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**AN ANALYSIS OF ORTHOGRAPHIC ERRORS IN ISIXHOSA
TEXTS: A CASE OF GRADE 11 ISIXHOSA HOME LANGUAGE
(L1) IN THE WESTERN CAPE
BY
NONZOLO TITI**

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DECLARATION

I, Nonzolo Titi, student number 201712295, declare that this study titled **An analysis of orthographic errors in isiXhosa texts: A case of grade 11 isiXhosa Home Language (L1) in the Western Cape**, is my own work and that all the sources that I have used have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



Nonzolo Titi

14 December 2020

Date

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ABSTRACT

This case study reveals that the written language of a group of Grade 11 isiXhosa first language (L1) learners presents errors which seem to have serious implications for their linguistic competence, performance in their learning, language development and language conservation. These errors include different regular language components, such as grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, vocabulary, capitalization, syntax and semantics. Additional to these errors are the newly discovered categories of anomalies, such as new lexical items, incomplete words, incorrect word construction, inter-categorical range, multiple deviations and writing inconsistencies. The writing of these learners not only reflects various orthographic errors and inconsistency in their usage of isiXhosa, which translates into language deficiency, but also implies gaps within the education system and its policies, as well as inefficient isiXhosa curriculum design as some of the factors contributing to the existence of these errors. Possible causes of these errors include educational causes; lack of orthographic knowledge and limited reading, socio-cultural causes; interference of other languages and the influence of the media, and attitudinal causes; lack of respect and contempt for the language and lack of learner interest in the language.

Adopting a combined mixed method with a predominantly qualitative approach, this study examines errors presented in the writings of Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners with a view to establishing the nature and scope of these errors. The key objectives of this study were investigated by means of scientific papers both published and publishable as book chapters, books, dissertations, education policies, online publications and journal articles - both international and accredited journals. Drawing on various conceptual and analytical frameworks (Hymes 1972; Corder 1981), the study scrutinizes the contents and presents observations of the elements and themes that emanate from the eighteen (18) learners' isiXhosa essays and seven (7) voice-recorded isiXhosa teachers and subject advisers' interviews which were used as data.

Findings reveal that learners struggle to master some language aspects, with their usage reflecting serious deviations from the standard orthography. These findings have serious

implications for language teaching and learning as these errors tend to affect the learners' linguistic competence and performance, language development, as well as language conservation. Also, serious violations of the standard orthographic rules are noticeable; and this observation raises concerns about the fate and sustainability of the language. It is recommended that interventions and strategies be applied in respect of the teaching and learning of isiXhosa in order to maintain its standard orthography, to preserve the language, improve the learning and teaching of the language, maintain communicative competence and facilitate appropriate application of the language in a learning context, especially in speaking and writing.

Key words: Orthography, errors, text, communicative competence, language deficiency.

ISISHWANKATHELO

Olu phononongo lwemo ludandalazisa ukuba ulwimi olubhaliweyo lweqela labafundi beBakala le-11 bolwimi lwesiXhosa kwinqanaba lokuqala (L1) luneziphoso ezinobuzaza obunzulu kwizakhono zolwimi zabo, imfezeko kukufunda kwabo, ukuphuhliswa nokulondolozwa kolwimi. Ezi ziphoso ziquka izakhi zolwimi ezahlukahlukeneyo ezinjengegrama, upelo, ulwahlulo-magama, iziphumlisi, isigama, ukwenziwa koonobumba abakhulu, isinteksi kunye nentsingiselo yamagama (isemantiki). Ezinye iziphoso ezongezekileyo ziquka iintlelo eziphawulweyo ezintsha zeziphene ezinjengesigama esitsha, amagama angagqitywanga, ulwakhiwo lwamagama olungachanekanga, udidi lweentlelo ezihambelanayo, uphambuko oluntlobontlobo kunye nokubhala ngokungangqinelaniyo. Ubhalo lwaba bafundi alubonakalisi nje iziphoso nokungangqinelani kobhalo-ngqangi xa besebenzisa isiXhosa, nezithi zichaze ukunqongophala kolwimi, koko zikwabhentsisa izikhewu kwinkqubo yemfundo kunye nemigaqo-nkqubo yayo kwakunye noyilo olungafezekanga lwekharithyulamu yesiXhosa njengeminye yemiba ekhokelela ekudalekeni kwezi ziphoso. Okungangunobangela wezi ziphoso kuquka izizathu zemfundo; ukunqongophala kolwazi ngobhalo-ngqangi kunye nokufunda kancinane, imibandela yenkcubeko nentlalo, ukungabikho kwentlonipho nokunyevulela olu lwimi kunye nokungabinamdla kwabafundi kulwimi.

