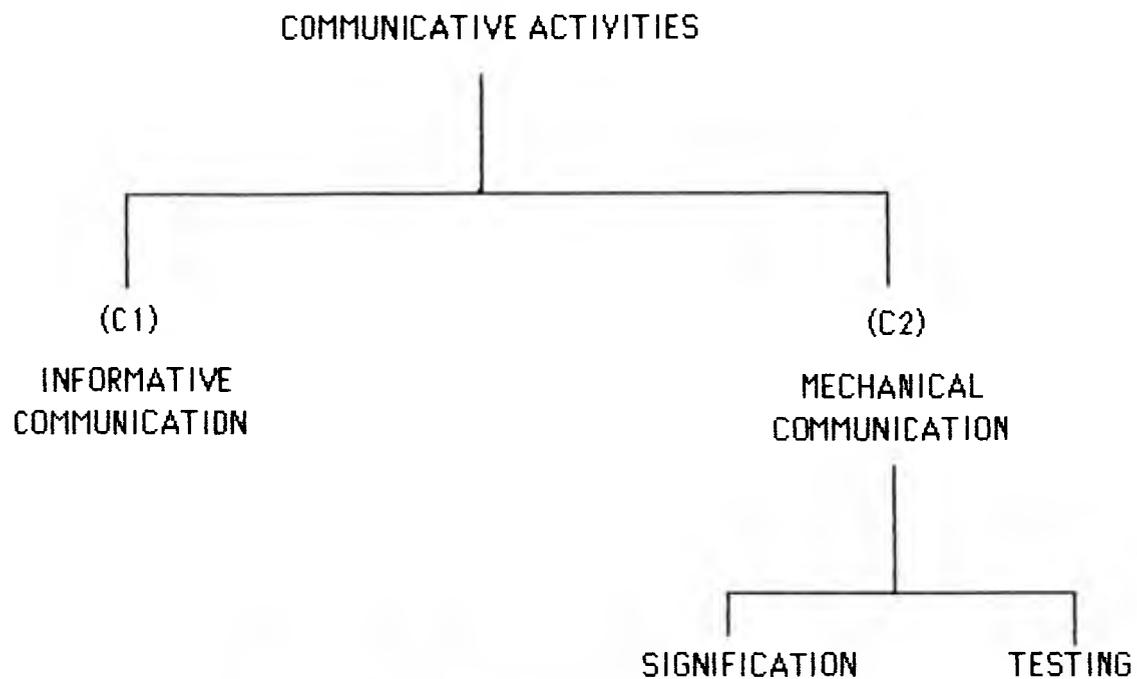


Diagram 8 Types of Communication Activities

The types and implications of the communicative categories illustrated in diagram 8 are based on the observation that there is no agreement on, let alone clarity, in the language literature as to what constitutes communicative activity (Littlewood 1977b: 84). It is clear from what linguists such as Littlewood (1977b, 1981); Widdowson (1972, 1984); Faerch et al (1984); and McTear (1975) say that there is more to classroom communication than expressing oneself fluently and, or accurately in the target language. This statement begs the question: 'when does communication occur?'

It was noted in Chapter three that Littlewood (op. cit.) and Widdowson (op. cit.) suggest that an utterance or speech act becomes communicative when it is used to resolve a "state of disequilibrium" in the listener: That is, communication occurs when speaker B receives from speaker A knowledge or information which he did not possess prior to the communicative event. They also observe that not all classroom utterances are communicative in this sense. This claim suggests that classroom talk consists of different types of

communicative activities which can be classified in terms of the communicative information they transmit and the consequent changes that occur in the listener's state of knowledge. In this study, the researcher classified and defined these as 'Communicative Activities I' (C1) and 'Communicative Activities II', (C2) as shown in diagram 10.

C1 refers to those utterances that have high "communicative value" (Widdowson, 1972) and C2 to those that have low or no communicative value. Faerch et al (1984: 21) used the term "informative communication" to refer to the category we have labelled C1 and "mechanical information" to refer to C2. Whereas C1 activities involve the transmission of new information, C2 activities in the classroom tend to focus on what Widdowson (1972) called "signification". Littlewood (1977b: 87) defined signification as the sort of communication "where a large proportion of utterances require or transmit information which is already known to the participants". There are two ways in which signification is realised in the classroom. In the language lessons analysed in this study, signification was observed in situations where utterances are given as commentaries on activities that are being performed. In content lessons, the student-teacher asks a question to elicit information which he already knows and which the pupil answering the question knows or is expected to know. In such instances, the teacher's elicitation utterance is, strictly speaking, serving a testing rather than a communicative function.

In the sections that follow, reference will be made to the communication categories discussed above as well as to the general properties of formal and semantic cohesion between student-teachers' elicitations and pupils' responses. The formulae for describing formal/semantic cohesion of classroom talk will be discussed in the section that follows.

6.2 GENERAL PROPERTIES OF DISCOURSE EXCHANGES

The term 'property' is used in this study to refer to the formal and semantic qualities that characterise discourse exchanges. We can also refer to these properties as the relationship between forms and their functions. Linguists such as Halliday and Hassan (1976) Widdowson (1979) discuss the relationship between form and function in ways that suggest that for communication to be effective, 'dialogic' or 'monologic' utterances should be formally and semantically related. Widdowson (1979) describes a formal relationship as "cohesion" and a semantic one as "coherence". Halliday et al (1976) refer to these phenomena as "texture". With reference to classroom discourse exchanges, such relationships can be discussed in terms of the cohesion and coherence between the teacher's questions and the learners' responses. A semantic relationship can be said to obtain in situations where the teacher's and the learner's utterances are "co-referential", that is, when they both relate to the same schematic frame of reference. On the other hand, cohesion is not always formally visible. There are occasions, as in speech acts, when a response may not be formally cohesive with the question that presupposes it but will be coherent with it. It can be inferred from this that cohesion is not always a necessary condition for coherence to occur. Carrell (1982: 481) realised this and criticised Halliday et al (op. cit.) for suggesting that texture or coherence is due to "certain linguistic features in the text".

In their definition of a "systematic correspondence", Quirk et al (1985) allude to what we have described as general properties of discourse exchanges. They observe that a systematic correspondence is:

a relation or mapping between two structures X and Y such that if the same lexical content occurs in X and Y, there is constant meaning relation between the two structures.

(Quirk et al, op. cit.: 57)

The conceptual similarities between this definition and the notions of cohesion and coherence can be drawn as follows:

a "relation mapping between two structures X and Y" corresponds to formal cohesion and that between "lexical content in ... X and in Y", to semantic coherence.

Carrell's (op. cit.) criticism of Halliday and Hassan (1976) should, however, not deter us from analysing language using, as our basic tenets, the notions of cohesion and coherence. In fact, the criticism is not a denial of the presence and value of cohesion and coherence in texts but a denial of Halliday et al's (op. cit.) claim that cohesion is an "index of textual cohesion". Her main argument, that information processing depends on "memory schemata" or "background knowledge" can be said to be subsumed under the notion of "coherence". This is more likely to be the case in dialogue where co-referentiality is not possible to achieve unless the interlocutors share the same background experience. On the basis of these observations and views, the researcher proceeded to work out a formula for cohesive and coherent relationships between student-teachers' elicitation and pupils' response utterances.

FORMULA

[ELICITATION UTTERANCE (EU) <-----> RESPONSE UTTERANCE (RU)]
 + [PROPOSITIONAL CONTENT OF ELICITATION UTTERANCE (PC/EU) <----->
 PROPOSITIONAL CONTENT OF RESPONSE UTTERANCE (PC/RU)]

This formula can be interpreted as follows:

An elicitation utterance presupposes a certain response utterance which relates to it formally and the cohesive relationship between them normally ensures that the propositional content of the elicitation utterance presupposes a certain type of propositional content in its corresponding response utterance. This formula is idealistic. It assumes that there is

always a relationship between cohesion and coherence, yet, as noted earlier, this is not always the case. In its idealistic sense, the formula was used in this study to explain only those discourse exchanges which are formally as well as semantically related. There was, therefore, a need to propose alternative formulae which would account for other discourse exchanges.

The first such alternative formula was given as follows:

$$(EU \langle \text{---}/\text{---} \rangle RU) + (PC/EU \langle \text{-----} \rangle PC/RU)$$

Discourse exchanges represented by this formula share no formal cohesion although their propositional content is co-referential. This is an instance in which a pupil's response utterance exhibits no overt linguistic features that signal its cohesive relationship to the formal structures of the teacher's question. The same formula was also used to indicate a relationship in which a speaker's or both of the speakers' utterances were superficially ill-formed and yet their meaning remained transparent.

The second formula was as follows:

$$(EU \langle \text{-----} \rangle RU) + (PC/EU \langle \text{---}/\text{---} \rangle PC/RU)$$

This formula represents instances where, although the learner's utterance structure is formally acceptable and formally cohesive with the elicitation utterance, it fails to convey the information demanded by the teacher's question. In other words, there is no semantic relationship between the utterances. There are two possible reasons for the absence of a semantic relationship in such cases. It is either due to the fact that the teacher's elicitation utterance is so complex that the learner fails to understand its propositional content or, to the fact that the teacher's frame of reference is

unknown to or different from that of the learner. Consequently, the propositional content of the learner's response utterance will not be felicitous with that of the teacher's elicitation. This demonstrates how unconscious misunderstanding occurs. The learner thinks he is providing the correct answer when, in fact, he is not.

The non-cohesive utterances indicated in the formula (EU <--/-->) + (PC/EU <----> PC/RU) can be likened to erroneous discourse structures discussed under the heading "Error Analysis" in the literature review. It was noted then that according to Burt and Kiparsky (1974) "local" errors in interlocutors' utterances do not cause miscommunication. On the same issue Corder (1981) observes that "overtly idiosyncratic errors" occur in sentences that appear superficially ill-formed but convey meaning that is transparent to the listener. The second formula:

$$(EU <----> RU) + (PC/EU <--/--> PC/RU)$$

is comparable to Corder's (op. cit.) covertly idiosyncratic structures which, he says, have surface features that conform to the rules of the language or appear grammatically well-formed but are semantically ambiguous.

The last formula was given as:

$$(EU <---/--> RU) + (PC/EU <---/--> PC/RU)$$

There is neither formal nor semantic cohesion between the utterances represented by this formula. It represents extreme cases in which no communication occurs. We can use it to represent instances in which utterances are so ill-formed that the meaning intended by the speakers becomes opaque. Burt et al (op. cit.) referred to errors that blur the meaning of discourse utterances in this way as "global errors". In such cases, we get what we might call conscious misunderstanding. The learner either acknowledges his failure to understand what he is required to do or say or,

attempts to give a response which he knows is a blind guess. In the sections that follow, we shall refer to these communicative formulae in the analysis and discussion of the pedagogical functions of some classroom discourse utterances.

6.3 ANALYSIS OF PEDAGOGICAL/INSTRUCTIONAL FUNCTIONS OF CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

From his analysis of the data, the researcher observed that student teachers use their interlanguage to realise a number of pedagogical functions. These include the transmission of knowledge through such discourse acts as explaining key concepts, correcting learners' misconceptions, elaborating pupils' ideas and eliciting learners' current knowledge or previously learned material. The extent to which these functions were realised varied from lesson to lesson and from student-teacher to student-teacher. But, invariably, every student-teacher made extensive use of questions that serve a variety of functions. In addition to these functions, it was also observed that student-teachers simplified or modified their talk in situations where their communicative intentions were not clearly perceived by learners. These issues will be closely analysed and discussed in the sections that follow. They all relate to what the researcher referred to as pedagogical/instructional functions of classroom discourse.

6.3.1 PEDAGOGICAL FUNCTIONS OF QUESTIONS

A frequency count and classification of question types revealed that there are two broad categories of questions used by student-teachers. The first category consists of question types that require learners to identify or name objects, pictures and diagrams; to recall and reproduce facts previously learned and to comply with the student-teacher's instructions, orders or requests. The intellectual demands made by these questions are similar to those made by the question types that Holmes (1978) called "closed"

questions or, to use the term that Long and Sato (1983) used, "display questions". They do not evoke higher mental operational processes or "informative communication" but simple mental operations which evoke what we have referred to as "mechanical communication" (see diagram 8 page 170). The second category consists of questions that require learners to think creatively and to use language at a higher level when they process and express their ideas. Such questions fall into the category which Long and Sato (op. cit.) call "referential questions". They are more demanding than "display" questions in terms of mental activity and linguistic expression. Student-teachers' questions that fall into this category include "Why" and "How" questions, questions demanding recall and narration of events or explaining processes. The main difference between "display" and "referential" questions in this study is that the former were interpreted as referring to what Macleod et al (1975) called "empirical" questions and the latter to what he labelled 'analytic' and, or "evaluative" questions. Some of the empirical questions, elicit information obtainable from observable data and others call for a recall and reproduction of factual information. They differ from referential questions which elicit logical reasoning or qualitative judgements based on a careful study of the features of an object or aspects of a situation or event. In this sense, the former are low order and the latter, higher order questions.

The functional analysis of questions shown in table 10 page 235, shows that in this study "display" questions (i.e. 1-7) received a greater percentage of accurate responses and "referential" questions, a smaller percentage. The distribution of accurate responses for the latter (i.e. numbers 8-10) ranges from 0 to 50 percent. The researcher's findings support Long and Sato's conclusion that in classroom talk teachers ask more display than referential questions. The frequencies obtained in the researcher's analysis show that there are 863 questions and only 58 referential questions (see Appendix F).

In his description of question forms and functions, the researcher analysed the "properties" of discourse exchanges in which the questions were used as elicitation utterances and discussed their effects in the interactional environments in which they occurred. The focus was on whether the questions and their corresponding responses were formally and, or semantically related. The observations made from the analysis are reported, in detail, in the sections that follow.

6.3.1.1 IDENTIFYING/NAMING VS. 'WHY' AND 'HOW' QUESTIONS

In situations where the information elicited by the student-teachers' questions required learners to examine objects, study a picture or a diagram in order to identify and name a specified item as part of the required response, pupils found the tasks easier than in situations where they had to give reasons for the occurrence of phenomena or to explain processes. These opposing question categories make different demands on learners. They also indicate whether the student-teacher's focus in a lesson is on the teaching of facts or making logical conclusions from given facts. The following extract from lesson 9 demonstrates the use of naming/identifying questions in a situation where the focus is on providing factual information.

- | | | |
|----|--------------------------------------|---|
| T. | --- what fraction is shaded? | 1 |
| P. | Three quarters are shaded. | 2 |
| T. | And what part is not shaded? | 3 |
| P. | One quarter is not shaded. | 4 |
| T. | Now, look at this rectangle ---- | |
| | Into how many parts is it divided? | 5 |
| P. | It is divided into eight parts. | 6 |
| T. | Yes, it is divided into eight parts. | 7 |
| | Now, what part has not been shaded? | 8 |

	Look at the chart.	9
P.	Five eighths is not shaded.	10
T.	And what part is shaded?	11
P.	Three eighths is shaded.	12

The function of the student-teacher's elicitations in this extract, is to focus on the need for learners to study the diagram and to provide the information demanded by the question. Such information is known to the teacher. It is not new knowledge to him. It is "closed" information since there cannot be two or more correct answers to the question. Utterances 1,3,5,8, and 11 are therefore display questions which call upon the learner to display his knowledge about the shapes under discussion.

A linguistic analysis of the questions in this extract also revealed that the question forms are marked by wh- elements: 'what fraction---', 'what part ---', 'how many ---'. In their responses, learners specify the information presupposed by the wh- elements as follows: 'three quarters' (2), 'one quarter' (4), 'eight parts' (7), 'five eighths' (10) and 'three eighths' (12). This demonstrates the extent to which the teacher's and the pupils' utterances are co-referential and can therefore be said to be semantically related. To demonstrate that they are answering the student-teacher's questions, learners go to the extent of unnecessarily repeating the complements 'are shaded' (2), 'is not shaded' (3), 'is divided' (6).

Despite the redundancy caused by such repetitions, there is formal cohesion between the surface structures of the teacher's and pupils' utterances. The analysis of the discourse exchanges in this extract revealed that there are formal and semantic relationships between them which can be illustrated by the formula.

(EU <-----> RU) + (PC/EU <-----> PC/RU).

Learners' responses in this extract reveal an interesting feature. In response to wh-elicitation utterances, they used full sentences. Halliday et al (1976: 210) note that a direct response to a wh-question, such as the ones used in this extract, "is one which does merely fill in the blank: which supplies the appropriate nominal, adverbial or prepositional groups". The blank is represented in the question by the wh- element. For instance, in the question 'what fraction is shaded?', the wh-element 'what fraction' indicates the position of the missing item which the learner needs to specify in his answer. In his response, the learner should just specify the information required - 'three quarters' and the predicate/complement 'are shaded' should be omitted "to be presupposed by ellipsis" (Halliday et al, op. cit.: 210). Such features in pupils' responses were observed in a good number of lessons. The use of full sentence responses by pupils was observed in all the 24 lessons analysed. Out of a total of 537 questions that could have received ellipted responses 320 received full sentence responses. We can further illustrate the response strategies discussed above by citing an extract from lesson 12.

T.	What can you see on this picture?	1
P.	I can see a boy.	2
T.	You can see a boy.	3
P.	I can see a motor-car.	4
T.	You can see a motor-car.	5
P.	I can see children.	6
T.	You can see children.	7
P.	I can see a tree.	8

The teacher's question utterance (1) in this extract, has the same features as those described above. The Wh- element 'what' indicates the position of the

element that should be supplied in the pupils' responses. And, as in the response utterances for the extract from lesson 9, pupils gave full sentence responses. There is also cohesion and coherence between the teacher's question and the responses it elicited.

Macleod et al (1975) referred to the notions of cohesion and coherence between questions and answers when they suggested that attempts to assess the effectiveness of questions should involve a study of their structures. They observed that questions should, as much as possible,

limit the range of appropriate answers by providing information in the question which explicitly or implicitly specifies the conditions or criteria in terms of which the answer should be given.

(Macleod et al, op. cit.: 203)

The Wh- elements in the questions discussed above and the complements that follow them "--- is shaded, --- is not shaded" achieve what Macleod and his colleagues suggest. They specify and limit the range of possible answers that learners should give. There are, however cases where questions may be open to different interpretations. For instance, the question

What can you see on this picture?

(Lesson 12, utterance 1)

has pragmatic value. Interpreted in its locutionary sense, pupils could have given answers like:

I can see things on the picture.

I can see everything on the picture.

But they have learnt to interpret the illocutionary force of the student-teacher's questions to mean something like: 'Give me, in English, the name of anything you can see on this picture'. Such understanding leads them to give the acceptable responses 2, 4, 6 and 8.

Formal cohesion is not a sufficient condition for effective communication. Utterances may be formally cohesive and yet lack semantic coherence as in the following exchanges.

T.	What can you see there?	1
P.	I can see a triangle.	2
T.	Someone can see a triangle here?	3
	Is that so?	4
P.	I can see a rectangle.	5
T.	Very good -----	6

Utterances 1 and 2 are formally related but semantically unrelated. This is due to the fact that in this dialogue the participants use different schematic experience or symbols. Instead of identifying and naming the diagram as a 'rectangle' the pupil calls it a triangle. The relationship between such utterances can be represented by the formula

$$(EU \langle \text{-----} \rangle RU) + (PC/EU \langle \text{---/--} \rangle PC/RU)$$

which represents linguistic cohesion but not semantic coherence.

The discourse exchanges falling into the identifying/naming question category were classified as mechanical communication activities of the testing type. Student-teachers sought to find out if pupils could name objects and pictures. Questions that require learners to name objects and pictures differ in their demands from those that require them to give reasons for the occurrence of phenomena or to explain processes.

To illustrate the point made above, let us examine the relationship between the following utterances from lesson 18.

- | | | |
|----|---|---|
| T. | I have seen, in some houses, there is a chain of maize. | 1 |
| | Why? | 2 |
| P. | They are tied in the house. | 3 |

In a follow-up discussion with the student-teacher, the researcher was given a modified form of utterances 1 and 2. 'Why do people hang maize cobs in their houses?'

The analysis of the formal and semantic relationships between these utterances showed that the response is not felicitous with the teacher's utterance. It fails to express the reason for the phenomenon stated in the teacher's preamble to the question. In English, utterances that express reason normally do so through subordinate adverbial clauses, which in full sentence utterances, can be embedded in main clauses and can be either explicitly marked by reason conjuncts such as 'because' and 'since' or can be unmarked. In cases when clauses of reason are unmarked, reason conjuncts are not used. The listener would be able to decode the utterance as one expressing reason from the propositional relationship between the utterances, that is, from the PC/EU <----> PC/RU relationship. In the exchanges quoted above, there is neither formal nor semantic cohesion between the utterances. We can therefore represent their relationships as follows:

(EU <--/--> RU) + (PC/EU <--/--> PC/RU).

Certain exchanges reveal superficial cohesion that does not provide semantic coherence. These were observed in the following extract.

- | | | |
|----|--|---|
| T. | Why do we say three eighths is shaded? | 1 |
| P. | Because there are eight. | 2 |
| T. | Eight what? | 3 |
| P. | Eight parts. | 4 |
| T. | And what about these three? | 5 |

	Where do we get them from?	6
P.	Because it is divided into eight parts.	7

(Lesson 9)

Responses 2 and 7 are overtly marked by the reason conjunct 'because'. This gives the superficial impression that the utterances express reasons. An analysis of these responses showed that despite the learners' use of reason conjuncts, the utterances are not semantically related to their corresponding questions. Utterance 2 is incomplete. It seems the learner intended to say something like 'Because there are eight parts in the diagram and, because five of these are shaded, three parts or three eighths are not shaded'. But this was not fully expressed in the responses given by the pupils.

The relationships between utterances 6 and 7 were represented as follows:

(EU \leftrightarrow RU) + (PC/EU \leftrightarrow PC/RU)

since there is neither formal nor semantic cohesion between them. The teacher's question required the pupils to explain how three eighths had been obtained. Instead of explaining how he had got three eighths, the learner gave an unacceptable reason - 'because it is divided into eight parts'. There is hardly any relationship, semantic or formal, between the teacher's question and the pupil's answer. Their relationship to each other can be likened to zeugmatic expressions in which two unrelated expressions are paired. It was also discovered that discourse exchanges associated with 'How' questions present problems similar to those discovered between exchanges associated with 'why' questions. The number of 'How' questions which elicited process descriptions were very few. Fifteen questions were identified in the twenty-four lessons analysed. Out of these, only five received responses that were rated formally and semantically acceptable. Unacceptable responses included the following taken from lesson 8:

T.	How did they get their food?	1
P.	They eat cooked meat.	2

T.	How does the overall protect the hunter?	3
P.	An overall protects the hunter from cold.	4

T.	How do gumboots protect the hunter?	5
P.	Gumboots protect the hunter from stones.	6

Utterances 2, 4 and 6 appear to be cohesively related to their corresponding questions. The resemblance of formal cohesion is provided by the learner's repetition of lexical items that appear in the questions. When closely analysed, it was discovered that the responses were not semantically related to the questions. None of them clearly and directly provide the propositional content that is coherent with that of the questions that presuppose them. Response utterance 2 does not explain the process of getting food which question 1 demands and utterances 4 and 6 do not provide the appropriate information demanded by questions 3 and 5.

The analysis of discourse exchanges of the type discussed in the preceding sections reveal that learners find it difficult to provide acceptable responses to 'Why' and 'How' questions but relatively easy to answer identifying/naming questions. It can be inferred from these observations that generally, explaining processes or giving reasons through the medium of English is a difficult task for learners at the Grade Six level.

6.3.1.2 RECALL/REPRODUCTION VS. EXPLANATORY/NARRATIVE QUESTIONS

Recall/reproduction questions are an extension of the identifying/naming category discussed in the preceding sub-section. It marginally differs from

it in that it emphasises remembering previously learned material whereas the identifying category consists of questions that emphasise recognising and naming objects, pictures and diagrams. Both types do, however, rely on memory but the degree to which they do so varies. Every lesson analysed for the purpose of this study contains a number of recall/reproduction questions and responses. The following excerpt illustrates some of the formal features that characterise utterances in such communicative situations.

- | | | |
|----|--|---|
| T. | Can you still remember the means of communication we talked about? | 1 |
| P. | Letters. | 2 |
| T. | Letters, yes? | 3 |
| P. | Telegram. | 4 |
| T. | Telegram. | 5 |
| P. | Telephone. | 6 |
| T. | Telephone. | 7 |

(Lesson 15)

Here, we notice that the teacher's question explicitly invites pupils to recall previously learned material: 'Can you ---remember?'. The use of a definite article in the phrase "--- the means of communication" is significant. It suggests that the 'means of communication' to be remembered constitute a specific set of knowledge or facts that had been learned and which pupils were expected to know. By post-modifying the nominal group 'the means of communication' using the relative clause, '(which) we talked about', the student teacher further specifies the material to be recalled, namely the means of communication which had been discussed in a previous lesson. Besides eliciting information, the student-teacher's question serves another important function. It defines the field of schematic experience from which learners should draw their ideas. By so doing, he ensures that his and the

learners' frames of reference are identical. Such use of language enables the student-teacher to control the knowledge he wants the class to provide (see sub-section 6.3.3 for a more detailed discussion on control of knowledge).

Lesson 19 contains another example of the use of recall/reproduction questions similar to the one given in lesson 15.

T.	Can you give me a list of crops grown in Zimbabwe?	1
P.	Tobacco	2
T.	Tobacco	3
P.	Maize	4
T.	Maize	5
P.	Cotton	6
T.	Yes--- --- ---	7

The student-teacher's question (1) elicits from learners factual knowledge which they need to recall and to reproduce. The use of the indefinite article in 'a list of crops' suggests that pupils can give any list of crops as long as it comprises crops grown in Zimbabwe. There is, however, a narrowing of the schematic field of reference from which pupils should draw their responses. This is effected through the use of a relative clause '(which) are grown in Zimbabwe'. This clause post-modifies the nominal phrase 'a list of crops'. The effect of the post-modifying clause in this utterance is that only a list of crops grown in Zimbabwe will be accepted. As in lesson 15, such a clause helps the student-teacher establish a common frame of reference which the participants should use in their discourse. That is, he controls and defines the content which learners should focus upon.

Another effect of recall/reproduction questions is that they elicit factual

responses^{which} discourage learners from giving lengthy responses (Long and Sato, 1983). The following excerpts were selected to illustrate this feature

T.	Give me an adjective.	1
P.	Green.	2
P.	Small.	3
T.	Small ... yes?	4
P.	Short.	5
T.	Short.	6
P.	Near.	7
P.	Young.	8
P.	Beautiful.	9
P.	Pretty.	10
P.	Handsome.	11

(Lesson 2)

In lesson 11 we find utterances in which some of the student-teacher's questions and the pupils' responses are reduced.

T.	Any other food rich in proteins?	1
P.	Fish.	2
T.	Fish ... yes.	3
P.	Milk.	4
T.	Milk ... yes. Any other foodstuffs which are rich in fats?	5
P.	Apples.	6
T.	Apples are rich in fats?	7
	Is he correct?	8
	Class. No-o-o.	9

The student-teachers' questions specify the need for pupils to give single-word responses. In lesson 2, utterance 1, the teacher's question requires that pupils should give an adjective. The use of 'an' leads to the

provision of single-word responses. In lesson 11, the use of 'any other' has the same effect on pupils' response utterances.

In the process of analysing these discourse exchanges, the researcher observed that unlike the responses discussed in sub-section 6.3.1.1, which are full sentence responses, the ones provided in this section were reduced. They consist of one - or two-word utterances. We have, in a preceding section, referred to reduced responses as characteristic of some of the utterances of native speakers in spoken discourse. These can be effected through a number of performance strategies such as reference, substitution and ellipsis. In interlanguage analysis, one is inclined to regard such short responses as simplified or reduced forms instead of ellipted forms. But because some of these short response utterances are context-sensitive, that is, their appearance in discourse is motivated or influenced by other utterances or situational factors in the discourse (see Chapter seven) the researcher defined them as ellipted rather than simplified or reduced interlanguage forms. And, the fact that in other discourse situations, learners give full sentence responses shows how linguistic, contextual and other factors influence the selection and use of either full or reduced sentence responses. If these were reduced or simplified forms in the sense that Schumann, (1974) and Hatch (1983) suggest when they refer to pidgin and creole languages, they would not be context sensitive to the degree discussed in chapter seven.

We can illustrate the use of ellipsis by referring to data in lesson 2. In response to the question 'Give me an adjective' the pupil answered 'Green'. If this word had been uttered out of context, that is, if a pupil suddenly shouted 'green' in response to no question, the teacher and other pupils would wonder what 'green' refers to. Is it meant to convey the idea that

'Green is a colour' or

'Green shirts are cheap'?

The omission of the complement to the noun phrase subject would render the utterance ambiguous. But in this instance, no such ambiguity arises because the teacher's previous utterance, the question, supplies the parts omitted in the learner's response. So by answering 'green' the learner is saying something like

'Green is an adjective'.

When the omitted parts of a response can be found in adjacent discourse utterances we say they are "recoverable". In the case discussed above we observe that

- i) the omitted parts consist of the copula + complement;
- ii) the copula 'is' is recoverable from the listener's knowledge of grammatical rules (i.e. structural recoverability);
- iii) the other elements (the complement) 'an adjective' are recoverable from the student-teacher's question (i.e. textual recoverability).

(Quirk, et. al., 1985)

Analyses of other elliptical responses in this and other lessons revealed similar features.

A question category opposed to the recall/reproduction questions and responses discussed above consists of student-teacher's elicitation questions that require pupils to narrate or to explain, in detail, an event or a process. Although such questions stimulate the recall and reproduction of facts related to the events or processes to be explained, the linguistic demands they impose on the learner are more complex than those imposed by recall/reproduction questions. They demand that the learner should structure a text in which he demonstrates his ability to use language communicatively. A text is, in this context, conceived as a series of sequentially related utterances presented for the purpose of explaining a process or an event. The extract quoted below contains questions which demonstrate the demands

made upon learners by such questions.

T.	Can anyone tell me the whole story?	1
	Ehe ... come and tell us the whole story.	2
P.	He first sent Robert Moffat to come and talk to the Shona chiefs—	3
T.	Tell the whole story ---	4
	Alright someone to take over?	5
P.	After he sent Robert Moffat, he came to visit himself	6
T.	What did they sign?	7
P.	Treaties.	8

(Lesson 7)

The student-teacher's question (1) demands that learners should 'tell the WHOLE story'. They were unable to do so. Two pupils were only able to give single utterance responses. The student-teacher realised that pupils were not able to construct the text which he had asked for. He therefore changed his question from a narrative to a recall/reproduction question (7) which pupils answered without difficulty (8).

A similar problem was observed in lesson 15 where a student teacher asked pupils to explain the meaning of 'means of communication'.

T.	Who can explain what means of communication means?	1
P.	Train.	2
T.	I said explain what means of communication is ... not the ways of communication.	3
P.	Communication means telephoning and transport.	4
T.	Means of communication means ... means of sending messages.	5
	What else do we send other than messages?	6
P.	By posting letters.	7

T.	I didn't say what things ...	
	What else do we send?	8
	You say communication means sending messages or sending what?	9
P.	Messengers.	10
T.	Messengers are means of sending messages.	11
P.	Sending letters.	12
T.	Sending messages or passing information.	13
	Can you still remember the means of communication we talked about? ... Yes?	14
P.	Letters.	15
T.	Letters ... yes.	16

Question utterances 1 and 3 demanded that pupils should define the term 'means of communication'. It was obvious from learners' responses that they were not able to give explanatory definitions. In utterance (2) the learner gave an example of a method used for communication instead of giving a definition. As in lesson 7, when the student-teacher realised that pupils were not able to define the term 'communication' and that his own ideas expressed in utterances 3, 5, 8 and 9 did not get through to the learners, he switched from the question demanding an explanation to a recall/reproduction one (14) which received a response which the student-teacher accepted (15).

From this excerpt a number of interesting observations were made. Learners' responses demonstrate what Martin et al (1976) and Barnes (1969) describe as 'talking to learn' or exploring meaning through language. In such cases, language enables learners to "net and give initial shape to the flow of ideas, ...and to their perceptions of the discussion topic...". Such use of language is appropriate in situations where learners are required to process new information and to formulate their own thoughts. Whereas teachers and

researchers may interpret such utterances as 2, 4, 7, 10, and 12 as "rambling irrelevancies", Martin et. al., (op. cit.) suggest that these should be considered as stages in the learners' "sorting out" operations of their ideas. We can, therefore, infer that when learners give such responses, they are thinking aloud and working towards the required definition.

Referring to the same utterances in the excerpt quoted above, the researcher hypothesised that communication problems arose because learners were not able to understand the nature of the learning task. In that case, the problem was both linguistic and conceptual. It required that learners should first of all interpret the word "explain" and then answer the question. When the interpretation of the key word "explain" is wrong, the response given becomes unacceptable. In this case, the learners' interpretation of "explain" was wrong; hence, the difficulty in providing an acceptable response.

The analytical descriptions presented in this section revealed that, on the whole, recall/reproduction questions are simpler for pupils to handle than are narrative/explanatory questions. The reason for this seems to be due to the fact that narrative/explanatory questions demand greater skill in the creative use of language than do recall and reproduction questions. It was also concluded that since, in their language lessons, pupils are not taught how to use language to communicate their ideas and feelings, but merely to construct sentence structures (see Chapter eight and Appendix N), they find it difficult to use it in situations where they are required to define concepts, narrate events or explain reasons for the occurrence of phenomena. This observation supports Faerch et al's view (1983: 43) that learners who have received instruction in the use of one type of speech acts find difficulty "when faced with communicative tasks that demand other types of speech acts".

The preceding analysis focussed on problems that learners encounter when decoding student-teachers' questions. What follows is an analysis of student-teachers' discourse utterances in continuous discourse. These appear in what have been labelled 'information discourse units'.

6.3.2 INFORMATIVE DISCOURSE UNITS

We have so far focussed our discussion on discourse exchanges that consist of question and response utterances. According to our communicative typologies (Diagram 10), these are mechanically communicative. Besides these, there are other discourse units that appear in student-teachers' lessons which the researcher classified as being informatively communicative. They are planned or unplanned discourse chunks which student-teachers presented in order to transmit information which they assumed learners did not know or to explain processes related to the subject content of given lessons. Coulthard et al (1981) refer to such discourse units as 'informs', a term which suggests that through them, the teacher provides information intended to change the learner's state of knowledge. Normally, learners are not expected to interrupt an inform with questions or comments unless invited to do so. The communicative effectiveness of these discourse units depends on whether the utterances that constitute them are cohesively and coherently related.

Two types of informs were identified in the data. The first type is concerned with matters of organisation, that is explaining how pupils should work in groups and the manner in which they should record information and report it to the class. The second type is concerned with explaining or elaborating subject content. In this sub-section we shall focus on the latter and the former will be discussed in sub-section 6.3.3.

6.3.2.1 PROCESS DESCRIPTION

In this study process descriptions were identified as those informs that have

to do with:

- i) explaining the stages in the formation of natural phenomena, e.g. rain (lesson 23);
- ii) explaining the steps followed in an activity, e.g. 'How tobacco is grown' (lesson 18);
- iii) explaining the steps followed in working out a mathematical problem (lesson 13).

Other instances of process description occur in situations where both the teacher and the learners give their views as to the steps to be followed in a given task as in lessons 9, 10, and 19. These differ from the instances cited above - i, ii, iii - where the teacher takes a leading role.

An analysis of the 'process informs' revealed that there are some weaknesses in student-teachers' and learners' language. In particular, their use of some internal and external cohesive devices are faulty. Consequently, the coherence between certain utterances gets so affected that a certain amount of ambiguity arises. External and internal cohesion differ in that the former refers to the way in which the sequence of events or steps in a process are related whereas the latter refers to the relationship between ideas in one or more utterances. Halliday and Hassan (1976: 263) distinguish the two concepts when they claim that "In the internal type (of cohesion) successivity is not in the events being talked about but in the communication process". Since the researcher found common cohesive weaknesses in the informs that appear in the discourses analysed for this study, he selected the ones quoted and described below to illustrate his findings.

INFORM (I) ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCE (Lesson 23)

When water is in the dam, it is heated. 1

It changes into this gas. 2

That is, it rises up into the sky. 3

When it is in the sky, the water gathers and forms droplets of water. 4

This is what we call condensation. 5

The droplets combine and when they are big enough, the clouds come down as rain. 6

a) INTERNAL COHESION

In this inform, internal cohesion is marked by backward pointing devices (anaphoric references), forward pointing devices (cataphoric references), lexical repetition and definite determiners. In utterance 1, the pronoun 'it' anaphorically refers to the word 'water' in the same utterance. 'It' in utterance 2, refers anaphorically to 'it' in utterance 1, which in its turn refers to 'water'. This is an example of what Halliday et. al. (1976) referred to as a 'remote tie' to distinguish it from an 'immediate tie' such as the one between 'it' and 'water' in utterance 1. In utterance 3, 'it' is an anaphoric reference to 'gas' in utterance 2.

A problem arises when we look for the referent of 'it' in utterance 4. We are first of all tempted to suggest that the pronoun is used anaphorically to refer to 'it' in utterance 3 in which case it would be an anaphoric reference to gas in utterance 2. The pronoun 'it' in utterance 3 would in that case be an

intermediate tie. But it does not seem to have been used anaphorically in this utterance. It seems to have been used cataphorically to point forward to the word 'water' in the same utterance. The interpretation that results from this is that water rather than gas (water vapour) rises into the sky. This, the researcher suspects, might communicate a wrong schema to the learners since it is water vapour or gas and not water that rises into the sky. The student-teacher could have avoided this apparent misconception by using the pronoun 'it' cataphorically to refer to 'gas' as follows:

'When it is in the sky, gas (water vapour) gathers and forms droplets of water'.

The definite determiner 'this' in utterance 5 is an anaphoric reference to the whole of utterance 4. In utterance 6, the pronoun 'they' points anaphorically to 'droplets', but the use of the definite determiner 'the' is inappropriate since 'clouds' were not mentioned in the preceding utterances. A definite article like 'the' can only be used anaphorically to refer to something mentioned in a previous utterance.

b) EXTERNAL COHESION

External cohesion in this 'inform' refers to the use of linguistic devices that mark the sequence of steps that occur in the rain cycle. The researcher's analysis revealed that external cohesion was vaguely marked in this inform. The student-teacher used the word 'when' to overtly mark the 'successivity' of events in utterances 1, 4 and 6. The other events or stages implied in utterances 2, 3 and the first clause of utterance 6 were not overtly marked. In utterance 3, 'that is' seems to function as an externally cohesive marker but it is in fact misleading in that it equates the propositional meaning of utterances 2 and 3 which are quite different and which constitute different stages in the rain cycle.

The student-teacher's failure to use appropriate external cohesive devices resulted in a text from which it might not be easy for the learners to process information in such a way that they develop a clear schematic framework. The researcher believes this can be achieved in second language classes if student-teachers adopt what Quirk et al (op. cit.: 1435) describe as a "stepped text" strategy. They claim that the strategy "has an obvious appropriateness for instructional material". They also point out that a stepped text involves the use of such enumerative conjuncts as 'first', 'then' or 'next'. Using such devices to achieve external cohesion, the student-teacher could have produced a text in which the successivity of events is clearly described as follows:

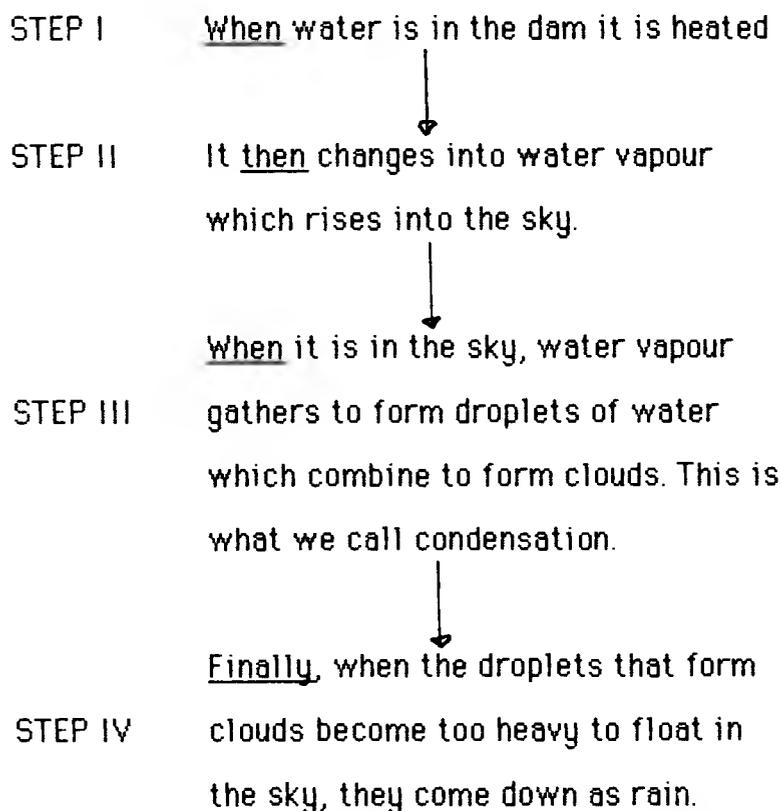


Diagram 9 Process Stages: Rain Cycle

In this case the underlined words would operate as external cohesive markers. The claim being made in this discussion is that the proper use of internal and

external cohesive devices facilitates information processing. There is,

however, no evidence provided in this study that conclusively suggests that learners to whom this particular inform was addressed found it difficult to process the required information. The claims being made, albeit not conclusively, are based on the observations made from the discourse structures and the probable effect of these in communication. Despite the weaknesses indicated in the analysis, the researcher did however observe that, on the whole, student-teachers' use of these devices in communicative informs was not as bad as he had assumed. It can, however, be asserted that an improved use of these devices and the consequent improvement on information structuring by student-teachers is likely to further facilitate information processing by learners.

INFORMS II AND III MATHEMATICS (LESSON 13)

These informs were selected to illustrate the confusion that can arise when, in process descriptions, external cohesion is not respected, that is, when an inform does not clarify the steps that need to be followed when working out or solving a mathematical problem.

Inform II which appears below was given by a pupil in response to a question on how to find the circumference of a circle.

'We take a ruler and a string and measure the tin and tie the tin with a string'.

We can break down the steps suggested in this response into three stages as follows:

- i) take a ruler and a string;
- ii) measure the tin;
- iii) tie the tin with a string.

The confusion in this response concerns the sequence of operations. The pupil may have understood the actual process of finding the circumference of a

circle. It is also possible that asked to demonstrate what he said, he could have done the proper thing but his explanation does not suggest that he knows how to carry out the process. What for instance, would be the purpose of tying the tin with a string in step iii) when one has already measured it? And, how does one measure the tin?

In inform III the student-teacher tried to improve upon the pupils' response as follows:

'Stewart has said that we tie a string around the tin and then measure the string with a ruler and find the circumference'.

The steps suggested in the student-teacher's inform are as follows:

- i) tie a string around a tin;
- ii) measure the string with a ruler;
- iii) find the circumference (i.e. the length of the string gives the circumference of the tin).

The student-teacher used the co-ordinating conjunct 'then' to tie steps i) and ii). Although these informs are short, relative to those identified in Environmental and Social Studies lessons, there is a need to use external cohesive markers. This can be achieved by presenting a simple stepped text as follows:

- Firstly, tie a string around the tin.
- Second, untie the string, and
- then measure it using a ruler.

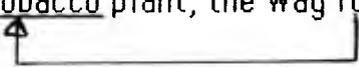
Such simple but clear descriptions would enable pupils to understand the sequence of activities involved in the process of finding the circumference of a circular object.

c) INFORM IV ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCE (LESSON 18)

The inform quoted below differs from the preceding ones in that the student-teacher attempted to use both internal and external cohesive devices rather more effectively.