Ngokusebenzisa indlela exutyiweyo nehlanganisiweyo ekhokelwa yinkqubo yophandonzulu lwekhwaliti, olu phononongo luvavanya iziphoso ezikubhalo lwabafundi beBakala le-11 bolwimi lwesiXhosa kwinqanaba lokuqala (L1). Olu phononongo lwemo lunenjongo yokumisela ubume nobungakanani bezi ziphoso. Eyona njongo iphambili yolu phononongo lwemo ibikukuphanda kusetyenziswa amaphepha obunzululwazi apapashiweyo nangapapashwa kwijenali zamazwe ngamazwe nezibhalisiweyo. Olu papasho lusetyenzisiweyo lungazizahluko kwiincwadi, iincwadi uqobo, iidizetheshini, imigaqo-nkqubo yemfundo, amanqaku apapashwe kwijenali nakwi-intanethi. Kusetyenziswa izakhelo ezahlukeneyo zengqikelelo nohlalutyo (Hymes 1972; Corder 1981), olu phononongo lwemo luhlaluba iziqulatho nokuqatshelwe kwizithako nemixholo evela kwizincoko zesiXhosa zabafundi abalishumi elinesibhozo (18) kunye nokushicilelwa kwamazwi ootitshala

besiXhosa abasixhenxe (7) nodliwanondlebe lwabahloli bolwimi. Ezi ziqulatho nezithako zisetyenziswe njengedatha kolu phononongo.

Okufunyanisiweyo kubonakalisa ukuba abafundi basokola ukuba ziincutshe zemiba ethile yolwimi nalapho indlela abasebenzisa ngayo ulwimi ithi inxaxhe kakhulu kubhalo-ngqangi olumiselweyo. Oku kufunyanisiweyo kunemiphumela engalunganga kukufundiswa nokufundwa kolwimi, ukuphuhliswa kwakunye nokulondolozwa kolwimi. Kwakhona, kuqatshelwe ukophulwa kwemigaqo yobhalo-ngqangi olumiselweyo; oku kuqatshelweyo kudala inkxalabo ngokuphila nokuqhubekeka kokusetyenziswa kolu lwimi. Kundululwe ukuba kusetyenziswe amangenelo namaqinga okunceda oku kumngxilo wokufundisa nokufunda isiXhosa khona ukuze kugcinwe ubhalo-ngqangi olumiselweyo, kulondolozwe ulwimi lwesiXhosa, kuphuculwe ukufunda nokufundisa kolwimi lwesiXhosa, kunakekelwe izakhono zonxibelelwano kwaye kuququzelwe ukusetyenziswa kolwimi kwiimeko zokufunda ngakumbi xa kuthethwa naxa kubhalwa.

Amagama angundoqo: umbhalo-ngqangi, iziphoso, umbhalo (itekisi), isakhono sokunxibelena, ukunqongophala kolwimi.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
ABSTRACT	iv
CHAPTER 1	18
INTRODUCTION	18
1.1 Background to the study	18
1.2 Preliminary literature review	21
1.3 Problem statement	25
1.4 Research questions	25
1.5 Objectives of the study	25
1.6 Theoretical framework	26
1.7 Research methodology	30
1.7.1 Research approach	30
1.7.2 Sampling	30
1.7.3 Procedure	31
1.7.4 Data capturing	32
1.7.5 Data analysis	33
1.8 Significance of the study	34
1.9 Ethical considerations	35
1.10 Reflection on limitations	35
1.11 Overview of chapters	36