INFORM IV

Right, the tobacco plant; the way it is grown. 1



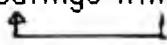
¹The farmer will mix seeds with water. 2



Now, after ² mixing, he sows them in a seedbed and they

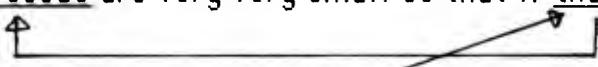


grow into seedlings which are later ³ transplanted into

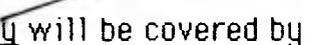


the field. 3

The seeds are very very small so that if they're



sown into the field they will be covered by the soil. 4



When ⁴ the tobacco has grown into the height of about 22cm and if you find that the leaves are yellow, what are you going to think of? 5

When ⁵ tobacco is dry it is sent to the barn..... 6


a) INTERNAL COHESION

Compared to inform I, there are fewer internal cohesive markers in this 'inform'. But the referents of the markers used are easy to identify.

i) Anaphoric references

We notice the use of these, first in utterance 3 where 'he' is used to

refer to "the farmer" and "them", to "seeds". The relative pronoun "which" is used anaphorically to refer to "seedlings". Then, in utterance 4 "they" is used to refer to "the seeds" and the second "they" is a mediated anaphor referring to "the seeds". Finally, in utterance 6 "it" anaphorically refers to "tobacco".

ii) Lexical repetition

The second linguistic device used to achieve internal cohesion is lexical repetition. The student-teacher used the word "seeds" in utterance 2 which he repeated in utterance 4. The word "tobacco" used in utterance 1 is also repeated in utterances 5 and 6.

These two linguistic devices show how internal cohesion is achieved in this inform.

b) EXTERNAL COHESION

We observe, in this inform, a definite attempt to use external cohesive markers (numbered 1 to 5). These mark the stages followed by the farmer in the process of growing tobacco up to the time he picks and stores it. We also notice in this inform the importance of the sequential markers to the listener/reader.

The first stage in the process, though not overtly marked, is easy to identify - "The farmer will mix ---". This is followed by adverbial sequence markers:

After mixing ---

--- are later transplanted ---

when the tobacco ---

when tobacco is ---

The process stages suggested by these sequence markers can be diagrammatically illustrated as follows:

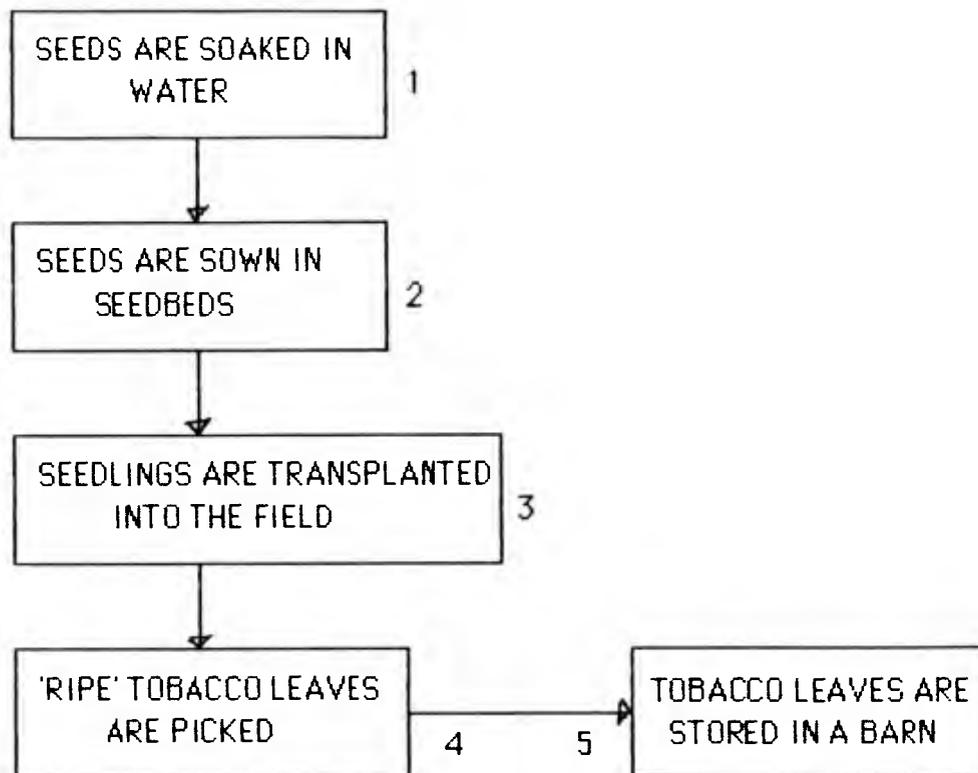


Diagram 10 Process Stages: Tobacco Growing

We also notice how, in this discourse, the student teacher attempted to 'pad' his description of the process (see utterances 4 and 5). Descriptive padding requires the speaker to provide details of the items introduced in the inform. These are provided in the form of glosses, illustrative explanations or examples. In this inform, reference to the size of tobacco seeds and what might happen to them if they were sown directly into the field and, to the somewhat casual mention of the height to which a tobacco plant grows before it is ready for picking are all instances of padded information.

Discourse informs discussed in this sub-section constitute what were labelled "communicative activities II (C2)" in diagram 10. They are intended to provide information that learners are presumed to lack and which they need in order to change the state of their knowledge about certain topics.

The emphasis in the preceding sections was on what the researcher identified as 'pedagogically' related functions of student-teachers' classroom talk. In

the sections that follow, our discussion will center on functions that were identified as being organisationally and sociolinguistically oriented.

6.3.3 CONTROLLING FUNCTIONS OF STUDENT TEACHERS' CLASSROOM TALK

It was noted in our review of relevant literature for this study that studies by such researchers as De Landsheere (1973); Stubbs (1976) and Mehan (1979) show that an analysis of classroom processes reveals that through their talk, teachers control both the physical and verbal behavior of learners in classrooms. In his analysis, the researcher identified a number of ways in which student-teachers exercise their control over learning content, what learners should say and when they should speak as individuals or in groups. How do student-teachers achieve these functions in their interaction with learners? To answer this question, we need to discuss the relationship between the functions or roles which student-teachers realise and the linguistic structures they use to do so.

In their control of what learners should say student-teachers apply a number of techniques. The researcher identified the use of 'COMPLIANT QUESTIONS' as one of those techniques. He defined compliant questions as those that elicit imitative verbal or non-verbal responses from learners. Compliant questions that elicit non-verbal responses are usually associated with organisational matters such as telling pupils to keep quiet, to pay attention or to stop performing an activity. On the other hand, those that elicit verbal compliant behavior are concerned with instructing pupils to give responses which are not their linguistic creative products but those of the teacher.

The researcher's analysis revealed that there are three major contexts in which verbal compliant questions and responses occur. These are:

- i) Contexts in which learners are asked to read sentences, definitions, or numbers written on the board;

- ii) Contexts in which learners are required to comment on an action or to give an utterance that functions as a commentary on an extralinguistic action;
- iii) Contexts in which learners are asked to repeat the teacher's utterance.

We can illustrate discourse exchanges in which compliant reading questions are asked by referring to the following extract:

T.	I want someone to read this sentence Maria?	1
P.	Mary has gone to see her sister.	2
T.	Right, the second sentence read Godfrey?	3
P.	I have eaten porridge this morning.	4
T.	I have eaten porridge this morning together.	5
Chorus.	I have eaten porridge this morning.	6

(Lesson 5)

Pupils' responses in these discourse exchanges are mechanical, that is, learners reproduce given information even when they do not understand what it means. In order to give correct responses, they had only to be able to read, understand and comply with the student-teacher's questions. The ease with which reading compliant questions were handled was demonstrated in mathematics, social science and social studies lessons.

In language lessons, a special type of compliant questions and responses was observed. The context in which the questions and responses were uttered depended on extralinguistic phenomena. It has already been noted, that Widdowson (1978) referred to such activities as serving a 'signifying' function rather than a 'communicative' one. The following extract demonstrates how such signifying communication activities were realised in language lessons.

T	Okay, I have got something here.	1
	What is it? ... Egester?	2
P.	Ball.	3
T.	A ball ... Right.	4
	Now... you all know a ball.	5
	Who can come and do something with this ball?	6
	Do something ... anything you want....	7
	Luckson come and do anything with this ball.	8
	Let's look at what he is doing.	9
	Watch at him.	10
	What is he doing?	11
	What is he doing?	12
	What is he doing?	13
	Keep on playing ...	14
	What is he doing? ... Shupai?	15
P.	He is catching the ball.	16
T.	Yes, he is throwing and ...	17
Chorus.	catching the ball.	18

(Lesson 4)

In this transaction, utterances 1 to 10 serve the function of creating the extralinguistic context on which pupils' responses should be based. The student-teacher's aim was that pupils' responses should be given simultaneously with the action being performed. Hence, the instruction, 'Keep on playing' (14). The repetition of the question before naming a pupil to answer the question was intended to give pupils time to think about the action and the type of response to give. The pupil's response (16) comments on the action being performed. The notion of compliance in this context differs from the one in which learners are expected to read sentences from

the chalkboard. Instead, it requires them to make commentaries on actions being performed. On the other hand, compliance through repetition of the teacher's utterance frequently occurs in situations where pupils give wrong sentence structures, mispronounce words or when the teacher wants to emphasise a point. In every case, as shown below, the teacher provides the correct form of pronunciation or sentence structure which learners imitate.

- | | | |
|----|--|---|
| T. | I want you to use these adjectives in a sentence. | 1 |
| P. | Charity is the shorter girl in the class. | 2 |
| T. | We say 'Charity is the shortest girl in this class'
because we are comparing many things..... | 3 |
| P. | Charity is the shortest girl in this class. | 4 |

(Lesson 2)

In this excerpt, repetition of the teacher's utterance serves a corrective purpose whereas in the extract that follows, it serves to emphasise the aim of the lesson.

T. Today, we want to look at the use of 'both'.

Right ... say 'both' everybody.

Chorus. Both.

(Lesson 3)

What we observe in the excerpts discussed above are some of the ways in which student-teachers control what learners should say. The compliant questions elicit compliant responses as in lesson 5, utterances 2, 4 and 6; or elicit a compliant response which the student-teacher believes is the correct structure as in lesson 2 utterance 4. In other situations such questions elicit responses which appropriately signify an action as in lesson 4, utterances 16 and 18.

Another form of control in the classroom is realised through turn-taking. By inviting pupils to respond singly, in groups or in chorus, student-teachers ensure that classroom talk is disciplined and controlled. Techniques such as nominating pupils who should answer questions "e.g. 'Tichaona, come here and tell me what we use water for' (Lesson 24) is meant to control the number of pupils who should respond to the question. Similarly, in lesson 19, the student-teacher asks groups of pupils to answer given questions to ensure that not more than two groups do so at the same time (e.g. 'What is the answer....?' Group 2?).

Not only do student-teachers control 'who speaks and when' but they also control how much should be said. This suggests that they have control over floor-sharing. They can give the floor to individual pupils and withdraw it to give it to someone else. Instances in which such control was observed occur in lessons 3, 7, 13, 19, 21 and 24. The illustration given below is from lesson 7.

T Can someone tell us the whole story?

P. He first sent Robert Moffat to come talk to the Shona chiefs ...

T. Tell us the whole story

O.k. someone to continue, someone to take over.

When the student teacher said: "O.k. someone to continue" he was actually withdrawing the right to hold the floor from one pupil and inviting someone else to take over. A number of instances in which student-teachers showed their control over topics that needed to be discussed in different lesson segments were also identified. Group work was interrupted or stopped not

because pupils did not enjoy what they were doing but simply because the teacher felt he had to proceed to the next phase of the lesson.

T. Have you finished?

Groups: No-o-o.

T. You are too slow ... go back to your places Lets work number 4 together.....

(Lesson 13)

Although pupils still wanted to continue working in groups they had no option but to go along with the teacher's desire to change the activity. In lesson 4, pupils showed interest in making their own sentences using the -ing form:-

I am running;

I am walking; etc.

but suddenly, the teacher decided to change the topic and content of the lesson:

T. Right, now, those are your sentences and they've got verbs in them.

Now, let us see what verbs we can write on the board here ...

Student-teachers' control over subject matter, pupils' behaviour, learning activities and lesson topics was observed in every lesson. Such findings lend support to the observations that have been made by Stubbs (1976) who claims that through classroom talk, teachers monitor the verbal and or, non-verbal activities of their pupils. Hargreaves (1979) observes that teachers use language to realise organisational functions which he refers to as "coping strategies" in the policing of pupils' classroom behavior or what, according to Hargreaves (op. cit.), Jackson (1968) referred to as "crowd controlling" functions. Bossert (1979: 11) underlines the importance of such functions when he points out that they are not merely intended to show the teacher's authority but also, to define "the situation that specifies the rules for

appropriate behavior and performance within the classroom". We shall further illustrate how student-teachers attempt to realise these functions in the next sections where the researcher discusses the organisational functions of student-teachers' classroom discourse.

6.3.4 ORGANISATIONAL FUNCTIONS OF STUDENT-TEACHERS' CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

Control of subject matter, speaking turns and other forms of learning behavior can be viewed as sub-sets of student-teachers' general classroom management-skills. The ability to create orderly learning environments involves a number of organisational skills that include organising class learning, that is, the presentation and control of knowledge to the whole group of learners, organising and monitoring group work and ensuring that cooperation and friendly relationships obtain among the learners. All these organisational functions are realised through classroom talk. Student-teachers use a variety of speech acts to realise different organisational objectives.

One of these objectives is to make pupils perform given tasks or behave in certain ways the teacher considers desirable. The researcher observed that to realise such organisational objectives, student-teachers use utterances that have different "illocutionary forces" or meaning. Austin (1962) defines illocutionary acts as those that convey meanings which are not directly observable from the surface features of the speaker's utterance. The researcher's analysis of the organisational functions of such speech acts support the view given by Bossert (1979) who observes that teachers' organisational techniques are not pre-determined but that they arise from the pedagogic/sociolinguistic circumstances obtaining in the classroom at a given time. For instance, the researcher observed that in situations where learners work freely in groups and the student-teacher's control over the tasks they

are performing is relaxed, a student-teacher finds it necessary to use commands when he wants pupils to stop what they are doing and to pay attention to what he is going to say. Commands are also used to curb rowdy behavior by individual or groups of pupils. The following extracts illustrate this point. After pupils had been working in groups for about five minutes, the teacher said;

Right, ... stop

Read your answers... Group 1.

(Lesson 12)

Addressing a noisy pupil during a lesson, the student-teacher shouted:

Marufu ... keep quiet . . .

Stand up...

(Lesson 17)

Such utterances were used by student-teachers because they forcefully convey their intentions in situations where class and pupil control should be directly imposed and where there should be no possibility of pupils misinterpreting the student-teachers' communicative intentions. There are other situations in which the use of such utterances might not be appropriate. For instance, after explaining how to form sentences containing adjectives to an attentive well behaved class, the student-teacher's instruction was given in a 'polite', less peremptory manner.

T. Now, I want you to work on these cards in your groups.

In this utterance, the student-teacher expresses a wish which, in fact amounts to a command. It contrasts remarkably with what the same student said at the end of the group work task.

T. Now ... stop ... stop

(Lesson 2)

There is ample evidence in this and other lessons analysed in this study which shows that the differential use of 'commands' and 'indirect questions' is dependent on pedagogic/sociolinguistic factors obtaining at the time the student-teacher uses them. Similarly, student-teachers use 'suggestions' to tell pupils to perform certain tasks or to do things as in utterances like:

Let's have more examples (Lesson 3)

Let's start (Lesson 14)

Let's work number 4 together (Lesson 13)

These are, in fact, polite commands which student-teachers use in order to make pupils perform required tasks or behave as desired. The surface structures of such utterances give the impression that pupils are being 'requested' to do certain things whereas they are actually being commanded to do so. Their illocutionary force or the student-teachers' intended messages are 'commands' rather than requests. A detailed description of the linguistic structure of directives and indirect questions will be given in chapter seven.

6.3.5 ORGANISATIONAL FUNCTIONS OF STUDENT-TEACHERS' CLASSROOM TALK IN GROUP WORK

Group work discourse was analysed with the intention to assess its effectiveness in the organisation and implementation of group work tasks. Altogether, 8 lessons out of 24 introduced group work. The advantages of group talk was discussed in the literature review in chapter three. It was then observed that although some researchers like Stubbs (1976) and Barnes and Todd (1969) claim that group work talk enhances learners' skills in the use of the target language, some researchers like Galton et al (1980) and Slavin (1983) argue that group work, as it is currently organised, does not seem to produce the desired results.

The researcher's analysis of group work talk yielded results that support the views expressed by Galton et al (op. cit.) and Slavin (op. cit). He observed that firstly, there is very little use of the target language in group talk. Pupils code-switch to their L₁ as soon as they are left alone to perform a task. Secondly, group leaders, who are usually more intelligent than the other group members, do most of the work. They write answers on pieces of paper without consulting other members of the group. It was also observed that most group-work talk was not "task-related". Instead, pupils spent a lot of time chiding each other or arguing about what they were required to do. These observations support the view that very little learning or instructional input takes place in some group work tasks (Roth, 1983) and that pupils work "in groups but not as groups" Galton et al, (1980). The following extract from group work in lesson 22 illustrates these observations:

GROUP DISCUSSION

GROUP 1

PL:	A iwe unonetsa iwe	1
	'(Ah! you are naughty)'	
P1	Aka ndiko kanonetsa aka	
	'(It is this little one who is naughty)'	
P3	Iwe nyara ra '(keep quiet)'	3
	What is the answer?	4
P4	Let's count here.	5
PL	Imi hanzi pepa iri tisevenze zvakanaka.	6
	'(We were told to write on this piece of paper. The teacher wants us to produce good work)'	
P5	Usataure Shona '(Do not speak in Shona)'	7
Group	(Laugh)	
P6	Here we get 21 centimetres	9
PL	No, we say 21 square centimetres not centimetres.	10

In this text, 5 utterances were in L₁ and none of these were task-related. The other four were in English and only 2 of these (i.e. 5 and 8) are task-related. Utterance 4 is an elicitation calling for a response. Utterance 6 provides an answer to utterance 4 and, utterance 10 serves a corrective function. There is no evidence in this dialogue that pupils help each other or exchange ideas to solve a problem. In other words, the talk is neither "task enhancing" nor does it effectively encourage communicative discourse in the TL. It was however observed that when the teacher was around learners tried to use English as much as possible (see lesson 7 Appendix M). Even in such situations, there is little evidence of task-enhancing talk taking place.

The observations made in group work tasks revealed a number of weaknesses related to pupil-talk and task performance. These led the researcher to investigate possible causes of these weaknesses. As for pupils' inability to use language communicatively, it appears the problem is due to the learners' limited proficiency in the target language. They seem capable of giving factual display responses but when required to negotiate and to exchange meaning in groups, their TL fails to cope with their communicative needs (see section on 'Stylistic Overgeneralisation' chapter seven). Further evidence of their inability to use language communicatively is observed from their frequent switching from the TL to L₁ in group talk. In situations where they endeavour to use the TL persistently, they produced reduced utterances that do not fully express their communicative intentions. We notice this in the following extract from group work talk in lesson 7.

- | | | |
|-----|--|---|
| PL. | what did the Matebele do? | 1 |
| | They took our... and what? | 2 |
| P1 | They took our cattles. | 3 |
| PS. | (Laugh) | |
| T. | (Teacher intervention) not our cattles but | |

	cattle, and what?	4
P2	And milked ... Kukama.	5
P3	And milked the cattle.	6
P4	To get milk.	7

In utterance 5, P2 tried to express an idea but failed to do so and then switched to her L₁ to express what her TL utterance meant. Pupils 3 and 4 tried to elaborate the idea introduced by pupil 2 but it is clear from what they say, utterances 6 and 7, that they did not fully express their communicative intentions.

The researcher also hypothesised that group work performance was not "task enhancing", to use Roth's (1983) term, because student teachers did not give clear explanations as to how the group tasks should be performed and the outcomes they expected from these. His analysis of student-teachers' instructions as to what pupils should do in groups supported his hypothesis. He discovered that student-teachers' instructions lacked clarity with respect to what pupils were expected to do in groups and, how each pupil had to contribute towards the solution of a problem or benefit from the group activity. Group work instructions in lessons 12, 13, 16 and 21 were observed to be weak in these respects. We can illustrate this using an extract from lesson 15.

- T. Yes ... How many of you have TVs at home?
 Right TVs tell us about things that happen overseas.
 Right, in your groups I want you to write down means of communication we use in Zimbabwe. Group leaders get papers from the cupboard.

After group leaders had got the papers as instructed, they sat in their groups

and started writing down 'means of communication' on the pieces of paper. We notice that the student-teacher, in this case, did not explain the role of individual pupils in the group task. The general pattern is that the group leader proceeds to provide the answers whilst the other pupils do nothing or discuss issues that are not related to the task.

Because of their failure to give clear instructions before group work, student-teachers discover, as they move from one group to the other, that pupils are at a loss as to what they are required to do. They therefore take a long time explaining the nature of the task to each group. This leaves them with little or no time to help other groups. It was also discovered that group tasks seem to be more effective in situations where pupil activity is highly controlled and where pupils work in pairs. In such cases every pupil had a specific contribution to make. In language lessons this was achieved by letting pupils work in pairs using cards containing questions they asked each other in turns. One of the pupils read the questions which the other answered. This method was varied when the group leader asked different members of the group to answer different questions in turns. In Mathematics, the same technique was used when the group leader asked different pupils to work different problems (see lesson 10 appendix M).

When evaluating student teachers' group work instructions, the researcher compared these with those given by 'experienced regular teachers'. Those of the latter were found to be clearer and more helpful to learners than those of the former. In the Environmental Science lesson given by an experienced teacher (Appendix O₁ utterances 80-81) we get clear instructions as to what pupils should do in group work.

T. ----Now, in your groups I want you to discuss how we carried out the experiment. Mention everything that we

did and write it neatly on the pieces of paper.....

Everyone should say something about the experiment.

In the English lesson (Appendix O₂ utterances 85-87) we also get clear instructions from the teacher:

T. Now, you have learned how to ask for directions and ...
and how to direct someone... to get to a place.
Now, I want you to think of different questions
and to ask your friend to answer. Your friend should
tell you how to get to the place you want.

In both lessons, teachers clarify the nature of the group work tasks. The teachers emphasise the need for each group member to make a specific contribution towards the task. On the basis of these observations, the researcher concluded that there is a difference between the way student-teachers use classroom talk for functional purposes such as giving instructions for group work and the way experienced teachers do. What we observe in the lessons of experienced teachers is in keeping with Slavin's (1983a) suggestion that for pupils to benefit from group work there should be an element of "individual accountability" in the work. The researcher observed that student-teachers did not try hard to ensure that every pupil benefits from group work assignments. Their organisation and supervision of group work is so casual that as a result, pupils' work lacks a clear direction and purpose. The end result is, as Bennett (1985: 116) observes, that student-teachers' group work tasks fail to function as "effective vehicles for efficient learning".

6.3.6 CLASSROOM TALK AND TEACHER-PUPIL RELATIONSHIPS

Stubbs (1976: iii) makes the important observation that "classroom talk is

not merely a linguistic system, but a sociolinguistic system" as well. When studying the sociolinguistic system of classroom talk, we can do so from two perspectives. The first of these is related to what we discussed in the literature review referring to the influence of socio-cultural norms on classroom interaction. It was pointed out then that Sato's (1981) and Schinke-Llano's (1983) studies show that there is a relationship between "ethnicity and the distribution" of interactional forms in the classroom and that teachers tend to interact more with pupils who are more linguistically proficient than with those who are not. These studies suggest that in situations where, for socio-cultural reasons, learners are not prepared to initiate discourse or to express views that contradict those of their teachers, classroom talk will be asymmetrical in that teachers will tend to lead in all discussion and to transmit information that is not disputed or queried by learners.

In this study the researcher observed that discourse is asymmetrical. There are socio-cultural reasons for this. Pupils regard student-teachers as adults who hold positions of power and authority. Since, in Shona culture, such people's views are not to be questioned, they do not query or dispute student-teachers' views. In all the lessons analysed there are no instances of clarification requests or comprehension checks initiated by pupils. The researcher explained this phenomenon as a way in which pupils maintain the socio-cultural distance between them and those in authority. This conclusion supports Pica (1987) who observes that learners fear to use comprehension checks since these might be interpreted as signs of opposition to the teacher's authority. It will be shown below in sub-section 6.3.7, that in the data analysed for this study, only student-teachers used comprehension checks and clarification requests and that they modified their utterances not as responses to learners' requests but because they suspected learners had not understood their initial questions or statements.

The student-teacher-pupil relationships alluded to in the preceding discussion is one in which the teacher distances himself from learners in order to maintain his authority as one who knows what pupils should learn. On the other hand, pupils recognise the teacher's authority and dare not challenge it. So they know when to ask questions or when to contribute towards a learning task. Available evidence suggests that pupils in the ESL classes studied give their views only when asked to do so and in group work. But, they cannot do so when the student-teacher is teaching nor can they query what s/he says.

The other perspective from which we can study teacher-pupil relationships analyses ways in which teachers relate to learners at a personal level. Their relationships, in such cases, can either be positive or negative. Positive or negative relationships can be observed in classroom utterances that De Landsheere (1973) refers to as serving functions of "positive" or "negative" affectivity. De Landsheere (op. cit.) points out that such functions are realised in utterances that are independent of specific subject matter. That is; praising, encouraging, rewarding (positive affectivity) and, or criticising, accusing, threatening, reprimanding (negative affectivity) are not tied to or related to subject matter. But, in the analysis of his data the researcher observed that functions of positive affectivity were expressed simultaneously with functions of positive feedback to learners' responses and those of negative affectivity, with functions of negative feedback.

Student-teachers use small sets of utterances to realise these functions. For positive feedback/affectivity, invariably every student teacher used the words 'Good', 'Very good', 'Right' and 'O.K.'. Although student-teachers used these as evaluations of the responses given, pupils interpreted them to mean something like 'It was good of you to give such a response'. Negative feedback/affectivity in student-teachers' talk is provided in the form of mild

rejections of pupils' responses. We can also find, in this case, a few utterances that student-teachers use. These include such non-linguistic utterances like:

Umm ... (See lesson 7)

Eh... (See lesson 1)

and a combination of non-linguistic and linguistic utterances like:

Umm ... is that all ... (Lesson 13)

Eh ... yes, but ... (Lesson 8)

In some, but rare cases, a response is rejected bluntly as in:

No, we say treaty. (Lesson 7)

The problem with the researcher's combination of positive and negative feedback/affectivity is that student-teachers' relationships cannot be clearly defined. The researcher tends to assume that positive or negative feedback carry with them positive or negative affectivity but this is not always true. In fact, the combination of these categories suggests that student-teachers classroom talk does not make extensive use of utterances that explicitly reveal their emotional relationships or attitudes towards individual pupils. They seem to prefer expressing their emotional appreciation to groups or the whole class as suggested by such expressionsas:

T. All of you have done very well,
 Now take your exercise books and
 write the sentences in your books.
 (Lesson 5)

Similar favourable comments addressed to the whole class or groups were observed in lessons 9, 15, 23 and 24.

The observations made in student-teachers' lessons contrast markedly with observations made in the lessons of experienced regular teachers. These tend

to comment not only on the subject matter of pupils' responses but on the efforts of the learner as a person. Their comments are more personalised than those of student-teachers. In lesson O_1 we find the following utterances:

You said it very clearly, in just a few words (utterance 28);

Fine, very short but to the point (utterance 40);

and the 'encouraging' comment

Well, you are getting very close (utterance 75).

In lesson O_2 we get the personalised comment:

Very good Neta (utterance 35)

Such comments as these help establish warm relationships between teachers and learners. On the other hand, negative feedback does also help learners realise whether their behavior is acceptable or not or, whether their responses supply the required information.

6.3.7 COMMUNICATIVE STRATEGIES IN CLASSROOM TALK

In our literature review (chapter three) we noted that second language learners use a number of devices aimed at overcoming problems that arise in communicative situations. These were defined as being either L_1 or L_2 based. In this study, the researcher identified both types of strategies. It was discovered that L_2 based strategies were used by student-teachers in situations where they had to expand or reduce their questions in order to make them comprehensible to the learners. The processes of reducing or expanding utterances has come to be known as linguistic simplification or modification (see chapter three, sub-section 3.4.3). Linguistic simplification in this study, the researcher observed, occurs in question utterances that require pupils to explain processes or narrate events and in questions that contain topic words which the learners fail to understand. We shall discuss

and illustrate each of these categories in order to show how student teachers simplify/modify their classroom discourse.

In lesson 15 the student-teacher asked a question which required pupils to 'explain' the meaning of 'means of communication'. The dialogue which ensued is quoted below"

T.	Who can explain what 'means of communication' means?	1
P.	Train.	2
T.	I said explain what 'means of communication' is; not the ways of communication.	3
P.	Communication means telephoning and transport.	4
T.	Means of communication means, means of sending messages.	5
	What else do we send other than messages?	6
P.	By posting letters.	7
T.	I didn't say what things ...	8
	What else do we send?	9
	You say communication means sending messages or sending what?	10
P.	Messengers.	11
T.	Messengers are means of sending messages.	12
P.	Sending letters.	13
T.	Sending messages or passing information.	14

Question utterance 1 required pupils to define the term 'means of communication'. When they could not do so; the student teacher changed his communication strategy. He expanded his question to elaborate the demands of the question (utterance 3). When a pupil gave an unacceptable response, utterance 4, the teacher further elaborated his question by saying what

communication means and then modified the original question (see utterance 6). The response to the modified question (utterance 7) was still not acceptable. This compelled the student-teacher to clarify the demands of the question (utterances 8 and 9) and to change his question into a simple Wh-question (utterance 10). The Wh-question finally elicited a response which the student-teacher accepted (utterance 11).

This text illustrates how the student-teacher used modification/simplification processes as a strategy for making his question comprehensible to the learners, that is, achieving "mutual comprehension" or a desired communicative goal (Faerch et al 1983). The text also illustrates how the student-teacher negotiates meaning with his class.

There are instances when student teachers simplify their questions in order to adjust them to the levels of learners' TL proficiency. A student-teacher may ask a question which he realises is too difficult for learners to answer. He quickly readjusts it before pupils give their responses as in lesson 7.

T.	Our topic today is social conflict.	1
	What do you understand by the word social conflict?	2
	What does it mean?	3
	It's something to do with what ... Joyce?	4
P.	Our society.	5
T.	Something to do with society ...	6

In this dialogue the student-teacher asked two questions (utterances 3 and 4) which are, in fact, adjustments of the first question (utterance 2). We notice that the adjustment process of the original question involves "semantic simplification" in which the meaning of the original utterance is simplified (Chaudron, 1983). In this case, it is simplified by modifying a question from

an "open" ended question (utterance 2) to a closed simple Wh-question (utterance 4). The researcher observed that student-teachers frequently use this strategy. Questions that appear difficult to learners or are of the 'referential type' are often modified and changed into simple wh- or recall questions as illustrated in the extracts quoted above. Instances of such modification processes were observed in content lessons that introduced new material and not in those that revised previously learned material. In lesson 8, questions were modified as illustrated below:

T.	<u>How</u> do you protect yourself from cold?	1
	<u>What</u> do you put on when it is cold?	2
P.	A raincoat.	3
T.	Yes, a raincoat.	4

Notice the re-adjustment of utterance 1, a 'How' question, to a 'Wh-' question utterance 2.

We find a similar strategy in lesson 18.

T.	What is the name of the first one?	1
	The first one is . . . ?	2
P.	I can see Virginia tobacco.	3
T.	Try the next one.	4
P.	I can see Beily.	5
T.	Say barley.	6

In this dialogue the student teacher readjusted his question from a wh-question (utterance 1) to a "filling in" question (utterance 2) which presumably, he believed was easier than the first one.

The modification/simplification strategies used by student-teachers in this study seem to be common in second language classrooms. Long (1981) observes that:

When learners show lack of comprehension, messages are repeated --- (e.g. through paraphrase, the substitution of difficult vocabulary with more frequent lexical items, and the repair of wh- to yes/no questions.

(Long, 1983: 136).

According to Long (op. cit.) similar observations were made by (Chaudron 1979, in press; Hatch, 1978; Hatch et al, 1978).

Besides the L₂ based communication strategies discussed above, student-teachers also used L₁ based strategies. The most commonly used L₁ based strategy in this study involved codeswitching from L₂ to L₁. The researcher's observations supported McClure's (1981) views and those of other researchers discussed in chapter three. It was observed that student-teachers codeswitch or code-mix in situations where they seek to emphasise or elaborate a point or convey meaning they believe would be more comprehensible in the learners' L₁. For instance, in lessons 7 and 4 codeswitching was intended to explain complex concepts. In lesson 7 the word 'oppression' appeared too semantically loaded for learners to understand when defined in L₂. So, the student teacher switched to L₁.

- | | | |
|----|--|---|
| T. | What forms of oppression did the Matabele bring? | 1 |
| | ----- | |
| | What did they do we can call oppression? | 2 |
| P. | They took our women. | 3 |
| T. | Yes, they took pretty women. | 4 |
| | ----- | |

- P. Lobengula allowed the white man to look for minerals. 5
- T. Yes, ... would you say that is a kind of oppression? 6
- What is oppression? 7
- Have you forgotten? 8
- Udzvanyiriri ... Kana wapiwa maminaraluzi
wazeya-udzvanyiriri. (It is oppression. If you oppress
someone who gives you something like minerals,
it is oppression).

In utterance 5, the teacher codeswitched to explain the meaning of oppression.

In lessons 12 and 18 codeswitching served to emphasise points which the student-teachers wanted learners to pay special attention to as in the following extracts:

- T. --- Can anyone tell me the clean habits we should do. 1
- We once discussed these. 2
- Should we throw papers in wells? 3
- P. We should not throw papers --- 4
-
- T. We should protect it from papers. 5
- What can we do at home? 6
- Tiri Kuda zveutsanana (We want to discuss health habits).

In this extract, utterance 7 does not provide any new information that pupils need to know. It merely emphasises the aim of the lesson. In a majority of cases, student-teachers codeswitched rather than code-mixed. But, in language lessons there was a tendency to code-mix as in lesson 4.

T.	Yes, that's the correct verb there 'fell'.	1
	What does it mean?	2
	Eh ...	3
P.	Kudonha	4
T.	Right, Kudonha.	5
	Who can come and fall down?	6

Another interesting observation with regards to codeswitching was that when pupils worked in groups they tended to differentiate L_1 and L_2 functionally. L_1 utterances were used for organisational and other functions. But when talk was related to the group task they used the target language as in the following extract.

GROUP WORK

PL.	We listen to the radio when we want to know what ... ?	1
	Pano apa pane vaviri chete vari Kutaura	
	(There are only two pupils talking in this group)	2
	Now, say Mr Mugabe ...	3
	Iwe nyora (You write ...)	4
P1	When I want to go to town I go with a bus.	5
P2	Ah, is that communication?	6
	That is transport.	7
	We want to hear about other countries.	8
P3	We telephone ...	9

In this extract, utterances 2 and 4 which are organisational are in L_1 and the rest of the utterances which are task-related are in the target language. It should be emphasised however that this phenomenon did not show up in certain classes and in groups where learners' proficiency in the target

language was 'below' average. The tendency in such classes was to use the L_1 for both organisational and learning purposes.

From the preceding description of the formal and functional features of student teacher classroom talk, the researcher observed that instances of genuine miscommunication occur in the functional categories he labelled "pedagogical/instructional". These involve elicitation utterances discussed in sub-section 6.3.2.1. Organisational and other functions of student-teacher talk do not seem to pose serious communication problems. On the basis of these observations, the researcher proceeded to analyse instances in which communication is effective or defective in the ESL classrooms which he studied. The pattern that emerged was discussed in terms of productive and receptive accessibility hierarchies; notions which are based on the noun phrase hierarchies and the markedness theory discussed in the literature review in sub-sections 3.3.2 and 3.3.3.

The notion of noun phrase hierarchy discussed in the literature review for this study suggests that teachers' input, through either direct instruction of the target language forms or indirect instruction results in a progressive acquisition of certain L_2 forms and their functions. In such cases an acquisition continuum which shows that simple noun phrase structures are acquired first and complex ones later, was observed. Certain researchers have claimed that there is a causative relationship between instruction and the learners's acquisition of certain language forms (see Long, 1983). Meisel, Clahsen and Pienemann (1981) further claim that there is a relationship between "complexity and learnability". That is, learning is influenced by the nature of the language structures being learned. The more complex these structures are the more difficult it is for learners to acquire them and the less complex they are, the easier it is for learners to acquire and use them.

Other researchers such as Pica (1985) observe that classroom instruction has a "selective effect on the learner's acquisition of a second language. Certain forms are more responsive to classroom presentation than others". And, Felix (1981, 1985) concludes from her studies that second language acquisition does not depend on the teacher's presentation of L₂ data but on "a universal set of language acquisition principles and strategies" (Felix, 1985: 224). Corder (1967: 165) makes a similar observation when he points out that presenting a linguistic form to a learner does not "qualify it for the status of input" since input suggests "what goes in" and not what is merely "available for going in".

Despite these varying views about the value of instructional input, the fact that learners' second language output consists of structures observable in teachers' language cannot be denied. In the analysis of his research data, the researcher observed that a number of linguistic forms and features used in student-teacher talk also occurred in learners' utterances. References to student-teachers' elicitations and pupils' responses made in preceding sections show formal and functional similarities between input and output utterances. Notice, for instance, the recurrence of the phrase 'put on' in the following extract from lesson 8.

- T. What else do you put on for protection against the sun?
- P. We put on clothes.
- T. O.k. What type of dress is Anna putting on?
- P. Anna is putting on a summer dress.
- T. --- How many of you have ever seen a picture of people in a desert?
What type of clothes do they put on?
- P. They put on blankets.
- T. They put on blankets.

The phrase 'put on' is extensively used in this lesson. Besides using it to convey ideas in classroom talk, the researcher noted that pupils were at the same time developing their interlanguage by practising its use in a specified context. Similar observations were made in Mathematics lessons. For instance in lesson 9, we find the teacher repeating a passive structure which pupils also use in their responses.

- T. --- What fraction is shaded?
- P. Three quarters are shaded.
- T. And, what part is not shaded.
- P. One quarter is not shaded.
- T. Now, look at this rectangle.
Into how many parts is it divided?
- P. It is divided into eight parts.
- T. Yes, it is divided into eight parts.

The linguistic similarities between student-teacher's and pupils' exchanges in this extract can however be said to occur in situations where pupils' responses as well as the linguistic forms they use are constrained by the student-teacher's elicitation. However, similar observations were also made in group work tasks where pupils were relatively free to use linguistic forms of their own choice. In lesson 22, for instance, the group leader's questions were structurally imitative of the student-teacher's. During the input teaching stage of the lesson, the student-teacher used linguistic forms and structures which also appeared in the group leader's utterances. We notice, for instance, that the student-teacher's questions and statements like

- Let's count them --- together.
- How many squares do we have along from here up to there?

were repeated in slightly modified forms by group leaders as follows:

- Now, lets count together.

- How many along here?

In lesson 18, we have a more relaxed group work activity with less teacher intervention than we find in other lessons (e.g. lesson 7, Appendix M). We find, in lesson 18, pupils making an effort to use utterances that reflect the linguistic forms used by the student-teacher.

T. Right, the tobacco plant: the way it is grown.
 The farmer will mix seeds with water.
 Now, after mixing, he sows them in a seedbed
 and they grow into seedlings which are later
 transplanted into the field. The seeds are
 very very small, so that if they're sown into
 the field, they will be covered by the soil.
 When the tobacco has grown into the height of
 about 22 cm. and if you find that the leaves
 are yellow, what are you going to think of?

In group work talk pupils tried to describe the process as follows:

P₁ The farmer mix the seeds with water and ---

P₂ He mix the seeds with water.

The seeds are very little so, if they put them
 in the field, the soil will cover them ---

GL. Wa siya zvimwe (there is something else you
 have not mentioned.

P₃ --- if they put them in water and water them, the
 seed-beds ... they will grow.

We notice in these utterances, learners' attempts to approximate their interlanguage forms to those used by the student-teacher. To the researcher, these instances suggest that learners' interlanguage is influenced by student-teachers' input during classroom interaction. The appearance of identical forms and structures in their discourse is an indication that there is a positive relationship between exposure to language forms and second language acquisition. This observation can also be extended to cover the relationship between instruction of language forms in language lessons and pupils' second language development. The researcher could not, however, make the decisive conclusion that such similarities become permanent features of learners' "interlanguage repertoires or contribute to its eventual expansion" (Pica, 1987: 7). Some researchers have however, argued that such exposure as we have described, and instruction, are beneficial to second language acquisition and others say it is not (see Long, 1983). Summarising studies on the effects of instruction on second language acquisition Long (1983) observes that instruction does, after all, have an effect on second language acquisition. The conclusion the researcher made from his observations was that input through instruction seems to facilitate second language acquisition since it provides learners with opportunities to express themselves using the linguistic items and, or patterns that appear in student-teachers' interlanguage. In making this observation, the researcher took note of what linguists like Long (op. cit.) have said about the value of instruction in general; namely that although it seems to facilitate second language acquisition, our current knowledge about the value of instruction does not suggest that instruction causes second language development.

We referred to the notion of 'complexity and learnability' in the preceding discussion. Pica (1985) defines complexity, referring to Krashen (1981). She writes:

Krashen (1981) defines linguistic complexity in terms of number of derivational rules required in the production of target constructions, and degree of transparency between target forms and the functions they serve.

(Pica, op. cit.: 215)

The researcher applied this notion of complexity in his analysis of receptive accessibility. He defined 'receptive accessibility' in terms of the degree of semantic transparency in the forms and functions of the student-teachers' questions. Such transparency was judged in terms of how easily accessible the communicative messages of student-teachers' questions were to the learners. In the section that follows, we shall discuss receptive accessibility in the context of the researcher's observations of what constitutes effective or defective communication in student-teachers' classroom talk.

6.3.8 EFFECTIVE/DEFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Having analysed and discussed the linguistic features that characterise effective and defective communication exchanges in section 6.3 we need to indicate when and how frequently these occur in the research data. In order to give such an account, the researcher used a term he called "Question Accessibility". He used it to refer to levels at which learners successfully decoded student-teachers' elicitation utterances and gave acceptable responses to these. An acceptable answer to a question was, in terms of the notion of Question Accessibility, formally and/or semantically appropriate. The fact that a question received such an answer meant that it was accessible to the learners and was, therefore, communicatively effective. Using the formulae discussed in sub-section 6.1, we can say that the following constitute effective communication:

(EU <----> RU) + (PC/EU <----> PC/RU)

(EU <--/--> RU) + (PC/EU <----> PC/RU)

The second formula in which the forms are either faulty or non-cohesive can

be regarded as communicatively effective since their propositional contents are coherent and acceptable. The formal faults or errors they contain may be regarded as 'local errors' which do not cause miscommunication (Burt et al, 1982). On the other hand, such formulae as:

$(EU \langle \text{----} \rangle RU) + (PC/EU \langle \text{--/--} \rangle PC/RU)$

$(EU \langle \text{--/--} \rangle RU) + (PC/EU \langle \text{--/--} \rangle PC/RU)$

indicate that communication in the utterances is defective. In the first formula, there is surface cohesion but no semantic coherence. In the second there is neither semantic coherence nor formal cohesion,

Using these formulae, the researcher proceeded to count the number of questions that received correct responses and those that received incorrect ones. The frequency counts did in fact provide totals of 'accessible' and 'inaccessible' questions. Since the question categories appearing in the data had been established and discussed (see sub-section 6.3) what remained to be done was to consider which categories were more accessible than others or which ones were associated with effective or defective communication.

To determine such communication categories the following analytical steps were followed:

- i) Elicitation utterances (questions) indicated in Table 10 were quantified in terms of whether they were accessible to learners or not.
- ii) For each question category, the number of accessible utterances, that is, those that received correct responses, and inaccessible ones were turned into percentages.
- iii) The percentages were then plotted on a histogram to provide a visual illustration of their accessibility. In doing so, only categories of questions receiving correct responses were taken

into account. Categories that received the highest percentage of correct responses were deemed to be associated with effective communication and those that received the lowest percentages, with defective communication. For details of the quantification process see Appendix F which gives the totals and percentages of accessible and inaccessible questions for each lesson.

The following were the results of step (ii), that is, accessibility percentages.

QUESTION TYPES	% OF CORRECT RESPONSES
1. COMPLIANT QUESTIONS	
COMPLIANT REPETITION QUESTIONS	100
COMPLIANT ORGANISATIONAL QUESTIONS	100
COMPLIANT READING QUESTIONS	100
COMPLIANT COMPUTATION QUESTIONS	100
2. COMPLIANT-REPEATING STUDENT-TEACHER'S SENTENCE	97
3. COMPLIANT-CONSTRUCTING SENTENCES USING THE STUDENT-TEACHER'S MODEL	90
4. NAMING/LABELLING QUESTIONS	98.3
5. RECALL AND REPRODUCTION QUESTIONS	89
6. YES/NO QUESTIONS	85
7. RECALL - 'WHY' QUESTIONS	52
8. 'HOW' QUESTIONS	50
9. 'WHY' QUESTIONS	30
10. EXPLAINING/DEFINING QUESTIONS	9.5
11. NARRATIVE QUESTIONS/QUESTIONS CONTAINING UNFAMILIAR QUESTION TOPICS OR WORDS	0

TABLE 10 QUESTION ACCESSIBILITY PERCENTAGES

The histogram in Diagram 11 was used to provide the visual illustration suggested in step iii.

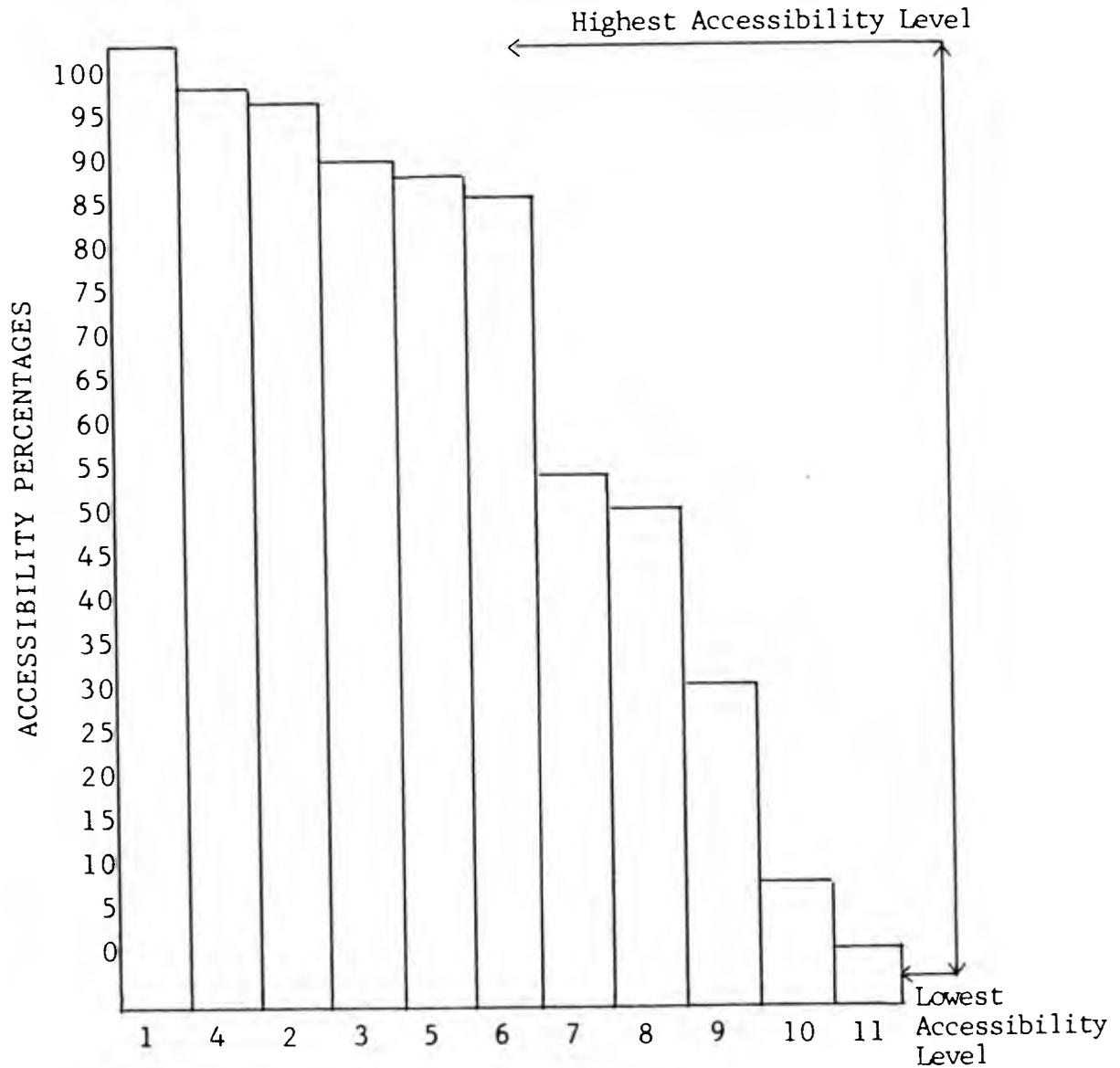


Diagram 11 VISUAL ILLUSTRATION OF QUESTION ACCESSIBILITY LEVELS

(NB: Numbers 1 to 11 are meant to agree with those given in Table 10).

We observe from Table 11 and Diagram 11 that communication in the research data is defective in situations where questions demanding pupils to narrate events are given (0%). This category also includes questions that contain unfamiliar words or question topics. This suggests that pupils fail to give satisfactory responses to such questions. We also observe that situations in which pupils are required to explain or to define concepts present communication problems (9.5%) followed by those that call for responses to 'why' questions (30%), 'How' questions (50%) and so on. Accessible questions range from recall/reproduction (89%) to compliant questions (100%).

These findings suggest that in student-teachers' classroom-talk there are likely to be greater communication breakdowns in situations where they use referential questions than in those where they use display questions. This might be interpreted to mean that communication is likely to be effective in situations where questions received accessibility percentages that are above 80 and defective in situations where they received percentages below 55. What we cannot authoritatively claim on the basis of these findings, is what actually influences accessibility or inaccessibility. In this study the researcher assumed that these are influenced by the formal features of student-teachers' elicitations. It is however possible that pupils' inadequate knowledge of subject content may influence the accessibility or inaccessibility of questions. Or, that having understood the student-teacher's questions, learners find it difficult to formulate their own responses. It was however necessary for the purposes of this study to focus on the effect of the linguistic features of student-teachers' utterances and describe their accessibility in terms of pupils' responses. If the other factors mentioned above do play a part in pupils' receptive abilities it can be inferred that these, together with learners' linguistic problems, make it difficult for them to access complex referential questions.

6.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter focussed on the description of the functions of student-teachers' classroom discourse. It also focussed on the linguistic forms or rules that characterise the language used to realise these functions. In the chapter that follows we shall look back at chapters five and six to take stock of the linguistic observations we have made. These should enable us to classify and to describe the rules that characterise student-teachers', and to a limited extent, learners interlanguage utterances. This should provide us with what we may call "The Grammar of Student Teachers' Interlanguage".

CHAPTER VII

- 7 Research Findings III: Interlanguage Rule Categories
 - 7.1 Discourse Unit Structures
 - 7.2 Syntactical and Stylistic Rule Categories
 - 7.2.1 Syntactical Rule Categories
 - 7.2.1.1 Wh- Questions
 - 7.2.1.2 Yes/No Questions
 - 7.2.1.3 Indirect Questions
 - 7.2.1.4 Declarative and Completion Questions
 - 7.2.2 Stylistic Rule Categories
 - 7.2.2.1 Contexts in Which Ellipted and Full Sentence Responses Occur
 - 7.2.2.2 Variability in the Use of Contracted and Uncontracted Forms
 - 7.2.2.3 Domain Variability of Learners' Responses

CHAPTER SEVEN

7 RESEARCH FINDINGS III: INTERLANGUAGE RULE CATEGORIES

It was pointed out in Chapter four that the main purpose of interlanguage analysis is to discover and to describe systematicity in the learner's language. In this chapter, the researcher summarised and discussed the interlanguage rules observed in chapters five and six. But before providing such a description, it is necessary that we define the analytical techniques for analysing interlanguage. The first one involves the use of "variable rules". It calls for the specification of the linguistic environments or contexts in which certain lexico-grammatical features occur. The second one, "implicational scaling", is based on the notion that the presence of an interlanguage rule in data collected cross-sectionally, reflects the way in which the learner has acquired target language rules in the preceding stages of his language development. The rules are then ordered on a hierarchical scale ranging from simple to complex ones. The linguistic patterns or rules that are classified as simple on such a scale are presumed to have been acquired first and the complex ones, later. This technique was used by Dittmar (1980) in his study on the acquisition of the verb phrase in German as a second language and by Hyltenstam (1984) in his investigation on the use of "pronominal copies" in the acquisition of Swedish as a second language. The third technique, the "diffusion model" is so called because it assumes that at a given stage in his language development, the learner develops rules of use which he carries over to the next stage where they are either used in their original form or modified to accommodate new linguistic input.

In this study, the researcher preferred to use the technique that investigates the use of "variable rules" in learner language. This technique was found to be the most suitable for analysing interactive discourse data and to indicate the rule categories observable from it. In doing so, the researcher took into account and applied the views expressed by Labov (1971), Bailey (1973),

Faerch et al (1984), Huebner (1985). These linguists describe interlanguage rules as either "categorical" or "variable". On the basis of these notions (which will be defined below), the researcher developed a conceptual scheme that shows the relationships between different types of language rules (see Diagram 12).

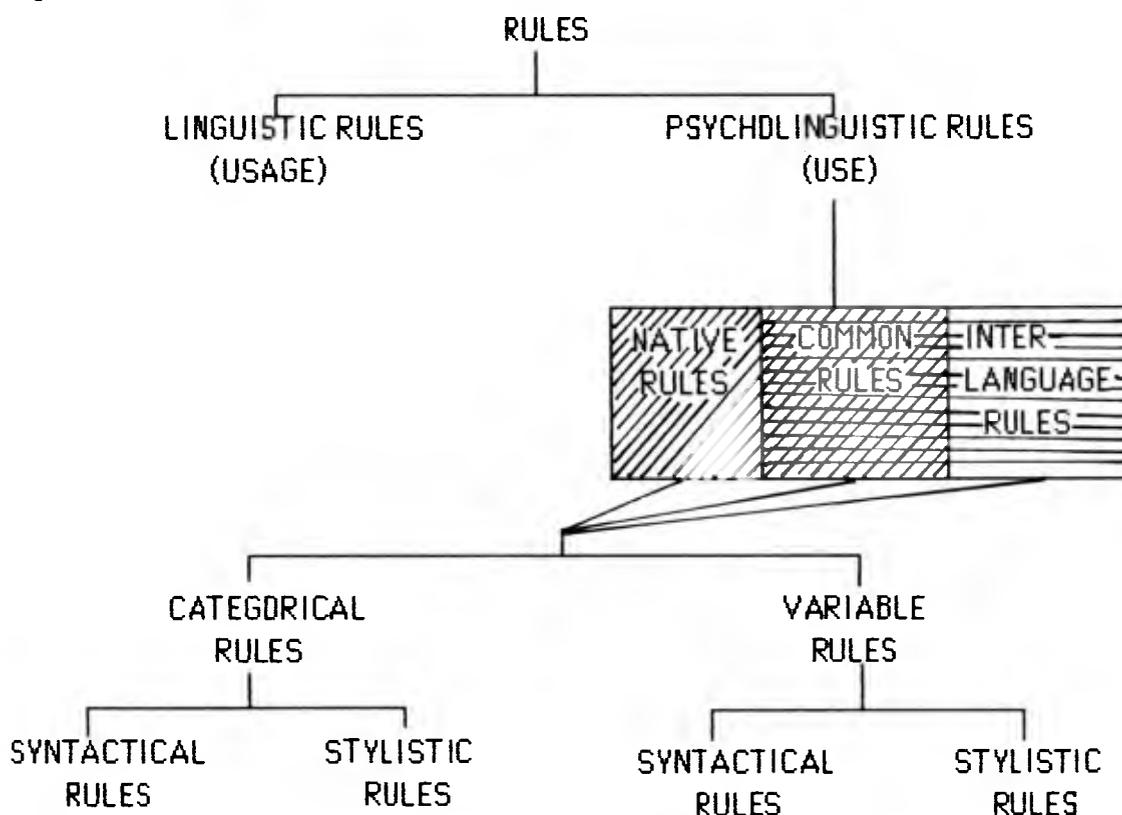


Diagram 12 Types of Language Rules

What are shown in Diagram 12 as "linguistic rules" (Faerch et. al., 1984) are identical with Widdowson's (1979) rules of "usage". They comprise the grammatical rules of a specified language described on the basis of a given theory of grammar. Faerch et al (op. cit.) also refer to what he calls "psycholinguistic rules". Slobin (1973) referred to them as "operational principles" and Widdowson (1979) called them rules of "use". These refer to a speaker's perception, conscious or unconscious, of the rules of a given language and how he activates them in communicative situations. Although rules of "use" may, in some respects differ from rules of "usage", the former are basically derived from the latter.

Psycholinguistic rules or rules of "use" can be divided into native and non-native rule categories. In Diagram 12, these are represented as "native rules" and "inter-rules" respectively. The former comprise those rules that native speakers operate in interactive discourse and the latter, to those operated by non-native speakers. Although a distinction between native rules and inter-rules is presupposed by the distinction drawn above, there are areas where the two varieties reveal some common characteristics. These constitute a sub-category represented in Diagram 12 as "Common Rules". They represent rules of use that second language learners have mastered to the extent of using them in the same way that native speakers do. The "Common Rules" category, therefore, constitutes a category in which native and non-native rules overlap.

The diagram also shows that both native and inter-rules of use manifest themselves either as categorical (systematic) or variable linguistic patterns. Categorical interlanguage rules have the distinctive feature that although they may deviate from those of the target language, they occur consistently in clearly defined environments, that is, their occurrence is systematic. They reveal lexico-grammatical features that recur in certain parts of their utterances or discourses. Variable interlanguage rules, on the other hand, do not occur in a consistent systematic pattern. Given one linguistic environment, it will be observed that two or more rules are used in free variation at different times. It is not possible, when dealing with free variable rules to predict which one will be used when a similar linguistic environment occurs in speech or writing.

Categorical and variable rules were further divided into syntactical and stylistic rules. In this case, systematic syntactical rules were defined as patterns that occurred consistently in given environments and whose occurrence was predictable. Stylistic rules, on the other hand, refer to rules

that influence the way in which utterances are organised and articulated. Stylistic rules may vary depending on the circumstances under which the learner uses the TL. Before we describe the syntactical and stylistic features of student-teachers' and pupils' language, we need to comment on some of its discourse unit structures.

7.1 DISCOURSE UNIT STRUCTURES

Our discussion in Chapter six focussed on reciprocal and non-reciprocal interactive units which Widdowson (1984: 131) refers to as "participant" and "non-participant" texts. Sinclair et. al. (1975) describe "participant texts" that occur in the classroom as "discourse units" and non participant ones as "informs". They describe a minimum unit of discourse as consisting of an initiation (I) which elicits a response (R). It also consists of an acknowledgement which signals acceptance or refusal of a response, that is, feedback (F). A minimum discourse can therefore be represented as follows: (IRF) and an inform simply as (INF). According to Sinclair et. al. (op. cit.), the IRF structure can be varied as when the teacher provides no feedback or when an initiation calls for a series of responses.

In the researcher's analysis, a number of variations from Sinclair et al's (op. cit.) IRF were identified. The following occurred in a majority of the lessons observed.

i) IRRRRRF

In this discourse unit, an initiation was followed by a number of responses which did not receive immediate feedback. Instead, feedback was given at the end of a series of responses. When, however, one of the intervening responses was not acceptable, feedback was immediately given as in the following exchanges (Lesson 12):

T: ... Fill in with the correct adjective

... I can see ... flower.

P.	I can see a <u>good</u> flower.	2
P.	I can see a <u>red</u> flower.	3
P.	I can see a <u>big</u> flower.	4
P.	I can see a <u>small</u> flower.	5
P.	I can see <u>his</u> flower.	6
T.	No, 'his' is a pronoun. We are using adjectives.	7

The student-teacher's feedback was, in this excerpt, prompted by the learner's erroneous response. In other exchanges, a series of responses do not receive feedback. Consequently, the discourse unit begets a structure that can be illustrated as follows:

I R₁ R₂ R₃ ... R_n

ii) IØIIR

In discourse units that contain such a series of acts, the student-teacher's first question does not receive a response (that is, initiation is followed by zero response). The student-teacher then proceeds to ask the question twice before getting a response. The intervening questions function as interactive acts aimed at achieving "reciprocity of perspectives" between the student-teacher and learners. The absence of a response to the first question suggests that there is disparity between the student-teacher's and learners' schematic knowledge and the intervening questions are intended to reassure the learners that his frame of reference is accessible to them. We can illustrate this by the following exchanges from Lesson 16:

T.	Who has received a letter recently?	1

P.	I received a letter from my father	2
T.	What did he say?	3
P.	—	
T.	Have you forgotten?	4
	What did he tell you in the letter?	5

	What did he say?	6
P.	He said Zimbabwe beat Malagasy in football.	7
P.	Ah! he said Zimbabwe beat Malagasy on Sunday.	
	Say that again.	8
P.	He said Zimbabwe beat Malagasy on Sunday.	9
T.	Good.	10

The student-teacher's intervening questions 4, 5, and 6 serve the function described above.

iii) $I_1 I_2 I_3 \dots I_n, RF$

On other occasions student-teachers repeated questions before learners had had the opportunity to respond to the first one. Unlike the intervening questions discussed under (ii) which are addressee-oriented the intervening questions in the IIRF structure are addressor-oriented. They are a means whereby the student-teacher controls his own speech either by reformulating the first question in order to make it more audible than on the first occasion by articulating it more clearly, that is, question restructuring. Only when he had been satisfied that his question had been appropriately structured and was acoustically accessible to learners did the student-teacher nominate a pupil to give a response as in the following discourse exchanges from Lesson 20:

T.	Yes they are sent to other countries.	1
	What else does the port do?	2
	What are the other uses of ports besides receiving goods from inland areas and sending goods outside the country?	3
	What else does it do?	4
	How do we get things from New York?	5
	How do we get things from New York?	6
P.	By ship?	7

T.	By ship.	8
P.	By air.	9
T.	By air ... anything else?	10

We notice that the student-teacher reformulated his first question several times before he decided which question pupils should answer. This shows the extent to which student-teachers monitor their questions before letting pupils answer them.

Besides the discourse unit structures discussed above, there were a number of instances in which Sinclair et. al.'s (op. cit.) minimum structure, the (IRF) was used. It was, in fact, the commonest discourse unit structure in all the lessons observed. So, the analysis of discourse unit structures revealed that there is no fixed pattern that student-teachers use but that these vary depending on the ease with which pupils supply the information presupposed by the elicitation utterances.

7.2 SYNTACTICAL AND STYLISTIC RULE CATEGORIES

As suggested in the last paragraph of Chapter six, the classification and description of the rule categories that follow were based on the formal description of the student-teachers' elicitation utterances and some of the pupils' responses. These were discussed in Chapter six. Appendix F shows their frequencies in each of the 24 lessons analysed.

7.2.1 SYNTACTICAL RULE CATEGORIES

These were discussed under different grammatical headings. Each of these will be discussed separately to indicate their formal features and the rule categories they constitute.

7.2.1.1 WH-QUESTIONS

For descriptive purposes, it was decided to divide wh- questions into those in which the wh- word is not part of the subject and those in which it is part of the subject.

a) Questions in which the wh- word is not part of the subject.

A count of the frequencies of wh- questions gave a total of 338 questions. Out of these none were found to be syntactically unacceptable. Acceptable syntax in question utterances entails the proper ordering of elements such as operator, subject, verb, object, adverbials and any other sentence elements. It is possible that a question utterance that contains a wrong syntactical or grammatical element can be syntactically acceptable. A structural analysis of syntactically acceptable question utterances is presented in Table 11 below.

WH-WORD	OPERATOR	SUBJECT	VERB	OBJECT	ADVERBIAL
what	can	you	see	-	on this picture?
why	do	we	say is shaded	three eighths	-
How	do	gumboots	protect	the hunter	- ?
How	does	an overall	protect	the hunter	- ?
What	can	we	do	-	at home ?
How	do	we	commu- nicate	-	in Zimbabwe ?

TABLE 11 SYNTACTICAL FEATURES OF WH- QUESTIONS (I)

The analysis presented in this table reveals the categorical or systematic rules pertaining to the formation of wh- questions in which the wh- word is not the subject or part of the subject of the utterance. We can summarise the

rules applied in the formation of such questions as follows:

- i) The positions of the subject and the operator as they appear in the corresponding declarative utterances are inverted (corresponding declarative utterances are the statements derivable from the question utterance).
- ii) The wh- word is placed in initial position.
- iii) In cases where the corresponding declarative utterance has no auxiliary verb functioning as operator, a dummy auxiliary is introduced to function as operator.
- iv) Invariably, the adverbial appears in final position.

These rules were compared to Quirk et al's (op. cit.: 80-81) rules for formulating wh- questions of this type. There was agreement between the main syntactical features of student-teachers' questions and those of native speakers as described by Quirk et. al. (op. cit.), namely, with regards to subject-operator inversion, placement of the wh- word and the introduction of the dummy auxiliary in places where it has to function as an operator.

b) Questions in which the wh- word is part of a subject.

In this sub-category of simple wh- questions, the researcher's analysis revealed systematic tendencies which differed from those described under (a) above in one major respect, namely, that no change is made with respect to the order of the formal features that appear in the corresponding declarative utterances of the questions. Two major rules are operated in such cases, namely:

- i) The wh- word which functions as the subject of the question is placed in initial position.
- ii) The order of the formal features in the question remains the same as that in the corresponding statement.

The examples given below illustrate student-teachers' realisation of these

rules. Each question is paired with a statement the researcher assumed to be its nearest corresponding declarative utterance.

The realisation rules used by student-teachers in this category were also compared with Quirk et. al.'s description (op. cit.: 81). It was observed that student-teachers operated rules that native speakers are expected to operate in similar situations. This was confirmed by native speaker informants the researcher consulted.

	ELEMENT FUNCTIONING AS PART OF SUBJECT	ORDER OF OTHER ELEMENTS
Question 1	what	fraction is shaded?
Corresponding statement 1	a certain	fraction is shaded?
Question 2	what	part is not shaded?
Corresponding statement 2	a certain	part is not shaded?
Question 3	who	can correct him?
Corresponding statement 3	someone	can correct him?
Question 4	which	vitamins are in oranges?
Corresponding statement 4	some	vitamins are in oranges?
Question 5	what	is wrong there?
Corresponding statement 5	something	is wrong there?

TABLE 12. SYNTACTICAL FEATURES OF WH- QUESTIONS (II)

These informants were also asked to comment on the acceptability of certain wh- questions that contained grammatical errors. These include:

- i) What did the growing of crops make men to do? (Lesson 24).
- ii) When you put your flag, what is the meaning of the flag?
(Lesson 7).
- iii) How many sides have a hexagon? (Lesson 13).
- iv) What made men of the stone age to stay at one place?
(Lesson 24).
- v) What do we protect our bodies from? (Lesson 8).

They (the informants) labelled these questions as erroneous but indicated that as far as question syntax is concerned, they are acceptable. They are 'erroneous' because they contain wrong grammatical features (utterances i, ii, and iv) or wrong lexical items (utterances iii and v). This led the researcher to conclude that such utterances were not syntactically faulty and could be classified as acceptable, syntactically.

7.2.1.2 YES/NO QUESTIONS

The psycholinguistic rules for realising yes/no questions were found to be the same as those for realising wh- questions in which the wh- word is not the subject or part of the subject in the utterance. This linguistic feature is illustrated in the examples given in Table 13 below.

	SUBJECT/OPERATOR INVERSION		MAINTENANCE OF WORD ORDER AFTER INVERSION
	SUBJECT	VERB/ OPERATOR	
Corresponding Statement (C.S.)	Someone	can	tell us the whole story.
Question (Q.)	Can	anyone	tell us the whole story?
C.S.	You	can	give me a list of crops grown in Zimbabwe.
Q.	Can	you	give me a list of crops grown in Zimbabwe?
C.S.	You	can	tell me some forms of communication you know.
Q.	Can	you	tell me some forms of communication you know?
C.S.	That	is	correct.
Q.	Is	that	correct?
C.S.	You	can	give me a better answer.
Q.	Can	you	give me a better answer?

TABLE 13 INVERSION IN YES/NO QUESTIONS

The rules applied in the articulation of the questions were analysed by comparing the question utterances (Q) to their corresponding statements (CS).

The analysis revealed the use of the following rules:

- i) The order of the subject-verb/operator was inverted;
- ii) where necessary, assertive forms were changed into non-assertive ones;

- iii) the order of elements in the question utterance remains the same as that of the corresponding statement after the positions of the subject and the operator have been inverted.

The application of the rules demonstrates the proficiency with which such questions are handled by student-teachers. This was further supported by the observation that out of a total of 126 questions asked 123 were well-formed and only 3 were ill-formed. Of these three, one violated rules (i) and (ii) and one violated rule (ii). The third one violated rules pertaining to the use of tag questions. Instead of using a negative-oriented tag question, the student-teacher used one with positive orientation - "It's very easy. Is it?".

The figures given above demonstrate the systematicity in which student-teachers operate yes/no questions. They consistently apply a set of rules that result in their production of acceptable question utterances.

What we may describe as 'deviations' in syntax occurred in situations where student-teachers sought to foreground certain informational units in an utterance. Such utterances tend to deviate from the syntax presupposed by subject-predicate sentence patterns. They are articulated in such a way that those elements which student-teachers consider informationally important are put in initial utterance position as in:

- i) The area of the shape, how many square centimetres are there?

Such constructions, according to Ochs et. al. (1984) (see sub-section 5.1) consist of referents that are followed by propositions. Although they are acceptable spoken language forms, more formal constructions would be preferred in written language. A total of 18 such constructions were observed from 12 different lessons. They constitute one of the most important features of student-teachers' language observed in the data. From

Brown and Yule's (1983), Rubin's (1980) descriptions of such constructions, the researcher was led to conclude that such utterances occur frequently in the spoken language of native speakers. This led him to conclude that, in this respect, student-teachers' use of language was akin to that of native speakers. The use of such utterances was classified under the common rules utterances.

7.2.1.3 INDIRECT QUESTIONS

Our discussion has so far emphasised the formal features and functions of wh- and yes/no questions. This does not suggest that these are the only means whereby student-teachers elicit information. There are other speech acts which serve the same function. In this study the researcher classified these other speech acts as indirect questions and directives.

a) Indirect Questions

By "indirect questions" linguists generally refer to speech acts that function in situations where their illocutionary force is not directly reflected by their formal features or, as Faerch et al (op. cit.: 55) put it, they are "expressed by forms which do not directly convey the intended function of the act". Speakers' intentions constitute the meaning of speech acts. The form of the indirect questions observed in the data analysed for this study consist of statements that express the speaker's desire for the hearer to do something. Clark and Clark (1977: 123) observe that utterances of this type meet the "felicity condition" of desire in which the speaker asserts the wish that the listener should "perform an action". The indirect nature of these questions and the force of their illocutionary meaning is observable from the fact that they are expressed in what appears to be statements of desire on the part of the student-teachers whereas, in fact, they are statements used to make polite demands on their learners.

Examples:

- i) I want you to make your own sentences (Lesson 1).
- ii) I want you to use these adjectives in sentences. (Lesson 2).
- iii) I would like you to tell me what you can see on the pictures.
(Lesson 14).
- iv) I would like you to identify this shape. (Lesson 17).

A total of 50 indirect questions of this type were identified from the data. The statements do not only function as simple statements of desire. They also demand that learners should do something - "perform an action". By using indirect questions, student-teachers assume a less peremptory attitude in their dealings with pupils. Indirect questions function as polite instructions and by using them a speaker avoids direct impositions (Clark and Clark, 1977).

A formal analysis of these indirect questions reveals that they are associated with specific linguistic forms. We can illustrate them as follows:

- i) I + modal auxiliary + verb stem + you + infinitive + ...
I + would + like + you + to
- ii) I + verb + you + infinitive +
I + want + you + to

Alternatively, we can describe the structures as containing a subject/speaker, a modal verb phrase or a simple primary verb expressing the speaker's desire, a listener and the action the speakers wish the listener to perform.

<u>SPEAKER</u>	<u>EXPRESSION OF DESIRE</u>	<u>LISTENER</u>	<u>ACTION DESIRED</u>
I	want	you	to make you own sentences.
I	would like	you	to tell me what you can see on the pictures.

The analysis of the forms revealed that indirect questions of this type have the following formal features.

- a) The first person singular is used as a subject.
- b) The common verb phrases that student-teachers use in indirect questions are "want" used in 35 utterances, and "would like" used in 15 utterances.
- c) The addressee is mentioned in the second person plural "you".
- d) The clause indicating the action the speaker desires the listener to perform is initiated by an infinitive verb phrase:

to make ...

to tell me ...

to use

to identify

The formal features outlined above (a) to (d) appeared consistently and systematically in a majority of the lessons analysed.

b) Directives

Studies in speech act theory have revealed that "suggestions, requests and commands are all directives" (Schmidt and Richards, 1985: 104). Directives can be defined as those speech acts that we use "to get people (listeners) to

do things" (Schmidt et al, op. cit.: 104). Clark and Clark (1977) point out that when a speaker uses any of these directives, he observes what Lakoff (1973) describes as "politeness conditions". Faerch et al (op. cit.: 56) refer to politeness conditions as a "maxim of mutual face-saving". The politeness condition is achieved when a speaker refrains from using speech acts that impose his will upon the listener. Instead, the listener should feel he is being given the option to accept or to reject a suggestion or a request (Clark and Clark op. cit.). In his data corpus, the researcher identified types of directives which he categorised and discussed under the following headings:

- i) organisational commands;
- ii) instructional commands; and
- iii) suggestions.

As different types of directives, these vary in the illocutionary force they convey but are, in fact, all "attempts by the speaker to get the learner to do something" (Schmidt and Richards, 1985: 104). In this study, organisational commands were found to be the most imposing speech acts followed by instructional commands and finally by suggestions. Suggestions were found to be the most polite of the three speech act types. We can describe and illustrate each of these as follows.

Organisational Commands

As noted above, this type of speech act is highly impositional. They are here referred to as organisational commands because they are associated with classroom organisational functions.

Examples

- i) Stop ... Stop. (Lesson 2).
- ii) Right, take your books away. (Lesson 3).
- iii) Speak up! (Lesson 4).
- iv) Right. Begin. (Lesson 10).
- v) Stand up! (Lesson 24).

The linguistic patterns of command utterances consist of:

- i) A verb stem used without a subject nor object;
- ii) A verb stem + adverbial;
- iii) Verb + NP (object) + Adverbial phrase.

We notice in these examples the central function of the verb. It is invariably used in the present tense and in initial position of the command utterances. These features were observed in all the 55 organisational commands identified in the data corpus. There was, therefore, systematic consistency in student-teachers' use of these linguistic forms.

It was also observed that all the "organisational commands" used in student-teachers' discourse were formally and functionally acceptable to native speaker informants. Structures in this category were easily accessible to student-teachers probably because of the reasons that led Lyons (1968) to observe that many linguists describe commands as more basic English language structures than statements. This claim was interpreted by the researcher to mean that commands are structurally simpler than statements and are, for that reason, easier for second language learners to master.

Instructional Commands

These are utterances whereby student-teachers direct learners towards performing specified activities. They also specify how an activity should be performed as in the following examples:

Examples

- i) Fill in (the sentences) with the correct adjectives. (Lesson 2).
- ii) Underline the verb in each sentence. (Lesson 3).
- iii) Now you must take out your exercise books and write the sentences in your books using the word "walk". (Lesson 6).
- iv) Say that loudly in a sentence. (Lesson 13).

v) In your books, answer the questions on the cards I shall give you.

(Lesson 20).

The function of this type of commands are the same as those described for organisational ones except that instructional commands are related more to learning activities than to general organisation.

Suggestions

Of the three directives discussed in this section, suggestions are the least peremptory. They give the impression that the speaker wants the hearer to choose whether to comply with the suggestion or not to. However, when student-teachers use suggestions in a pragmatic sense, they do not expect learners to turn down the suggestions they make.

Examples

- i) Let's go out. (Lesson 12).
- ii) Let's start. (Lesson 14)
- iii) Let's start with group 1. (Lesson 13).
- iv) Let's have more examples. (Lesson 3).

These speech acts were used to convey the illocutionary force of commands. The student-teachers are in fact commanding learners to behave as suggested but they prefer to do so politely using indirect commands in the form of suggestions. It is unthinkable that a group of learners can turn down the student-teachers' suggestions. In fact, learners do not understand and act upon the locutionary but on the illocutionary meaning of the utterances. The formal features of these speech acts can be illustrated as follows:

- i) Let's + verb.
- ii) Let's + verb + adverbial.
- iii) Let's + verb + object.

In all cases "Let's" functions as the marker of a suggesting utterance. It appears that whenever student-teachers want to make suggestions, they use speech acts that contain any of these three structures. The variations

observed are context sensitive. Some verbs, in certain utterances, for instance, take objects, that is, they function as transitive verbs whereas other verbs do not (i.e. intransitive verbs). Very few 'suggestions,' compared to other types of speech acts, were used in the research data (a total of 8 speech acts were counted in the data corpus).

7.2.1.4 DECLARATIVE AND COMPLETION QUESTIONS

Declarative questions constitute a different category to the indirect questions discussed above in that they are articulated in the form of statements. The question is produced by uttering the statement in a rising tone. Declarative questions were not extensively used in the data analysed for this study (only 5 examples were identified).

Examples

- i) A hexagon has five sides? (Lesson 13).
- ii) Sending parcels by aeroplane? (Lesson 15).
- iii) So you wrote the letter to yourself? (Lesson 16).
- iv) That is a circle? (Lesson 17).

Syntactically, questions 1 to 5 have the features of declarative utterances. In articulating these utterances, student-teachers showed they were able to make use of their intonation to effect question forms.

Related to declarative questions are completion questions. These consist of declarative utterances in which the last word or phrase is omitted. It is the omitted word or phrase that the learner should provide in his or her response. In such utterances, question forms are effected by utilising two linguistic devices.

- i) The student-teacher articulates the utterance in a rising intonation.
- ii) He creates a slot or blank at the end of the utterance as in the following example:

- a) Groups of crops grown (on) the same piece of land one after the other is called?
- b) So, you said the base was (Lesson 19).
- c) So, we have got (Lesson 19).
- d) Five tenths are equal to (Lesson 9).
- e) Notorious is the opposite of (Lesson 7).

The word before the blank receives the highest rise in tone. The features described above characterised the 10 completion questions identified in the study.

There are instances where the completion questions are varied. Instead of creating "blank slots" student-teachers indicate the position of the slot by using a wh- question word. Quirk et al (op. cit.: 817) refer to such question types when they observe that "there are other occasional declarative wh-questions where the wh- element remains in the position normal in declaratives for that item". Examples from our data corpus include the following:

- a) We always use ships, where? (Lesson 14).
- b) They put on blankets covering, what? (Lesson 8).
- c) For carrying people, where? (Lesson 14).
- d) They are rich in what? (Lesson 11).

A total of 10 questions of this type were identified. The different students who used them were consistent and systematic in their use of such questions. Consistency was also observed in the formal features of the questions. They consist of a predicative statement followed by a question word (Predicative statement + Question word).

The preceding discussion focussed on the syntactical features of student-teachers' language focussing on the speech acts they use to elicit information. In the sections that follow, we shall focus on its stylistic

features focussing on both student-teachers and learners' utterances.

7.2.2 STYLISTIC RULE CATEGORIES

When they use language in "contexts of interaction", learners reveal the nature of the rules they apply to organise the structures of their response utterances. It was one of the researcher's aims to investigate the style or manner in which such response utterances are articulated and their stylistic suitability as responses to student-teachers' questions.

In its broad sense, style refers to "situationally distinctive uses (varieties) of language" (Crystal, 1980: 337). In this discussion it is used in a restricted, narrow sense in which it refers to the syntactical and other linguistic choices made by interlocutors in contexts of interaction. Widdowson (1984: 98) observes that besides acquiring "a knowledge of rules, of usage and use *the learner* has to acquire the ability to act upon his knowledge to exploit it to achieve communicative objectives". In this study, stylistic rules refer to the manner in which the learner "exploits" his knowledge of rules in communicative situations. These were analysed and described in terms of:

- i) the formal features of student-teachers and learners' responses, and
- ii) the stylistic categories which discourse elicitations and responses manifested including any other stylistic features.

7.2.2.1 CONTEXTS IN WHICH ELLIPTED AND FULL SENTENCE RESPONSES OCCUR

Reference to learners' use of ellipted and full sentence utterances as responses to questions was made in Chapter six. It was noted then that learners, in this study, tend to provide full sentence responses to questions which would normally receive ellipted responses from native speakers. The tendency to provide full sentence responses in such situations was referred

to as an interlinguistic stylistic strategy. A study of the occurrences of such responses was carried out to find out whether these are associated with different types of questions or whether they occur in different contexts. The results showed that although question types do not seem to influence the stylistic types of responses given, there are certain contexts and environments which are invariably associated with responses of specific stylistic categories. Such contexts and environments will be briefly discussed below.

a) Ellipted Responses

The researcher observed that these occur in contexts and linguistic environments which he described below.

i) Ellipsis in chorus responses

Unless chorus responses are tightly controlled as in compliant repetition or reading responses (see sub-section 6.3.2) it is not easy for learners to give full sentence responses. It is not easy, in such cases, for learners to give a common response. To avoid the confusion that may arise from different pupils saying different things, their responses are usually ellipted, providing only the information that answers the question. This is illustrated in the excerpt quoted below:

- T. What is he doing?
 P. He is playing "bosika himu".
 T. "Bosika himu". Alright is that a game?
 Chorus. Yes
 T. Is that what we call "bosika himu"?
 Chorus. Yes

(Lesson 19)

Chorus responses are ellipted in this excerpt. Attempts to give full sentence responses could give rise to confusion leading to pupils saying different things.

ii) Ellipsis in responses that provide partial responses to a question.

There are occasions in the classroom when a teacher asks a question that calls upon different pupils to provide partial responses to it as in the following exchanges.

T. Can you tell me the fractions?

P. Halves.

P. One third.

P. One quarter.

P. One fifth.

T. Good

In this case, the student-teacher's question was addressed to the whole class but individual pupils were expected to provide partial responses to it. The tendency in such cases is to provide ellipted responses. Similar responses were given in the following exchange.

T. Give me an adjective.

P. Green.

P. Small.

T. Small ... yes.

P. Short.

P. Near.

P. Tall.

T. Yes....

(Lesson 2)

The researcher inferred that the reason for providing ellipted responses in this extract is that the response provided by each pupil is a partial answer to the question. Since each pupil is supplying part of the answer, he ellipts it to show that his response is not the complete answer to the student-teacher's question.

iii) Question-induced ellipsis

In his analysis, the researcher also observed that some ellipted responses

occur in linguistic contexts and environments when certain linguistic cues obtain in the student-teacher's questions. These cues induce ellipted rather than full sentence responses.

Example

T. ... I would like you to tell me another word you can use in place of the "I" and "they".

P. Usually.

T. Not usually.

P. We have got.

T. Yes, we can use the words "we have got". Can you make a sentence using "we have got to"?

The linguistic cue in the student-teacher's question is "another word". In fact, the correct response to the question should have been "have got". Because the question asks for "another word", one word, pupils are compelled to give an ellipted response in the form of a word or a phrase.

iv) Ellipted responses to filling-in questions

The following extracts illustrate the context in which such responses are given.

T. Five tenths are equal to?

P. One half. (Lesson 9)

T. It's something to do with what?

P. Our society. (Lesson 8)

In these contexts, student-teachers' questions contain blanks which need filling in. Learners proceed to fill in these blanks by supplying only those words or phrases which provide the required information. Stylistically, the responses given to such questions were found to be ellipted responses.

b) Full-sentence Responses

Despite the observations made above, the researcher observed that there are occasions when full sentence responses are given in linguistic environments

where ellipted responses could have been used. Since studies in pidgin, creole and second language varieties (foreigner talk) have shown that speakers of these tend to indulge in formal reduction of the languages they speak or learn (see Schumann, 1974 and Hatch, 1983), the researcher hoped to find greater use of reduced utterances. But from a frequency count carried out in this study, 320 responses (57.5%) were full sentence responses and 237 (42.5%) were reduced (ellipted) responses (see Appendix J). Why do learners tend to use full sentence responses more often than unreduced ones?

In the discussion interviews with student-teachers, the researcher was informed that student-teachers insist on full sentence responses because they want learners to practise the formation of correct full sentence patterns. They pointed out that since, in English lessons, the emphasis is on correct English structures, learners need to be encouraged to use correct English sentences whenever they answer questions in the classroom. It was observed from the data that some student-teachers rejected ellipted responses in preference for unreduced ones as in the following extracts:

- | | | |
|----|--|---|
| T. | What sort of clothes do we put on for protection against fire? | 1 |
| P. | Fireman's clothes. | 2 |
| T. | A complete sentence. | 3 |
| P. | We put on fireman's clothes. | 4 |
| T. | What sort of clothes do we put on for protection against cold? | 5 |
| P. | Jersey. | 6 |
| T. | A complete sentence. | 7 |
| P. | We put on a jersey against cold. | 8 |

Although pupils responses in utterances 2 and 6 were stylistically acceptable, the student-teacher insisted that these should be given as full sentence utterances. It can be inferred from this that the provision of full sentence responses in contexts where reduced ones would be preferred is a result of student-teachers' attitudes towards structural accuracy in second

language situations.

7.2.2.2 VARIABILITY IN THE USE OF CONTRACTED AND UNCONTRACTED FORMS

Another stylistic feature which the researcher studied closely was the use of contracted forms as opposed to uncontracted ones. Both student-teachers and learners made extensive use of contracted forms such as "you're" and uncontracted ones like "you are". Attempts were made to establish the linguistic contexts in which each of these is systematically used. The findings suggested that both student-teachers and learners use these forms in unsystematic free variation, that is, they do not occur in systematically definable linguistic contexts or environments but are somewhat haphazard in their occurrence.

At one stage, the researcher was tempted to conclude that contracted forms occur systematically in environments in which the deictic 'that', the pronoun 'it' and the wh- word 'what' precede the copula verb 'be' in an utterance. He used the phenomena to account for the occurrence of such contracted forms as 'that's', 'it's' and 'what's' as demonstrated in the following exchanges:

T. What shape is this one here you.

P. It's a triangle.

T. Very good. That's correct. (Lesson 19)

T. -----

Yes, that's the correct verb.

That's the verb in that sentence. (Lesson 4)

T. What's that?

P. Kelos.

T. Ah! What? Do you mean carrots? (Lesson 11)

T. Yes, we say four times three and what's the answer?

P. It's twelve square centimetres. (Lesson 22)

It was, however, not possible to sustain the view that contracted forms

systematically occur in such linguistic environments since student-teachers also used uncontracted forms in the same environments in other utterances. In lesson 19, for instance, the student-teacher used uncontracted forms in environments in which he had previously used contracted ones.

T. What is wrong with that?
Can you go and correct it?

T. it is confusing me. (Lesson 19)

In other lessons uncontracted forms appear as follows:

T. What is it ... Robson?

P. It is a noun.

T. It is a noun. It is not a verb. (Lesson 4)

T. What is fourteen minus nine?

P. It is five. (Lesson 10)

T. Why do you say it is a rectangle?

P. Two sides are equal.

These examples demonstrate the unsystematic variability in the manner in which contracted and uncontracted forms are used. There is no consistency as to the contexts in which they are used.

It was also observed that the copula verb 'be' is rarely contracted when it appears after personal pronouns like 'I, he, she, it and they'. Whereas native speakers normally use contracted forms such as he's, she's and it's, non-native student-teachers and learners use uncontracted forms as in the following examples:

T. Okay ... I have got something here.

What is it ... Egester?

P. Ball.

T. who can come and do something with this ball?

... Luckson, come and do something with this ball.

What is he doing Shupayi?

P. He is catching the ball.

P. He is playing "bosika himu". (Lesson 4)

T. What do you think these children are doing?

P. They are playing football.

P. They are playing games.

T. They are playing games. What do you think the girls are doing?

P. They are playing ball. (Lesson 12)

T. What shape is it?

P. It is a rectangle.

T. Yes correct. Why do you say it is a rectangle?

Why do you say it is a rectangle?