CHAPTER 2	38
LITERATURE REVIEW	38
2.1 Introduction	38
2.2 Defining language and the importance of languages	40
2.3 A brief history of written isiXhosa in South Africa	40
2.3.1 Previous challenges facing the language	40
2.3.2. Current challenges facing the language	43
2.3.3. The History of distribution and preservation efforts of isiXhosa	45
2.4 Orthography	47
2.4.1 Defining orthography	47
2.4.2 Characteristics of a good orthography	49
2.4.3 The isiXhosa orthography; classification and structure of isiXhosa	51
2.5 The views of different scholars on the importance of orthography in language learning	56
2.6 The importance of language teaching	56
2.7 Language curriculum and orthography	59
2.7.1 What is a curriculum?	60
2.7.2 Background to the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)	61
2.7.3 IsiXhosa curriculum development and orthography	62
2.8 The importance of writing as a language component and skill	64
2.8.1 Writing skill in education	64
2.8.2 Comparison between writing and reading	66
2.8.3 Studies of writing across the curriculum	68
2.9 Language errors	71
2.9.1 Defining language errors	71
2.9.2 Differentiating between an error and mistake	71
2.9.3 Classification of errors	72

2.9.4 Different perspectives in language errors	77
2.9.5 Causes of language errors	78
2.9.6 Lack of orthographic knowledge	79
2.9.7 Limited reading	81
2.9.8 Dialects	82
2.9.9 Linguistic change	87
2.9.10 Interference of other languages.....	88
2.9.11 The role of the media	89
2.9.12 Attitude	93
2.10 Error analysis	102
2.10.1 The process of conducting error analysis	104
2.11 Measures to address errors in language teaching and learning	108
2.12 Feedback as a viable solution to addressing language errors	111
2.12.1 Defining the concept of feedback	112
2.12.2 Types of feedback	114
2.12.3 The role of feedback	115
2.12.4 Feedback as an intervention	117
2.12.5 The impact of feedback	120
2.12.6 Efficiency of feedback	120
2.12.7 Shortcomings on feedback	124
2.13 Theoretical Framework	125
2.13.1 Error Analysis (EA) theory	125
2.13.2 Communicative Competence (CC) Theory	127
2.14 Conclusion	131

CHAPTER 3	134
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	134
3.1 Introduction	134
3.2 Background to research approaches	134
3.2.1 Qualitative approach	134
3.2.2 Quantitative approach	134
3.2.3 Mixed methods	135
3.3 Nature of research	137
3.3.1 Primary descriptive research	137
3.4 Research design	138
3.4.1 Participants and setting	138
3.4.2 Sources of data	140
3.5 Participants' demographic information	141
3.6 Conclusion	143
 CHAPTER 4	 144
PRESENTATION OF DATA AND ANALYSIS	144
4.1 Introduction	144
4.2 Data presentation	144
4.2.1 Nature of texts received	145
4.2.2 Text data presentation procedure	145
4.2.3 Structure of the interview sessions	147
4.3 Data analysis	148
4.3.1 Analytical theory	148
4.3.2 Analytical model	148
4.3.3 Analysis of learners' written texts	149

CHAPTER 5	229
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION	229
5.1 Introduction	229
5.2 Discussion	229
5.2.1 Types of errors identified from the data	230
5.2.2 Possible causes and impact of errors identified from the data	248
5.2.3 Implications of identified errors and extent to which they can be addressed	278
5.3 Findings	285
5.3.1 What are the orthographic errors occurring in the writing of isiXhosa?	286
5.3.2 What are the possible causes and impact of these errors on teaching and learning, language development and language conservation?	287
5.3.3 What are the linguistic implications of these errors and to what extent can they be addressed in teaching and learning of isiXhosa?	290
5.4 Conclusion	285
 CHAPTER 6	 292
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	292
6.1 Introduction	292
6.2 Rationale and objectives of the study	292
6.3 Conclusions	294
6.4 Recommendations	300
6.5 Limitations of the study; and some directions for further research	300
6.6 Conclusion	306
 REFERENCES	 308
APPENDIX A: LEARNERS' TYPED TRANSCRIPTS OF WRITTEN TEXTS	320

APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTIONS340

APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS379

RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER385

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE386

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 IsiXhosa five-vowel system	53
Table 2 Places of articulation of isiXhosa consonant	54
Table 3 Learners' information	141
Table 4 Teachers' information	142
Table 5 Subject advisers' information	142
Table 6 Analysis of Learner Four's essays	149
Table 7 Analysis of Learner Six's essays	157
Table 8 Analysis of Learner Nine's essays	164
Table 9 Analysis of Learner Thirteen's essays	168
Table 10 Analysis of Learner Fifteen's essays	180
Table 11 Analysis of Learner Nineteen's essays	188
Table 12 Analysis of Learner Twenty-Five's essays	198
Table 13 Analysis of Learner Twenty-Six's essays	204
Table 14 Analysis of Learner Thirty's essays	212
Table 15 Presentation of Teacher A1's responses	219
Table 16 Presentation of Teacher A2's responses	221
Table 17 Presentation of Teacher B1's responses	222
Table 18 Presentation of Teacher B2's responses	223
Table 19 Presentation of Teacher C1's responses	224
Table 20 Presentation of subject adviser 1's (MEED) responses	225
Table 21 Presentation of Subject Advisor 2's (MSED) responses	226
Table 22 Steps to analyse errors	230
Table 23 Types of errors cited by isiXhosa teachers as frequently found in learners' texts	231

Table 24 Types of errors cited by isiXhosa subject advisers as frequently found in learners' texts	232
Table 25 Errors made by Learner Four	233
Table 26 Errors made by Learner Six	234
Table 27 Errors made by Learner Nine	236
Table 28 Errors made by Learner Thirteen	238
Table 29 Errors made by Learner Fifteen	239
Table 30 Errors made by Learner Nineteen	241
Table 31 Errors made by Learner Twenty-five	243
Table 32 Errors made by Learner Twenty-six	244
Table 33 Errors made by Learner Thirty	246
Table 34 Possible causes of errors cited by isiXhosa teachers	248
Table 35 Possible causes of errors cited by isiXhosa subject advisers within their districts	250
Table 36 Examples of errors (in the data) linked to lack of orthographic knowledge	252
Table 37 Examples of error categories associated with limited reading (identified from the data)	253
Table 38 Examples of errors (extracted from the data) linked to linguistic change	255
Table 39 Examples of errors (from the data) linked to interference of other languages and code switching/borrowing	257
Table 40 Examples of errors (from the data) linked to the influence of the media	259
Table 41 Examples of categories of errors (from the data) associated with attitude	261
Table 42 Examples of categories of errors (from the data) associated with social interaction and language change	265
Table 43 Challenges facing isiXhosa teachers mentioned by interviewed teachers	272
Table 44 Summary of challenges facing schools in isiXhosa teaching, as mentioned by the interviewed subject advisers	273

Table 45 Summary of learner performance in June and December essays	276
Table 46 Summary of strategies used by teachers to address errors	279
Table 47 Summary of strategies for addressing errors suggested to teachers within their districts by subject advisers	280
Table 48 Summary of teachers' views on possibility of addressing learner errors prior to Grade 12	283
Table 49 Summary of subject advisers' views on possibility of addressing learner errors prior to Grade 12	284

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 IsiXhosa vowels	53
Figure 2 Algorithm for identifying errors in second language learner production data (Corder 1981)	107
Figure 3 An example of incorrect teacher feedback copied directly from Learner Nine's June essay (data)	264
Figure 4 An example of teacher feedback copied directly from Learner Nine's December essay (data)	264
Figure 5 An example of teacher corrective feedback copied directly from Learner Four's June essay (data)	267
Figure 6 An example of teacher corrective feedback copied directly from Learner Nineteens's December essay (data)	267
Figure 7 An example of inadequate teacher feedback on word division error, copied directly from Learner Thirty's June essay (data)	267
Figure 8	268
Figure 9 Example of teacher feedback on word division error, copied directly fromLearner Twenty-five's June essay (data)	269
Figure 10 Example of teacher feedback on spelling error, copied directly from Learner Thirty's June essay (data)	269
Figure 11 Example of teacher feedback on the same word division error identified in the June essay (text), copied directly from Learner Twenty-five's December essay (data)	269
Figure 12 Example of teacher feedback on the same spelling error identified in the June essay (text), copied directly from Learner Thirty's December essay (data)	269