P. It is a rectangle because two sides are equal.

(Lesson 17)

It is tempting to infer from these examples that there is stylistic systematicity in the articulation of uncontracted forms. But, when we study the environments in which other uncontracted forms and those in which contracted ones occur, we find a lot of variation in their occurrence. In the light of these observations, it is safe to conclude that contracted and uncontracted forms are used in unsystematic free variation by both student-teachers and pupils when they communicate in the classroom. This conclusion suggests that these forms may not, after all, be internally but externally motivated. That is, the linguistic contexts may not be entirely responsible for the occurrence of this stylistic phenomenon but that other non-linguistic factors such as inadequate training in spoken language forms or exposure to a community of second language speakers that does not distinguish between spoken and written language forms influence student-teachers and learners use of these forms.

7.2.2.3 DOMAIN VARIABILITY OF LEARNERS' RESPONSES

In this study, the term 'domain' was used to refer to the linguistic context in which a response appears. For instance a response appropriate in the domain of naming and labelling questions was considered appropriate in the domain of naming and labelling and one that was appropriate for giving a brief narrative response was considered appropriate in a narrative language domain. Classroom communication has the peculiarity that it demands the use of certain types of responses for certain questions. It follows from this that a response suitable in a naming/labelling domain is not necessarily suitable in the domain of narrative discourse. Therefore, domain variability anticipates the learner to make appropriate response choices according to the demands of the questions posed.

The ability to vary responses to meet the demands of various questions is stylistic as well as grammatical in the sense that the responses suitable for certain question types are characterised by different lexico-grammatical features. It was, however, observed that in this study, learners failed to realise the stylistic variations demanded by different questions. Their responses to questions in all discourse domains were lexico-grammatically identical as shown in the table overleaf.

It can be observed from this table that the lexico-grammatical features of the responses to the different questions are so identical as if the questions that provoked them belong to a single discourse domain. They share the same syntactical features. Notice, in particular, the similarity between the ellipted responses for the recall/reproduction question and the explanatory question. One would expect a complex rather than a simple ellipted response to the explanatory question. All the questions in the table received responses which have the SVO structure, occasionally varied by SVC or SVCA patterns.

QUESTION TYPES AND EXAMPLES i.e. DOMAINS	SYNTACTICAL FEATURES OF RESPONSES			
	SUBJECT	VERB	OBJECT	COMPLEMENTS
<u>IDENTIFYING</u> What fraction is shaded	Three quarters	are	-	shaded
<u>NAMING</u> What can you see on this picture	I	can see	a boy	-
<u>WHY QUESTION</u> Why do we say three eighths is shaded?	There	are	eight	-
<u>HOW QUESTIONS</u> How does an overall protect the hunter?	An overall	protects	the hunter	from cold
<u>RECALL/REPRODUCTION</u> Can you still remember the means of communication we talked about?	Letters	-	-	-
<u>EXPLANATORY QUESTIONS</u> Who can explain what means of communication means?	-	-	-	trains

TABLE 14 SIMILARITIES BETWEEN RESPONSE STRUCTURES

This evidence led to the conclusion that at this stage of their interlanguage development, learners have mastered a set of sentence patterns suitable for use in identifying and naming domains but which they use in free variation to

answer questions in other domains. We can call this tendency 'stylistic overgeneralisation' in which "display" type responses are used mistakenly, to define, explain and to give reasons.

Discussion in this chapter sought to establish the syntactical and stylistic rules that characterise student-teachers language as well as the stylistic rules used by learners. It is clear from the preceding description of these that the syntactical rules which student-teachers operate, occur in predictable linguistic and/or speech environments. For that reason they were described as occurring systematically either as 'interlinguistic' or 'common' rules (see Diagram 12). On the other hand, stylistic rules seem to occur unsystematically, that is, the linguistic and/or speech environments in which they occur are not easily predictable. The researcher explained the latter phenomenon as due to lack of emphasis on the teaching of spoken language in primary and secondary schools and in teacher-training colleges. At neither of these levels is spoken language considered worth teaching and learning systematically. Learners are therefore left to rely on their own devices when it comes to using the target language in speech. The result of this 'laissez-faire' attitude towards spoken language is that stylistic variations such as those described above occur.

The researcher also observed that some stylistic rules are associated with certain teaching methods. In other words, some of these reveal high occurrence incidences in situations where certain teaching strategies are used. This aspect will be discussed and illustrated in the next chapter.

CHAPTER VIII

- 8 Research Findings IV: Relationship Between Student-Teachers' Language and Instructional Strategies
- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Teaching Patterns in Language Lessons
- 8.3 Student-Teachers' Corrective Styles
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CHAPTER EIGHT

8 RESEARCH FINDINGS IV: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT-TEACHERS' LANGUAGE AND INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Sinclair and Brazil (1982) claim that from analysing 'teacher talk' we can "see how different teaching styles are made up and how they are eventually realised in the arena of the classroom" (Sinclair et. al., 1982: 4). This quotation contains two important assumptions that are pertinent to our discussion in this chapter, namely that:

- a) classroom language discourse and teaching styles are interfaced;
- b) from an analysis of classroom discourse we can deduce how and what teaching styles are deployed in the classroom.

These assumptions constitute the foci of our discussion in this chapter. Reference will also be made to the learning strategies that are encouraged by the teaching strategies deployed.

The discussion will be presented in two main sections. The first one deals with the strategies employed in language lessons and the second one, with those employed in content lessons.

8.2 TEACHING PATTERNS IN LANGUAGE LESSONS

The researcher's analysis revealed that student-teachers are preoccupied with two tasks when teaching language lessons; namely, enabling learners to understand the nature and functions of the language and enabling them to practise how to use language by formulating sentences that demonstrate specific functions. Student-teachers' input for each of these activities varies. In some lessons, there is very little input on the nature and functions of language and more on the practice of functional forms (2 out of 6 students provided a grammatical/linguistic analysis of the forms). In other lessons there is virtually no input on grammatical rules and/or definition

of forms. The emphasis is on the practice of the formation of functional structures, (i.e. in 4 out of 6 student-teachers' lessons). In lessons where no explicit description of the grammatical rules was provided, student-teachers explained the situations and/or occasions when certain forms are used. We can refer to the lesson components in which language forms are described or defined and language functions are explained as 'knowledge oriented components' in which explicit linguistic knowledge is exposed (Andersen, 1981). Through them student-teachers aim to transmit to pupils knowledge about the language they are learning. And, we can refer to those components in which practice activities are introduced as 'skills oriented components'.

The question is, to what extent do student-teachers effectively use language to present 'knowledge-oriented components'? In such components, English language is considered an object of study in the same sense that Mathematics, Environmental Science and Social Studies are so considered. This calls for a special language variety which student-teachers can use to talk about language. Matthews (1974) and Lyons (1977b) refer to such a variety as "metalanguage". Proficient use of metalanguage ensures a clear descriptive presentation of the forms and functions of English. We shall discuss this in the context of student-teachers' corrective styles in the section that follows.

8.3 STUDENT-TEACHERS' CORRECTIVE STYLES

In chapter two, the researcher pointed out that teachers' tolerance of linguistic errors in Zimbabwean schools is low. That is, there is a tendency to correct errors whenever they occur. This is particularly true of errors committed in language lessons. In content lessons, however, some errors go uncorrected. In his interview with student teachers, the researcher was also informed that in order to improve learners' language, errors should be corrected as soon as they are made (see Appendix C, B1). The ways in which student-teachers handle errors do in themselves constitute what we may call

'corrective teaching styles'. Allwright (1975) discussed "corrective exchanges" and "corrective transactions" showing how these occur in the discourse used in classrooms. The researcher analysed ways in which student-teachers handle the errors committed by learners and found that certain styles are popularly used by student-teachers. These include the following:

- a) rejecting a response and then identifying and correcting the error committed. Usually the student-teacher asked the pupil who had committed the error or the whole class to repeat the correct response.
- b) Without rejecting the response, the student-teacher asked the whole class to evaluate a pupils' response. If the class gave a negative judgement the student-teacher asked the same or another pupil to give a correct response.
- c) Instead of correcting an erroneous response, the student-teacher re-explained a language rule or a process in the hope that the pupil who would have committed the error could self-repair his/her response.

The system used to identify these styles was based on Chaudron's (1977) ideas. He explains how teachers approve (give approbation) or disapprove pupils responses. A sample of the analytical process used is shown in Appendix H. The researcher did however observe that some of these corrective styles are combined in one corrective exchange as will be shown in the extracts quoted below.

Having identified these corrective styles, the researcher had to show and to illustrate the influence of student-teachers' interlanguage on the effectiveness or otherwise of their corrective styles. It was noted that in language lessons, student-teachers' interlanguage, especially their metalanguage, was not effective in correcting erroneous responses. This was

observed in lesson 1, where it was clear that the student-teachers' explanations and definitions were so vague that pupils failed to grasp the meaning of the student-teacher's corrective feedback. Such instances were observed in a number of situations where student-teachers explained the function of a word or a phrase and then proceeded to ask learners to make sentences following the explanation given. Notice how the student-teacher's explanation in the extract below failed to elicit the required responses.

- | | | |
|---------|---|----|
| T. | Can somebody read the words on the board? | 1 |
| P. | Have got. | 2 |
| T. | Right read together. | 3 |
| Chorus. | Have got. | 4 |
| T. | Right ... The word have got is often used to tell | |
| | people what you must do. For example, you can say | 5 |
| | "I must come to school early every day". Now, I would | 6 |
| | like you to give me your own sentence using "have got". | 7 |
| P. | I have got a big pencil. | 8 |
| T. | Right ... That's not correct. | 9 |
| | You are telling people what you must do. | 10 |
| | You are telling people what you must do. | 11 |
| P. | I have got two pencils. | 12 |
| T. | No ... Right ... now, here you are telling people what | |
| | you must do. For example, "I have got to come to school | 13 |
| | early in the morning". Right? ... | 14 |
| P. | I have got to wash my body everyday. | 15 |
| T. | Very good. | 16 |
| P. | I have got to come to school late everyday. | 17 |
| T. | Okay ... next. | 18 |

(Lesson 1).

In describing the function of 'have got' the student-teacher indicated that it is used to tell people what one must do. There are many things that a person

can do. So, this definition is not clear. Because of its lack of clarity, pupils gave responses that were unacceptable. The student-teacher wanted pupils to use "have got" in the sense in which it expresses obligation on the part of the speaker (first person) or the hearer (second person) or someone other than the hearer or the speaker (third person). But the notion of obligation was not clearly expressed in the student-teacher's definition. The crucial moment in the presentation arose when the first pupil gave an unacceptable response. It was then that the student-teacher should have realised that learners had not understood his definition of 'have got to'. Instead of redefining the verb phrase in a different way, he repeated the same definition (see utterances 5, 10, 11 and 13).

The reason why the student-teacher failed to change his presentational tactics could be explained in terms of planned and unplanned discourse or what Barnes (1975: 108) referred to as "exploratory" and "final draft speech". Planned or final draft speeches are presented in a form a speaker considers to be accurate and well-formed whereas unplanned or exploratory speech is improvised and accompanies thought. It is articulated at the same time the speaker decides what to say. Formally, the latter is less accurate than the former. The student-teacher's definitions represent his planned discourse. He had planned, before presenting the lesson, to define the verb phrase in the way he did. Changing his definition would have meant using language for exploratory functions in which discourse is improvised as new ideas are developed. By sticking to his planned discourse, the student-teacher technically applied a semantic avoidance strategy. He refrained from presenting meaning in a way he had not practised. We can infer from this that his presentation of material was influenced by his limited knowledge of metalinguistic definitions. Because he did not have such knowledge, he was not prepared to attempt a definition that would include the use of language forms which he could not handle.

Similar vague or inadequate explanations were observed in other lessons. In lesson 2, degrees of comparison were superficially defined and illustrated as follows:

P. Charity is the shortest girl in the class.

T. We say "Charity is the shortest girl in the class" because we are comparing many things. Two things shorter, one thing short. So say your sentence again.

P. Charity is the shortest girl in this class.

The pupil's correct response cannot, in this case, be attributed to the student-teacher's rather oversimplified definition in the corrective feedback. It could be due to the pupil's imitation of the example provided. A similarly inadequate definition was given for the word 'both' in lesson 3 where the student-teacher says "Right, the word 'both' refers to two of the things given. Two of them". In lesson 4, verbs were defined traditionally as "doing words". That seemed clear enough to the learners especially when one considers the type of examples given but confusion arose when both student-teacher and the learners failed to distinguish between verbs and participles. Words such as 'dancing' and 'flying' were given as examples of verbs whereas, as Lyons (1974: 174) points out, such words are verbal nouns. They only assume verbal functions when they are part of a verb phrase in which they are preceded by an auxiliary form of 'be' as in 'is dancing' or 'are dancing'.

Failure to make the distinction between verbal nouns and verbs can lead to the formation of such erroneous expressions as 'I dancing'. Although student-teachers tended to avoid defining grammatical labels or giving lengthy descriptions of syntax or lexis, it was obvious from the instances observed that their metalinguistic knowledge or their ability to express it is deficient. It seems, therefore, that metalinguistic descriptions are of little

assistance to the pupils in their formation of sentence/patterns.

The student-teacher's corrective style in lesson 1 succeeded only when he gave a model structure containing the verb phrase 'have got to'. In that case a successful corrective move occurred when:

- i) the student-teacher identified an erroneous response;
- ii) he provided negative feedback and then gave a 'model sentence'.
- iii) Called upon the pupil to correct a response using the 'model response' as a guide (i.e. utterances 13-14).

Similarly in the extract from lesson 2, the student-teacher identified the erroneous response and then provided a sentence model which the learner was asked to repeat.

Effective corrective exchanges or moves were found to be those in which student teachers do not provide lengthy explanations. They involve little or no metalinguistic elaboration or clarification. For instance, when, instead of giving corrective feedback, student-teachers ask the whole class to evaluate a response and to correct it, no confusion arises as in the following extract.

T. --- I would like you to give me your own sentences using 'have got'.

P. I have got to combed my hair everyday.

T. Right, ... Eh... that boy said
'I have got to combed my hair everyday'.

Is that correct?

Class. No-o-o.

T. Right. Who can correct him?

P. I have got to comb my hair everyday.

T. Right ...

Notice also how a phonological error was corrected in the following excerpt from lesson 11.

T.	(What can we have for) supper?	1
P.	Kalos.	2
T.	What's that?	3
P.	Kelos.	4
T.	Ah what?	5
	Do you mean carrots?	6
P.	Yes.	7
T.	Say carrots... together.	8
Class.	Carrots.	9

In this case the student-teacher had to be clear what the pupil wanted to say before giving a corrective response. Notice the use of a 'clarification request' in utterance 3. When correcting phonological errors, student-teachers usually ask the whole class to repeat the correct response as in the utterance 9.

Student-teachers are highly selective as to the sort of errors learners should self-repair. The researcher observed that grammatical errors are usually corrected by the teachers themselves whereas lexical errors or errors due to failure to follow a model are left to the individual learners or the whole class to correct. What we need to underline in this discussion is the observation that certain corrective styles provided by student teachers fail to clarify grammatical rules or to guide pupils in the formation of acceptable language structures. This observation was made in situations where student-teachers tried to explain in detail, the grammatical rules underlying certain language structures. There is always a danger in attempting to over-explain what we can teach simply by illustrating or demonstrating. Chaudron (1983) advises against over-elaboration saying it can hinder comprehension. He also observes that any "excessive amount of rephrasing" of

vocabulary items and syntax can lead to confusion on the part of the learners.

6.4 PRESENTATION OF SKILLS-ORIENTED LESSON COMPONENTS

In their presentation of components that emphasise pupils' production of language, student-teachers use sentence models for pupils to imitate. If we refer to the extract from lesson 1, quoted in the preceding section, we notice that pupils' correct responses were given soon after the student-teacher gave a model sentence containing the complex verb phrase 'have got to'. This suggests that the pupils were not able to identify the model to be imitated since a different verb phrase to the one that had been introduced was used by the student-teacher. He might have done so intentionally hoping that learners would substitute the desired form for "must". But they were not able to do so.

It appears from the preceding observations that correct responses are triggered off by questions that demand verbal behaviour that is imitative of the teacher's model sentence. This technique, which the researcher referred to as teaching by 'Exemplification' is used by all student-teachers. Whenever possible, student-teachers explain or define the linguistic rule or rules that are exploited in the articulation of the model sentence and proceed to give an example that learners use as a model as in the following excerpt.

T₁ Today, we want to look at the use of "both".

Right, say "both" everybody.

Chorus. Both.

T₁ Right, the word "both" refers to two of the things given. 5

Two of them.

Let's look at number (a).

"Chemhondoro. is a school. Wadzanai is a school".

We want to join the sentence by using "both".

The example is "Both Chemhondoro and Wadzanai are schools".

Is that clear.

10

Chorus. Yes.

T. Let's look at (b)

"Gary is a boy. Captain is a boy".

I want someone to join the two sentences using "both".

P. Both Gary and Captain are boys.

15

We can break down the functions of the utterances in this presentation as follows:

- i) Utterances 1, 2 and 3 serve to introduce the linguistic form to be learned - "both".
- ii) Utterances 4 and 5 explain the function of the linguistic form "both".
- iii) Utterance 6 is a focussing move. It invites pupils to focus on the material to be used as an example.
- iv) Utterance 7 provides material to be used in the student-teacher's example.
- v) Utterance 8 defines the operational process to be carried out.
- vi) Utterances 10 and 11 function as comprehension checks.
- vii) Utterances 12, 13 and 14 invite pupils to make a sentence following the teacher's example.
- ix) Utterance 15 is a pupil's response based on the example provided in utterance 9.

In this presentation, utterances 1 - 6 can be regarded as stages preparatory to the teacher giving a model sentence (9) and utterances 10-14 as preparatory to the pupil giving a response (15). Such a view of the presentation stages suggests that utterances 9 to 15 are crucial for the practice activity. This automatically places utterances 4 and 5, related to the functional explanation

of the linguistic forms into second place. This agrees with Morrow (1985)

who, in a public lecture, postulated three stages in the learning of a skill, namely, the 'cognitive stage' where the learner gets a mental representation of what he is learning from the teacher's explanations; the 'associative stage' where the learner tries to perform the skill himself and the 'autonomous stage' at which the learner tries to perform the skill automatically without thinking of the way in which he should do so. Referring to these stages, he suggested the relegation of linguistic descriptions into second place when he noted that skills psychologists had observed that we should not expect much from the cognitive stage which merely gives a simple mental model of the skill. In our presentation stages outlined above, the functional explanation utterances are equivalent to the cognitive stage and the pupils verbal imitative behaviour, utterance 9, to the associative stage.

Other examples of the use of the 'exemplification' technique were observed in situations where communication activities were used as 'signification', that is, in the sense of Widdowson (1972) used the term. A good example of this is found in lesson 4 from which the excerpt cited below was taken. As in the previous extract, there is a gradual build up towards the pupil's imitative verbal behaviour. We also notice the use of linguistic definitions and exemplifications as preparation for pupil activity. The function of each utterance is indicated in column B.

COLUMN A UTTERANCE	COLUMN B FUNCTION
T. Right, a verb is a doing word ... right?	Explanation
If you watch me (the teacher claps his hands).	Signification
I am clapping my hands.	Exemplification
Clapping is a verb because I'm doing the clapping.	Explanation
(Teacher jumps). I am jumping.	Signification/ Exemplification
Jumping is a verb.	Explanation
Now who can come and do something ... and tell us what she or he is doing. Someone to come and do something and tell us what you are doing ... Agnes?	Questioning
P. I am running.	Signification/
I am running.	Response

In this extract, exemplification consists of "extralinguistic" and "linguistic" behaviour both of which are intended to clarify the notions and contextual functions of the verbs introduced.

After introducing and demonstrating a sentence pattern, student-teachers proceed to ask pupils to give their own sentences. This is the stage which Morrow (op. cit.) referred to as the 'associative stage' at which learners use the teacher's sentence as a model to imitate. At this stage, the teaching pattern is characterised by a series of questions and responses or by one question followed by a series of responses. In some lessons, as in lesson 5,

no grammatical descriptions or definitions are given, that is, there is no 'cognitive' input intended to enable pupils to produce the required responses. The exercise starts with a question that elicits pupil-responses.

- T. I want someone to read this sentence ... Mary?
- P. Mary has gone to see her sister.
- T. Right, the second sentence ... read ... Godfrey?
- P. I have eaten porridge this morning.
- T. I have eaten porridge this morning ... together? 5
- Chorus. I have eaten porridge this morning.
- T. What tense is this?
What tense is this ... Lucy?
- P. Present perfect tense.
- T. Good ... present perfect tense. That's correct. 10
Can you give me examples in the present perfect tense?
- P. My father has driven to Bulawayo.
- T. My father has driven to Bulawayo. Is that correct?
- Chorus. Yes. 15
- T. Good. Another one ... Yes?
- P. My sister had gone to see my mother. ... My sister has gone
to see my mother.
- T. Is it my sister "had gone" or "has gone"?
- P. Has gone.
- T. Right, good next? ... Claver? 20

(Lesson 5)

Utterances 7 - 10 although they refer to linguistic labels, cannot be taken as 'cognitive input' in the strict sense in which Morrow (op. cit.) uses it. What the student-teacher and the learners do in this case is merely stick a linguistic label to a given set of sentences. They do not discuss rules for

forming sentences in the present perfect tense nor do they define the term and the occasions when the term is used.

This approach contrasts with the one adopted in lesson 6 where the student-teacher and the pupils discussed how a sentence in the present tense is changed into the past tense.

T. -----

Who can read out the first sentence?

P. I talk.

T. The first sentence is "I talk".

Let's say "I talk".

Chorus. I talk.

5

T. Who can read the second sentence?

P. I am talking.

T. Which is what we are doing just now. We are talking. We use the present tense.

In the present tense we say "I talk".

10

Now who can read this sentence?

Chakanetsa?

P. I talked.

T. Good. Now, what has changed there as compared to the last sentence?

P. I added an "-ed".

T. Where did you add "-ed"?

15

P. At the end of "talk".

T. Yes, that's very good.

We have taken the word "talk" and we have simply added an "-e" and a "-d" and it has become "talked" which means that what has been said yesterday or the day before, we say

someone talked. It has been said in the past. Who can read the next sentences?

P. I was talking.

T. I was talking.

20

Who can compare the sentences?

"I was talking" and "I am talking".

What has changed?

P. "I am" has become "I was".

T. "I am" has become "I was". If you say "I was"

it means it has happened in the past tense.

25

In this lesson the student-teacher introduces grammatical descriptions to explain the formal features of the sentences in different tenses. In the other segments of the lesson pupils were asked to give their own sentences in which they had to observe the rules for forming utterances in the present perfect tense.

The researcher observed that the question and answer technique is predominant in all language lessons. Student-teachers ask questions that elicit, either knowledge of language rules or sentence structures patterned according to given rules or in compliance with a given sentence model. The method used in such lessons consists of a series of questions and answers. And, as observed in chapter six the majority of questions asked are of the "display" type. They focus on the elicitation of simple recall, reproduction, compliant and signifying responses. This approach results in a general teaching pattern which we can illustrate as follows:

$Q_1 \text{ ----> } R \text{ ---- } F/Q_2 \text{ ----> } R \text{ ---- } FQ_3 \text{ ---- } R \text{ ---- } F/Q_n \text{ ---- } R_n$

(N.B. Q = Questions; R = Response; F = Feedback)

Such a method according to Barnes (1975) Edwards and Furlong (1978) is universally known as the "recitation" teaching technique. It emphasises the giving of a series of answers. The predominance of this method in classrooms, according to Edwards et al (op. cit.) is to ensure that learning is under control and is directed towards achieving the lesson objectives. We discussed certain ways in which student-teachers control learning in their classrooms in chapter six. We can add to the ideas discussed then, the use of the recitation method as another way in which they achieve control over subject content and the flow of their lessons from one stage to the other. Barnes (1975) refers to Hoetker and Ahlbrand (1969) who studied the development of the recitation method. They posed a question which sought to explain why the recitation method remains predominant in the face of 'new' teaching technologies. In answer to this question, Barnes reports that Westbury (1972) observed that the recitation method is a strategy which enables the teacher to cope with a number of demands. It enables him:

- i) to draw pupils attention to the learning task;
- ii) to control learners' activities;
- iii) to cover content within a reasonable space of time and,
- iv) it offers a "drill and practice situation" that leads to mastery of subject matter although such learning always tends to be of a factual nature in certain lessons.

Besides serving these controlling functions, the researcher observed that the recitation method as used in student-teachers' language lessons had the following effects:

- i) it tends to reduce opportunities for learners to use language communicatively since the content or meaning of what they say is highly controlled by the student-teachers' questions. Such opportunities as are available to them fail to stimulate

expression of their own feelings. In other words, the student-teachers' questions do not enable learners to meet what Edmondson (1980) refers to as the "sincerity criterion".

This observation supports the views expressed by Long and Sato (1983) who observe that display questions reduce opportunities for using language communicatively.

- ii) Another observation made in student-teacher language lessons was that no opportunities were provided to use language as a means of "shaping knowledge", that is, the recitation method discourages the exploratory function of language. Practice is limited to drills on structures that do not serve such communicative functions that Widdowson (1972) and Littlewood (1977) describe.

These observations were drawn from an analysis of student-teachers' language lessons. In his analysis the researcher used an analytical grid which he developed after carefully studying those used by Bosco et al (1974) and Laroche (1984). (For a detailed description of these see Appendix N). The grid used a binary system to indicate the presence or absence of certain pedagogic features. For instance, assigning a positive value to a feature as in (+ functional) meant that the teaching strategy focussed upon teaching learners how to use language for functional purposes. On the other hand assigning a negative value to the same feature (- functional) meant that the strategy did not focus upon teaching learners how to use language functionally but merely to understand the elements that comprise linguistic structures. A summary of the results of the analysis is shown in table 17 below and the terms used are defined in Appendix N.

INSTRUCTIONAL FEATURES	LESSON NUMBERS						AGREEMENT FREQUENCIES
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
STRUCTURAL	+	+	+	+	+	+	6
COMMUNICATIVE	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
FUNCTIONAL	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
NOMOTHETIC	-	-	-	-	-	⊕-	5
MOLAR	+	+	+	+	-⊕	+	5
ANALYTIC	-	-	-	-	-	⊕-	4
IDIOGRAPHIC	-	+	-	-	-	-	5

TABLE 17 VALUES OF INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES IN ENGLISH LESSONS
(STUDENT TEACHERS)

As noted above, student-teachers language lessons did not focus on teaching communicative skills. The instructional feature 'COMMUNICATIVE' received negative values in all lessons. Instead, student-teachers focussed on the teaching of structures which received positive values across the board. The molar strategy which emphasises the teaching of the functional units of a language such as 'double sentences' without necessarily explaining in detail the linguistic elements which make up such structures is also commonly used. In fact the two approaches are identical in that they all advocate the teaching of the functions of given structures. Consequently, learning activities such as drills in which learners formulate sentence structures that observe certain rules predominate. It was on the basis of this analysis that the researcher made the observation that student-teachers' invariable application of the recitation method does not provide learners with opportunities for using or practising how to use the target language communicatively.

8.5 COMPARISON OF STUDENT-TEACHERS' AND EXPERIENCED REGULAR TEACHERS' TEACHING APPROACHES

In order to suggest what student-teachers in Zimbabwe should be encouraged to do in order to teach effectively and communicatively in language and other lessons, the pedagogical strategies they use were compared with those used by experienced regular teachers (see Appendix O). The researcher believes that effective teaching is a relative term. What may be considered effective in one situation or country may not be so considered in another. It was therefore necessary to assess what Zimbabwean teachers, headmasters and education officers consider effective and to discuss their views in the context of some popularly accepted theories.

In his analysis the researcher observed that like student teachers, experienced teachers do also make extensive use of the recitation technique. But, they vary it by including other activities which give practice in the use of using language communicatively. Three of the six lessons given by experienced teachers were in language. We can, as we did with student-teachers' lessons, illustrate the features of their instructional strategies as follows:

INSTRUCTIONAL FEATURES	LESSON NUMBERS			AGREEMENT FREQUENCIES
	A	B	C	
STRUCTURAL	+	+	+	3
COMMUNICATIVE	+	+	-	2
FUNCTIONAL	-	+	-	2
NOMOTHETIC	-	-	-	3
MOLAR	-	+	+	2
ANALYTIC	-	-	-	3
IDIOPHATIC	+	+	-	2

TABLE 18 VALUES OF INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES IN ENGLISH LESSONS (EXPERIENCED TEACHERS)

Data in table 16 shows that all the three teachers used the structural approach at some stage in their lessons and that all of them did not analyse language structures (- analytical; - nomothetic). There are variations in the use of other features but what is more significant is the use and combination of the structural and molar approaches with the communicative, functional and idiographic features by two of the experienced teachers. The idiographic feature according to Bosco et. al. (1970: 14) encourages individual expression or "expressional spontaneity". Morrow (1985), in the lecture referred to in sub-section 8.4, referred to this stage of language learning as the "autonomous stage". The researcher described these features in experienced teachers' lessons as positive steps towards encouraging communicative discourse.

On the basis of these observations and the views expressed by headmasters, Education Officers and teachers, the researcher proceeded to work out what he called 'criteria for determining good teaching' (see Appendix O). These were obtained after analysing and synthesising the views gathered during interviews. According to these criteria, a good lesson consists of the following developmental stages:

- Input Teaching;
- Practice Output and;
- Communication/Application Output.

It should however be pointed out that these stages were not suggested by the interviewees but that after carefully analysing their views, the researcher, on the basis of teaching approaches suggested by Littlewood (1981), Harmer (1983), Cunningsworth (1984), Willis and Willis (1987) and Nunan (1987), found these to be adequately reflective of the views outlined in Appendix O4.

Input teaching refers to that stage of the lesson where the teacher exposes new knowledge. In language lessons, such input may consist of explaining a

set of linguistic items or giving and demonstrating model structures that learners need to know and use in their speech. This is identical to what Morrow (1985) in a lecture mentioned above, referred to as the "cognitive stage" in lesson development. Practice output is a follow-up of the input stage. Pupils use the linguistic items introduced in the input teaching stage in situations that are controlled for grammatical accuracy. Verbal expression is limited to responses elicited by the teacher's questions. In the communication output stage the teacher encourages learners to use all or some of the linguistic items covered in the two preceding stages of the lesson. Pupils either work in groups or in pairs or individually when written work is involved. The teacher relaxes his control over pupil verbal behaviour and provides them the opportunity to express themselves in any way they like as long as their communication focusses on specific meaning or content. In terms of the instructional strategies discussed by Bosco et al (1974) and Laroche (1984), the teaching strategy used in this phase of the lesson is "idiographic".

Willis et al (op. cit.: 14) discuss similar stages in language lessons. They refer to the method which comprises these stages as one in which "accuracy (is taught) within the context of a replication activity". They refer to accuracy activities as "citation activities". These focus on structural or grammatical accuracy which, in the stages outlined above, are realised in the input and practice output stages. Replication activities are so called because they focus on meaning and content in the same way that conversation or speech outside the classroom does. In that sense, they replicate real-life or natural conversation. According to the stages we have outlined above, replication activities would be realised in the communication/application stage of a lesson.

With reference to our grid in table 18, these observations suggest that in order to be rated effective; a lesson should show positive values in structural/molar and communicative/functional/idiographic features. With such a combination of instructional strategies, student-teachers would successfully intergrate the teaching of language forms and the development of communicative/functional skills.

A comparison of student and experienced teachers' lesson components based on the criteria discussed above revealed results which we can illustrate as shown in table 19 below:

	INPUT TEACHING	OUTPUT PRACTICE	COMMUNICATION OUTPUT
<u>STUDENT TEACHERS</u>			
1	✓	✓	-
2	✓	✓	-
3	✓	-	-
4	✓	✓	-
5	✓	✓	-
6	✓	-	-
<u>EXPERIENCED TEACHERS</u>			
A	✓	✓	✓
B	✓	✓	✓
C	✓	✓	✓

TABLE 19. COMPARISON OF STUDENT AND EXPERIENCED TEACHERS' LANGUAGE LESSONS

The data reveals that both student and experienced teachers' lessons provide input teaching. They all see the need to expose or explain new linguistic items in language lessons. They also provide controlled output practice. Four out of the six student teachers did so. The other two spent most of the time explaining and asking pupils to re-explain language rules. Only a few examples were given to pupils and these, in no way constituted what has

been defined as output practice in this study. The greatest difference between the two groups was found in the 'communication output' stage. All the six student-teachers did not provide opportunities for learners to practise using language items in simulated real-life situations as experienced teachers did (see example of experienced teachers' lessons in Appendix D2). Although the experienced teachers' lessons leave a lot to be desired, they at least make the effort to ensure that communicative practice is carried out in uncontrolled situations. Such exercises give learners the freedom to express their views and are in that sense replicative of natural conversations (Willis et al, op. cit.). Communication output practice was not only provided in language but in content lessons as well.

The preceding discussion clarifies the researcher's formalisation of the observations he made from students' and experienced teachers' lessons. Such formalisation of data is necessary when we attempt to rationalise processes that take place in classrooms. Brumfit (1984: 112) suggests that when "methodologists" rationalise data in order to understand teaching methodology, they use their personal understanding of the language learning and use and the ideas they draw from their knowledge of "relevant theoretical disciplines, from experimentation and speculation". This is what the researcher did in the preceding descriptive analysis and in the succeeding critical appreciation of the criteria for what Education Officers, headmasters and experienced teachers described as 'good' teaching.

The description of the lesson stages outlined above deliberately avoided a critical analysis of the pedagogical implications of these. The aim then, was merely to establish criteria for good or effective teaching as it is perceived by Education Officers and headmasters and the extent to which such criteria manifest themselves in the lessons of experienced and some student-teachers' lessons. We need, at this stage, to give a critical

appreciation of these lesson stages in terms of their implementation in language teaching as a whole, rather than in isolated teaching contexts.

The implementation of input teaching, practice output and communication practice as lesson stages is, the researcher observed, a positive step towards developing learners' communicative skills. Care should however be taken to avoid a teaching/learning pattern syndrome which is so stereotyped that learners would know, before each lesson starts, the sort of practice activities they would be required to perform. Such a method might be counter-productive in that learners might lose interest in doing things in the same way in every lesson. This might be avoided by varying the sequence of the presentation stages discussed above. It can also be said of these steps that since the first stage, input teaching, emphasises the learning of certain linguistic items, pupils will be compelled to try and use these "accurately" in the subsequent communication practice stage. In that case, the desire to use language "accurately" might inhibit pupils' attempts to express meaning spontaneously.

Variations to lesson presentation can be achieved in different ways. Some linguists suggest that pupils should be given opportunities to use language communicatively before linguistic items are explicitly discussed (see Brumfit, 1979). This can be achieved through a variety of activities. Willis (1984) suggests that learners can be asked to discuss pictures, maps or to describe processes amongst other possible activities like pair- or group-problem solving activities. Such activities provide opportunities for learners to use language communicatively as they try to express meaning or their ideas. Communicative practice would be followed up by practice output involving the study of linguistic exponents used in the communicative task. Depending on the nature of the lesson, such practice can be followed up by further oral or written practice. The sequence of the teaching stages in this

case would be as follows:

Communication practice ----> Teaching input ----> Further
Communication Oral/Written Practice.

The need to vary the presentation of lessons also arises from the fact that not all lessons lend themselves to the treatment these stages presuppose. For instance, in reading lessons the teacher can focus on different skills in different lessons and these may not call for a sequential implementation of the steps discussed above. One lesson may focus on comprehension skills and others on different reading techniques such as skimming and scanning (see Jarvis and Mingham, 1986). Some language lessons may focus on listening skills and others, on speaking, pronunciation and writing skills. In such cases, the teaching stages discussed above may not be realised sequentially in one lesson. Either one or two of these might predominate in each lesson.

In his discussion on integrated projects aimed to achieve genuine communicative competence, Brumfit (1984: 120) suggests two factors that facilitate the development of "naturalistic fluency" in language use. These are "access to the tokens of the target language" and "the provision of appropriate material as part of the projects themselves". These factors were suggested in two of the stages discussed on preceding paragraphs. Target language tokens were suggested in the 'input teaching' stage which dwells on linguistic items and project content, in the communication practice which emphasises communicating meaning or subject content. Brumfit (op. cit.) observes that project work extends over a period of time. In such cases, a number of lessons will be devoted towards the completion of the project. During each of these lessons, the teacher will focus pupils' attention on a variety of activities. In the first lesson he may spend most of his time grouping pupils, explaining the aims of the project and collecting the required information. In the next two or more lessons pupils may work in their groups

consulting the teacher only when they encounter problems. This may be followed up by group discussion in which pupils put their ideas together in preparation for reporting their work to the whole class. In some cases, the language tokens they have to use may not be taught during the project. They may have been covered in a series of lessons prior to the project or the teacher may decide to select linguistic structures that need to be consciously taught and learned from pupils own reports. The discussion in the preceding paragraphs emphasises the need to vary the presentation stages of lessons. It is hoped that such variation in both language and content lessons will discourage stereotyped teaching which may demotivate learners.

The general implication of these observations is that Education Officers, headmasters and experienced teachers define good or effective teaching in a rather narrow sense. Although the stages identified from their views and observed in experienced teachers lessons have some pedagogical value, there is need to vary the implementation of these. This is true of both language and content subject teaching. The results of the analysis of the teaching of content subjects will be discussed in the section that follows.

8.6 TEACHING STRATEGIES IN CONTENT SUBJECTS

The recitation technique which we found to predominate in the teaching of language lessons was also observed in content subject teaching. The main difference between language and content lessons is that the former emphasise the development of communicative skills whereas the latter focus upon the acquisition of content or meaning. The success of teaching/learning subject content depends on two factors: the reciprocity of perspectives expressed at the schematic level and communicated coherently at the systemic level. These factors constitute the theoretical basis on which the researcher developed the formula discussed in chapter six (EU <----> RU) + (PC/EU <----> PC/RU).

'Schematic reciprocity' refers to the correspondence between the frames of reference held by the participants and systemic reciprocity, to a correspondence between their linguistic systems as they are actualised in discourse. The importance of schematic and systemic knowledge in communication is underlined by Widdowson who observes that there is a:

need for convergence of schematic reference in communication. Where this fails, either because of schematic or systemic disparities, participants shift to another frame of reference where convergence is easier to achieve.

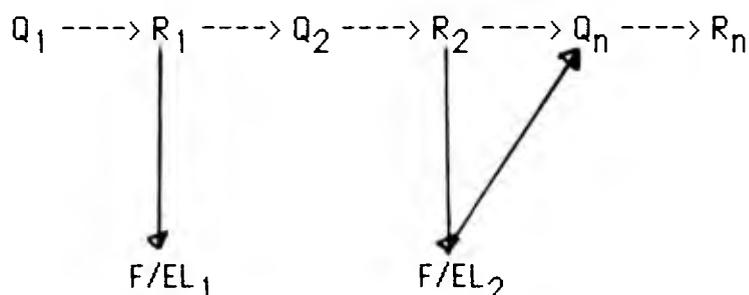
(Widdowson, 1984: 132)

The act of shifting from one frame of reference to another is a communicative strategy that student-teachers used in different ways. Their communicative strategies, as we have observed in chapter six in a discussion on linguistic simplification, characterise some of the teaching strategies that student-teachers employed.

Such strategies, besides being merely interactional, indicate the nature of the teaching strategies student-teachers adopted. By simplifying utterances from 'referential' to 'display' questions as shown in chapter six, student-teachers oblige themselves to use the recitation method discussed in the preceding section. Simplification can therefore be construed as a strategy whereby they avoid teaching methods which might land them into deep waters - linguistically that is. Having said that, we need to explain the method that student-teachers would use if they extensively used referential questions.

The researcher's analysis showed that a few student-teachers combined recitation techniques with elaborative/clarifying talk. Functionally, such

clarification talk achieves what Corder (1983) called "achievement strategies". The student teacher expands his interlinguistic resources in order to clarify key concepts or pupils' ideas. To distinguish this from the recitation technique, the researcher illustrated it diagrammatically as shown below.



There are, in this approach, pedagogic characteristics similar to those we identified within the recitation method but there are also variations within it which consist of elaborative or clarification discourse units. These features led the researcher to call this instructional strategy 'Recitation with elaboration'. The term recognises both the recitation as well as the clarification features which comprise it. The single arrow for R_1 and F/EL_1 indicates that the elaborative inform does not lead on to the question that follows - Q_2 whereas the double arrow for R_2 and F/EL_2 contains information which forms the basis of the question that follows, that is, Q_n . Recitation with elaboration was used in very few lessons (five lessons out of eighteen content lessons). A few excerpts were selected from different lessons to illustrate this instructional strategy.

T. A person who irrigates his crops will grow more crops than one who does not.

Why is it like that?

It looks like one person can answer.

P. A person who irrigates his crops he will grow more crops because he will grow twice a year. 5

T. Yes, very good.

One who irrigates his land will grow more crops because he can grow any time of the year. For an example, during the dry season, you can't grow any crops unless you can water them.

So, if you have got ... if you can irrigate your land, then you can grow any time of the year.

You can have two crops a year, one in summer and the other one in winter. 10

Group 3 (Group leader chooses a question to answer) Number 8.

T. Groups of crops grown at the same piece of land one after the other is called ---?

P. Crop rotation.

T. Loudly.

P. We call that crop rotation. 15

T. Yes, when we grow crops on some piece of land one after the other, we call that crop rotation. Last group ... Group 4?

Group 4 (Group leader chooses a question to answer) Number 9.

Column 1.

T. How does crop rotation make us grow better crops?

P. Because it keeps nitrogen in the soil. 20

T. Very good. When we rotate our crops, some crops leave nitrogen in the soil. For example, the legume plants like the beans and peas leave nitrogen in the soil.

It keeps the soil more fertile.

As in other lessons, the one from which this extract was taken is dominated by the recitation strategy. It has, however, the special feature that recitation is interspersed with digressions which the student-teacher used to elaborate or expand the responses given by the learners. The provision of such elaborative informs is described as a digression since the normal features of the recitation method, as we have observed, consist of a rapid succession of questions, answers and feedback whereas in situations where student-teachers used elaborative digressions, we get a sequence characterised by questions, answers, feedback and teachers elaboration and/or expansion of the pupils ideas.

With reference to the above excerpt, we notice that utterances 7 to 10 constitute an 'elaborative inform' which expands and clarifies the pupils' response. In it, the student-teacher explains why irrigation makes it possible for the farmer to grow two crops in a year. Similarly, in utterances 22 to 24, he provides additional information explaining how crop rotation improves the fertility of the soil. He also uses the opportunity to give examples of crops that fix nitrogen into the soil, a fact which the pupil had not mentioned in his response. Such elaborative discourse introduces an element of discussion into a method that usually consists of naming and/or giving facts. There is a definite attempt by the student-teacher to "look at consequences" of phenomena. But he did not succeed in asking pupils to do so. He monopolised the opportunity to elaborate and expand ideas without inviting learners to do the same. The student-teacher's technique is similar to what Scarborough (1968) cited by Barnes (1975: 173) discovered in London Primary Schools. Instead of giving pupils a chance to elaborate their own ideas, he did so himself and left "only slot filling to the pupils". In spite of this "weakness", the student-teacher did, however, introduce a useful addition to the recitation method.

Teaching strategies similar to the ones discussed above were also observed in the next excerpt taken from a mathematics lesson (Lesson 22).