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

After 1994, the South African Parliament established the Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB) to oversee the use of all 11 official languages of the Republic of South Africa. PanSALB then published a set of norms and rules to guarantee that the establishment of the National Language Bodies, as agencies of language development, specifically emphasise the standardization and recognition of the entire African language community. This was PanSALB's initial step, amongst others, towards realizing its objectives. IsiXhosa, as one of the official languages of the Republic of South Africa, also received the honour to be protected by the Norms and Rules of PanSALB through standardization. In practice, anyone who writes isiXhosa is expected to follow the standardized form of the language, as stipulated in the isiXhosa orthography. According to Musehane and Mathabi (2016: 226), "If one does not adhere to the standardized guidelines for the language, one would be said to be ungrammatical". Arguably, any errors made to any of the features of orthography outlined in the definitions of orthography – spelling, word division, punctuation, words and grammatical forms, etc. – would amount to a violation of the language orthography.

There are several definitions attached to the concept of orthography; and these assorted definitions share somewhat similar elements. As such, they relate to one important thought, namely, 'written prescribed rules of a language'. *Dictionary.com* (2020b) Available at <https://www.dictionary.com/browse/orthography> (Accessed on the 13.11.2020) defines orthography as the "art of writing words with the proper letters, according to accepted usage; correct spelling". Corresponding with this definition, *The Online Etymology Dictionary* (2020) Available at: <https://www.etymonline.com/search?q=Orthography> (Accessed on the 4.11.2020) goes much deeper, providing the origin and history of orthography by stating that the term comes from a Greek word "*orthographia*" which means "correct writing".

Arguably, each language has its unique orthography. *The Online Etymology Dictionary* (2020) Available at Available at: <https://www.etymonline.com/search?q=Orthography> (Accessed on the 4.11.2020) places more emphasis on the point that "Different languages

usually have different systems of writing". This is similarly emphasized by The *Great Soviet Encyclopedia* 1970-1979 (Orthography n.d. para. 5) Available at <https://encyclopedia2.thefreedictionary.com/Ortographic> (Accessed on the 14.11.2020) which states that, "the history of an orthographic system is connected with the history of a given language's writing system". With reference to the above emphasis, Probert and De Vos (2016: 2) distinguish between two types of orthographies, namely, (i) deep and (ii) transparent orthographies. According to Probert and De Vos (2016: 2), written language orthographies may vary according to orthographic depth and consistency. They explain orthographic depth as the extent to which there are one-to-one correspondences between graphemes and linguistic categories such as phonemes and syllables. Probert and De Vos (2016) further explain that the reason that different languages use different orthographies is based on both historical and phonological considerations. According to these scholars, "isiXhosa has a fairly transparent, consistent, alphabetic orthography which is more amenable to sub-lexical processing versus the English orthography which results in a deep orthography where readers depend slightly on grapheme-to-grapheme representation and more so on whole-word processing" (Probert & De Vos 2016: 2). This therefore means that one cannot use orthography of one particular language to write another language. In addition, Probert and De Vos (2016: 1) maintain that, "reading strategies and cognitive skills are fine-tuned to specific languages; meaning that literacies in different languages present readers with different structural puzzles which require language-particular suites of cognitive reading skills". Relating this notion to writing, and taking into account orthographic forms, it means that the standardized rules of a language offer a particular set of skills which result in language-particular suites of cognitive writing skills.