- T. What fraction is shaded on this shape?
- P. Two quarters are shaded.
- T. Yes, what other way can we write two quarters?
- P. Four eighths.
- T. Correct. 5
- P. One half ... three sixths.
- T. Therefore one half of the shape is shaded.
What fraction of this shape is shaded?
- P. Four eighths of the shape is shaded.
- T. Tell me other ways in which we can write four eighths. 10
- P. One half.
- T. Now count how many squares are on the board.
- P. (Counts) ... Twelve squares are on the board.
- T. We've got twelve squares. Let's call this square
1 cm by 1 cm. How many one-centimetre squares do
we have on the board? Let's count them together.
- Chorus. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12.
- T. How many squares do we have along from here up to there?
- P. Three squares. 20
- T. And from here to there?
- P. Four squares.
- T. Now who can tell us what we can do to get twelve
one-centimetre squares if we have got two squares
along here and four squares here?
- P. We say four times three.
- T. Yes, we say four times three and what's the answer. 25
- P. It's twelve square centimetres.
-

This excerpt can be divided into two parts. The first one deals with the identification of parts and how these can be written as fractions of a whole. In the second part, the student-teacher's objective is to test learner's knowledge about the formula for finding area. He does so by demonstrating the process before asking pupils to give him the formula: $\text{Area} = \text{Length} \times \text{Width}$. His presentation was accompanied by a diagram divided into one-centimetre squares. Using this as a teaching aid, he evolved a lesson structure that consists of inter-related questions which led pupils to the discovery of the formula. One pupil expressed the formula as follows: "We say four times three". The length of the rectangle was 4 cm. and its width was 3 cm. To obtain its area, pupils had to multiply 4 cm. by 3 cm. to get 12 square centimetres. As in the other lessons, we observe the predominance of the recitation strategy in this lesson. In this instance, the student-teacher used it effectively to control the direction of the lesson and the subject content involved.

The researcher also compared ways in which student and experienced teachers use elaborative/clarifying discourse in their lessons. Experienced teachers' clarifying discourse units were found to be clearer and more instructionally valuable than those of student teachers.

In a Science lesson given by an experienced teacher (see Appendix D1) the elaborations tended to be too long in certain places. We however notice the clarity with which the teacher introduced her lesson pointing out the weaknesses in pupils' previous assignment and explaining what they had been expected to do (utterances 4 - 11). Notice, for instance how the teacher clarifies the pupil's response in the following extract.

T. ---- When you were all observing the bubbles,
what did you see?

P.	Air.	2
T.	Yes, the bubbles are air particles that are coming out through the water and bursting at the top, back into the atmosphere.	3

The teacher's follow-up utterance clarifies what was not expressed in the pupil's response. In language lessons, elaborations/clarifications serve to emphasise the rules for structuring a discourse text (utterance 70 in Appendix 02) or to correct a faulty discourse text as in:

P ₂	You go on Chitepo road	1
	Then at store you turn right.	2
	Our house is number 44.	3
T.	Well tried --	4
	You made some mistakes. Say,	5
	To get to our house you travel along	
	Chitepo road from here.	6
	Then turn left before you get to the	
	shops.	7
	You will see number 44.	8
	That is our house.	9

In this extract, utterances 5 - 9 were intended to provide a corrected model which the learner was expected to give.

In Mathematics, student-teachers provided very few clarifying or explanatory feedbacks. We observe in lesson C (Appendix 03), given by an experienced teacher, good examples of such instructional strategies. In utterances 73 - 75, the teacher gave a simple but clear explanation of how to reduce a fraction to the lowest term. In the same lesson, utterances 161 - 183, the teacher clarifies a problem that most pupils at this level find difficult to

understand, that is, adding fractions that have different denominators.

T. Right, the next one.

Read that one.

P. One quarter plus one half.

T. One quarter plus one half.

How do we do it?

P. One plus one equals two; two over four.

T. Do we say two over four?

Class. No.

T. Umm ... they don't agree with you.

What do you say? --- next?

P. One plus one equals two;

four plus two equals six.

T. He says four plus two equals six.

Is that right?

Class. Yes.

T. No. Now --- I want you to listen carefully.

If the --- What do we call the number
below here?

P. The denominator.

T. If the denominators are different ...

in all these other four sums the

denominators were the same. If the

denominators are different, we have to

find ... first of all we have to reduce

these two to the same denominator.

We have four and two.

So we have to find a common denominator

for them.

That is, we have to find the smallest number
that can be divided by both two and four
without leaving a remainder.

Which number can be divided by two
and four without leaving a remainder?

P. Two.

T. Two? four into two?

P. Four.

T. Yes, four.

On the basis of the clarification given the teacher and the pupils negotiated the correct response to the teacher's question.

Besides comparing the use of elaborative/clarifying discourse units of the two groups, the researcher also investigated and compared the similarities and differences observable in the development of their instructional strategies. That is, the stages discussed in the preceding section in connection with language lessons - Input Teaching, Output Practice and Communication/Application Output. In content subjects, it is more appropriate to combine communication and application since, in certain situations, the aim might be to apply and to communicate new knowledge. In Mathematics, for instance emphasis might be on applying new mathematical rules in order to solve a problem. A comparative analysis of these stages showed that, on the whole, the majority of experienced teachers' lessons contained these lesson stages. Only one of them did not include the Communication/Application stage. All student-teachers' lessons had the input teaching stage but the practice output stage was found in 14 out of the 24 lessons (58 $\frac{1}{3}$ %) and the Communication/Application stage in only 8 out of the 24 lessons (33 $\frac{1}{3}$ %) (see Appendix O 4.8).

As suggested in section 8.5, it is not to be expected that every lesson should necessarily consist of these lesson stages. They need not occur in every lesson nor should they occur sequentially in every lesson. Project work which is common in social and environmental science subjects do of necessity call for different approaches. The treatment of crucial language items that pupils may need to use can be handled at any stage of the lesson the teacher finds appropriate.

The conclusion we draw from the observations discussed above is that although student-teachers interlanguage was defined as fairly adequate in as far as its linguistic forms are concerned, its functional use in classroom talk leaves something to be desired. They do not show adequate ability to use it for such important functions as explaining/elaborating/clarifying new concepts and pupils ideas. In other words their ability to use language communicatively in the classroom and to encourage pupils to do the same, is limited. This does not in any way contradict the observation made earlier in chapter seven where the researcher described student-teachers knowledge of the TL as generally satisfactory since that observation was based on their knowledge of linguistic forms and not on the functions to which these are put in classroom talk. Avoidance of, or inability to use discourse informs that elaborate/clarify concepts is an interlinguistic phenomenon which the researcher observed to be responsible for the predominance of the 'recitation' teaching approach in student-teachers' lessons. On the other hand, it should be acknowledged that other factors which were beyond the scope of this study, like learners' limited proficiency in the use of the TL and other classroom factors could be equally responsible for the predominance of this teaching approach. One can however, argue that besides these, student-teachers' own limitations in the functional/communicative use of the language of instruction are also responsible for the predominance of this

instructional strategy.

8.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter, we focussed on the influence of student-teachers' interlanguage on the major instructional approaches they use. It should be emphasised that although such specific teaching methods as drill practice and revision of previously learnt material were used in certain lessons, the aim of the analysis was not to discuss these but to investigate the general approaches used. These were identified as "recitation with or without elaboration". Although there are other factors that lead to the predominant use of what the researcher called 'recitation without elaboration', there is sufficient evidence to suggest that student-teachers' limited proficiency in the target language is also responsible. This was more evident in language lessons where their use of metalinguistic knowledge was found to be defective.

In content lessons, student-teachers seem to deliberately avoid the use of open-ended questions which might lead into areas of discussion that involve the use of complex language forms and functions. Instead, they prefer factual questions which call for a simple "recitation" of ideas and facts that constitute the lesson content. In the data analysed for this study, such instructional strategies are demonstrated when student-teachers shift from open-ended to closed, more factually oriented questions that encourage recall rather than analytical, reflective learning processes and the use of complex language.

A comparison between students' and experienced teachers' lessons also reveals important weaknesses in student-teachers' instructional strategies. They tend to provide less communicative activities in the classroom than experienced teachers do. One is inclined to conclude that lack of such

communicative practice in the classroom limits the chances for improving learners' communicative skills. In making this claim we should however bear in mind the fact that the researcher has already referred to, namely, that although there is as yet, no conclusive evidence to suggest that communicative use of the TL enhances second language development in second language classrooms than does the learning of language structures, there is a lot of indirect evidence that suggests that this is the case (Long and Sato, 1983).

On the basis of this and other observations made in this study, the researcher outlined syllabus suggestions that focus upon and emphasise the development of communicative skills in student-teachers' use of classroom language. These will be discussed in the chapter that follows.

CHAPTER IX

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CHAPTER NINE9 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER TRAINING IN ZIMBABWE

The main theme of this study was the analysis of student-teachers' interlanguage. In Chapters five, six, seven and eight, student-teachers' language was discussed from different angles and in different contexts, namely, grammatical error, discourse and pedagogic contexts. In this chapter, we shall draw together the observations made with respect to each of these contexts in order to present a general profile of student-teachers' interlanguage and to discuss its implications for the training of primary school teachers for whom English is not a mother-tongue in Zimbabwe.

It should be noted here, as Lopez (1983) referring to Corder (1973, 1975, 1978) and to Selinker and Lamendella (1978) who tend to restrict the notion of interlanguage to individual learners, that the interlanguage rules summarised below are representative of the variety used by all the student-teachers involved in this study. The researcher agrees with Lopez (op. cit.: 5) when he suggests that "the theoretical validity of the concept of interlanguage should be extended to account for the interlanguage of a group of speakers of a certain L_1 in the process of learning a specific L_2 ".

In accordance with this suggestion, the researcher combined the interlanguage rules observed in each student-teacher's discourse in order to provide a general linguistic profile that reflects the average performance of the student-teachers involved in the study. The rules described below reflect the forms and syntactic patterns of the interlanguage generally used by student-teachers. These will be briefly discussed under the headings used in Chapter seven where a detailed report of each of these is given. It was considered necessary to discuss these rules under these headings in order to show clearly, the grammatical/syntactical and stylistic features of the

interlanguage.

9.1 INTERLANGUAGE RULE CATEGORIES

9.1.1 SYNTAX

Syntax in this study is defined as a linguistic term that is used to refer to "the inter-relationships between elements of sentence structure" or word order (Crystal, 1982: 346). The analysis of student-teachers' language revealed that their variety of language consists of question and declarative utterances that range from those that conform to the rules applied to native speakers to those that are idiosyncratic. These include the following:

Simple statement utterances

As in L_1 , these have an S(-ubject) V(-erb) O(-bject) sequence. Variations of this basic sentence structure were also observed in student-teachers' interlanguage. These include SVC (complement) sequences; SVO and SVOC sequences in which subjects, verbs, objects and complements can be modified.

In commands, where according to Quirk et al (op. cit.: 50), the subject is optional (S) VO or (S)V(O) patterns appeared regularly in student-teacher discourses. There is ample evidence in the data to justify the claim that student-teachers have mastered SVO patterns and their variations.

wh- and Yes/No questions

The articulation of questions in these categories, according to Quirk et al (op. cit.: 77) involves the inversion of subject and operator from the positions they normally occupy in declarative utterances. In situations where the corresponding declarative utterances do not contain an operator, 'do' is introduced to function as one. Not only did student-teachers' question utterances conform to these rules, but they also revealed their ability to

comply with the rules governing the articulation of wh- questions in utterances where the wh- word is itself a subject word or part of a noun phrase subject or in situations where it functions as an object, a complement or an adverbial. The resultant structures illustrated in Tables 12, 13 and 14 reflect the following sequences of elements or word order:

- i) Wh- word (subject) + Operator + Verb + Object.
- ii) WH- word and a NP + Copula + Complement.
- iii) Operator + Subject + Verb + Indirect Object + NP (Direct Object) + Adverbial Phrase.

Since these rules, used in student-teachers interlanguage, are identical to those described by Quirk et al (op. cit.) in the context of L₁ use, it can be claimed that student-teachers use of these approximates closely to target language rules. We can therefore regard them as falling into the "Common Rules" areas of Diagram 12.

Declarative questions

The types of declarative questions were identified. The first type consists of declarative statements articulated in a rising tone. In such cases the question form is tonally realised. According to Quirk et al (op. cit.: 814), there are different types of declarative questions, namely, positive and negative declarative questions and those we can classify as neutral, that is, they have neither a positive nor a negative orientation. The type commonly used by student-teachers in the discourses analysed is the 'neutral' type. From the description of the formal features of these questions (see sub-section 7.2.1.4) the researcher concluded that the two types of declarative questions observed and discussed in Chapter seven revealed that student-teachers' performance in this respect does not differ significantly from that of some L₁ teachers. This conclusion was made after consulting L₁ native speaking teachers of English.

Complex/compound questions

There are instances in which questions containing two clauses or one main clause and a subordinate clause are uttered in a syntactical order in which elements that are usually placed in final sentence position are fronted. Ochs and Shciefelin (1983), Keenan et al (1983) and Brown and Yule (1983) discuss this tendency as characteristic of spoken language. It involves "foregrounding" the referent of an utterance in such a way that it becomes "the centre of attention". Quirk et al (1985: 89) refer to this tendency as "fronting". They point out that it is motivated by the speaker's desire to highlight "informationally important" elements in their utterances. Ochs (1983: 142) observes that such a discourse feature is responsible for the formation of constructions that consist of referents followed by propositions. i.e.

REFERENT + PROPOSITION constructions.

In student-teachers' discourses, foregrounding was not only limited to noun phrase referents. Locative adverbial phrases were also foregrounded. The researcher concluded that this was a systematic feature of student-teachers' interlanguage.

Directives

It was noted in Chapter seven that the three categories of directives observed in the data were formally and functionally acceptable. The formal features of each category were also analysed and described. We can infer from this analysis that on the whole, the formal characteristics of these utterances fall into the "common rules" category of Diagram 12.

9.1.2 LEXIS

The analysis of lexis in the data focussed on the appropriateness of the lexical items that student-teachers select to convey their ideas. It was observed in Chapter five that lexical selection presents special problems to

student-teachers. This led the researcher to conclude that student-teachers' interlanguage is characterised by the use of certain inappropriate lexical items. This is particularly true of the content words used in some of their utterances. However, if we consider the variety of language used by student-teachers as a language in its own right, the use of such words as 'stay in Zimbabwe' instead of 'live in Zimbabwe' might be considered as lexical features of an interlanguage which is fast developing into what may, in the end, be a recognised local variety.

9.1.3 TENSE SYSTEM

The tense systems of student-teachers' interlanguage vary from those that are identical with the target language to those that are clearly interlinguistic. The interlinguistic rules differ from those of the target language. The most striking example of what has been described as a typical interlanguage tense system involves the use of the progressive tense involving 'intellectual' and 'perception' verbs, i.e. stative verb forms. There is a tendency among student teachers to construct patterns like the following:

- i) Subject + Verb (intellectual/perception verb) + -ing
+ Object (Statement).
- ii) Operator + Subject + Verb (intellectual/perception verb)
+ - ing + Object (Question).
Are + you + understanding + me?

Drawing from his experience the researcher observed that this structure is difficult to eradicate from student-teachers' interlanguage. It is one of those features that seems to have been fossilized in student-teachers' discourse.

Another feature of the interlanguage tense system identified involves shifting from one tense to another. The speaker uses two different tense systems in one utterance. If, for instance, he starts an utterance in the past

tense, he ends up in the present tense or vice versa as in:

'When you want to find the perimeter of a square we
measured the sides'

This can be represented as follows:

Wh- word + Pronoun (Subject₁) + Verb (present tense)
+ Noun Phrase (Object) + Pronoun (Subject₂) + Verb
(past tense) + Noun Phrase (Object).

Such data led the researcher to conclude that, in some utterances student-teachers interlanguage violates rules of tense continuity in the same way that Godfrey (1980) observed in his study involving adult ESL monologues.

9.1.4 OTHER GRAMMATICAL SYSTEMS

The study also revealed that student-teachers' interlanguage consists of preposition and article systems that differ from those of the target language. The article or determiner system presents a clearer picture than the preposition system. The definite article 'the' is over-used to cover the functions of the indefinite article 'a' and the zero article. On the other hand, the preposition system is less systematically used consisting largely of the use of wrong prepositions in certain environments (see Appendix H). As Hicks (1982) observed from his study, such erroneous use of prepositions and article does, however, facilitate communication in second language classrooms. It constitutes a systemic frame of reference which student teachers resort to when communicating. Without this system, erroneous though it is, it would be difficult, if not impossible, for them to maintain their discourse. Hicks (op. cit.) described such systems as unstable since, on certain occasions, correct articles and prepositions will be used, and on others, wrong ones will appear in their speech. This is also true of other linguistic items such as pronouns and adverbials.

9.1.5 DISCOURSE COHESION AND COHERENCE

There are two ways in which discourse utterances are 'tied' together to form a text. These were discussed and illustrated in chapter six. The first involves the use of cohesive items such as anaphoric and cataphoric references, substitutions, lexical repetition and other appropriate devices (Halliday et al., 1976). The second method does not make use of linguistic forms as such but is effected through semantic coherence (Widdowson, 1978). The proper use of these ensures that interactional discourse utterances are used "co-referentially". The analysis in chapter six showed that student-teachers' and learners' language in both question and answer exchanges and instructional informs contains some cohesive errors. In informs, ambiguity is caused by the use of some anaphoric reference items which are not tied to any preceding referent. The analysis of cohesive items in the data revealed that whereas "immediate" and "mediated" tying techniques were generally properly applied "remote tying", to use Halliday et al's (1976: 328) terminology, caused ambiguity in that its referents were not easy to identify.

9.1.6 DISCOURSE EXCHANGES

As observed in Chapter eight, discourse exchanges in the classrooms studied reveal a stylistic interlinguistic feature that deviates from what would normally be observed in native speaker classrooms. It is the stylistic tendency for learners to respond to the student-teacher's questions using full sentences. Although student-teachers encourage learners to give full sentence responses as practice in the production of correct sentence structures, there are occasions when shortened or ellipted responses are given. Ellipted responses were found to occur in situations where the whole class was required to respond to the teacher's question or those in which the questions' specifically asked learners to enumerate or list items or words in

their responses. Halliday et al (1976) discuss the structure of direct responses to wh- and Yes/No questions. They point out that such responses are usually reduced in form. What we notice when we observe learners' responses suggests that classroom interlanguage invariably uses full sentence responses unless chorus or enumeration/ listing responses are called for.

We can conclude from the preceding interlanguage profile that student-teachers at this level know how to handle certain grammatical forms. They have also developed ways of expressing themselves using linguistic features some of which differ from those used by native speakers. A combination of the features that closely approximate to those of the target language and those that deviate from it gives their spoken discourse special characteristics that we refer to collectively as "interlanguage". It should also be pointed out that student-teacher's interlanguage enables them to communicate with their pupils effectively although, at times, communication breakdowns occur (see sub-section 6.4). It was shown in Chapters six and seven that such breakdowns are due to a number of 'schematic' and 'systemic' factors. Hicks (1982) also observes that communication breakdowns can be accounted for in terms of the discourse strategies used by teachers. For instance, the inability of certain teachers to shift from a 'planned' to an 'unplanned' discourse makes it difficult for them to cope with the discourse demands that are not anticipated in their planned discourse. He claims that:

Attempts to repair breakdowns in communication take up a large proportion of the lesson time but are singularly ineffective. They depend on repetition, urging pupils to respond and telling them the answer, but fail to provide any extra clues or other helpful information that could lead pupils to understand the question or answer (own emphasis).

(Hicks, op. cit.: 274)

9.2 IMPLICATIONS OF INTERLANGUAGE CATEGORIES FOR TEACHER TRAINING IN ZIMBABWE

In the light of the observations and conclusions made in section 9.1 and other preceding chapters, the researcher would like to make suggestions for the training of primary school teachers in Zimbabwe. The aim is not to produce a detailed syllabus but to suggest broad guidelines which can be applied when designing an English language syllabus for ESL teachers in the country. It is imperative that before we provide such broad guidelines, we should determine the variables that describe the linguistic needs of student-teachers. Needs analysis studies especially those related to English for Specific Purposes (ESP) as discussed by Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964), Munby (1978) attempt to isolate only those aspects of language that a group of learners need to know in order to communicate effectively in clearly defined situations.

A modified approach to needs analysis is provided by Wilkins (1976) and Van Ek (1979). They propose that needs should be defined in semantic terms. The type of syllabus that results from such an approach has been called a "semantic" or "notional" syllabus. It is constructed on the basis of notional categories which aim to enable learners how to do specific "things" with language such as greeting, persuading, inviting, apologising and so on. It was hoped that Wilkin's syllabus would be an improvement on the structural syllabus which emphasised "structural" rather than "notional" units.

Both the structural and the notional syllabuses have been subjected to a lot of criticism. Widdowson (1984: 179) points out that the difference between these two approaches is that semantic syllabuses define "... learning units as 'concepts and functions' rather than as structures" whereas ESP syllabuses define them as structures. He criticises both ESP and notional syllabuses for

de-emphasising "process-oriented activities or "transitional linguistic behaviour". It is Widdowson's view that we should emphasise "transitional" rather than "terminal" behaviour and that syllabus content should be defined in terms of transitional activities.

Widdowson is not alone in criticising these syllabuses. They have also been criticised for ignoring the teaching of structures (Swan, 1985) and for the problems they present to the classroom teacher (Medgyes, 1986). Some of the critics advocate the need to combine both "notional" or "communicative" and "structural" syllabuses. Swan, who the researcher found to be highly critical but pragmatic in his suggestions says:

It is ... essential to consider both semantic and formal accounts of the language when deciding what to teach. Failure to do so will result in serious omissions on one side or the other.

(Swan, op. cit.: 80)

This view is supported by many linguists. Edwards and Furlong (1978: 46) suggest that in L₂ situations communicative competence should be defined broadly to refer to "forms of speech and ways of speaking" (own emphasis). Widdowson (1983: 8) observes that:

the concept of competence has been extended to incorporate not only the speaker's knowledge of the language system, but his knowledge also of social rules which determine the appropriate use of linguistic forms.

These views are in keeping with Hymes' (1972) notion of "communicative competence" which refers to the achievement by a learner of socially and situationally appropriate and effective linguistic forms.

The need to strike a balance between 'notional' and 'structural' syllabuses was also implied by Kennedy (1978) when he claimed that although linguists

recognise the need for a language learner to acquire both "form and function," the history of language methodology shows that there has been a tendency to use one rather than both as the basis for language teaching. On the same issue, Richards (1974) suggests that language syllabuses should be so designed to ensure that both forms and functions are acquired to acceptable degrees of proficiency. Referring to Clyne (1975a), he notes two possibilities in this connection; a situation where "the interlanguage may be relatively well formed grammatically" but has a low degree of functional elaboration and one in which *it* has a "high degree of functional elaboration with minimum knowledge of the forms of the language" (Richards, *op. cit.*: 98).

Some linguists do, however, believe that a balanced syllabus in which both forms and functions are taught depends on the needs of the learners. In situations where learners rarely participate in conversation in the target language, the need to teach communicative competence is less necessary than it is in situations where conversation is given priority (Harmer, 1982: 168). According to Bialystok (1981: 73) an explicit knowledge of the forms should be given priority in situations where learners use language for writing and an implicit knowledge of these should be aimed at in situations where functional elaboration rather than writing is needed.

The preceding discussion suggests that a 'balanced language syllabus', that is, one that emphasises the teaching and learning of both forms and functions, should be based on what learners need to use the target language for. In Chapter two, we outlined the general functions of English as a second language in Zimbabwe. What we need to do before we suggest and discuss specific guidelines for designing a teacher training English syllabus for primary school teachers is to determine student-teachers' linguistic needs. Before deciding what student-teachers need to be taught, the researcher focussed on classroom discourse as described in the preceding chapters as

well as their use of English outside the classroom and posed questions the answers to which were intended to inform him about the linguistic needs of his research subjects. By so doing, the researcher applied the approach used in the Council of Europe study. Johnson (1981) observes that Richterich used such an approach. It sought to identify and to describe learner needs "by looking at the situations in which our students will want to use English". This would enable us "to decide which functions and notions (and which language forms associated with each) it will be most useful to teach" (Johnson, 1981: 6).

TABLE 17 PROFILE OF STUDENT-TEACHERS' NEEDS

FUNCTIONS	YES	NO
1. Do student teachers use planned discourse in the classroom?	*	
2. Do student teachers use unplanned discourse?	*	
3. Do they use English to negotiate meaning?	*	
4. Do they use English for general conversation with pupils in the classroom?	*	
5. Do they use English for conversation with colleagues outside the school?	*	
6. Is their use of the target language restricted to planned discourse only?		*
7. Is it restricted to unplanned discourse?		*
8. Do they use the target language for writing?	*	
9. Do they refer to the TL rules when teaching?	*	
10. Do they use textbooks that assume some knowledge of the forms on the part of the teacher?	*	
11. Are the learners expected to understand the forms of the target language?	*	

12. Do they use English for conversation with parents at home?

*

The responses in Table 17 indicate that student-teachers:

- i) need to use the target language for communicative purposes in classrooms;
- ii) use textbooks that assume a certain amount of linguistic knowledge on the part of the teacher; and
- iii) need to know the forms of the target language they teach;
- iv) need to know how to use English for social communication.

On the basis of these observations it was concluded that the teaching of both communicative functions and forms is necessary if student-teachers should perform effectively in the classroom. These needs are consistent with those described by Spada (1987) who, in her study used an instrument that is believed to be "sensitive to the communicative orientation of L₂ teaching" - The COLT. She asserts that the use of this instrument, developed by Allen et al (1982, 1983), has revealed that the development of language proficiency in the classroom depends on learners acquiring grammatical, discourse and sociolinguistic competences. To this list, Faerch et al (1984) add strategic competence. The underlying assumption is that these competences are necessary for the development of communicative competence.

In the light of student-teachers' communicative and linguistic needs as observed in this study and, on the basis of ideas drawn from the review of literature on syllabus design, the researcher proceeded to outline course objectives and content guidelines for designing syllabuses that might help student-teachers become effective communicators in second language classrooms. The objectives are based on ideas obtained from Cunningsworth (1984) and Willis (1984) whose work has had a lot of influence on the

suggestions given below.

9.3 GUIDELINES FOR DESIGNING A TEACHER TRAINING ENGLISH SYLLABUS

The suggestions given in this section call for a revamping of the present Applied Education Courses into more rigorous communication oriented courses. It is also envisaged that all colleges would offer courses in Language and Communication for two years. That is, during the period student-teachers will be in college. Currently, some colleges offer Applied Education Courses for six weeks in one year with a time allocation of two hours per week. This is inadequate and does not make it possible for teacher trainers to achieve their objectives. However, the time allocation should be kept at two hours per week.

The general aim for such a course should be to 'develop student-teachers communicative skills in and outside the classroom through a study of the forms and functions that are appropriate to different communicative situations and to enable them to help learners develop the same skills'. The researcher believes that such a course would enable student-teachers to realise the linguistic skills which the Minister and Secretary for Education in Zimbabwe invited teachers and college lecturers to aim to achieve (see Chapter one).

The aims for such a course can be outlined as follows:

9.3.1 GRAMMATICAL/LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE AIMS

- a) To raise student-teachers awareness of the forms and functions of English so that their understanding can enable them to plan and teach it in a creative, imaginative and effective manner.
- b) To enable student-teachers to understand and to use, accurately, the specialised language used to explain or define English language terms and

rules (i.e. metalanguage).

- c) To raise student-teachers' understanding of the importance of cohesion and coherence in classroom discourse and their ability to assess the effect of these on classroom discourse exchanges.
- d) To enable student-teachers to understand and to explicitly teach the differences between such language varieties as written and spoken discourse.

9.3.2 COMMUNICATIVE/DISOURSE COMPETENCE AIMS

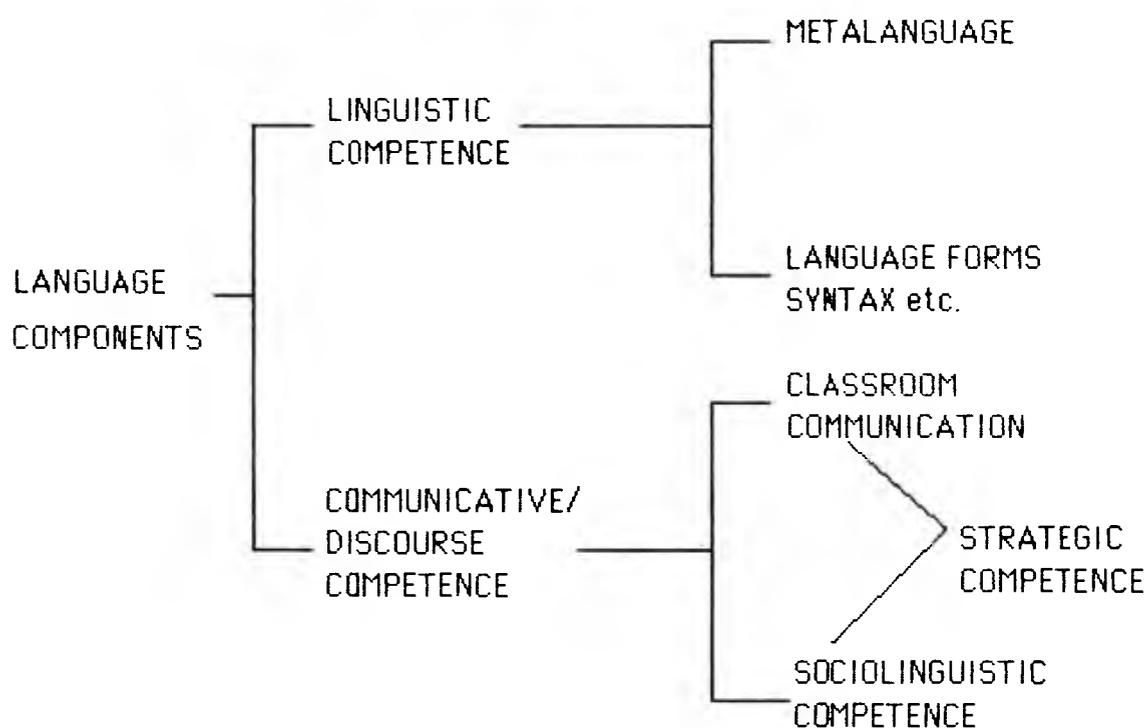
- a) To enable student-teachers to use language communicatively and appropriately in:
 - i) Classroom situations where they have to
 - give corrective feedback;
 - elicit specific information through questioning (e.g. wh- and yes/no questions; problem solving and other referential questions).
 - ii) social situations where they have to communicate with other members of the community.
- b) To develop student-teachers' skills in using language communicatively and appropriately in the classroom when giving instructions, explaining/clarifying concepts and processes, expounding/clarifying pupils' responses and organising classroom activities and controlling pupil behavior.
- c) To develop student-teachers' skills in the use of communicative strategies such as simplification and expansion when explaining concepts or elaborating learners' responses.
- d) To help student-teachers develop skills in exploiting genuine communication that arises in the classroom (e.g. apologising for being late and requesting permission to leave the classroom).

9.3.3 PEDAGOGICAL COMPETENCE AIMS

- a) To enable student-teachers to appreciate the value of and to use methods that facilitate the development of learners' communication skills (e.g. discussion and information exchange activities).
- b) To help student-teachers in the use of questions that develop learners' communicative skills (i.e. referential questions) and how these can be introduced in a lesson that is otherwise dominated by 'display questions'.
- c) To enable student-teachers to structure their lessons in such a way that they provide 'Input Teaching', 'Output Practice' and 'Communication Output', and vary these as suggested in Chapter eight.
- d) To help student-teachers develop their own communicative teaching materials based on learners' experience and background.

The objectives outlined above determine the content that should be introduced in the course programme. One expects variations in topic selection and emphasis between colleges but essentially, colleges will be expected to use as their guidelines, the components illustrated in diagram 13 below.

Diagram 13 Syllabus Components



The components shown in the diagram can be briefly described as follows:

9.3.4 LANGUAGE FORMS

We notice from diagram 13 that the language forms component is bifocal.

i) Metalinguage

Metalinguistic knowledge is important in that it equips teacher-trainees with a knowledge of the forms of talking about language. Such explicit knowledge about English is important. It enables the trainees to explain the forms and functions of English when the need to do so arises.

ii) The second component labelled simply as language forms involves the study of the forms and syntax of English. It covers a wide area. In this area, the structures of different speech acts can be selected for study. In view of what has been said about spoken and written language in the preceding chapters, it is suggested that a component dealing with differences between spoken and written language should be introduced.

9.3.5 COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Two broad categories are suggested for communication skills in Diagram 13.

i) Classroom Communication Skills

These focus on the language that is used in the presentation of subject content in the classroom. It emphasises such discourse acts as explaining, defining, illustrating ideas, asking questions and so on. The aim for presenting such communicative activities would be to provide practice in the use of communication acts that student-teachers are likely to use in the classroom.

These can be presented and practised either in the form of language learning activities (see awareness raising activities in section 9.4 and Diagram 14 below) or as experiential activities (see section 9.4). Since student-teachers

also need language to use in discourse encounters outside the classroom, the teaching of communicative skills should be broadened to include (ii) below.

ii) Social Communication Skills

This involves practice in participating in selected dialogue topics which involve the use of unplanned discourse. Alternatively, practice in planned discourse could be provided by setting exercises which require student-teachers to present monologues, reports and so on.

It is important that, as much as possible, the linguistic forms components should be integrated with the communicative skills components. Such integration is suggested in Diagram 17 by dotted arrows which link the various components. Strategic competence, as shown in the diagram, should be taught within the contexts of classroom and social communication components.

The researcher deliberately avoided giving detailed syllabus suggestions in favour of broad general guidelines which cover the areas that need emphasising. These have the advantage that teacher trainers can, at any time, change the details of their syllabus content without seriously affecting the main course structure. In situations and countries like Zimbabwe where some college lecturers do not have special training in ESL, different lecturers may want to emphasise different topics under each of the headings shown in Diagram 13. Such broad guidelines provide the flexibility and freedom for lecturers to suggest the details of the syllabus content they prefer to teach.

Topics for study could be outlined indicating the functions requiring detailed treatment and practice. A sample outline of topics that could be included in such a Language and Communication Course is given below. The researcher also gives a list of possible sources that college lecturers and

student-teachers can use *in* the study of some of these topics. It is however not possible to get books that provide comprehensive information on each topic in Zimbabwe. So a careful selection of readings from journals and books should help college-lecturers and student-teachers get useful references in their teaching and study of the topics selected.

UNIT NUMBER	TOPIC	POSSIBLE SOURCE(S)
1	Linguistic Studies: Aspects of Language Forms and Functions	Selections from a) Quirk, R. et al, 1985, <u>A Comprehensive Grammar of English</u> . London: Longman. b) Leech, G. and Svartvik, J.A., 1975, <u>Communicative Grammar of English</u> . Lond: Longman. c) Thomson, A.J. and Martin, A.V. 1980, <u>A Practical English Grammar</u> . Oxford, OUP.
2	Cohesion and Coherence in Discourse	Halliday, M.A.K. and Hassan, R. 1976, <u>Cohesion in English</u> Longman: London.
3	Forms and Functions of Different Language Varieties	Selections from a) Brown, G. and Yule, G., 1983 <u>Discourse Analysis</u> . Cambridge: CUP.
4	Using planned and unplanned Dialogues for Teaching Communicative Discourse	b) Rubin, A. 1980, 'A Theoretical Taxonomy of the Differences between Oral and Written Language' in Spiro, J., Bruce, B.C. and Brewer, W.F. 1980 (eds) <u>Theoretical Issues in Reading Comprehension</u> . Lawrence Erlbaum. c) Harmer, J., 1983, <u>The Practice of English Language Teaching</u> . London: Longman.
5	Questioning and Providing Feedback in the Classroom	Selections from a) Seliger, H.W. and Long, M.H.

- 1983, *Classroom Oriented Research in Second Language Classrooms*, Rowley, Mass. Newbury House.
- 6 Explaining processes, concepts and clarifying instructions in the classroom
- b) Chanan, D. and Delamont, S. 1975, *Frontiers of Classroom Researcher* NFER.
- c) Melville, M., Langenheim, L., Rinvoluceri, M., Spaventor, L. (ed) 1980, *Towards the Creative Teaching of English* London: Longman.
- 7 Using Language for Positive/Negative Affectivity
- Selections from:
- a) Stubbs, M. 1976, *Language, Schools and Classrooms*. London: Methuen.
- b) Bossert, S.T., 1979, *Tasks and Social Relationships in Classrooms: A Study of Interactional Organisation and Its Consequences* Cambridge, C.U.P.
- 8 Using, Exploiting genuine Communicative Situations that Arise in Classrooms
- Willis, J. 1981, *Teaching English Through English*. London: Longman.
- 9 Organising/Controlling Class and Group Work
- Selections from:
- a) Willis, J. 1981, *Teaching English Through English*. London: Longman.
- b) Bossert, S.T. 1979, *Tasks and Social Relationships in Classrooms: A Study of Interactional Organisation and Its Consequences*. Cambridge. CUP.
- 10 Monitoring Individual and Group Work
- c) Bennett, N. and Desforages, C.W. (eds) 1985, *Recent Advances in Classroom Research: The British Journal of Educational Psychology Monograph Series No. 2*. Edinburgh. Scottish Academic Press.

Each of these topics needs to be planned in detail. Lecturers would have to indicate sub-headings for each of these as well as the relevant student-teacher activities. To illustrate how each of these topics can be broken down to indicate relevant sub-headings, the researcher chose topic 4 from the list outlined above. Additional references/sources were also provided.

TOPIC 4 Questioning and Providing Feedback in The Classroom

TOPIC NUMBER	TOPIC	POSSIBLE/REFERENCES SOURCE(S)
4.1	Use of various types of questions in the classroom	a) Sinclair, J. and Brazil, D. 1982, <u>Teacher Talk</u> . Oxford: OUP.
4.2	Forms and Functions of Different types of questions: Wh-Questions, 'How' and Why Questions.	b) Quirk, R. et al, 1985, <u>A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language</u> (Selection of Sections on Question forms and functions
4.3	Effects of 'display' and referential questions in Communication.	c) Cole, P. and Dougan, J.L. (eds) 1975 <u>Syntax and Semantics 3. Speech Acts</u> . New York Academic Press. (Selection of readings on Indirect Speech Acts, e.g. Searle's).
4.4	Conceptual and Linguistic Demands of Display and referential Questions.	d) Goody, E.N. (ed) 1978 <u>Questions and Politeness: Strategies in Social Interaction</u> . Cambridge: CUP.
4.5	Using indirect questions as polite suggestions, polite commands and requests.	e) Sinclair, J. McH., and Coulthard R.M. 1975, <u>Towards an Analysis of Discourse. The English used by Teachers and Pupils</u> . London: OUP.
4.6	Repeating and restructuring questions.	f) Burt, M.K. and Dulay, H.C. (eds) 1975, <u>New Directions in Second Language Learning, Teaching and Bilingual Education</u> . Washington, D.C. TESOL (Selections of sections
4.7	Simplifying questions to match the proficiency levels of learners.	
4.8	Providing positive/negative feedback to responses.	
4.9	Providing Corrective feedback.	
4.10	Providing elaborative/clarifying feedback	

TESOL (Selections of sections dealing with corrective feedback e.g. Allwright, R.L. 1975. 'Problems in the study of the Language Teachers' Treatment of Learner error')

Some Journal Articles

- a) Mehan, H. 1979, "What time is it Denise?" Asking known information question in class discourse, in Theory into Practice 1979, Vol. 18. No 4.
 - b) Kearsley, G.P., 1976, 'Questions and Question-asking in Verbal Discourse: A Cross-Disciplinary Review. In Journal of Psycholinguistic Research, Vol. 5., No. 4.
 - c) Chaudron, C. 1977, 'A Descriptive Model of Discourse in the Corrective Treatment of Learners' Errors', in TESOL Quarterly, Vol. 27, No. 1.
 - d) Chaudron, C. 1983, Simplification 'Input: Topic Reinstatements and their Effects on L₂ Learners' Recognition and Recall, in TESOL Quarterly, Vol. 17. No. 3.
-

The assumption underlying the preceding suggestions is that, as Long (1983) observes, instruction facilitates student-teachers' acquisition of the second language forms and functions. But, to make instruction more effective in teachers' colleges, teaching should as much as possible, be oriented towards developing communicative skills. Practical exercises in pairs or groups

should be provided. Lecturers should prepare communicatively oriented teaching materials. Some suggestions on the types of training 'activities' and 'procedures' that might be used will be discussed in the sections that follow.

9.4 TEACHER TRAINING ACTIVITIES

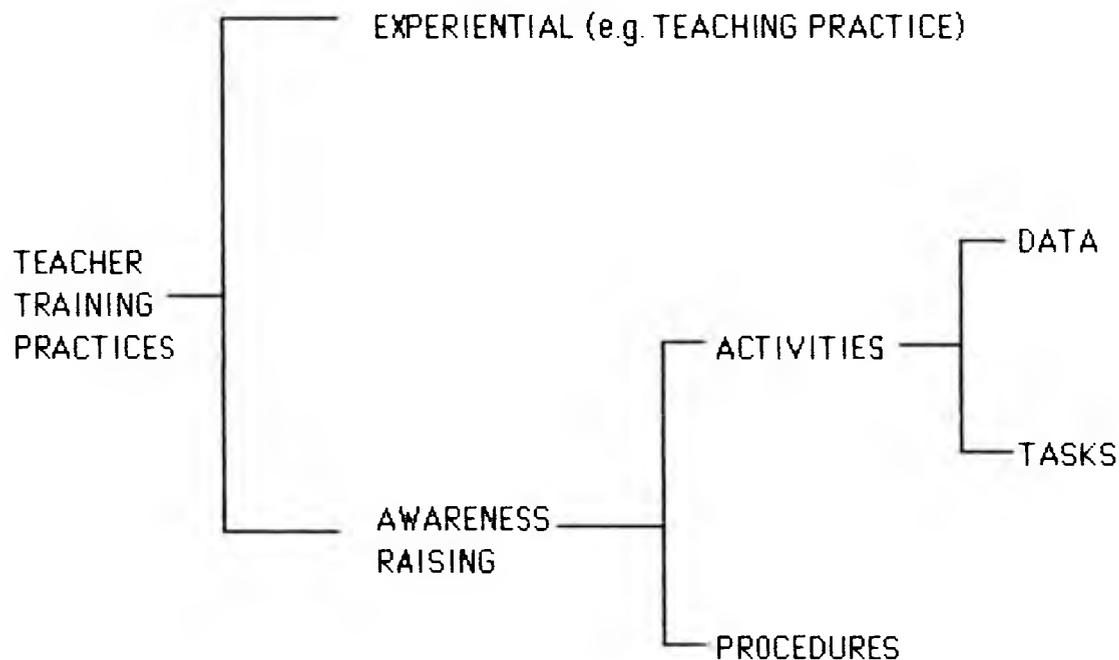
There is no guarantee that designing a communicative syllabus will result in teaching becoming communicatively oriented. Unless teacher trainers are aware of the activities that promote communicative competence, such a syllabus can be reduced to a simple structural one when it comes to be implemented in the classroom. It is for this reason that Johnson (1981) pointed out that the teacher is important when it comes to translating syllabus content into the realities of communicative teaching and learning. It is, therefore, necessary that teacher trainers should apply "training activities" and "training strategies" that are trainee- and communicatively-oriented. It is current practice to emphasise learning processes rather than content in language teaching. Widdowson (1984) emphasises this approach in his criticism of notional syllabuses and ESP. Richards (1985) makes a similar point when he claims that an instructional theory in language teaching should incorporate learning strategies and procedures.

It is in the context of such views that we can appreciate the emphasis that Ellis (1986) implies in his discussion on teacher training activities and procedures. Although he does not seem to offer any new ideas in the article he discusses these ideas, his presentation has a focus that emphasises training activities and procedures that are communicatively oriented. He divides them into two types - "experiential" and "awareness raising" activities. Experiential activities are realised in teaching practice, micro-teaching or peer-class teaching situations whereas "awareness raising" activities involve class discussion and lectures on communicative

activities that can be carried out in the lecture room. A diagrammatic illustration of these activities is shown in Table 14 below.

Diagram 14 An Outline of Teacher Training Practices

(Ellis 1986: 93)



By training activities, Ellis refers to the ELT material that the teacher trainer uses. These contain a number of tasks which trainees will be required to perform using data provided in the ELT materials.