The main objective of this study is to examine the orthographic errors that emanate from the writings of Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners in the Western Cape, South Africa. For more clarity, owing to relevant historical factors, it is necessary to begin by giving a brief background on the standardisation of isiXhosa and the extent to which it relates to the study. According to Gxilishe (1996: 5) and Sigcau (1998), a decision on which isiXhosa dialect to standardize was made by the missionaries when they first came to South Africa. The Ngqika, Thembu and Gcaleka, being the standard isiXhosa, were part of such a decision. Hudson (1980: 33) explains that standard language was "...somewhat impressive term, which refers

to some socio-linguistically accepted features or characteristics". For a language to be standardised, it has to undergo three processes, according to Hudson (1980: 33):

- **Selection:** A particular variety is chosen and developed into a standard language. This usually provides a prestigious status to the language, and is used in institutions such as parliament, school, church and media.
- **Codification:** The linguistic features of such a variety must be written down in dictionaries, grammatical forms, handbooks, terminology and orthography.
- **Acceptance:** The community has to accept the variety as its national language. Once this has happened, the standard language serves as the unifying force of the state.

It may therefore be argued that the Ngqika, Thembu and Gcaleka forms went through the same processes, as Sigcau (1998: 17) explains, "Their grammatical forms are described in textbooks, grammars, dictionaries and manuals of phonetics ... Standard Xhosa ... is also a linguistic variety taught in schools". It is for these reasons that this research observes these three variants: Thembu, Ngqika and Gcaleka, as the standard isiXhosa orthography. In relation to this background, the focus of this study is on the orthographic errors in isiXhosa texts of the Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners. Through analysis of the learners' texts, the researcher has applied the isiXhosa orthographic rules and framework to identify the orthographic errors made by these learners in their texts. Also, teachers' interviews have been analysed as a means of validating the researcher's claims. However, the aim here is not to provide an analysis of these errors to expose learners and teachers, nor to criticize the isiXhosa syllabus under the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), but rather to discover orthographic errors with the intention of identifying the causes, so as to eventually propose viable solutions to these linguistic challenges. Uncovering such errors will hopefully not only contribute to the improvement of learners' literacy practices and alert teachers about the importance of feedback, but also assist in the pedagogical development of isiXhosa language, especially in schools, as schools provide a secondary base for language learning. In other words, the aim is to use the isiXhosa text data to understand the orthographic errors going back to basic education which is considered to be in need of urgent attention. In addition, in this study, the role of isiXhosa orthography is deeply examined as an important guide to proper acquisition of isiXhosa. As part of isiXhosa orthography, spelling, punctuation, syntax, semantics and vocabulary are examined in detail. Finally, the

effects of orthographic errors in teaching and learning, language development and language conservation are also explored through a review of relevant literature.

1.2 PRELIMINARY LITERATURE REVIEW

From the literature, it is apparent that errors could be made when writing. Regardless of their causes, errors remain as deviations from the standard orthography. At this point, a definition of errors is worth considering. Both the *online Oxford English Dictionary* (OED, 2014: 331) and *The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (OALD, 2010: 514) define error as a "mistake". Furthermore, errors in spelling are termed 'spelling errors' (ibid). An understanding gathered from these statements is that spelling applies semantically to writing, which means that spelling can be found in something written.

By contrast, Corder (1967: 167) provides a different notion of an error: an error not as evidence of language deficiency, but as a system of the language that the learner is using, even though it is not a correct system. According to this author, an error can be explained as a 'mistake'; thus, this concept of an error can be referred to as an 'error of performance'. For that reason, Corder maintains that mistakes are not important to the process of language learning: what is important are errors. Some of the reasons this author provides for his view are: (1) Errors provide a teacher with an understanding of what the learner has learnt and what is lacking; (2) they provide evidence to the researcher about how the language is learnt or acquired, including evidence pertaining to the strategies and procedures a learner is employing in his discovery of the language; and (3), they serve as a system the learner uses in order to learn. Corder (1967:167) further provides two categories of errors, and explains them as follows:

Systematic errors

These are also known as errors of competence and are the errors that show the learner's level of knowledge of a particular language with regard to what the learner has learnt and what the learner still has to learn. These are considered 'systematic errors' for they are part of the system the learner uses to communicate, and whether the learner is aware of them; correcting them depends entirely on the external assistance the learner receives.