The teacher trainer needs to be particular about the nature of the tasks he provides in each lesson as well as the 'procedures' of the methods he uses. Morrow (1981) and Ellis (1986) list some tasks which can be provided in a communicative class. Using these ideas, and those contained in the 'Assessment Instrument' used by Diploma and M.A. students in the ESOL department of the Institute of Education, University of London, to assess PGCE trainees, the researcher described tasks which teacher-trainers in Zimbabwe might use. The following were identified as the most suitable ones.

i) INFORMATION-GAP TASKS

These simulate or represent real-life communication in which one or more of the interlocutors - hearer/hearers - involved in the communication activity does not know what the other interlocutor - the speaker - knows. In such situations communication will involve conveying information from speaker to hearer which helps bridge the information gap existing between them. In Chapter six, we referred to these as informational communicative activities. We also noted that Widdowson (1972) and Littlewood (1977b) emphasise the importance of such activities.

ii) EVALUATIVE REPORTS

These can be based on any of the following:

- a book that one student or the whole class has read;
- a lesson observed during a micro-teaching session;
- a study of child behaviour in the classroom;
- a film shown to the student-teachers; and
- any other relevant topic.

During the reports, teacher trainers should encourage trainees to choose their own topics and to express themselves using linguistic forms of their own choice. Such freedom will enhance the trainees' confidence in their ability to give their own evaluative views without fear of being censured for giving wrong judgements or using unacceptable language forms. Morrow (1981) describes similar exercises calling them "choice processes" in which a trainee has the freedom to choose his own ideas and to express them in a personal discourse style.

iii) INFORMATION TRANSFER TASKS

Reference to such exercises was made in Chapter six in a discussion on process descriptions. Essentially, these exercises involve transcoding information from a diagram, a table or any visual source of information into a

spoken or written text and vice-versa. In a given task, trainees could be given material consisting of a map, say of a town or a country (see Willis, 1984). Student-teachers would then be required to give a description of the place or country. Such exercises encourage student-teachers to use specific language forms e.g. adverbials like, on the northern side, in the centre ...; near the ... etc. Alternatively, they can be required to read a passage describing a town and to draw a map that shows the places mentioned in the written text. Such exercises are particularly important since they involve the study of discourse strategies which trainees will be required to use when teaching Geography, History, Science and other subjects, including English.

iv) COMMENTARIES

Student-teachers can also be given English language teaching lesson plans to study carefully and then comment on their objectives, sequence of teaching steps and other relevant issues. Like the evaluative tasks suggested above, commentaries encourage student-teachers to form their own opinions and to express them in their own language.

v) LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION TASKS

In view of the fact that student-teachers are occasionally called upon to give metalinguistic descriptions of the forms of English, it is necessary to give them practice in doing so. Instead of the teacher trainer having always to explain the forms and functions of language e.g. passive forms, verb phrases, noun phrases etc., trainees can be asked to prepare presentations to their peers on such topics. This will not only enhance their skills in explaining, defining, and illustrating linguistic notions, but will also increase their knowledge of the language.

This can be varied by asking trainees to fill in work sheets; e.g. such as those provided for Diploma and M.A. students mentioned above, e.g. Exercise 5 on

language of instruction; exercise 8 on pair and group work for oral practice (Appendix K2) and exercise 9 'communicative teaching' (see Appendix K for structure of worksheets).

The teacher trainer should also make an effort to develop student-teachers' knowledge of language forms. These should be tied to communicative practice activities as suggested by Brumfit et. al. (1979). He proposes an approach which we can illustrate as follows:

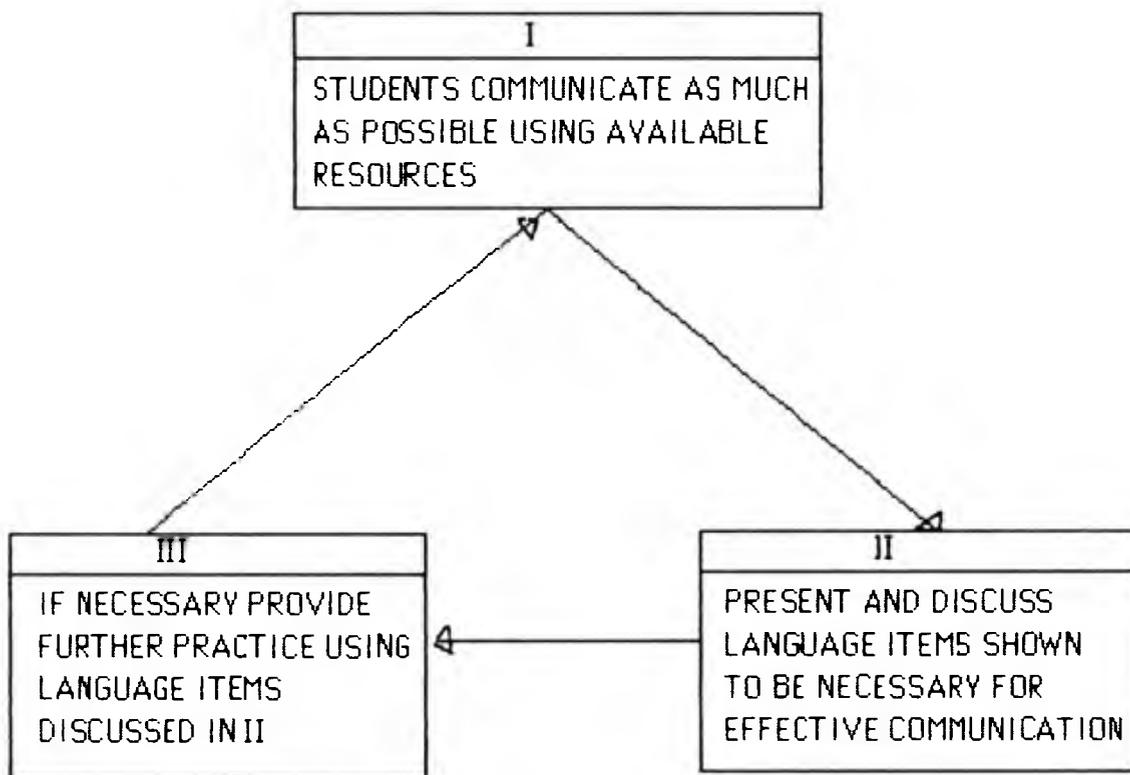


Diagram 15 A Communicative/Formal Teaching Model

This approach assumes that in Stage I, the teacher-trainer will provide ELT materials such as dialogue transcripts, which contain the language forms that will be discussed in Stage II. Practice in Stage III can be narrowed to focus on selected language items used in the transcripts whereas communication practice in Stage I is broader in that it makes use of other language forms that may not be selected for discussion in Stage III.

The tasks suggested here are by no means exhaustive. There are other types which can be devised on the basis of the need of different groups of trainees. It should however be re-emphasised that these activities focus on learning processes or activities which call upon student-teachers to use language forms although separate lectures on these should be systematically presented from time to time.

9.5 TEACHER TRAINING PROCEDURES

Procedures refer to the instructional strategies which teacher trainers use in order to create situations in which student-teachers practise the communicative use of language. Just as there is a wide variety of tasks that can be used in a teacher-training lecture room, there is also a wide variety of procedures that can be used. In some cases, it is difficult to distinguish between training activities and training procedures. However, the simplest distinction between these can be drawn by referring to training activities as student-oriented activities and training procedures as the teacher trainer's method of presenting ELT materials. What follows is an outline of some of the training procedures that a teacher trainer can use and a brief description of each.

i) Lecturettes

As suggested under sub-section 9.4, these will be prepared and presented by student-teachers. Such exercises provide practice in student-teaches expressing their own ideas. When they are required to present prepared material, they will be practising how to prepare and to present "planned discourse" and, when occasions arise in their presentations when they are required to re-explain, re-define or to illustrate their views, they will be required to do so through "unplanned discourse". This is an important exercise since, as we observed in the preceding chapters, student-teachers tend to avoid using language to explore meaning. It is hoped that practice in

unplanned discourse will enable them to think and to speak at the same time.

ii) Group/Pair Discussion

In such situations the emphasis should, as much as possible, be on unplanned discourse. The teacher trainer can provide a list of topics which student-teachers discuss in pairs or in groups. Alternatively, student-teachers can be left free to choose their own topics. It helps if in such exercises one of the trainees assumes the role of the knower and the other, of one who is ignorant about what the other is assumed to know. This will create a situation where information gaps will need to be filled in. In such situations, the teacher's role is reduced to that of onlooker. He merely supervises the discussion to ensure that trainees are performing the tasks expected of them. Intervention by the teacher trainer should be withheld until student-teachers ask for help.

iii) Class Discussion

In a class discussion session, the teacher-trainer assumes a dominant role. He assumes the role of the 'knower' and calls upon student-teachers to provide the information he elicits through his questions. After leading the discussion for a time, he should reduce his control by allowing trainees to question each other, dispute each other's ideas and give their own views. Occasionally, one trainee may tend to lead the discussion. The teacher trainer should allow this to happen. Such a reversal of the roles between the trainer and the trainees discourages the belief that the teacher trainer knows everything and that his views need not be challenged. As Ellis (1982) points out trainees or learners feel free to make use of all their language resources when they feel they are talking to their peers or to a teacher-trainer who will not censure them for their ideas or the manner in which they use language.

iv) Micro- or Peer-Teaching

These were classified under "experiential activities" by Ellis (1986). They are important in that they create situations in which student-teachers need to use language communicatively to achieve a certain goal. Depending on the intentions of the teacher-trainer, student-teachers can be required to teach parts of the lesson or the whole of it. Such session could be made more useful in terms of communicative learning if student-teachers engage in follow-up discussions involving a series of set questions such as those suggested by Cripwell and Geddes (1982). This would tie up with commentary tasks suggested in section 9.4

v) Panel Discussion

The researcher has used this method and found it to be very effective. Ellis (1986) also suggests it. Panel members are chosen from the group of trainees under instruction. They prepare material which they present briefly before the discussion is opened to the whole group. After each panel member has given his introductory talk, the other members of the group are invited to comment, ask questions or to disagree with the views expressed. The teacher trainer should act as a chairperson who guides and directs the course of discussion. At the end of the discussion, he or she should summarise the views expressed and, where necessary, elaborate or correct ideas and any misconceptions that might have arisen.

It is obvious from the discussion in the preceding sections that the emphasis is on teaching student-teachers how to use language communicatively. The emphasis on communication is based on the belief that one of the teachers major preoccupations is to encourage "interaction between teacher and child" and that through communicative interaction, they communicate meanings or are, as Tough (1980: 5) says, involved in the process of exchanging meanings.

9.6 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In the conclusion to this study, the researcher summarised the conclusions made in Chapters five, six, seven, and eight and compared them to his research hypothesis and aims. It was stated in Chapter one that the aim of this study was to analyse and to describe the language used by student-teachers and to determine the language rules that characterise it. It was also hypothesised that student-teachers' language consists of linguistic features that deviate so much from the target language that their communication through it is generally defective. From the discussion presented in preceding chapters we should be able to say whether the hypothesis is tenable or not and whether the researcher realised his research aims. At the same time, the researcher also makes some recommendations aimed to improve the state of language teaching in colleges of education in Zimbabwe. The recommendations made grew out of the findings of this study.

9.6.1 INTERLANGUAGE DESCRIPTION

The description provided in Chapters five, six, and seven and summarised in section 9.1 provided information that realises the researcher's descriptive aim of student-teachers' language. The descriptions specifically realise the researcher's operational aim which states that, among other things, the study should lead to a descriptive analysis of the formal and functional features of the language that student-teachers use in the classroom. It was observed from this description that student-teachers' interlanguage is characterised by formal features that can be classified into two general rule categories which the researcher identified as "Common" and "Interlanguage" rules. "Common Rules" were so labelled because they refer to rules that are commonly used by L₁ and L₂ speakers. In other words, these are rules which L₂ student-teachers use and which show grammatical and syntactical features that are identical to those used by native speakers of English. "Interlanguage rules" refer to a category that consists of rules which

student-teachers use and which do not share the same features with the utterances that native speakers normally use. To expedite his description, the researcher used grammatical headings to indicate the way in which either common or interlanguage rules systematically occur in student-teachers' language. These were also classified either as syntactical or stylistic rule categories.

More important, perhaps, was the need to identify the systematicity in which the rules occur in student-teachers' language. This called for a description of the linguistic environments in which some of these features occur or the consistent manner in which they occur in the discourse of one or more student-teachers. The descriptive aim was achieved by noting these systematic features and describing the environments and/or manner in which they occur (see Chapter seven). From this description, it is possible to tell the ways in which their language deviates from native speaker rules and those in which they are identical with them. The main purpose of this description was to determine whether the language which student-teachers use is communicatively effective or not. The conclusions made in this respect will be summarised below.

9.6.2 THE COMMUNICATIVE EFFECT OF STUDENT-TEACHERS' INTERLANGUAGE

In Chapter one, the researcher indicated that his study had been motivated by press reports that had suggested that the cause of a high failure rate in secondary schools in 1984 had been partly due to student-teachers' defective use of language. He also pointed out that the research had been motivated by his own observations of the ways in which student-teachers and learners use it in primary schools. These observations led the researcher to hypothesise that student-teacher language deviates so much from the target language that their communication through it is generally ineffective (see sub-section 1.2.2). Basing himself on findings discussed and conclusions made in Chapters

five and six, the researcher made the general conclusion that the language used by student-teachers and learners shows some formal/functional deviations that cause miscommunication at certain times but does, on the whole, enable them to communicate easily with each other in a majority of cases (see Chapter six). What appeared to the researcher, before the analysis, to be miscommunicating utterances, were, after the analysis, found to be special features of the classroom spoken interlanguage that both student-teachers and learners understand and use effectively. They, in fact, use a variety which is generally comprehensible to them but which an outsider may consider communicatively defective. Such a variety has the power to communicate in its own way.

The question as to how communication becomes possible in such situations can be partly answered by reference to Brumfit (1984). He quotes Howatt (1984) who observes that people do not, strictly speaking, understand what people say, but understand what they mean (Brumfit, 1984: 41). There is a case here for suggesting that both student-teachers and learners do not pay much attention to the structures of the utterances used, but rather to what is meant. The implication of this is that despite the deviations observed in student-teachers' and learners' classroom language, communication takes place between the participants. In this connection reference was also made to Hicks (1982) who observes that L_2 teachers teaching L_2 learners who share the same L_1 with them tend to understand each other more easily when they communicate through an interlanguage with which they are all familiar.

It was also observed that certain communication problems are not due to linguistic problems. The systematic frame of reference which consists of words, phrases, sentences and the meanings these convey may be clear and obvious to the participants in classroom communication but the objects or ideas they refer to, that is, the schematic frame of reference may not be

clear to the learners. In this study it was observed that miscommunication in certain cases was due to the disparities between the student-teachers' and learners' schematic frames of reference (see Chapter six). These observations led the researcher to change his original hypothesis since the results of the study, although not completely disproving the original hypothesis, revealed that although the formal and functional features of the classroom language used by L₂ student-teachers in this study deviate from the target language in certain respects; miscommunicate certain ideas and is accorded 'low functional elaboration' in certain communicative contexts, it is generally capable of communicating most of their intentions. This conclusion refers specifically to student-teachers' language and not to that of the pupils.

It should be emphasised that although the researcher found student-teachers' language to be, on the whole, syntactically appropriate he admits that it contains a number of features that deviate from the target language. He also observes that there are occasions when it miscommunicates the intentions of its users and that it is generally accorded low functional elaboration (see Chapter six). By 'low functional elaboration' the researcher refers to situations in which language use is restricted to recall and naming questions that call for factual reproduction of previously learned material. Such processes were defined as involving the 'display' of knowledge by pupils. They differ from those processes which call for exploratory, reasoning and creative thinking processes which tend to involve the 'referential' use of language. It was inferred from the analysis in Chapter six that communication breakdowns in classroom talk tend to occur in situations where student-teachers use referential questions. It was also observed that limited knowledge about what is being talked about (that is, the schematic frame of reference) can lead to communication problems. It is not surprising, therefore, that although student-teachers and learners generally use language which is comprehensible to them, there are occasions when, as suggested in

Chapter six, communication breakdowns occur.

To facilitate communication at the schematic level, the researcher suggests that when teaching any subject content, teachers should ensure that the frames of reference for each lesson are accessible to them and the learners. This can be achieved by ensuring that key concepts in every lesson are clearly defined, explained and where possible illustrated using diagrams, pictures or specimens of the real objects. This enables learners to participate in class or group discussion by reducing what Barnes (1969: 27) calls the gulf between teacher and taught". It creates a situation where their perspectives are reciprocal in that they will be referring to the same set of objects or situations in their discussion.

The analysis also showed that the gulf between student-teachers' and learners' systemic and schematic systems can, to a certain extent, be bridged if the former use suitable L₁ or L₂ based communication strategies. Recent research reviewed in chapter three has shown the value of simplifying or modifying questions, explanations and other communicative discourse units in second language classrooms. Student-teachers should be taught how to simplify and adjust their questions and classroom talk to match the proficiency levels of the learners. They should also be made aware of how such linguistic devices like confirmation checks and clarification requests encourage teachers and pupils to negotiate meaning so that they can use these in their own teaching.

The observation that student-teachers' language is generally syntactically appropriate is no cause for teacher-trainers to be complacent about their teacher-training syllabuses. Other observations which require immediate attention were also made, namely, deficiencies in communicative situations which call for higher order thinking processes and the grammatical and

lexical choice errors that were observed in student-teachers' language. These observations compelled the researcher to suggest that there is a need to review teacher-training syllabus content and teacher-training approaches and learning activities. The need for such a review is further compelled by two factors. In a country like Zimbabwe, where English is used as a second language, the role of the teacher of English, who also uses it as a medium of instruction in other subjects, is akin to that of an L₁ teacher in that both have to stress both accuracy and fluency in their teaching. Such situations differ from foreign language situations where exposure to English is limited and the need for accuracy, less felt. In foreign language situations, instruction in other school subjects is usually in the learner's native language. This further reduces their exposure to it and the need for communicative accuracy and fluency.

The other reason is that since the model of instruction adopted in Zimbabwe is still L₁ rather than a local variety, student-teachers need to know more about the forms and functions of the target language. They also need to develop a high degree of communicative competence in the language. It was observed in Chapter seven that student-teachers' and learners' language has low functional elaboration in that domain variation especially in learner language is not realised (see 7.2.2.3). This necessitates the need to revise college syllabuses in such a way that they meet this and other communicative needs of both student-teachers and learners. Although this study does not suggest what should be taught in primary schools, it is hoped that when teachers are aware of the need to use language communicatively, they will also teach their pupils how to do so. This echoes the implication of the "reflexive principle" (see Britten, 1985) which suggests that student teachers tend to teach the way they are themselves taught; to give language learning activities that reflect what their teacher-trainers give them in college.

9.6.3 COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE COURSES

It was pointed out in Chapter one of this study that current teacher-training syllabuses in English are literature - rather than language-based. The other components of the course do also emphasise topics in the 'development of language in children' and teaching methods (see Appendix A). Having observed that there is a tendency to ignore the teaching of English language forms and functions which students at this level need, the researcher recommended the introduction of Language and Communication Courses in all the colleges of Education. He suspected that the use of literature-based syllabuses in second language situations improves student-teachers' confidence in the use of language but does not offer them a chance to understand and to appreciate the need for accuracy and the use of appropriate linguistic forms and/or patterns in given communicative situations. This does not, however, suggest that a language-based syllabus is a panacea for the errors student-teachers commit (see Chapter five) or for some of the communicative defects discussed in Chapter six, but it assumes, as some linguists like Lightbown (1983) have observed about the role of instruction in second language learning that instruction aids second language acquisition.

We can summarise their claims by stating that instruction in second language learning is important since it raises students' knowledge about the language and that as learning progresses, some errors gradually revert to accuracy. It was for this reason that in his suggested guidelines for syllabus design, the researcher included components that stress the study of both language forms and communication skills (see Diagram 12). The main aims of the Language and Communication Course suggested in this study were spelled out in sub-section 9.3.

It was also noted in section 9.2 that a review of syllabuses does not guarantee that syllabus objectives will be realised. We cannot, for instance,

assume that because the objectives of a syllabus stress the teaching and development of communication skills that these will automatically be realised. We need to ensure that the 'training methods' used and the 'training activities' introduced by teacher trainers have the potential to develop the communicative skills desired. Therefore, besides revising college syllabuses, the researcher further suggests that specific steps should be taken to ensure that teaching and learning processes in the colleges are reviewed as suggested below.

9.6.4 TRAINING 'PROCEDURES' AND 'PROCESSES'

Syllabus design and the statement of learning procedures and processes are interdependent activities (Richards, 1985). Learning procedures and processes suggest how syllabus content should be treated by the teacher and the learners respectively. In most colleges of education in Zimbabwe we have got to a stage where training procedures and processes are treated as synonymous activities that are outlined in the syllabus without explanatory notes (see Appendix A). Usually the course objectives and content outlined in such syllabuses are rarely effectively achieved simply because the training procedures and processes used by the college lecturers are not geared towards the attainment of the skills outlined in the syllabus. In section 9.2., the researcher outlined some of the procedures and learning activities they can apply.

The researcher believes something more than a mere outline of suggestions is needed to improve the situation. It is his view that what is needed are teaching materials that are specifically prepared to meet the student-teachers' needs. The position at the moment is that teacher-trainers are expected to develop their own ESL material. Since some lecturers have no training in ESL teaching nor are they trained to produce the required material, some colleges use materials that are not suitable at all. Some of these do not

even offer practice in the use of language and some are too advanced for primary school student-teachers to use (see Appendix L). Because of this, the researcher suggests that besides carefully selecting and using materials produced in other countries, college lecturers should be given assistance in producing their own.

9.6.5 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT-TEACHERS' LANGUAGE AND THE TEACHING STRATEGIES THEY USE

One of the researcher's aims stated in chapter one was to investigate the relationship between teaching strategies and the functional types of the language they use. Such relationships were conceived in terms of the associative co-occurrence of the functional language typologies and the teaching strategies that were identified from the lessons analysed. The analysis of linguistic data reported in chapter eight reveals two common types of teaching strategies, namely, utterances used to elicit factual/recall information and those used to elicit descriptive/narrative responses. We also find, in the latter category, discourse units intended to elaborate or clarify concepts or pupils responses.

It was also observed that such linguistic functions tended to be more commonly associated with one of the main teaching approaches discussed in chapter eight. In situations where the 'recitation' method was used, there was greater use of discourse units that serve to 'display' knowledge. That is the elicitation and response utterances focussed on the recall, naming, labelling and enumeration of facts. And, in situations where 'recitation with elaboration' was used as a method, the communicative focus of student-teachers' utterances served to clarify and to elaborate pupils responses and key concepts. On the basis of these observations, the researcher underlined the fact that referential questions encourage genuine communicative use of language than do display questions. In Chapter eight,

higher order thinking processes were found to be associated with the use of elaborative discourse chunks. These findings led to the conclusion that certain linguistic patterns and functions in the classrooms studied tend to be used in association with certain teaching methods.

The issues discussed from sub-section 9.3.1 to 9.3.6 constitute the major conclusions of this study. They are directly related to the research hypothesis and aims outlined and discussed in Chapter one. In the next two sub-sections, we shall deal with what the researcher considers to be the main implications of the study. Although these are not directly related to the research hypothesis and aims, they are important in that the first one ensures that the findings of this study benefit other teachers in the country. And, the second one is intended to ensure that the implementation of recommendations made above is effectively monitored by the Associate College Centre of the University of Zimbabwe in which the researcher works.

9.6.6 INSERVICE COURSE PROGRAMMES

The findings discussed in this study were based on data collected from eighteen student-teachers. Every effort was made to ensure that the sample was representative of the student population (see Chapter four). In the absence of similar studies in this area, the researcher is inclined to believe that all practising qualified teachers in Zimbabwe who have gone through the same training colleges represented in this study, reveal similar linguistic features and deviations in their spoken discourse. In order to improve the quality and effect of spoken language among serving teachers in the country and to improve their knowledge about the forms and functions of English, the researcher recommends that inservice courses (INSET Courses) should be mounted in every region. Colleges of Education in conjunction with the

Teacher Education wing of the Ministry of Education and the University should co-ordinate such courses.

To make them effective, such courses should be carefully planned and properly structured on the basis of the broad suggestions discussed in sub-section 9.2 of this study. Since such courses are usually held during school holidays for periods of about two or three weeks, the researcher believes these can be effective if they are planned to cover a duration of at least one year, that is, about eighteen weeks of full time attendance at nominated centres. Specially prepared distance teaching material can also be provided to help teachers work on their own during their spare time. As an incentive to the teachers, 'Certificates of proficiency in English' should be awarded to those who successfully complete their inservice courses. Such certificates should be recognised for promotion purposes as well as for admission into such courses as the B.Ed. degree of the University of Zimbabwe. The researcher believes this will motivate those serving teachers who are often reluctant to pursue inservice courses that offer them no financial or academic advantages.

9.4.7 THE ROLE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ZIMBABWE

Since all colleges of education in Zimbabwe are associated to the University of Zimbabwe, it is necessary that as a guardian of academic standards in these colleges, the University should produce general guidelines similar to those discussed in sub-section 9.2 to assist college lecturers design their syllabuses. This does not in any way militate against the academic autonomy that colleges are supposed to enjoy. It merely attempts to ensure that each college works within syllabus parameters that meet the professional as well as the academic needs of student-teachers. The danger in not supplying such guidelines is that colleges that are staffed by lecturers who have no special training in ESL are likely to suffer. Their students are not likely to follow

courses that prepare them effectively to use English and to teach it in their classrooms. As suggested in preceding paragraphs, the guidelines should not be detailed. They should leave room for individual lecturers to suggest what content they would like to teach in order to achieve the general objectives of the course.

In order to ensure that college lecturers are aware of the aims, content guidelines, teacher-training procedures and activities suggested in the guidelines provided, workshops and seminars involving college lecturers and members of the Associate College Centre of the University of Zimbabwe, should be held frequently. The purpose of such workshops would be to discuss syllabus-related issues and how to implement them, the selection of teaching material and the production of relevant teaching material by college lecturers.

The current practice of inviting external examiners to assess teacher training programmes and examinations should be continued. At least one of the external examiners the University invites should be a specialist in ESL teaching. S/he should be able to advise on how to improve syllabuses and how to implement them; give advice on the choice of relevant ESL teaching material and the production of new ones. This will ensure that both University and college lecturers keep in touch with the most recent ideas and developments in ESL.

Finally, the researcher believes that further research in this area needs to be carried out. It was clear from the findings and discussions in this study that there is a need to compare student-teachers' spoken and written language. Their spoken language needs to be studied at two levels:

- i) spoken discourse as it is used in the classroom;
- ii) spoken discourse as it is used outside the classroom.

This could not be attempted in this study since the focus was on discourse patterns, language forms and their functions in classroom communication. In other words, the research purposes for this study were so specific that the researcher could not stretch his analysis and discussion beyond the classroom situation.

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APPENDIX A

- A1: APPLIED EDUCATION SYLLABUS
- A2: MAIN SUBJECT SYLLABUS

APPENDIX A - College AA1. APPLIED EDUCATION - LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION ENGLISH SYLLABUSAIMS OF THE COURSE

I In his/her role of teaching English as a second language (L₂) the teacher should:

- i) possess sufficiently sound knowledge of the principles that underlie teaching of English as a second language, and ever-changing implications of this for Zimbabwean schools.
- ii) have sufficient "open" philosophy of language teaching to function adequately in the face of ever-changing ideas.
- iii) have a good grasp of the range of L₂ teaching methods in current use.
- iv) appreciate adequately the role and nature of English as a second language in the realities of the Zimbabwean primary school.
- v) understand the principles guiding the teaching of reading in the primary school, and have a good grasp of methods suitable for teaching reading.

The teacher should also have some knowledge of teaching English as a first language, for example the enrichment programmes which may be carried out, and suitable methods for teaching reading and writing when English is L₁.

2. APPROACHES

- i) Lectures
- ii) Discussions
- iii) Individual research
- iv) Assignments
- v) Peer group teaching
- vi) Micro teaching
- vii) School visits

viii) Distance education

3.0 CONTENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

3.1.1 The nature and functions of language.

3.1.2 Language acquisition in L₁ and language learning in L₂.3.1.3 The general rationale behind the aims and methods of L₂ teaching/learning; the principles of L₂ teaching/learning.4.0 SPEAKING AND LISTENING

Column I

4.1

Consonants and vowels in English; word and sentence stress; intonation and rhythm; existence of various acceptable accents, e.g. American, Scottish, Zimbabwean.

4.2 Contrastive analysis of English sounds, stress, etc., with Ndebele/Shona sounds, etc; mother tongue influence in L₂ learning and usage.

4.3 Fluency and clarity; ability to choose suitable language to communicate with children and adults; need for grading of language material.

Column II

Practical work for classroom

Student knowledge and competence
Listening skills
e.g. discrimination between sounds;
listening games; peer teaching.

- 4.4 The art of story - telling and story - reading (aloud). Choice for age level level
- Exploiting story- telling techniques and skills for L₂ e.g. teaching language items.
- Dramatisation of stories.
- Peer teaching.
- 4.5 Use of Radio and tape-recorder to practise learning and speaking.

5.0 THE TEACHING OF READING

Student knowledge and competency

Practical work for the classroom

- 5.1 The importance of reading in the life of the school child.
- 5.2 Definitions of reading and reading as a process.
- 5.3 Principles guiding the teaching of reading, in English as L₁ and L₂.
- 5.4 Getting ready to read, e.g. skills of visual discrimination, left-right orientation, oral language
- Peer teaching using Reading Readiness material.
- 5.5 Basic methods, e.g. whole word, sentences, phonic.
- Peer teaching (mini-lessons only) to try out methods.
- 5.6 Treating reading as part of the whole language teaching/learning situation.

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|------|--|---|
| 5.7 | Preparation for a new story, e.g. forecasting. | |
| 5.8 | Preparation for oral reading (pattern reading). | |
| 5.9 | Purposes of silent reading. | |
| 5.10 | Activities following reading of a passage, e.g. questioning (oral or written comprehension questions), summary, dramatisation, personal response (e.g. in art, drama, mime or written form). | Peer teaching of small segments of the lesson or micro-teaching in schools.
Devising questions based on graded reading material. |

6.0 THE LANGUAGE LESSON (L₂)

Student knowledge and competency

Practical work for the classroom

- | | | |
|-----|---|---------------------------------------|
| 6.1 | The principles for the preparation, grading, selection and use of language structures or sentence patterns for the different age/grade levels in the primary schools. | |
| 6.2 | The structural-functional approach. Discussion of relevant sections of Primary School Syllabus. | |
| 6.3 | The situational approach for teaching both lexis and structures; situational drills; situational dialogues; the use of role play and drama. | Peer teaching or practice in schools. |
| 6.4 | Substitution tables. | |
| 6.5 | Some language games. | |

- 6.6 Some common problems in the basic structures and sentence patterns, especially in the students' own speech or writing.

7.0 LESSON PLANNING AND PREPARATION AND SCHEMING

Student knowledge and competency

Practical work for the classroom

- 7.1 Objectives
- 7.2 The ½ hour language lesson.
- 7.3 The hour language lesson.
- 7.4 Lesson plans based on available text books and class readers; also on C.D.U. material.
- 7.5 Schemes of work. Integration of oral, reading and written work.

Practice teaching with small numbers of children.

8.0 WRITTEN LANGUAGE

Student knowledge and competency

Practical work for the Classroom

- 8.1 Over-view of the nature and role of writing, in the context of L₂ teaching/learning; objectives given by DUELS.
- The place of writing in conjunction with the other three skills in language.
- 8.2 Basic writing skills, including the teaching of spelling and the role and correct use of punctuation and paragraphing.

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|--------------------|---|--|
| 8.3 | Purposes and use of controlled writing: use of sentence building and completion substitution tables, frames and diagrams, model paragraphs etc. | Peer group teaching to practise techniques.
Mini-lesson plans. |
| 8.4 | <u>Guided</u> writing; weaning the children from controlled writing to the first steps in free writing. Skeletons. Anticipating sentence patterns or vocabulary needed. Picture sequence. | |
| 8.5 | How to encourage creative thinking and writing (compare possibilities in L ₁). | |
| 8.6 | Different types of composition, e.g. narration, description, explanation, letters, etc. | Planning controlled guided and freer writing on the same topic for different groups. |
| 8.7 | Principles guiding the choice of topics for children, including child's language ability. | |
| 8.8 | Principles underlying the marking and correction of children's writing in L ₂ .
Analysis of errors. | |
| 9.0 <u>READING</u> | | |
| 9.1 | Phonics:
Sounding the consonants and vowels blends, diagraphs, etc. | Making of booklets with phonic groupings. |
| 9.2 | Reading materials: "Lady bird" (Longmans), "Ventures" (Mambo), etc. Different approaches. Choice of | |

passages and questions for comprehension.

Reading for a specific purpose.

Preparation of supplementary reading material, including writing of stories by students.

- 9.3 Methods of attack on unfamiliar words
(continued): visual clues, phonic analysis, structural analysis, context clues, dictionary skills.
- 9.4 Assessment of children's reading and individual reading records.
- 9.5 Reading groups.
- 9.6 Remedial reading: diagnosis of reading problems; correction of faulty habits; material for slow readers. Lesson plans, including provision for slow, average and fast readers.
- 9.7 Encouraging extensive reading.
Children's reading interests.
- 9.8 Some different approaches for reading in L₁ English classes, or where more than one class text is available, e.g. cyclic reading.
- 9.9 Reading of poetry and plays.

10.0 THE EVALUATION OF RESOURCE MATERIAL

- 10.1 The new syllabus for grades 4 - 7.
Other sections of the syllabus.
- 10.2 Principles governing the evaluation of school text books.

- 10.3 Selection and adoption of material from textbooks and the C.D.U.
- 10.4 The appropriate use of Teacher's Guides.

11.0 EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT

- 11.1 Written assignments:
Practical and task-related assignments on principles and appropriate teaching techniques for specific aspects of English, mainly as a L₂, with heavy emphasis on conditions in Zimbabwe. These will be marked by the tutor.
- 11.2 At least four selected major assignments will be presented for final assessment.

APPENDIX A - College BA2 MAIN SUBJECT: ENGLISH SYLLABUSGeneral aim of the course:

To assist in the personal development of students, mainly through their growing academic competence in English, and, in so doing, to contribute to their professional evolution as teachers.

Specific objectives of the course:

1. that students should be able to express and communicate ideas clearly in both written and oral forms;
2. that students should extend their reading competence in the areas of comprehension, deduction, critical appreciation and interpretation.
3. that students should, through the enjoyment and study of literature, gain greater insight into themselves and human society, and develop sensitivity to and awareness of others;
4. that students should develop the habit of reading literature for pleasure, with the further aim that they will continue reading after they have left college, thus deepening their understanding and enjoyment of life;
5. that students should develop their imaginative powers and creative abilities in forms of expression related to the subject;
6. that students should extend their linguistic competence through increased understanding of the structures of English and their functions.

THE COURSEYear One

1. An introduction to the critical study of the main genres of literature; the novel, drama, poetry and the short story.
2. Literature: mainly African, but some English writers will also be studied. Novels, short stories, poetry and drama for discussion and literary appreciation. Some African novels for wider background reading. Novels by popular English writers to encourage enjoyment of reading and increase facility in use of language.

4. Creative writing, especially the short story.

5. Books

i) Novels: "The Concubine" (Amadi); one novel by each of the following:
Achebe, Ngugi and Wyndham.

ii) Drama: "The Black Hermit" (Ngugi).
"Oedipus the King" (Trans. K. McLeish).

Selections from "Ten One-Act Plays" (ed. Pietersen).

iii) Short Stories: Selections from "More Voices of Africa" (ed. B. Nolen),
"Modern African Prose" (ed. Dathorne and Feuser) and
"Forty Short Stories" (selected J. Reid).

iv) Wider Reading from "African Writers Series", "Song of Lawino"
(D. p'Bitek), "Modern Poetry from Africa" (ed. Moore and Beir).

and at least three modern, well-written novels by popular European
writers.

Year Two

1. Further development in the critical appreciation of literature, mainly in
the 20th Century, with a choice between two electives. (An individual
area will also be chosen by each student at the end of they year for study
in Third Year).

ELECTIVE A: Some themes in Twentieth Century literature.

ELECTIVE B: i) practical drama: acting and stage production.

ii) the study of plays, including African.

2. Essay writing and seminar papers on literature and life.

3. Creative writing, especially drama or poetry, according to students'
interests.

4. Oral communication.

ELECTIVE A: SOME THEMES IN TWENTIETH CENTURY LITERATURE1. THEMESTHEME (1) : Man in Society

The students will read and discuss:

a) 'A Man of the People' (C. Achebe).

'The Interpreters' (W. Soyinka).

Focus will be on such aspects as the authors' criticism of society, the problems of cultural change, integrity and corruption in public life, and characterisation.

b) 'The African Child' or other novels on traditional society for comparison with (a).

c) 'The Grapes of Wrath' and 'An Inspector Calls' (play) or another novel or play, to compare an author's treatment of other societies and their problems with (a).

d) 'Nineteen Eighty-Four' or 'Animal Farm' or 'The Chrysalis' to provide an author's message about the society of the future.

e) The use of satire in some of the above novels.

The themes will lead to general discussion of society of the past, present and future; also a brief study of mass media.

THEME (2) : Human Relationships

Reading and discussion of:

a) 'Sons and Lovers' (D.H. Lawrence) OR a novel by G. Greene or D. Lessing.

This will be interspersed with speeches, lecturettes, reading aloud and some pieces of general written work not connected with drama.

Year Three

A continuation of the critical appreciation of literature, through the two electives begun in second year, and through the study of a special field.

1. ELECTIVES (Both electives will include the structure of the novel or play and the method of telling the story).

and the method of telling the story).

Elective A : Second year themes continued (may go into 19th Century also). Reading and discussion of:

- a) One novel by Laye, Beti or Mungoshi. One novel by Lawrence, Greene, Dickens or Austen.
- b) Play: One play by Priestley, Shaw, Wilde or Soyinka.
- c) Poetry : Selections with emphasis on themes.
- d) Where relevant, comparison will be made of the different treatment of the same theme by the author, including differences in attitudes, values feelings and ideas.

or Elective B

- a) Read one novel by an African author, e.g. Achebe, and one novel by a European, e.g. Greene. Write a script based on a scene from the novel.
- b) Study and write a radio script.
- c) Play : One play by Priestley, Shaw, Wilde or Soyinka.

2. SPECIAL FIELD (Suggestions)

Short stories: African drama; an African or European novelist, e.g. Achebe, Laye, Beti, Greene or Lawrence; the detailed study of a novel; a theme in literature (different from student's second year work); a period, e.g. African literature of the 1960s; a comparison of L₁ and L₂. The work may include a short treatise. The student's choice will necessarily be limited by the availability of tutors and material, and its relevance in fulfilling the aims of the course.

3. Oral and written communication and creative writing.

ALLOCATION OF CONTACT TIME

Three hours per week except during Teaching Practice (includes approx. 8 weeks in 3rd year).

FIRST YEAR

Up to 50% of time for lectures and tutor 'input'.

Remainder of time for group discussion, tutorials, workshops and other practical work.

SECOND YEAR

20% to 30% direct tutor 'input'.

Rest of time for seminars, group discussion, tutorials, workshop and other practical work.

THIRD YEAR

Direct 'input' will depend on individual requirements of students, especially in their Special Field. Most contact time will be spent on group work and individual tutoring.

ASSESSMENT

Assessment will be through course work, special study, and final examination.

Coursework during the first two years is to be treated largely as developmental and diagnostic and, in the main, not as suitable for assessing the terminal achievement of the student.

The present intention is that the three areas of assessment, coursework, special study and final examination will carry equal weighting. Details of procedure will be worked out with external assessors.

APPENDIX B

THE TEACHING AND FUNCTIONS OF ENGLISH,
SHONA AND NDEBELE IN THE EDUCATION
SYSTEM IN ZIMBABWE

APPENDIX B

ROLE	P.G.		S.F.		S.F.		S.F.		POLY.C.	T.T.	UNIV.
	1-3	4-7	1-2	3-4	3-4	5-6	5-6				
Shona as a medium of instruction	- +	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ndebele as a medium of instruction	- +	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
English as a medium of instruction	-	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Shona as a subject	X	X	X	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-
Ndebele as a subject	X	X	X	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-
English as a subject	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	-
Shona as an optional subject	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	X	X	-	X
Ndebele as an optional subject	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	X	X	-	X
Shona as an entry requirement	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ndebele as an entry requirement	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
English as an entry requirement	-	-	X	X	X	*X-	X	X	X	-	X

* Depends on what the student chooses to study

- + Current official policy is that English should be used as a medium of instruction. In future, these languages will replace English at all grade levels.

P.G. Primary Grade

S.F. Secondary Forms

POLY.C. Polytechnical Colleges

T.T. Teacher Training

APPENDIX C

STUDENT TEACHERS' VIEWS ON THEIR
LEARNERS' PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH

APPENDIX C

A. VIEWS ON LEVELS OF PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE AND ITS USE IN THE CLASSROOM

It was not possible to get the views of all student-teachers on these topics. Some students were not able to present themselves for the interview because of pressure of work. Ten student-teachers were available for the interview.

The interviews were structured and centred around the following questions:

- i) How do you ensure that language is learnt in every subject (i.e. Language Across the Curriculum)?
- ii) Do you as a teacher have any problems with the use of English in the classroom?
- iii) Do pupils have any special problems with the use of English in the classroom?
- iv) What did you mean by the following sentences?

(These differed according to the sentences observed in each lesson). Student-teachers were requested either to explain, in English, the meaning of sentences quoted or to give their Shona translations.

B. SUMMARY OF VIEWS ON QUESTIONS (a) to (c)

i) "Language Across the Curriculum"

Student-teachers' views on this subject were found to be narrow. For them, language across the curriculum was limited to ensuring that in every subject, learners should use grammatically correct structures; that they (the student-teachers) should ensure that the language used is correct by correcting grammatical and pronunciation errors whenever these were committed. This attitude led student-teachers to insist on the use of correct sentence responses in every lesson. As one student-teacher put it, learners

should "practise to make correct full sentences in every lesson". It was obvious from the student-teachers' views that the emphasis in the schools is on "accuracy" rather than "fluency".

Mention was also made of group work in every subject. Pupils were encouraged to use English when talking to each other. Asked if pupils are encouraged to use English outside the school and at home, student-teachers expressed the fear that if pupils use English at home some parents may not like it because they themselves cannot speak English. As a result pupils tend to use English at school and Shona at home. They of course use English when they speak to each other at play or when they meet visitors who cannot speak Shona. In urban areas, student-teachers pointed out that some parents use English with their children at home, but some, even the educated ones, prefer to use Shona at home.

ii) Student-teacher related language problems

No student-teacher interviewed admitted having any problems. They were all confident they are quite proficient in the use of English. Asked about their knowledge of the structures of English and certain grammatical items, most admitted that there were occasions when they found it difficult to explain certain grammatical structures. It was in this area that some student-teachers felt they needed help at college. One student-teacher pointed out that he had been reading a book that explained different types of nouns but he did not understand the terms used. The researcher got so interested that he asked the student-teacher to show him the book. The book was Scott, F.C. et al (1968) English Grammar, A Linguistic Study of its Classes and Structures, H.E.B.

Although they felt that their spoken language was generally satisfactory, all those interviewed admitted having problems when explaining, defining or illustrating concepts. Some pointed out that it was not because their

language was bad that they had encountered these problems, but that explaining and defining language items to pupils required special skills. Some interesting views given on this topic include:

- a) "From secondary school experience ... most student-teachers know what definitions are and how they should be given, but doing it from a professional point of view, when one is teaching, is a different thing."
- b) "Although I have a good idea of what a definition is, I need to be helped to present these when teaching. For instance what do I do when my definition has not been understood?"
- c) "I sometimes find my explanations and definitions too vague. The problem is that I sometimes give long definitions which pupils cannot remember".
- d) "I sometimes get confused when I explain something or how a thing works. Even when it is a simple thing, I find that explaining it to a class may confuse me".
- e) "I think I need to study more about the language needed for defining and illustrating a rule so that pupils can get the correct meaning."

The researcher was impressed by the frankness of all the student-teachers' responses to this question.

iii) Learner-oriented Language Problems

In response to question A (iii) above, student-teachers informed the researcher that learners encounter a lot of language problems - both receptively and productively. Productively they are not able to express themselves clearly in English. Receptively, they do not always understand what the teacher means when he says something (NB English is used as a medium of instruction from grade 1 in Zimbabwe although, practically, teachers use it effectively as a medium of instruction from grade 3).