Unsystematic errors

These are also known as errors of performance, and can result from different things such as: memory lapses, physical conditions such as tiredness and psychological conditions such as strong emotion. According to Corder (1967), such errors cannot be regarded as a defect in the knowledge of a language speaker because language speakers are aware of them and can be corrected with more or less complete assurance. They are the opposite of systematic errors in that their existence may be influenced by the situation at the time of the communication, the learner does not really require some form of intervention for their correction and they cannot be considered as a determinant of the learner's competence in a particular language.

Similarly, Brown (1941: 226) claims that making errors is an important part of learning. By making mistakes, learners are, to a large extent, getting feedback which assists them in making new attempts that eventually afford them the desired results. This author believes that proper analysis of errors can be made through knowing the difference between an error and a mistake. Thus, a mistake is defined as "a performance error that is either a random guess or a 'slip' in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly" (Brown 1941: 226-227). Therefore, mistakes can be self-corrected if they are given attention by the language user. Conversely, an error is a system within which a learner is operating at that particular time an error is conducted; it therefore reflects the learner's competence in the target language. Unlike mistakes, errors cannot be self-corrected without some form of assistance (ibid). Based on the above definitions of errors and mistakes, an 'error' is understood as an uncorrected or inaccurate correction of a language deviation, whilst 'mistake' is viewed as an accurate correction of a language deviation. In light of the above concepts of 'error' and 'mistake', it may therefore be necessary to simplify both these terms as follows:

- *Error*: is a language deviation which could not be corrected by a language learner or user without an external intervention from, for example, a teacher, parent or a language expert.
- *Mistake*: in this context, it is a language deviation made by a language user or learner which can be self-corrected immediately upon realisation.

The above views therefore serve as the basis on which errors and mistakes will be conceptualized here. The above insights on the distinction between an error and a mistake, however, seem to relate more to the spoken language than to the written language, yet the researcher's emphasis is on written language. With this understanding, the definition of editing is worth considering to lend precision and to clarify the earlier conceptualization of a mistake and an error. The Oxford English Dictionary (OED 2014: 325), defines editing as "checking and improving a piece of writing by correcting spelling and grammar, choosing better words, and arranging the information well".

Correspondingly, Nordquist (2019, paragraph. 1) Available at: <https://thoughtco.com/what-is-editing-1690631> (Accessed on the 20.02.2020). defines editing as "a stage of the writing process in which a writer or editor strives to improve a draft by correcting errors and making words and sentences clearer, more precise, and as effective as possible". Furthermore, "The process of editing involves adding, deleting, and rearranging words to cut the clutter and streamline overall structure" (ibid). Nordquist (2019, paragraph. 2) further explains, "Whether you're working toward completing an assignment or hoping to get something published, tightening your writing and fixing mistakes can actually be a remarkably creative activity. Thoughtful revision of a work can lead to clarification of ideas, a reimagining of images, and sometimes, even a radical rethinking of the way you've approached your topic".

In addition, Anderson (2007: 46) claims that "editing is shaping and creating writing as much as it is something that refines and polishes it". This author is of the view that editing is not limited to a particular context; it may be done in class as well. This is his view:

"A large portion of everyday **editing** instruction can take place in the first few minutes of class ... Starting every class period with invitations to notice, combine, imitate, or celebrate is an easy way to make sure editing and writing are done everyday" (ibid).