Comments related to pupils' problems in the use of English included the following:

- a) "The teacher and pupil fail to communicate with each other because the pupil does not use English correctly".
- b) "Because of their language problems, children do not understand everything which the teacher says".
- c) "Sometimes when I teach and give a test afterwards, I find that very few pupils understand what I was trying to explain. They get the wrong concepts because they do not understand the language that I use when I explain things to them".
- d) "If pupils do not understand the language being used, then they will not get what is being taught. They will fail to ask questions or give their own personal views ..."
- e) "If language is not well-structured pupils may fail to get what the teacher is trying to say. I sometimes make simple mistakes in grammar which make pupils fail to understand what I mean".

In the interviews, student-teachers gave the impression that all misunderstanding was due to pupils inadequate proficiency in L₂. They did not give the impression that there was anything seriously wrong with their own use of language.

iv) Correcting/Explaining Sentence Constructions used in Class

These were discussed as part of the follow-up based on information used in Appendix D.

APPENDIX D

SOME NOTES ON CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

i.e. SAMPLE NOTES

D1 EXPLANATORY NOTES

D2 SAMPLE NOTES

APPENDIX D

D1 CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

During each lesson, the researcher made notes on observations that needed following up in a discussion with the student-teacher concerned. Observations were made in the following areas:

- a) language structures used by student-teachers and pupils;
- b) Other linguistic issues that the researcher considered worth following up;
- c) Classroom organisation;
- d) Class and group activity;
- e) General classroom organisation;
- f) Class motivation and interest in English language lessons.

OBSERVATION SHEET

It contained no predetermined categories. Observation topics were noted only when they arose.

An example of the observation sheet is shown overleaf. On it, examples of observations made and the researcher's and student-teacher's comments are shown.

D2 SAMPLE NOTES

UNIVERSITY OF ZIMBABWE
ASSOCIATE COLLEGE CENTRE

ESL RESEARCH: Class ObservationNOTESGrade: SIXSchool: CHEMHONDOROProvince: MASHONALAND EAST

OBSERVATIONS	COMMENTS
<p>1. <u>Linguistic</u> <u>Pupil's Response</u> "We take a ruler and a string and measure the tin and tie the tin with the string".</p>	<p>1. <u>Researcher's question:</u> "Is this explanation clear or correct?" <u>Student-teacher</u> There is something wrong with the explanation when you examine the sentence. But if you ask the pupil to do it (i.e. do what he says), he will do it correctly. <u>Researcher</u> So, although the learner expresses himself vaguely, verbally that is, his idea is correct. <u>Student-teacher: Yes</u></p>
<p>2. Visual Aids</p>	<p>2. Effectively used. Reduced problems of schematic referencing since concrete objects were available.</p>
<p>3. Class Motivation. The class worked enthusiastically. Interest was high. Responses to questions were readily given.</p>	<p>3. I have encouraged the class to talk. They always want to say things in groups where they talk to each other. At times they use Shona when they talk to each other in groups.</p>
<p>4. Group sitting arrangement</p>	<p>4. As in most classrooms in Zimbabwe, group sitting is intended to facilitate co-operative work and pupil-pupil talk.</p>

APPENDIX E

SAMPLES OF STUDENT-TEACHERS' LESSON NOTES

E1 ENGLISH

E2 SOCIAL SCIENCES

E3 ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCE

E4 MATHEMATICS

E5 LESSON PLAN OF A GOOD, EXPERIENCED TEACHER

APPENDIX EE1Student No. 5School: RUGAREGrade: 6ADate: 8/3/85Subject : EnglishTopic : Tenses

- i) Future Tense
- ii) Past Tense
- iii) Present Tense
- iv) Perfect Tense

Objectives: Pupils should be able to construct sentences using common verbs in their correct tenses.

Aids:

- i) Work cards
- ii) Pictures

Resources : Day-by-Day English Course, pp. 76-77.

Methods/Activities:

- i) Class discussion: group work.
- ii) Acting as instructed by the teacher.
- iii) Answering questions.
- iv) Sentence construction using verbs in their correct tenses.

Evaluation:

E2

Student No. 6

School: MARIKOPO P. SCHOOL

Grade: 6B

Date: 29/2/85

Subject: Social Studies

Topic: A Balanced Diet

Objectives: By the end of the lesson, children should be able to list down the foods they should eat for them to have a balanced meal.

Aids:

- i) Social Studies by M.S. Machawira, pp. 18-19
- ii) Social Studies by Hawes and Colleagues.

Activities:

- i) Children come forward, pick up a food and then say to which group it belongs. e.g. protein.
- ii) Teacher defines the topic "A balanced meal".
- iii) In groups children paste pictures under these headings:
 - proteins
 - carbohydrates
 - vitamins
 - mineralsThese pictures must show a balanced meal.
- iv) Group leaders or a member of the group reports their work.
- v) In their books, children list down the foods they should have at lunch or supper or breakfast consisting of a balanced meal.
- vi) Children ask questions. Teacher asks one or two questions.
- vii) Teacher goes over the main points of the lesson.

Evaluation:

E3Student No. 12School: CHEMHONDORO SCHOOLGrade: 6CLESSON PLANSubject : Environmental Science.Topic : Water evaporates to form clouds and rain.S.O.M. : Pupils' text book: Enviro. & Agric. Science.Aids: Water Cycle ChartObjectives: i) Pupils should be able to describe the stages involved in rain formation.

ii) Pupils should state what makes water to evaporate.

Assumed Knowledge: Children know clouds and water and the sun.Introduction : Pupils observe what they see in the sky in their daily life.Lesson Development :Stage I

The teacher introduces to the pupil the chart of water cycle and discuss what they are observing.

Stage II

Pupils discuss the state of water before it evaporates.

Stage III

Pupils and teacher discuss how the water evaporates and what makes water evaporate.

Stage IV

Pupils and teacher discuss what happens when water evaporates up to the formation and falling of rain.

Stage V

A short discussion on water cycle

Stage VI

Pupils answer questions orally on water cycle

Early finishers

Carry out group discussion on what they had learnt.

Closure

The teacher and children help each other in answering some questions.

Evaluation:

E3Student No. 7School: BONDAMAKARAGrade: 6AAids: B/b Setwork, pieces of paper.Subject: Mathematics.Time: 30 minutes.Topic: Area of triangle.S.O.M.: New Ventures in Maths Gr. 6B.

Objectives: By the end of the lesson, Ch. should be able to work out the area of triangles in their textbooks and those on the b/b.

Introduction: Ch. will, as a class find the area of a rectangle on the chalk-board.

Lesson Development:

Step One

Ch. will find out the base and height of a triangle being shown to them by the teacher.

Step Two

The teacher tells them how to find the area of triangles and ch. will try to find the area of triangles on pieces of paper which the teacher will distribute to them.

Step Three

The teacher will ask children to tackle sums in their text books and those on the chalk-board into their exercise books.

Lesson Ending

All the books will be collected for marking and finally the class will discuss some of the sums that were giving them problems in solving.

Evaluation:

E5School: MUFAKOSE P. SCHOOLSubject : English

10.00 - 10.30

Topic : English Oral: Asking for directions and giving directions.S.O.M. : Notes on Workshop on Teaching English.Objectives: At the end of the lesson, pupils should know how to ask for directions and how to give directions.Aids : Work Cards.Introduction : Tr. will tell a story to show why it is good to speak well.Lesson Development :Step I

Teachers shows how to ask questions using Can....., Please.....can.....

Step II

The teacher shows how to give directions.

Step III

Pupils practise in groups. They use work cards prepared by the teacher.

Step IV

Further practice in the classroom.

Step V

Written exercise. Pupils write one question asking for directions and answer the question giving directions.

Evaluation

N.B. This lesson plan is for lesson shown in Appendix K2.

APPENDIX F

FREQUENCIES OF RECEPTIVELY ACCESSIBLE AND
INACCESSIBLE QUESTION UTTERANCES
ACCORDING TO THEIR FUNCTIONAL CATEGORIES

12	-	14	3	42	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	-	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-		
13	1	5	1	-	-	-	1	-	2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2		
14	-	6	-	20	1	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1		
15	-	-	-	5	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	-	3	-	-	1		
16	1	-	-	10	4	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1		
17	-	12	-	5	-	-	-	-	6	2	1	-	-	-	2	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2		
18	2	11	-	14	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
19	3	7	-	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1		
20	-	15	-	22	2	2	-	-	-	1	1	-	2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3		
21	-	-	-	5	1	1	-	-	6	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
22	1	19	-	5	1	1	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
23	-	-	-	37	5	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-		
24	-	-	-	13	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1		
TOTALS	17	0	116	7	309	36	27	0	167	19	69	2	48	0	3	7	14	14	11	11	6	12	2	12	0	4	30	5
%	100	0	94.3	5.7	89.6	10.4	100	0	89.7	10.3	97.1	2.9	100	0	30	70	50	50	50	50	33.3	66.7	14.3	85.7	0	100	85.7	14.3

TOTAL No. of Questions: 921
 No. of Display Questions: 863 = 93.1%
 No. of Referential Questions: 58 = 6.9%

APPENDIX G

NUMBER OF SYNTACTICALLY ACCEPTABLE QUESTIONS
ACCORDING TO STRUCTURAL CATEGORIES

The structural categories indicated in this appendix refer to the syntac/word-order of questions. They differ from the categories in Appendix F which are based on question functions rather than syntax. Some questions that appear in separate categories in Appendix F are combined in Appendix G. For instance, some naming/labelling questions are combined with 'how' and 'why' questions. This explains why it is not possible to reconcile the totals in the different categories in the two appendices.

FREQUENCIES	TOTAL	ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES RECORDED	UNACCEPTABLE RESPONSES RECORDED
WH QUESTIONS	338	338	-
YES/NO QUESTIONS	126	123	3
INDIRECT QUESTIONS	50		
REF. + PROP.	18	-	-
DIRECTIVES			
- ORGANISATIONAL	55	-	-
- INSTRUCTIONAL			
- SUGGESTIONS			
DECLARATIVE QUESTIONS	5	-	-

APPENDIX H

CORRECTIVE/APPROBATIVE REACTIONS

EXAMPLE OF ANALYTICAL PROCEDURE

CORRECTIVE REACTIONS

Rep. R.W.E. Appr. A.W.E. CM. P.A. LE.I. LE.N/I.

LESSON 2. English

- T Give me an adjective
 P Green
 P Small
 T Small --- yes?
 P Short
 T Short
 P Near

 T I want you to use these
 adjectives in sentences
 P This place is cold
 T Yes, this place is cold
 P The teacher is wearing
 a new dress.
 T Good The teacher is
 wearing a new dress.
 P Charity is the shorter
 girl in the class
 T No, we say "Charity is
 the shortest girl in the
 class because we are
 comparing many things.
 Two things shorter, one
 thing short. So say
 your sentence again.
 P Charity is the shortest
 girl in this class.
 T Good
 P Our garden is too long
 T Good, our garden is

X

X

X

X

X

X

X

too long

X

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T Now I want you to work on these cards in your groups

Read your sentences to the class. We start with group 1.

P Mary is wearing a red jacket.

T Good next group V

P My father's shoes are dirty

T Good sentences, group VI

P My new car is in the garage

T Good

T Now let's look at the sentences on the chalkboard. Fill in with the correct adjectives. Mary is

----- a girl.

P Mary is a young girl.

T I can see a ----- flower

P I can see his flower

No, "his" is a pronoun. We are using adjectives

T The teacher is a ----- dress

X

X

X

X

X

- P The teacher is wearing a pretty dress.
- T My father is a --- man
- P My father is a fat man
- T Good ... Zimbabwe is a --- country
- P Zimbabwe is a hot country
- T Good Zimbabwe is a hot country.

Key:

1. Rep - Reproof (Negative Feedback)
2. R.W. - Reproof with Elaboration
3. Appr. - Approbation (Positive Feedback)
4. A.W.E. - Approbation with Elaboration
5. C.M. - Character Model
6. P.A. - Presentation of Alternative
7. E.I. - Location of Error Indicated.
8. E.N.I. - Location of Error NOT Indicated.

APPENDIX I

ERROR CATEGORIES AND THEIR FREQUENCIES

APPENDIX J

NUMBER OF QUESTIONS THAT RECEIVED
FULL SENTENCE RESPONSES AND THOSE
THAT RECEIVED REDUCED OR ELLIPTED RESPONSES

i) TOTAL NUMBER OF QUESTIONS RECORDED:	557
ii) TOTAL NUMBER OF REDUCED RESPONSES:	237

$$\% = \frac{237}{557} \times 100 = 42.5\%$$

iii) TOTAL NUMBER OF FULL SENTENCE RESPONSES:	320
---	-----

$$\% = \frac{320}{557} \times 100 = 57.5\%$$

APPENDIX K

EXAMPLES OF TEACHER TRAINING ACTIVITIES
USED IN THE TESOL DEPARTMENT,
UNIVERSITY OF LONDON INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
SIMILAR WORKSHEETS CAN BE DESIGNED AS
GUIDELINES FOR DISCUSSION ACTIVITIES IN
COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

K1 COMMUNICATIVE TEACHING

K2 PAIR AND GROUP WORK FOR ORAL PRACTICE

K3 LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION

K1: COMMUNICATIVE TEACHING

1. Before the lesson, ask the PGCE trainee for a copy of the lesson plan.
2. Identify any communicative teaching/learning element in the lesson plan.
Focus your attention on these elements in the lesson.
3. Complete the chart below.

Description of activity	Communication content
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

Report

Place Class No. of students

Date Time lesson started ended

IT reaction

What are your reactions to this data on your lesson?

Do you think that this data is helpful to you as a teacher?

TTT Assessment

Do you think that this is a useful instrument? Give your reasons.

Is this a reliable instrument?

Is this a worthwhile instrument?

Any other comments?

K2

PAIR AND GROUPWORK FOR ORAL PRACTICE

1. Before the lesson, ask the PGCE trainee for a copy of the lesson plan.
2. Identify those elements in the lesson where the teacher intends to use pair or groupwork. Fill in details on these elements on the chart below.
3. During the lesson focus on these elements and complete the chart. If additional pair or groupwork is added use the lower section of the chart. If projected pair or groupwork does not take place, mark this on the chart.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

Language target Structure/Notion/ Function								
Pair or Group (P/G)								
T explanation								
T model								
T+S demonstration								
S+S demonstration								
Duration - P								
Duration - A								
Repetition - P								
Repetition - A								
T sample - No of pairs/groups								
Public check								
Repeat - duration								
Repeat - number								

See second copy of this chart on reverse side.

K3

LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION

1. Read Willis, J., (1982) Teaching English through English: Longmans; for categories of instructional language.
2. Ask the PGCE trainee for a copy of the lesson plan.
3. Complete the form below using information from the lesson plan.

Lesson plan

Activity	Instructional language	Willis category
1		
2		
3		
4		

Report

Place Class No. of students

Date Time lesson started ended

TT reaction (Trainee Teacher)

What are your reactions to this data on your lesson?

Do you think that this data is helpful to you as a teacher?

TTT Assessment (Trainee Teacher Trainer)

Do you think that this is a useful instrument? Give your reasons?

Is this a reliable instrument?

Is it a worthwhile instrument?

Any other comments?

APPENDIX L

EXAMPLE OF A READING LIST SUGGESTED
BY ONE COLLEGE FOR THE LANGUAGE
COURSE

LANGUAGE TEXTS RECOMMENDED BY SOME COLLEGES

- * Gimson, A.C. 1980 An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English: 3rd edn., London, Arnold.
- * O'Connor, J.D. et al 1973 Intonation of Colloquial English. 2nd edn., London, Longman.
- * Palmer, F.R. 1974 The English Verb, London, Longman.
- * Quirk et al 1972 A Grammar of Contemporary English, London, Longman.
- Scott, F.C. et al 1968 English Grammar. A Linguistic Study of its Classes and Structures, H.E.B.
- Stevens, P. 1977 New Orientations in the Teaching of English, London, O.U.P.
- Stevens, P. 1980 Teaching English as an International Language. Oxford, Pergamon Institute of English.
- Tiffen, B. 1969 A Language in Common, London, Longman.
- Wilkins, D.A. 1978 Second Language Learning and Teaching: London, Arnold Press.

NB Some of the books recommended for teacher trainees are not easy for them to use. e.g. those marked with a star (*).

APPENDIX M

SAMPLES OF LESSON TRANSCRIPTS

- 1 ENGLISH
- 2 SOCIAL STUDIES
- 3 MATHEMATICS
- 4 ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCE

FUNCTIONAL LABELS OF DISCOURSE ACTS

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) analysed classroom discourse using a "top-down" analytical system. It identifies:

- a) the lesson as a 'macrostructure'
- b) subdivisions of the 'macrostructure' under the following headings
 - i) transactions
 - ii) exchanges
 - iii) discourse acts.

Discourse acts were given functional labels; the major ones consist of:

- i) elicitations
- ii) responses
- iii) feedback or follow-up

Besides the functional labels (moves) Sinclair et al (op. cit.) also identified what they called focussing and closing moves which enclose or bound transactions, that is, exchanges through which interlocutors share ideas.

In this study, the researcher was not so much interested in a 'top-down' analysis of discourse as on the relationships between acts that comprise minimum exchanges, that is, the IRF structure.

SAMPLES PROVIDED IN THIS APPENDIX

The lessons given in this appendix were selected to:

- a) illustrate the functions identified for each discourse act;
- b) show some discourse unit structures that characterise student-teachers' interlanguage;
- c) illustrate the nature of student-teachers' spoken discourse;
- d) illustrate how errors were recorded on lesson transcripts.

Each of the four lessons was selected as a sample of the English, Social Studies, Environmental Studies and Mathematics lessons.

It should be emphasised that the main focus of the study was not on the 'top-down' analysis of lessons but on the formal and functional

relationships between "elicitations" and "responses", that is, between discourse acts.

The following symbols were used to identify the functions of discourse acts:

D:	Directive
I:	Initiation
I-D:	Initiation-Directive
I-OM:	Initiation functioning as an Opening Move
I-NOM:	Initiation followed by Nomination of the answerer
RE-I:	Re-initiation (i.e. repetition of question)
RE-I (D):	Re-initiation functioning as a directive
INF.:	Inform
INF.-OM:	Inform functioning as an opening move
INF.-FM:	Inform functioning as a focussing move
INF.-Sugg:	Inform functioning as a suggestion
INF.-CM:	Inform functioning as a closing move
R:	Response
F:	Feedback or follow-up
F/I:	Feedback that is immediately followed by an initiation
F-CM:	Feedback functioning as an initiation
NOM:	Nomination
EXH:	Exhortation
FM:	Focussing Move
INF-Dir:	Inform functioning as a directive

Identification of speakers:

T.: Teacher

- P.: Pupil
Ps.: Pupils
P-GL: Pupil-Group Leader
C.: Chorus/Class
Other Symbols
N/A: Not audible

The functions of the discourse acts indicated above were not pre-determined. The researcher outlined these after analysing the lesson transcripts. The decision to use these symbols was based on the researcher's desire to use simple clear symbols that teachers who have not received specialist training in discourse analysis can read and understand.

LESSON 1: ENGLISH

SEGMENT 1	RECORDED ERRORS	FUNCTIONAL LABELS
T. Can somebody read the words on the board?		I-OM
P. Have got.		R
T. Right, read together.		F/I
Ch. Have got.		R
T. Right ... The word 'have got' is often used to tell people what you must do. For example you can say "I must come to school early everyday".		F
Now, I would like you to give me your own sentences using "have got".		I
P. I have got a big pencil.		R
T. Right ... That's not correct. You are telling people what you must do. You are telling people what you must do.		F
P. I have got two pencils.		R
T. No ... Right ... now, here you are telling people what you must do. For example, "I have got to come to school early in the morning". Right?		F/I

- P. I have got to wash my body
every day. R
- T. Very good. F
- P. I have got to come to school
late everyday. R
- T. (Laughs) Okay ... next. F/NOM
- P. I have got to combed my hair
everyday. R
- T. Right. Next ... Eh ... that boy
said "I have got to combed my
hair everyday". F
Is that correct class? I
- Ch. No-o-o-o. R
- T. Right. Who can correct him? I
- P. I have got to comb my hair
everyday. R
- T. Right ... You can again use
"have got" to tell other people
what to do. For example "they
have got to water the garden
everyday". F-CM

SEGMENT 2

- T. Now, I want you to make your
own sentences. I-OM
- P. They have got to wash their
clothes everyday. R
- T. Right ... next one? F
- P. They have got to play football
everyday. R

P. They have got to wash their hands everyday.	R
P. They have got to eat oranges everyday.	R
P. They have got to write test everyday.	R
T. Is that correct class?	I
Ch. No-o-o-o.	R
T. Who can correct him?	I
P. They have got to write a test everyday.	R
T. Correct.	F
P. They have got to wash my clothes everyday.	R
T. Okay ... next?	F/NOM
P. They have got to come to school everyday.	R
P. They have got to brush their teeth everyday.	R
P. They have got to come to school early everyday.	R
T. That's very good. Next?	F/NOM
P. They have got to eat sadza everyday.	R
T. Right.	F-CM

SEGMENT 3

T. ... I would like you to tell me another word you can use in place of the "I" and "they".	Article	I-OM
---	---------	------

- P. Usually R
- T. Not usually. F
- P. We have got. R
- T. Yes, we can use the words "we have got". Can you make a sentence using "we have got to"? F/I
- P. We have got to greet our teachers everyday. R
- T. Yes, very good. F
- P. We have got to respect our parents everyday. R
- T. That's very good. Next? F/NOM
- P. We have got to pass our test everyday. R
- P. We have got to sing everyday. R
- P. We have got to play the ball everyday. R
- P. We have got to run everyday. R
- P. We have got to cook sadza everyday. R
- P. We have got to wash my body everyday. R
- T. Is that correct? I
- Ch. No-o-o-o. R
- T. Who can correct him? I
- P. We have got to wash our bodies everyday. R
- P. We have got to write neatly. R

T. Right, that's correct. Now,
 "we means they are many.
 So you can put the word
 in plural.

Nu

F-CM

SEGMENT 4

T. Now, who can read the words
 written in yellow chalk?

I-OM

P. Usually

R

T. Read together.

I

Ch. Usually.

R

T. The word "usually" is often
 used to tell people what to do.
 For instance, "I usually come to
 school early everyday". Now,
 class, I would like you to make
 your own sentences using the
 "usually".

Article

F/I

P. I usually wash my body everyday.

R

P. I usually come to school everyday.

R

P. I usually play netball everyday.

R

P. I usually eat my supper everyday.

R

P. I usually wash my face everyday.

R

P. I usually go to town on Monday.

I usually go to town ... I ...

I usually go to town on Monday.

R

T. Yes, at last!

F

P. I usually go to the river for
 fishing.

R

P. I usually come to school everyday.

R

P. I usually was the plates everyday.	R	
T. Right, ... now we have been using the "I usually".	Article	R

SEGMENT 5

T. I want you to use, now, "They usually"		I-OM
P. They usually coming to school late.		R
T. Is that correct?		I
Ch. No-o-o-o.		R
P. They usually come to school early.		R
P. They usually singing everyday.		R
T. Is that correct? ... Who can help him?		I
P. They usually sing everyday.		R
P. They usually clean their toilet.		R
P. They usually come early.		R
T. Now, we have been using "they usually", let us use "we usually".		F/I
P. We usually wash our hands everyday.		R
P. We usually eat sadza everyday.		R
P. We usually sleep in the evening.		R
P. We usually go to Musami every weekend.		R
P. I usually write handwriting everyday.		R
T. Is that correct class?		I

- Ch.No-o-o-o. R
- P. I usually write well everyday. R
- T. Yes.
- P. We usually sweep in the
classroom. R
- T. Is that correct? I
- P. We usually sweep the classroom. R
- T. Yes. Now see that these two
words "usually" and "have got"
are used to tell people what
we do. I-CM
-

SEGMENT 6

- T. Now, I would like you people to
give the sentences in any order.
You can begin by 'I', 'We', 'They
have got' or 'usually'. I-OM
- P. I usually write Mathematics
test every Friday. R
- P. I usually drink tea everyday. R
- P. We usually read everyday. R
- P. I usually wash my body everyday. R
- P. We usually go to school everyday. R
- P. I usually write ... I have to
write my name everyday. R
- T. Is that correct class? I
- Ch.No-o-o-o. R
- P. I have got to write my name
everyday. R

- P. I usually go to Musami for my weekend every Saturday. R
- T. Right, now you are going to write five sentences using "I have got" and five sentences using "usually". I-CM

COMMENTS ON LESSON

Subject : English

Teaching Objective : To enable pupils to use "have got to ... usually ..." in sentences.

Teaching Strategies : Emphasises the non-idiographic strategy which requires pupils to form sentences using the teacher's example as a model.

Steps in the lesson involve:

- a) The student-teacher giving an example.
- b) Pupils giving their own sentences.
- c) Correction when needed.
- d) Written work in exercise books.

Discourse unit structures :

Discourse structures vary from segment to segment and within each segment. There is, however a pattern or patterns that tend to predominate. These were identified as follows:

- i) IRF

These discourse structures occur within segments. This is the typical classroom discourse structure. i.e. minimum discourse structure that Sinclair et al. (1975) identified.

- ii) The minimum discourse structure (i) is modified in this lesson so that the second type $1R_1R_2...R_nF$ seems to be more typical of the student-teacher's discourse structure. There are occasions when a

third discourse structure

- iii) $IR_1R_2...R_n$ is given, that is, no immediate feedback is given.
- iv) There are also occasions when a series of responses is followed by an initiation as follows:
 $IRRRRIIR ...$
- v) We also find, within the segments, stretches of utterances that constitute structures such as the following: $IR_1R_2 ... R_nFR_1R_2 ... R_nF-CM$.

This suggests that an initiation is sometimes meant to elicit a number of responses.

The 'follow-up structure' sometimes consists of words like "Right ... Yes ... Good". These are sometimes followed-up by comments on the quality of the content of a response or the teacher's elaboration or reformulation of the response.

Nominating moves are sometimes general, that is, instead of calling upon learners by name, a general invitation to answer a question is given as in 'Good next!'

LESSON 7 : SOCIAL STUDIESTopic : Tribal Conflicts in Zimbabwe in the 19th Century.

	RECORDED ERRORS	FUNCTIONAL LABELS
T. Our topic today is social conflict. What do you understand by the word social conflict? What does it mean? It's something to with what ... Joyce?		INF-FM I RE-I RE-I/NOM
P. Our society.		R
T. Something to do with society ... Yes. Eh ... now ... eh... when this society does not agree with that one ... ; there is conflict. The South Africans do not agree with the ... eh ... the neighbouring countries; There is conflict. What do you understand by conflict? ... Mary?		F I NOM
P. Conflict is disagreement.		R
T. DIS ... agreement.		F
T. Now we want to look at social conflict within Zimbabwe. Last time we read about the coming of the Matebele and the White Man ...		INF-FM
P. Cecil Rhodes.		R
T. Cecil John Rhodes.		F

- T. Then there was some kind of oppression. I think this is no strange word. We had enough of it during the war. Oppression ...
Oppression ... I'm being oppressed.
There was some kind of oppression. INF
What do you mean by the word? I
What did they say in Shona? ... RE-I
Oppression?
- P. ... N/A
- P. ... N/A
- T. What forms of oppression did the Matebele bring? I
- Remember Lobengula and his followers?
What did they do we can call oppression? RE-I
- P. They took our women. R
- T. Yes, they took our pretty women. F
What else did they do? I
- P. They took our milk. R
- T. Yes, what else? ... Andrew? I/NOM
- P. They took our land and shared it with the White Man. R
- T. Yes, ... what else? Jenipher? F/I/NOM
- P. They killed ugly people. R
- T. Yes, what did they do to our rulers? F/I
Remember the great ruler who

- stayed in Zimbabwe? ... You? Lex. choice RE-I/NOM
- P. They killed our ruler who
stayed in Great Zimbabwe. R
- T. Yes, what was the name of the
ruler ... Yes? F/I/NOM
- P. Changamire. R
- T. Yes ... They killed Changamire.
That was a great king. They did
other things ... I will write just
one thing here. You will write
the other kinds of oppression. F
Now, let's talk about the coming
of Cecil Rhodes. Em ... Cecil Rhodes
... When did he come? I
- P. In 1890 R
- T. Yes. Did he come alone or was he
the first one to lead the group? I
- P. They came in a group. R
- T. Yes, and the group must have had
a leader. F
Can someone tell us the whole
story? RE-I (D)
- P. He first sent Robert Moffat to
come talk to the Shona chiefs ... R
- T. Tell us the whole story ... I-D
- C. ... (No response).
- T. Alright, someone to continue
... someone to take over ... RE-I (D)
What problems did he meet? I

- P. After he sent Robert Moffat,
he came to visit himself R
- T. What did they sign? ...
Albert? I/NOM
- P. Treaties. R
- T. Yes, two or more treaties.
What else did they sign? F/I
There is a town in this
country by that name. INF
- P. Concessions. R
- T. Yes, what concession do you
remember? I
- P. Rhodes Concession. R
- T. Rhodes? F
- P. Rudd. R
- T. Rudd ... Rudd Concession.
R - U - double D. F
What was agreed in that
concession? Lobengula signed it.
We do not know whether he
could read and understand it,
but he signed it. INF
- T. What was agreed? I
- P. He agreed to give land to the
Whites. R
- T. Ehe ... he allowed to give land to Lex. choice
the White people.
What else? F
Try to think everything. EXH
- P. ... N/A ... Searching for gold. R

- T. Say it all EXH
- P. Lobengula allowed them to search
for gold and ivory ... R
- T. Umm ... is that all? I
Somebody else? NOM
What is it that brought
oppression that was in
the concession? I
- P. They were the only ones to
look for minerals. R
- T. Yes, no other whites were
allowed to look for minerals
and because of that there
started some oppression. INF
What was this something on
oppression that happened at
Fort Tuli? I
- P. They put their flag. R
- T. Yes ... when you put your flag, Lex. choice F
What is the meaning of a
flag? I
- P. Independence. R
- T. Independence ...
It's challenge meaning you
want to take over the country.
They started putting their own
kings. Lex. choice F
Who were these kings? ... DCs? I
- P. District Commissioners. R
- T. What were the powers of DCs?

- P. To give people fields. R
- T. Yes ... they were no longer
ours. We could no longer plough
anywhere. What ... N/A. F
- P. They started collecting taxes. R
- T. Yes, where did these taxes go?
Gideon? NOM
- P. They went to the government. R
- T. Which government? I
- P. The British Government. R
- T. The British Government. That was
the other oppression. Our land
was taken; we were taxed and the
money sent to the the British
Government. F
- What other oppression? ... I
- think ... think ... think ... EXH
- Right, we shall work in groups
later on and try to find out
other kinds of oppression. INF-CM
- Now, we want to talk about
treaties and concessions. INF-OM
- Where was the first treaty
signed? I
- P. In Matebeleland. R
- T. Matebeleland. Is that in this
country. The treaty was signed
in a neighbouring country. F
- P. In Botswana. R

- T. In Botswana ... Yes ...
Do you remember what was
agreed in the treaty? ...
Bessy? I/NOM
- P. So that they can pass through
the country. R
- T. So that they can pass through
the country. Besides that
there is something more
important that the chief
wanted. F
- P. He was given guns and ... R
- T. Yes. But there is the word
that starts with P.
British P ... F
- P. Police. R
- T. British Police? Um ... F
- P. British South Africa Company. R
- T. Em ... F
- P. B.S.A.P. R
- T. It's something else. British ----- F
- P. British Protection. R
- T. Good. British Protection. F
Now ... Concessions. FM
What's the name of that
notorious concession? ... I
notorious is the opposite of? I
- P. Famous. R

- T. Yes ... when somebody is famous
they do good things. F
- You remember the axe killer? I
- Was he famous? I
- C. No-o-o-o. R
- T. He was not. He was notorious. F
- What was the notorious
concession that was signed
here? I
- R. Rudd Concession. R
- T. Rudd Concession ... we talked
about that one. F
- Right, what I want you to do
with these papers is you look
at these questions on the
board then you write as many
forms of oppression as you
can. You discuss before you
write them down. We want
them in perfect sentences.
- Right, get on with it. IF.D
- GROUP DISCUSSION
- (Discussion in only one group was
clear enough to be transcribed).
- P.GL. What did the Matebele do? I
- They took our ... and what? I
- P1. They took our cattles. R
- Ps. (Laugh). (F)?
- T. (Teacher intervenes) Not our
cattles but cattle, and what? F

P2.	And milked ... 'Kukama'.	R
P3.	And milked the cattle.	R
P5.	To get milk.	R
P.GL.	The second one...	FM
P6.	The White Man took our ...N/A	R
T.	The White Man?	I
P6.	Lobengula ... N/A	
T.	Say that again.	I
P6.	Lobengula allowed the White Man to look for minerals.	R
T.	Yes ... Would you say that is a kind of oppression?	I
	What is oppression? ...Have you forgotten?	I
	Udzvanyiriri. Kanawapiwa maminaraluzi wazeya, udzvanyiriri. (It is oppression. If you oppress someone who gives you something like minerals, it is oppression).	I
P.	They took our wives.	R
T.	The British?	
	They took our wives? No ...	F
	What did they do?	I
P.	They put a flag.	R
T.	Yes, they put a flag.	Lex. choice F
P.	They told chief Lobengula not to allow any other people to mine.	R

- T. Inoita futi iyoyo handiti? F
(That is correct. Isn't it?)
- C. Ehe. R
- P. Tregty. R
- T. No, we say treaty. I
Right, we shall continue
after break.
Stand up everybody.
You can go out for a break. INF D

COMMENTS ON LESSONSubject : Social Studies.Teaching Objectives : To revise lesson on tribal conflicts in Zimbabwe in the 19th Century.Teaching Strategies : a) The question and answer method predominates in this lesson.

The student-teacher does however provide brief explanations - "informs" to clarify the main concepts of the lesson. He also calls upon pupils to explain some of these.

b) Group work :

In group work pupils ask each other questions that were prepared by the student-teacher.

Discourse unit structures

These are varied as the lesson progresses. But the main structure consists of the following acts:

I ----> NOM ----> R ----> F

Other structures can be illustrated as follows:

i) I ----> INF ----> R

ii) I ----> RE-I ----> NOM ----> R ----> F

iii) I ----> I ----> I ----> R ----> F

iv) I ----> NOM ----> R ----> F ----> INF/OM ----> INF

----> I ----> R ----> F

Structure (i) shows the student-teacher's tendency to give further information before a response is given. This is an attempt to help learners give the correct response by providing additional information or cues to the answer.

Structure (iv) represents transactions in which the student-teacher elaborates his own and pupils' ideas.

LESSON 10 : MATHEMATICSTopic : Subtraction

- T. Now, can you tell me three words we use when we're subtracting ... Nancy? I/NOM
- P. Subtract. R
- T. Subtract. F
Who can spell subtract for me?
... You? I
- P. S-u-b-t-r-a-c-t. R
- T. Very good. F
Can you give us some other words we use? I
- P. Minus.
- T. Minus ... and the other ones please? F/I
- P. Take away. R
- T. Take away. These are the three words. Now I want somebody to come and subtract these sums for us please. F
You should explain to others how you are doing it. I/INF
- P. Four minus two is equal to two. Five minus nine is too small. We can't take away nine. So we take one from two and we say fifteen minus nine is equal to .. R

- T. What is fifteen minus nine? I
- P. It's six. Three minus two is equal to one. R
- T. Yes ... Who can do the next sum for us? I
Speak loudly please. DIR
- P. One minus nine. One is too small. It can't subtract nine. We take one from four and say eleven minus nine is equal to two and we put two there. Four minus ten. Four is too small. It can't subtract ten. We take one from three and say fourteen minus ten is equal to ... R
- T. What is fourteen minus ten? ... I
Gidgy? NOM
- P. Four. We put one there and say three minus one is equal to two. R
- T. Who can read the answer for us please? I
- P. Two hundred and forty-two. R
- T. Two hundred and forty-two. I
Now I want you to work these in your groups please. Stop making noises with your chairs. You should explain to others how you're doing it. Speak in English. INF (D)

GROUP WORKGroup I

- P.G.L. Come on, write fast. EXH

- Seven hundred and fifty ...
Fifty-four minus one hundred
and ninety-nine. I
- T. (Teacher intervenes) Catherine
can you work the sum for us? I
- P. Four minus nine. Four can't
subtract nine because four is
smaller than nine. We take
one from five and then we put
there and say fourteen minus
nine is equal to five. R
- T. Will you write down the five
there? ... Quickly please. I/EXH
- P. Five minus nine. Five cannot
subtract nine. So fifteen minus
nine is equal to six and we put
one, and seven minus six is equal
to one. R

Group II

- P.G.L. Eight hundred and thirteen
minus two hundred and seventy
one is equal to? I
- P1. Three minus one is equal to
two. One minus seven. It
can't. So we say eleven minus
seven is equal to four. We put

- there. Seven minus two is equal to five. R
- P.GL. What does the ... What is the answer? I
- P. Five hundred and forty-two. R
- T. Can you finish the number you are working? ... Go back to your places. D
(Pupils move to their places. End of group work).
- T. (Addressing the whole class) Who can give us the answer for this sum? I
- P. Five hundred and fifty-five. R
- T. How did she get five-hundred and fifty-five? I
Will you come and work the number on the chalk-board, please Quick?
- P. Four minus nine. It can't. R
- T. Why can't four subtract nine? I
- P. Because four is smaller than nine. R
- T. Four is smaller, so what are you going to do? I
- P. Take one from five and give to four and we say fourteen minus nine. R
- T. What is fourteen minus nine? I
- P. It is five. R

We put one there. Five minus ten. It's too small. We take one and say fifteen minus ten is equal to five. Then we say seven minus two is equal to five.

R

T. Who can read the answer?

I

P. Five hundred and fifty-five.

R

T. Five hundred and fifty-five.

Good.

Now who can come and solve number five for us please?

I

P. We say one minus seven. One is small and take one and say eleven minus eight is equal to eight.

T. Now I am giving you these sums to go and work at home.

F

(Teacher writes numbers of sums on BB)

INF (D)

COMMENTS ON LESSON

Teaching Objective: Revision Practice in subtraction.

Teaching Strategies: Consists mainly of:

- i) Questions and answers.
- ii) Pupil demonstration. Pupils are selected to demonstrate how to work certain problems.
- iii) Group Practice: In groups pupils work out sums written on work cards.

Discourse unit structures:

This lesson consists of simple discourse structures. i.e. the IRF type. This is varied when the following structures are used:

- i) I ----> I ----> R
- ii) I ----> R ----> R ----> I ----> R ----> F

LESSON 11 : ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCETopic : A Balanced Diet

- T. Right, in environmental science we are going to talk about a balanced diet? ... A balanced diet is a day's meal which is made up of food-stuffs that are rich in carbohydrates, fats, vitamins and proteins. That's a balanced diet. Right... let's read the definition of a balanced diet together. A balanced diet is ...
- INF
- C. ... A day's meal which is made up of foodstuffs that are rich in equal portions of carbohydrates, fats, vitamins and proteins.
- INF (D)
- T. Right, today, we want to draw a table and write down what we think a balanced diet should consist of or should be made up of. So we see our bodies need carbohydrates, fats, vitamins and proteins. Our bodies need these. Now give me any foodstuff rich in carbohydrates You?
- INF
- P. Eggs.
- R

- T. Eggs ... He says eggs are rich in carbohydrates. Is he correct? F/I
- C. No-o-o. R
- P. Sadza (i.e. thick porridge prepared from maize-meal). R
- T. Right ... any other? ... Chipo? I/NOM
- P. Bread is rich in carbohydrates R
- T. Right, we know that our body needs proteins. Any other foodstuff with proteins? ... Maidei? INF I/NOM
- P. Meat is rich in proteins. R
- T. Good. Meat is rich in proteins. Any other food rich in proteins? Give me just the foodstuff. D
- P. Fish. R
- T. Fish, yes. F
- P. Milk. R
- T. Milk, yes. Any other food-stuffs which are rich in fats? F/I
- P. Apples. R
- T. Apples are rich in fats. F
- Is he correct? I
- C. No-o-o. R
- T. Any other? I
- P. Groundnuts. R
- T. Groundnuts, right. What else? F/I
- P. Margarine. R

- T. Right, foodstuffs that are rich in vitamins? I
- P. Fruits. R
- T. Which fruits I
- P. Oranges. R
- T. Which vitamins are in oranges I
- P. Vitamin B1. R
- T. Is he correct? You don't know it? I
- P. Vitamin C. R
- T. Right Vitamin C. Okay. F
- Let's start now. D
- We want to complete our table.
- We have breakfast-
- Carbohydrates providing foodstuff.
 - Vitamin providing foodstuff.
 - Fats providing foodstuff. INF (D)
- Now give the food we have at breakfast which will provide us carbohydrates at breakfast. Preposition I
- P. Eggs. R
- T. Eggs ... Are they rich in carbohydrates? F/I
- C. N-o-o. R
- P. Bread. R
- T. Bread. Right, we can have bread for breakfast. What about proteins? Proteins? F/I
- P. Meat. R

- T. Meat. Right, we'll have meat here.. F
 Vitamins? I
- P. Vegetables. R
- T. Vegetables, right.
 We can have vegetables for breakfast. Fats? F/I
- P. Margarine. R
- T. Right, we can have margarine..
 Now we want to go on to the lunch column. F
 What can we have for lunch which is rich in carbohydrates? For lunch? I/I
- P. Sadza. R
- T. Ehe ... sadza.
 It's obvious that many people eat sadza for lunch. Lex. choice F
 What else? I
 What else? I
- P. Fish. R
- T. Are they rich in carbohydrates? I
- P. Manhuchu (i.e. boiled maize). R
- T. Speak up! We call that samp.
 Yes we have samp for lunch.
 Say samp everybody. F
- C. Samp. R
- T. Samp. F
 Right we can have samp. F
 Proteins - what can we have? I

	Proteins?		I
P.	Meat.		R
T.	Right, but we had ... meat, we had meat for breakfast.		
	We are having meat again.	P.A.	F
P.	Milk.		R
T.	Milk, ... yes. What about vitamins?		F/I
P.	Fruits.		R
T.	Which fruits?		I
	Can we have anything rich in fats?		I
P.	Groundnuts.		R
T.	Groundnuts, yes. We can have groundnuts for lunch. Right, Supper?		F/I
P.	Rice.		R
T.	Rice ... good. What else?		F/I
P.	Potatoes.		R
T.	Potatoes, good.		F
	Proteins? We have already had milk, meat, ... We want some- thing different.		INF
P.	Eggs.		R
T.	Yes, we can have eggs.		F
	Vitamins?		I
P.	Kalos.		R
T.	What's that?		I
P.	Kelos.		R

- T. Ah, what? Do you mean carrots? F/I
- P. Yes. R
- T. Say carrots - together! D
- C. Carrots. R
- T. Carrots. What else? F/I
- P. Beans. R
- T. Is beans rich in vitamins? I
They are rich in what? I
- P. In proteins. R
- T. In proteins, yes. We want something else. F
Fats? We had em I
- P. Milk. R
- T. Milk, yes. We can have milk F
but it's not that rich in
fats. Right, we have listed
down things for lunch, break-
fast and supper. Now I'm
going to rub off all this and
in your groups you write down
many foodstuffs which are Lexical Insertion
rich in the given nutrients so
that when I ask a question you
can come up and fill in blank Article
spaces here. I want to see
people talk in your groups.
Let's start. INF (D)

GROUP DISCUSSION

(In their groups, pupils fill in the blank spaces on work cards.

Discussion was not audibly recorded.

Class discussion resumed after 5 minutes).

- T. Right, stop ... stop. D
- Right, let's complete the table. D
- Let's have something complete in carbohydrates ... D
- (table on board is filled in as follows:)

	Carbohydrates	Proteins	Yitamins	Fats
Breakfast	bread	meat	vegetables	margarine
Lunch	sadza	milk	fruits	nuts
Supper	rice	beans	oranges	cooking oil

- T. Right, group leaders take out your exercise books. Copy the table on the board. INF(D)

COMMENTS ON LESSON

Teaching Objective : To enable the pupils to understand and to name the different types of nutrients in different types of food.

Teaching Strategies : a) Question and answers.
 b) Recall and reproduction.
 c) Group work discussion.

Discourse unit structure :

The commonest structure in the lesson discourse consists of:

I ----> NOM ----> R ----> F

Re-initiations yield structures similar to those indicated for lessons 7 and 10 i.e.

I₁ ----> I₂ ----> I_n ----> R ----> F

APPENDIX N

ANALYSIS OF TEACHING STRATEGIES IN
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LESSONS

N1 DESCRIPTION OF INSTRUCTIONAL
STRATEGIES AND VALUES.

N2 LESSON-BY-LESSON ANALYSIS OF
TEACHING STRATEGIES.

N3 SUMMARY OF INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES
IN ALL THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LESSONS.

1 DESCRIPTION OF INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES AND VALUES

The researcher modified Bosco et al's (1970) and Laroche's (1984) analytical grids and produced one which he used in his study. In order to understand the features of this grid, it is necessary that we review the meaning and implications of Bosco et al's (op. cit.) and Laroche's (op. cit.) grids.

1.2 BOSCO AND DI PIETRO'S GRID

In their study Bosco and Di Pietro described features which they identified as psychological and linguistic bases of instructional strategies. Their grid consisted of eight psychological and three linguistic binary features. They justified their selection of psychological and linguistic features by claiming that:

It is precisely from the major trends in psychological and linguistic theory that we obtain the distinctive features with which to characterise current teaching practice.

(Bosco et al. 1970: 5)

The term binary was used to refer to the presence or absence of a pedagogical feature. For instance, assigning a positive value to a feature as in (+ functional) meant that, that teaching strategy focussed upon teaching learners how to use a negative value to the same feature (- functional) meant that the strategy did not focus upon teaching learners how to use language functionally but merely to understand the forms of linguistic structures. In the section that follows, we shall proceed to discuss the features of instructional strategies that Bosco et al (op. cit.) outlined.

1.3 FEATURES OF INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

Psychological Features

i) Functional vs Non-functional

A functional feature in a lesson emphasises the need for learners to be able to produce sentences intended to meet specific communicative intentions.

The non-functional feature, on the other hand, emphasises the need for the learner to understand the form of the linguistic structure. It de-emphasises the need to use the structures in communicative situations.

ii) Central vs Non-central

The central feature is associated with teaching/learning activities that stimulate cognitive processes. It requires the learner to understand the theoretical principles underlying the elements of the language he is learning. These include rules for the formation of such elements as plural forms or rules governing pre- and post-modifiers in a noun phrase. Those who advocate the inclusion of a central feature in an instructional strategy regard the understanding of rules as a necessary concomitant of performing well in a language. On the other hand, those who discourage its inclusion regard proficient performance as due to linguistic stimuli which do not emphasise an understanding of the language rules. Bosco et al. (op. cit.) point out that a central feature differs from a functional one in that a functional strategy teaches students to use or to respond to language automatically without understanding the principles underlying the language. In this case, a functional strategy is (+ functional) but (-central).

iii) Affective vs Non-affective

An instructional strategy that emphasises an affective feature pays attention to motivational and emotional factors. Learning tasks are anchored to the development of a healthy emotional classroom climate. A non-affective strategy, on the other hand, does not stress the need to develop motivational and emotional factors. It assumes that these are inherent in the total teaching/learning situations.

iv) Nomothetic vs Non-nomothetic

Like the central feature, a nomothetic approach to language teaching stresses the study of the rules of a language. But it goes further in that it makes explicit the description of and the relationships between the rules underlying different sentence structures. For instance, a description of the rules

underlying passive sentences are explained in terms of the rules of the active sentences noting the changes in the positioning of the agent/doer or the patient/beneficiary of the action as well as the changes that occur in the structure of the active verb. Such cross references are an important feature of the nomothetic approach. A non-nomothetic approach does not make such cross references.

v) Idiographic vs Non-idiographic

An idiographic strategy permits and encourages individual expression. Instead of forcing the learner to conform to a specified style of expression, an idiographic strategy allows the development of personal styles. Bosco et al. (1970: 14) refer to the strategy as allowing "expressional spontaneity". They also claim that a non-idiographic strategy regards the learner as a "closed system". He is not given a chance to use his knowledge of the world or his linguistic potential as a resource for creating and demonstrating individual language behaviour and style. Instead, a non-nomothetic feature compels the learner to conform to what the teacher has pre-defined as correct and acceptable language behaviour. In this sense, it is a prescriptive strategy.

vi) Molar vs Non-molar

This strategy is derived from gestalt psychology which views phenomena in holistic terms. It denies the reductional analytical approaches advocated by structuralist and behavioural psychologists. In language teaching, a molar strategy presents language in functional units whereas the non-molar or molecular strategy, as is sometimes called, tends to isolate linguistic units such as verbs, nouns and adjectives for instructional purposes. Each feature has its own disadvantages. An uncritical application teaching strategy and, on the other hand, an uncritical non-molar strategy may lead to the presentation of discrete language items.

vii) Cyclic vs Non-cyclic

A cyclic feature demands that a linguistic unit or sentence pattern is reintroduced at different intervals in the course. It assumes that brief but frequent exposures to the same language features facilitate learning. A non-cyclic strategy, on the other hand, ensures that the learner masters a given language feature before a new one is introduced. The pedagogical implication of the latter strategy is that language structures or units are presented in such a way that each item is presented in different ways for a considerable period.

viii) Divergent vs Non-divergent

A divergent strategy encourages the isolation and presentation of language skills. For instance, phonetic discrimination, stress patterns, oral comprehension, reading comprehension and writing skills will be treated separately in a divergent approach. A non-divergent strategy, on the other hand, discourages such separation. It encourages a global strategy which treats all the language skills as components of one topic. Like the non-molar approach, a divergent strategy may fail to show the link between different activities. And, like the molar approach, a non-divergent strategy may lead to imprecise planning and presentation of language material.

1.4 LINGUISTIC FEATURES

The features discussed in the preceding sub-sections were categorised by Bosco and Di Pietro (op. cit.) as psychological. In this section three features which they described as linguistic will be defined.

i) General vs Non-general

A general instructional feature involves the application of rules that are not particular to a language. Such rules would be universal in that they apply to other languages. Their universality can be demonstrated by the presence, in all natural languages, of linguistic categories that refer to noun phrase classifications, verb phrase classifications and notions of syntax, phonology

and semantics. A non-general or specific strategy focusses on the application of rules or theories that are specific to the language under study.

ii) Systematic vs Non-systematic

A systematic approach ensures that the features of a language under study are presented in what Bosco et al. (op. cit. :16) call an "organisational scheme". The scheme may be "diachronic", in which case material presented would look at the historical changes of a language or it can be "synchronic", in which case the material studied would focus on the state of a language during a specified period of time. Such organisational schemes are applied in the design and organisation of syllabusses. The application of a systematic feature in a teaching programme would ensure that the scheme clarifies how writing and speaking skills can be taught without mixing them. A non-systematic strategy tends to mix these. It should be noted here that there is a certain amount of overlap between this binary feature and the psychological one of "divergent vs non-divergent".

iii) Unified vs Non-unified

The unified strategy ensures that the learner is aware of the underlying grammatical model of the language he is learning. He should show this awareness by relating or integrating each new rule learned to the ones he has already learnt. This provides him with an integrated grammatical model of the language which enables him to make cross references when these are called for. A non-unified strategy does not emphasise the integration of grammatical rules. For instance, it ignores the relationship between nouns and pronouns or that between active and passive sentence rules. This binary feature overlaps with the psycholinguistic one which Bosco et al (op. cit.) labelled nomothetic vs non-nomothetic.

2 VALUES OF LESSON SEGMENTS

N.2 LESSON 1 Topic: Use of "have got to", "usually".

INSTRUCTIONAL FEATURES	LESSON SEGMENT NUMBERS AND VALUES						CUMULATIVE FEATURE
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
STRUCTURAL	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
COMMUNICATIVE	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
FUNCTIONAL	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
NOMOTHETIC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
MOLAR	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
ANALYTIC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
IDIOPHIC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

NB A cumulative value is an aggregate of the values assigned to each segment. It represents the value of the instructional feature in the lesson.

N.2 LESSON 2 Topic: Adjectives.

INSTRUCTIONAL FEATURES	LESSON SEGMENT NUMBERS AND VALUES				CUMULATIVE FEATURE
	1	2	3	4	
STRUCTURAL	+	+	+	+	+
COMMUNICATIVE	-	-	-	-	-
FUNCTIONAL	-	-	-	-	-
NOMOTHETIC	-	-	-	-	-
MOLAR	+	+	+	+	+
ANALYTIC	-	-	-	-	-
IDIOPHIC	-	-	-	-	-

N.2 LESSON 3 Topic: Use of "Both".

INSTRUCTIONAL FEATURES	LESSON SEGMENT NUMBERS AND VALUES					CUMULATIVE FEATURE
	1	2	3	4	5	
STRUCTURAL	+	+	+	+	+	+
COMMUNICATIVE	-	-	-	-	-	-
FUNCTIONAL	-	-	-	-	-	-
NOMOTHETIC	-	-	-	-	-	-
MOLAR	+	+	+	+	+	+
ANALYTIC	-	-	-	-	-	-
IDIOPHIC	-	-	-	-	-	-

N.2 LESSON 4 Topic: Use of Verbs.

INSTRUCTIONAL FEATURES	LESSON SEGMENT NUMBERS AND VALUES				CUMULATIVE FEATURE
	1	2	3	4	
STRUCTURAL	+	+	+	+	+
COMMUNICATIVE	-	-	-	-	-
FUNCTIONAL	-	-	-	-	-
NOMOTHETIC	-	-	-	-	-
MOLAR	+	+	+	+	+
ANALYTIC	-	-	-	-	-
IDIOGRAPHIC	-	-	-	-	-

N.2 LESSON 5 Topic: The Present Perfect Tense.

i.e. The Perfective Aspect.

INSTRUCTIONAL FEATURES	LESSON SEGMENT NUMBERS AND VALUES				CUMULATIVE FEATURE
	1	2	3	4	
STRUCTURAL	+	+	+	+	+
COMMUNICATIVE	-	-	-	-	-
FUNCTIONAL	-	-	-	-	-
NOMOTHETIC	-	-	-	-	-
MOLAR	+	+	+	+	⊕ +
ANALYTIC	-	-	-	-	-
IDIOGRAPHIC	-	-	-	-	-

N.2 LESSON 6

Topic: Tenses: Present, Past, Future, Present
Continuous (Progressive), Past
Continuous (Perfective).

INSTRUCTIONAL FEATURES	LESSON SEGMENT NUMBERS AND VALUES			CUMULATIVE FEATURE
	1	2	3	
STRUCTURAL	+	+	+	+
COMMUNICATIVE	-	-	-	-
FUNCTIONAL	-	-	-	-
NOMOTHETIC	-	-	-	⊕ -
MOLAR	+	+	+	+
ANALYTIC	-	-	-	⊕ -
IDIOPHIC	-	-	-	-

N.3 VALUES OF INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES IN ENGLISH LESSONS

INSTRUCTIONAL FEATURES	LESSON NUMBERS						AGREEMENT FREQUENCIES
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
STRUCTURAL	+	+	+	+	+	+	6
COMMUNICATIVE	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
FUNCTIONAL	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
NOMOTHETIC	-	-	-	-	- ⊕	-	5
MOLAR	+	+	+	+	- ⊕	+	5
ANALYTIC	-	-	-	-	- ⊕	-	4
IDIOGRAPHIC	-	-	-	-	-	-	5

It can be observed from N3 that all the student-teachers involved in this study did not apply the communicative approach to teaching. Instead, their instructional strategies emphasised the structural and the molar strategies which advocate the understanding of the nature and functions of English. Learner activities largely consist of sentence structure formation.

APPENDIX O
EFFECTIVE TEACHING:
THE ESTABLISHMENT OF CRITERIA
FOR DETERMINING EFFECTIVE TEACHING.

- 0₁ }
0₂ } TRANSCRIPTS OF EXPERIENCED TEACHER LESSONS
0₃ }
0₄ PROCEDURES IN DETERMINING EFFECTIVE TEACHING

SCHOOL: Hallingbury P. School

GRADE: 6A : A multicultural Class.

SUBJECT: ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCE

APPENDIX 01

T.	Turn to your books at last week's experiment.	1
	You had quite a few problems.	2
	Have a look at your mark --- remember B is satisfactory and anything less is - unsatisfactory.	3
	Let's look at the areas of big problems.	4
	Basically, some people were trying to explain the work you did looking at the soil samples they collected. So they talked about looking at the soil sample and finding stones and little pieces of twig.	6
	That has nothing to do with the experiment we did.	7
	The experiment we did was to prove the presence of air in a sample of soil.	8
	So, let's go through the section.	9
	First of all the equipment --- Roy can you list for me what you put under equipment?	10
		11
P.	Water jar, and --- and paper.	12
T.	Correct --- does anyone else have anything more?	13
	Well, if you do, you have things we were not dealing with.	14
	Now we come to the method---	15
	What did you write? --- somebody? ---	16
	Joel, can you read what you put under method?	17
P.	Place soil in a jar and pour water and observe carefully.	18
T.	Observe?	19
P.	Carefully.	20
T.	Observe carefully ... Yes.	21
	I was quite impressed how some people put that.	22

- Look carefully at this experiment. 23
- So --- nothing much difficult, very straightforward. 24
- Now, finally, Michael, you tell me your result. 25
- Michael's was one of the best. 26
- P. When we look we see bubbles rising then they burst. 27
- T. You said it very clearly; in just a few words. 28
- Who can put a longer section there than Michael's--- 29
- P. This has to be done quickly after you put it in a jar
of water. 30
- Look at the top, you will see bubbles coming out and
some pieces of vegetation. 31
- T. Fine, but we don't really want the vegetation; it's the
bubbles we're looking at. 32
- But what exactly were those bubbles? --- 33
- Rugare ---- when you were all observing the bubbles
what did you see? 34
- P. Air. 35
- T. Yes, the bubbles are air particles that are coming out
through the water and bursting at the top back into the
atmosphere. 36
- So, that's basically what we observed, that was the
result. 37
- So, Tongai, what have you put for your conclusion? 38
- P. Air present in soil. 39
- T. Fine, very short but to the point. 40
- Who can put it in a longer sentence --- James? 41
- P. So, this experiment concludes that there is air in the
soil sample. 42
- T. Fine, that's all that's needed. 43
- So, those people who have got a below-average mark,

	you should look to see where you fell down.	44
	Another weak point was in fact the diagram.	45
	In science --- when you do a diagram it must be labelled.	46
	The diagram is a total representation of something.	47
	So you must show what is there --- a jar, the water, soil sample and more importantly, the bubbles of air should be labelled.	48
	Now --- I want you to write the title of today's experiment.	49
C.	(Pupils write the topic of the day's experiment - MICRO-ORGANISMS)	
T.	Now --- when you look at the list of constituents of soil you have, you will notice one thing labelled micro-organisms but you couldn't see those.	50
	They are so tiny.	51
	What we are going to do today is to make a solution, a growing solution, so that these micro-organisms will grow and multiply to a state where we can see them.	52
	Even though something, individually, may be tiny, when you have millions of them they then become visible.	53
	So, let's first of all have the equipment.	54
	We have got the sample soil.	55
	I have got the gelatine I mentioned yesterday.	56
	We are going to throw it into the tray but at high school they have little glass dishes about this size (teacher illustrates size of glass dishes) which they use but we don't have them in this school.	57

- Now --- we have the hot water to mix the gelatine with
to make a jelly solution and lumps of sugar as a food. 58
- These organisms need some food in order to grow.
- The sugar will be their food. 59
- Those of you at the back, gelatine looks like rather a
dull white sugar - a beige colour plus granules. 60
- Add that to hot water. 61
- The sugar dissolves... 62
- This is the basis of the jellies that you might have as a
dessert that is made of gelatine ... 63
- Right ... now, I am going to add some sugar... and stir... 64
- Now, this isn't the best method to melt gelatine.. if I was
using this in my kitchen I would use a small bowl of
cold water and then I would put it in a pan of boiling
water on the stove and I let it melt very slowly otherwise
it gets lumpy ... 65
- I should keep stirring all the time until the gelatine
disappears. 66
- It is not too bad --- 67
- Now, I am now going to pour that into the tray --- a
little at a time --- and I am going to add a bit of the
soil at the top --- 68
- I have a sheet of polythene. 69
- Can anyone tell me the reason why I should have a sheet
of polythene and an elastic band? 70
- Nisbon? 71
- P. To cover it. 72
- T. Yes, why do you think --- why do you think I have a
need to cover this? 73
- Why can't I just put it on the side....? 74

P.	The germs would get in.	75
T.	Yes, and what effect might that have on our experiment if some dust gets in?	76
	Why am I protecting my sample from dirt --- Roy?	77
P.	Maybe the dirt may cover the whole sample.	78
T.	Not quite the reason I am looking for --- Tendayi?	79
P.	Is it because there is a specific type of organism you are trying to grow and it would be disturbed by other organisms?	74
T.	Well, you are getting very close.	75
	What do you have floating in the air?	76
Ps.	Bacteria.	77
T.	Bacteria -----	78
	So, we have to protect our sample so that any organism that does grow, we can be almost certain that that organism comes from the soil and not from anything else.	79
	We shall see the results of our experiment after two or three days. Now, in your groups I want you to	80
	discuss how we carried out the experiment. Mention	81
	everything that we did and write it neatly on the pieces of paper I am going to give your group leaders.	82
	Everyone, should say something about the experiment.	83
	O.k. go into your groups.	84
C.	(Get into their discussion groups. Group leaders write down points raised. Discussions were not audible to the transcribers).	
T.	Now, take your places -----	85

Write the group number on your pieces of paper.	86
I will give them to you next time. We shall observe	87
the results of our experiment. You will discuss	88
these in groups and write your group observations.	89

APPENDIX 02

SCHOOL: MUFAKOSE P. SCHOOL

GRADE: 6B

SUBJECT: English Oral.

T.	Good morning 6B.	1
C.	Good morning sir.	2
T.	Sit down.	3
	Er -- put everything away --- Jane	
	-- put your books away.	4
	Now --- I want to tell you a story.	5
	There was a girl who wanted to go to post	
	a letter. She did not know how to get to	6
	the post office. So, when she was in town	7
	she met a certain man and said,	
	"Tell me where the post office is."	8
	The man said, "you silly girl, you should learn	
	how to ask for help."	9
	The man went away without telling the girl where	
	the post office was. The girl was sad and she went	10
	home without posting her letter.	11
	Now, who can tell me the mistake which the girl	
	made --- Zvanyadza?	12
P.	She did not know the post office.	13
T.	Um --- she did not know the post office --	14
	Er... why did she go home without posting the letter?	15
P.	The man did not --- he did not ---	16
T.	Who can help her?	17
P.	The man does not tell the girl the post office.	18
T.	Yes, the man did not tell the girl where the post office was.	19

	Why did the man not tell the girl --- Chengetai?	20
P.	Because the girl did not know the post office.	21
T.	Er... did not know where the post office was.	22
	Say that again.	23
P.	Did not know where the post office was.	24
T.	Yes --- but listen --- I will tell you the story again.	25
	(Teacher retells the story)	
	Now, who can answer the question.	26
	Why did the man not tell the girl where the post office was.	27
P.	... because... the girl ...	28
T.	Neta?	29
P.	Because the girl did not speak good.	30
T.	Ah! do we say! 'speak good'?	31
P.	Because the girl did not speak well.	32
T.	Very good.	33
	The girl did not use the correct language to ask for help...	34
	Very good Neta.	35
	Now, class, do you know what the girl should have said?	36
C. (silence)	37
T.	O.k. Noone knows.	38
	Now, we want to learn how to ask the right questions when we ask people to help us.	39
	We want to learn how to ask questions when we want people to help us. We should also	40
	know how to tell people how to get a place they want to go to.	41
	Can someone read the sentence on the board?	42

P.	Please sir, can you tell me the way to the post office?	43
T.	Good... Read the sentence again Ticha.	44
P.	Please sir, can you tell me the way to the post office?	45
T.	Good.	46
	Now ... I want you to make your own sentences.	47
	Start with 'Please' and use also 'Can' in your sentence --- Shungu?	48
P.	Please Mary... I can...	49
T.	Um...	50
P.	Please Mary, can you help me?	51
T.	Good, but I want you to ask if you can be told how to get to a certain place. Byunza Kuti ungaende seyi Kumwe Kunhu (i.e. ask how you can get to any given place).	52 53
P.	Please, Mary can you show me to the hospital?	54
T.	Yes, say "Please Mary can you show me the way to the hospital?"	55
P.	Please, Mary can you show me the way to the hospital?	56
T.	Good. Another sentence .. Chakanetsa?	57
P.	Please Mary can you show me the way to school?	58
T.	Good. Another one... Gore"?	59
P.	Please mother, can you show me the way to the shops?	60
T.	Very good, Gore.. Another one?	61
P.	Please father, can you show me the way to Bulwayo.	62
T.	Good.	63
	Now let's practise how to tell someone the way to a place he wants to go.	64
	Who can read what is written on the board?	65
	Number 2 not number 1... Hazvineyi?	66

- P. To get to the post office, follow this road. 67
 Turn left at the next shop and then go
 straight on until you get to a big
 building. The post office is behind that 68
 building. 69
- T. Good.... 70
- Now, listen when you tell someone how to get to
 a place you should tell him the name of the road,
 tell the side or direction to follow, that is right or
 left side or North, South, East or West direction. 71
- Now I want you to practise how to ask for
 direction; where you want to go and to tell
 someone how to get to a place. You will 72
 practise in groups. I shall give you cards on 73
 which is written questions and answers. Do it 74
 in turns o.k? I want everyone to get a chance 75
 to practise. Now --- er --- you will do it in 76
 groups of 4. Group leaders get cards from me 77
 before you go out to practise. 78
- C. (Group leaders get work cards as they go out
 of the classroom to practise in groups.
 Group practice consisted of pupils reading
 prepared questions and answers. e.g.
- P1. Please, can you tell me the way to the
 University of Zimbabwe? 79
- P2. You go along second street. Turn right at the
 traffic lights. Then turn left after walking for 80
 about 100 metres. You will see the University 81
 buildings at the end of Mount Pleasant road. 82

	Group practice took about 10 minutes. Pupils	83
	were then called back to the classroom).	84
T.	Now, you have learned how to ask for directions	
	and --- and how to direct someone ---- how to	
	tell someone to get to a place.	85
	Now I want you to think of different questions and	
	ask your friend to answer. Your friend should, tell	86
	you how to get to the place you want.	87
	I will give you two minutes to practise ...	88
	Start ---	89
C.	(Practise in pairs)	
T.	Listen --- do it in twos only.	90
	One of you asks a question and the other one answers.	91
	Right --- continue.	92
C.	(Practice in pairs continues).	93
T.	Now--- I want two people to come in front and do it	
	for us.	94
	You --- Chenayi and Zvanyadza.	95
	(Pupils move to the front of the Class).	
P1.	Please, can you tell me the way to Woolworth shop?	96
P2.	Go on this road. When you get to the Post Office,	
	turn right.	97
	Walk 100 metres and then turn left.	98
	Woolworth is on the right side.	99
T.	Good --- another group --- Mary's group.	100
P1.	Please, Mary can you tell me how to get to your home?	101
T.	Home?	102
P1.	Please, Mary, can you tell me how to get to your house?	103
P2.	You go on Chitepo road.	104
	Then at store you turn right.	105

	Our house is number 44.	106
T.	We'll try.	107
	You made some mistakes. Say to get to our	108
	house you travel along Chitepo road from here.	109
	Then turn left before you get to the shops.	
	You will see number 44. That is	110
	our house.	111
P2.	(repeats teacher's utterances)	
T.	Good.	112
	Can someone come here?	113
	I'll ask him or her a question ... Rudo...	
	Can you tell me the way to Mbizi school?	114
P.	From here you go to Machipisa. Then you	115
	follow the road to town. After walking for	116
	about 20 metres you turn left.	117
	The school is near the church.	118
T.	Good. Thank you Rudo. Sit down	119
	Now you know how to ask someone to	
	tell you how to get to a place and how to	
	direct a person to a place.	120
	When you are in town you should ask	
	people to help you when you do not know	
	where to go.	121
	You must always say	
	"Please sir or madam --- can you ---	
	Do not just say "Tell me -- or where is the	
	post office".	122
	When you tell someone how to get to a place,	
	say the name of the road and where the place	123
	is. Is it near or behind something.	124

Tell the person where to turn -- left or right or the direction, south, east, west or north	125
On your way home today, ask anyone you meet on the road to tell you how to get to a place. When you come to class tomorrow tell me what they will say to you. If someone is looking for a place tell him or her how to get to the place. You should also tell me what you will have said. Right --- stand up class. Put your books away.	126 127 128 129 130 131
Now --- its time for Shona ---	132

APPENDIX 03

SCHOOL: Gombo P. School

GRADE: 6A

LESSON: MATHEMATICS.

T.	Class, I want you to look at this shape.	1
	Into how many parts is it divided?	2
P.	It's divided into four parts.	3
T.	Yes, it's divided into four parts --- together?	4
C.	Four parts.	5
T.	What do you call one part?	6
P.	A quarter.	7
T.	Yes, --- right.	8
	When it is a whole, what is it called as a fraction?--	9
	One whole as a fraction.	10
P.	Four quarters.	11
T.	Yes, four quarters.	12
	How do you write it?	13
P.	Four over four.	14
T.	Yes, four over four ---	15
	Look at this again ---	16
	One part is shaded --- what fraction is shaded?	17
P.	One	18
T.	Is that right?	19
C.	No-o-o.	20
T.	What fraction is shaded.	21
P.	One quarter is shaded.	22
T.	Yes, one quarter is shaded.	23
	What fraction is not shaded?	24
P.	Three quarters are not shaded.	25

T.	Yes, now look again at this shape here ---	26
	Into how many parts is it divided?	27
P.	Eight parts.	28
T.	Eight parts----	29
	Now, first of all, what shape is that?	30
P.	It's a circle.	31
T.	Yes, what do we call one part?	32
P.	We call it one half.	33
P.	It's one eighth.	34
T.	It's divided into eight parts.	35
	So one part is one eighth.	36
	Now, how many eighths are shaded?	37
P.	Three eighths are shaded.	38
T.	Three eighths--	39
	And how many eighths are not shaded?	40
P.	Five eighths are not shaded.	41
T.	Five eighths --- good.	42
	Now if you look on the board you will notice that	
	we've some fractions to be added.	43
	Can you read that Shinga?	44
P.	One quarter plus one quarter.	45
T.	Yes, one quarter plus one quarter.	46
	How do we work that one?	47
P.	We say -- we find a number that goes into	
	four and the number is eight ---	48
P.	We say one plus one is equal to two; four	
	plus four is equal to eight and we say	
	two into two is equal to one.	49
T.	We say one plus one is equal to---?	50
C.	Two.	51

- T. We don't say four plus four because the ---
 what do we call the number below the
 fractional line? 52
 53
- P. We call it denominator. 54
- T. ---and the number above the line? 55
- P. Numerator. 56
- T. That's right, which one is the
 numerator there? 57
 58
- P. Two is the numerator. 59
- T. Now, when we are adding fractions with the same
 denominator, we don't add the denominators. We
 only add the numerators alone and write the
 denominator as it is. Which are the numerators we
 are going to add? 60
 61
- P. One and one. 62
- T. --- and the denominator? 63
- P. Four. 64
- T. So, what is one quarter plus one quarter? 65
- P. Two quarters. 66
- T. What can we do about two quarters? 67
 Can we leave it like that? 68
- P. We can reduce it to the lowest term. 69
- T. We say two into two is equal to one; two
 into four is equal to two. 72
- T. Right --- now, listen -- 73
 When we want to reduce a fraction to the lowest
 term, we find a number that can go into both
 the numerator and the denominator without leaving
 a remainder. In this case, what can go into
 two and four without leaving a remainder. 74
 75

P.	Two.	76
T.	Yes, two into two.	77
P.	One.	78
T.	Two into four?	79
P.	Two.	80
T.	Right --- two quarters are equal to one half.	81
	Can someone read the next number?	82
P.	One eighths plus---	83
T.	Can you say it a bit louder?	84
P.	One eighth plus three eighth.	85
T.	What do we do?	86
	Francis--- say eighths.	87
P.	Eighths.	88
T.	Now what do we do?	89
P.	We say one plus three---	90
T.	Oh --- do you have to take that long to say one plus three? --- Yes?	91
P.	We say one plus three is equal to four.	92
T.	Go on.	93
P.	We don't add the denominators.	94
	So we just write over eight.	95
T.	Good, what is the answer.	96
P.	Four eighths.	97
T.	Four eighths.	98
	Can we reduce it to the lowest term?	99
	Yes? --- Come on --- say something.	100
		101
P.	Four eighths equal to one half.	102
T.	How do you get it?	103

- P. I say --- four into --- four into --- four into
four equal four, then I said four --- 104
- C. (Laugh). 105
- P. We say four into four equal one; four into eight
equal two. 106
- T. Right, so four eighths is what? 107
- C. One half. 108
- T. Right the next one? 109
- I want you to do it quickly on your rough paper. 110
- The first one to finish will get a house point --- 111
- Put up your hand when you have finished. 112
- Yes, what is your answer? 113
- P. Five sixths. 114
- T. Five sixths - 115
- Is that correct? 116
- C. Yes. 117
- T. Let's do it together-- 118
- P. We say two plus three equals five. 119
- We don't add six plus six. 120
- So we write five sixths. 121
- T. Yes, there is no need to say
We don't add--- 122
- Just say two plus three equals five
over six. 123
- Don't waste time by saying that. 124
- We know we don't add. 125
- The next one --- someone? 126
- P. We say two plus four equals six. 127
- We write six --- 128
- T. Go on --- 129

P. --- And we say six over nine	130
T. Right --- six over nine ---	131
Look at this one.	132
Can we reduce it to the lowest term?	133
C. No-o-o.	134
T. Can we reduce six over nine?	135
P. Yes.	136
T. Oh! Tell me how we reduce it.	137
P. We say three into six equals two; three into nine equals three.	138
So we divide by---	139
C. Three.	140
T. Our answer is ---?	150
P. Two thirds.	160
T. Right, the next one?	161
Read that one.	162
P. One quarter plus one half.	163
T. One quarter plus one half.	164
How do we do it?	165
P. One plus one equals two; two over four.	166
T. Do we say two over four?	167
C. No.	168
T. Umm-- they don't agree with you	169
What do you say? --- next?	170
P. One plus one equals two; four plus two equals six.	171
T. He says four plus two equals six.	172
Is that right?	173
C. Yes.	174
T. No. Now--- I want you to listen carefully.	175

If the -- what do we call the number below here?	176
P. The denominator.	177
T. If the denominators are are different---	
in all these other four sums the denominators	
were the same. If the denominators are different,	178
we have to find --- first of all we have to reduce	
these two to the same value -- that is to the	
same denominator.	179
We have four and two.	180
So we have to find a common denominator for them.	
That is, we have to find the smallest number that	181
can be divided by both two and four without leaving	
a remainder.	182
Which number can be divided by two and four without	
leaving a remainder?	183
P. Two.	184
T. Two? four into two.	185
P. It can't.	186
T. It can't -- so we can't take two	187
P. Three.	188
T. Can we divide four into three?	189
P. We can't -- yes we can.	190
T. Can we really?	191
Alright, give me the answer;	
four into three.	192
P. One	193
C. No-o-o.	194
T. So what is the common denominator?	195
P. Eight.	196

T. Eight is too big.	197
Another one?	198
P. Four.	199
T. Yes, 4.	200
This is the smallest number that can be divided by four and two without leaving a remainder.	201
We call it a common ---?	202
C. Denominator.	203
T. So we say four into four is ----?	204
P. One.	205
T. Go on--	206
P. Four into four is one; four into eight is two; two multiplied by three equals six.	207
T. Yes, the next sum?	208
P. Three eighths plus one half.	209
T. Do we have the same denominator?	210
Can we just start adding?	211
C. No.	212
T. We say eight into eight equals one, one multiplied by three equals three; two into --- two into eight? --- two into eight equals four; four multiplied by one equals four.	213
Right, so what is the answer?	214
P. Three eighths plus one half equals seven eighths.	215
T. Right --- seven eighths.	216
The next one should be easy.	217
We want to see the first one to finish working it out.	218
Remember we have different denominators --	219

Who has finished?	220
P. Four sixths.	221
T. Four sixths.	222
First of all, what's the common denominator?	223
P. Six.	224
T. Six --- right.	225
What do we do?	226
P. We say two into six is equal to three; three plus one is equal to ---	227
T. Do we say three plus?	228
C. No-o-o.	229
P. Three multiplied by one equals three.	230
T. Yes, --- right.	231
P. --- plus one.	232
T. Now, I want you to work it on your papers.	233

What's the answer?	234
P. Four sixths.	235
T. Reduce it to the lowest term.	236
P. Two thirds.	237
T. Good.	238
Now, I want you to write numbers A.B.C. in your books.	239
Remember if the common denominators are different, we have to find the common denominators first of all. If they are the same, we just use the common denominator we are given.	240
What is a common denominator? --- Marble?	241
	242

- P. A common denominator is the smallest figure
which can be divided by the denominator without
leaving a remainder. 243
- T. Good --- it can be divided by the denominators of
our fractions in a sum without leaving a remainder. 245
- Right --- start writing. 246
- (As the pupils write the teacher moves round the
classroom helping any pupils who need her assistance).

APPENDIX 04EFFECTIVE TEACHING

In order to establish criteria for determining what good teaching is, the researcher interviewed six headmasters, four District Education Officers and six experienced teachers.

Experienced teachers were asked to give lessons which the researcher taped, transcribed and analysed. The aim for analysing these lessons was to find out if the teachers' lessons contain what the interviewees consider to be the main features of an effective lesson.

Interviews

The interviews were structured and centred around the following questions:

- i) What do you consider to be the most important features of a lesson?
- ii) What features make English language lessons effective?
- iii) What features make content subject lessons effective?

The questions were focussed on the types of lessons the researcher had taped and transcribed for the purposes of this study.

04.1 Summary of interviewees viewsHeadmasters

- i) A good lesson is one that is based on careful planning. Teachers should think carefully about what they are going to teach; prepare good and effective aids and present their lessons in clear simple language.
- ii) Effective language lessons should
 - involve group work;
 - require pupils to practise using language communicatively;
 - not emphasise the teaching of grammar at the expense of communicative skills;
 - make use of language learning games, drills and simulation exercises

- provide written work assignments which teachers should mark before the next exercise is given.
- iii) Effective content subjects should not only emphasise the learning of facts but should also encourage
 - understanding of ideas, processes and implications of facts;
 - the study of language; there are opportunities to develop communicative skills in every subject.
 - content lessons should use a variety of aids and diagrams.
 - Pupils should draw maps and diagrams of the things they learn about.
 - Group Work should be introduced in content lessons. Through group work pupils learn how to express their ideas and to explain things to others.

One headmaster gave a lengthy commentary on 'Discovery Learning' in Content subjects. He said there has been a lot of confusion over what it means. Some teachers do not teach at all. They just ask pupils to read books and answer questions or to go into the school garden and 'discover' some 'nature study facts'. He said teachers should prepare pupils for the discovery work through carefully planned teaching which is then followed by personal study and or discovery by learners. This should be followed up by further explanations/clarifications by the teacher.

04.2 EDUCATION OFFICERS

Education Officers pointed out that

- i) Effective language lessons should involve group work and individual written work. Pupils need to be able to spell and write well.
- ii) There should be a lot of oral lessons in the classroom to help pupils develop "good speaking habits".

- iii) A good lesson is one in which pupils learn something new everyday. In revision lessons, they should correct their misconceptions about imperfect ideas or processes say, in science, agriculture or cookery.
- iv) Group work should be a regular feature of content subjects. Pupils should also be given a chance to discover knowledge for themselves.

04.3 EXPERIENCED TEACHERS

Teachers' views were focussed more on what should happen during a lesson and what pupils should be able to do with the knowledge or skills they are taught in any given lesson. Their views were summarised as follows:-

- i) An effective teacher is one who is clear about what he/she is going to teach in every lesson. There is a need to spell out or at least to be aware of what pupils know and what they do not know so that at the end of every lesson, the teacher is satisfied that he/she has changed the learners' behaviour or extended their knowledge about the world.
- ii) A lesson should have clear stages marked by both pupil and teacher activities. There should be an introduction, presentation, recapitulation of work covered, pupil activities during the lesson and extended or follow up work.
- iii) The teacher should use simple clear language in a lesson. This is more necessary in second language learning/teaching situations.
- iv) In language lessons there should be ample opportunity for pupils to learn to use language for communicative purposes. All language activities should have communicative orientations.
- v) Controlled practice and a bit of grammar teaching is necessary in second language situations. But, teachers should create situations where language rules are applied in simulated real-life situations. Such situations should encourage spontaneous use of language. Written work is important. It is another way in which functional communication is realised.

- vi) In content subjects, teachers conceded that most L₂ learners have difficulty expressing their ideas in both spoken and written language.
- vii) They observed that content subjects provide excellent opportunities for learners to learn how to use language communicatively but most teachers do not seem to be aware of this.
- viii) As in language lessons, group or pair work in content subjects should be used as practice in interaction through language.
- ix) It is necessary that questions asked in content subjects remain simple and clear. It is easy to confuse learners when we ask difficult or vague questions.

The views outlined above were summarised and expressed as criteria for determining effective lessons. (see below).

04.5 Criteria for Determining Effective Lessons

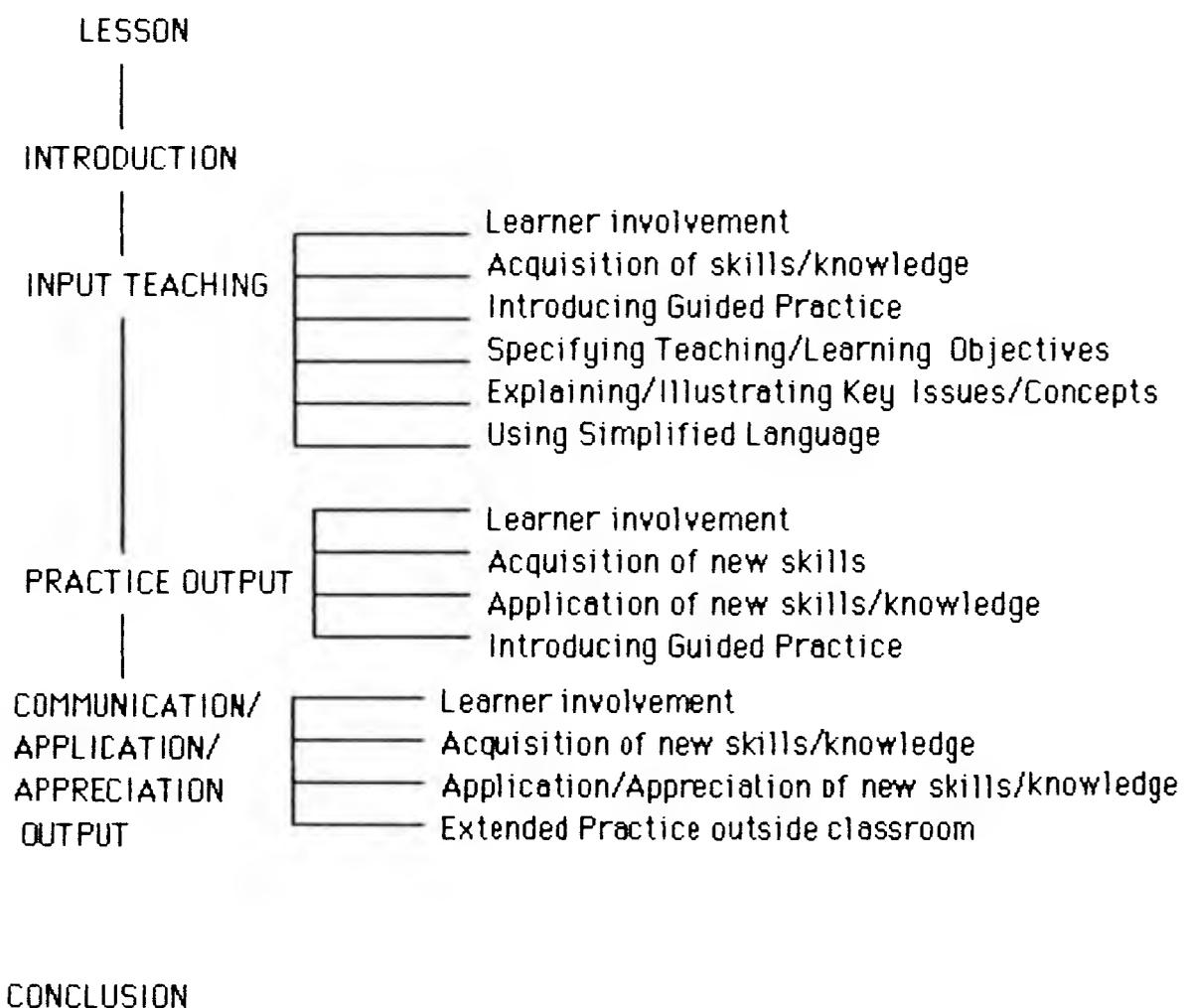
- i) Learner involvement (in groups or individually)
- ii) Acquisition/teaching of new skills/knowledge
- iii) Application of new skills/knowledge
- iv) Introducing guided practice (in Language lessons) or introducing guided activity (in content lessons)
- v) Introducing extended activity (content subjects) or extended communication practice (language lessons)
- vi) Clarity of teaching objectives (specifiable in a lesson)
- vii) Use of simplified language
- viii) Logical lesson presentation with clear steps e.g.
 - Introduction
 - Presentation
 - Practice
 - Extended practice (may take place outside the classroom)

NB Other important issues such as

- setting assignments
- marking assignments
- class and school organisation were not included into these criterial categories. The focus was on criteria involved in the presentation of lessons. It should however be noted that these contribute towards effective teaching in a number of ways.

04.6 Criterial Clusters in Terms of Their Realisation in a Lesson

Using and extending Harmer's terminology (1983:), the researcher worked out stages in lesson development and showed how the criteria outlined above (see- 041-045) fit into one or more of these stages. The diagram below illustrates this.



04.7 Analysis of Experienced Teachers' Lessons According To Criterial Clusters.

LESSON	SUBJECT	INPUT TEACHING	PRACTICE OUTPUT	COMMUNICATION APPLICATION/ APPRECIATION OUTPUT
A	Math	✓	✓	✓
B	English	✓	✓	✓
C	Social Studies	✓	✓	-
D	Environmental English	✓	✓	✓
E	English	✓	✓	✓
F	Social Studies	✓	✓	

04.8 Analysis of Student Teacher's Lessons According to Criterial Clusters

LESSON	SUBJECT	INPUT TEACHING	PRACTICE OUTPUT	COMMUNICATION APPLICATION/ APPRECIATION OUTPUT
1	English	✓	✓	-
2	English	✓	✓	-
3	English	✓	-	-
4	English	✓	✓	-
5	English	✓	✓	-
6	English	✓	-	-
7	Social Studies	✓	✓	-
8	Env. Science	✓	-	-
9	Env. Science	✓	-	✓
10	Math	✓	✓	✓
11	Env. Science	✓	✓	-
12	Social Studies	✓	✓	-
13	Math	✓	✓	-
14	Env. Science	✓	✓	✓
15	Social Studies	✓	✓	-

16	Social Studies	✓	✓	-
17	Math	✓	✓	-
18	Env. Science	✓	-	-
19	Math	✓	✓	✓
20	Env. Science	✓	✓	✓
21	Social Studies	✓	✓	✓
22	Math	✓	-	✓
23	Env. Science	✓	-	-
24	Env. Science	✓	✓	-

	EXPERIENCED	%	STUDENT	%
	TEACHERS		TEACHERS	
Lessons with Input Teaching	6	100	24	100
Lessons without Input Teaching	0	0	0	0
Lessons with Practice Output	6	100	14	58 $\frac{1}{3}$
Lessons without Practice Output	0	0	10	41 $\frac{2}{3}$
Application/Appreciation Output				
Lessons without Communication/				
Application/Appreciation Output	2	33 $\frac{1}{3}$	16	66 $\frac{2}{3}$