All the other insights on editing shared above come to one important thought: editing is a learnt skill. This thought is in line with the view suggested by Anderson (2007), that, editing is a skill that should be taught, that is, it is a skill that a learner may acquire in class. This view aligns with the prescriptions of the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (RSA DBE 2011) in the isiXhosa curriculum, as it clearly stipulates that proofreading and

editing should be part of the process of text writing, nested under the skills of writing and presenting (RSA DBE 2011: 33). Arguably, correction can be made to a text, as it can be made in a speech. However, in spoken words, correction should be made immediately, once the speaker realizes that his or her utterance possesses some deviation; and, immediately that correction is made, the receiver would definitely be able to note the correction. Conversely, in written texts, correction can be made by means of editing which should be done before the communication reaches the receiver. For example, in a classroom situation, learners should make error corrections to their written texts before they hand their texts over to the teacher, as per the CAPS prescriptions (RSA DBE 2011). The understanding drawn by the researcher from the literature is that editing is considered a determining factor in the study of errors. Thus, in the analysis of errors in texts, it would be the evidence of the edited work by the learner himself or herself that can assist the researcher to be able to determine whether a learner has made a mistake or an error. This therefore means that determining an error and a mistake in this research will be based on the following:

- a) *Error*: if there is no sign of a correction made by the learner to a language deviation detected.
- b) *Error*: if there is some correction made by the learner to a language deviation detected, but correction is still inaccurate.
- c) *Mistake*: if the language deviation was detected and an accurate correction is made by the learner.

The above insight on errors in orthography enables the researcher to draw the conclusion that no language learner may deliberately make errors in assessment activities, whether these are formal or informal. Logic dictates that any orthographic errors found in the learners' texts are unintentional and their sources are different.

Simon and Van Herreweghe (2010: 303) emphasize the importance of reading and the rules of orthography in language acquisition. This view is substantiated by the assertion made by Probert and De Vos (2016: 1) that learners have numerous cognitive tools that are actively stimulated by being exposed to print orthography and those include phonological and morphological awareness. In addition, Maphalala et al. (2014: 1) claim that language acquisition is a process of building up that needs to be started at an early age in order for a

strong language base to form. Therefore, language orthography should be taught from pre-school level to promote and maintain the language standard (ibid).

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Orthographic errors in texts present themselves as an evident language gap in the learning of isiXhosa that is exhibited by errors in written texts by learners, and those include but are not limited to grammar, spelling, punctuation, vocabulary, syntax, and semantic errors. The causes of errors in language learning vary. For example, they may include lack of orthographic knowledge, limited reading, as well as negative attitude. Nevertheless, there are many ways to minimize and prevent such errors from happening. In relation to limited reading as a contributing factor to orthographic errors, Simon and Van Herreweghe (2010: 304) maintain that a learner of a particular language can develop correct spelling of words in a particular language if they familiarize themselves with the orthography of that language. There is no empirical study, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, which has proven that teachers contribute to the errors occurring in the learners' texts. However, this claim may not be overlooked as teachers are entrusted with a huge task, that of developing learners' competence in language and are thus responsible for the eradication of their errors (Nkani 1998: 1). Hypothetically, if teachers are not well trained or familiar with the language and its orthography, they might not be able to identify and correct such errors; and this lack of knowledge may be passed on to the learners and become interminable. In line with this background, the main problem statement for this study is captured in the following questions:

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

(1) What are the orthographic errors occurring in the writing of isiXhosa? (2) What are the possible causes and impact of these errors on teaching and learning, language development and language conservation? (3) What are the linguistic implications of these errors and to what extent can they be addressed in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa?

1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main objective of this study is to investigate the orthographic errors in isiXhosa texts (essays, which are formal assessment activities of the second and fourth terms of the 2017 year for Grade 11 L1 learners in the Western Cape). These texts provide empirical data

which will be used to address the research questions along with the problem statement pertaining to the orthographic errors in the isiXhosa texts. For validation of the data drawn from the learners' texts, data is also drawn from the interviews with isiXhosa teachers and subject advisers regarding the objectives of the study. Consequently, through data analysis, the researcher will achieve the following:

- Identification of orthographic errors found in these essays.
- Identification of the possible causes and impact of these errors on teaching and learning, language development and language conservation.
- Identification of the implications of these errors and the extent to which they can be addressed in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa.

1.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study employs the Communicative Competence (CC) theory of Hymes (1972). Communicative competence is described as a specific feature of human competence which makes it possible to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specified contexts (ibid). Relating this to written communication, communicative competence may be said to have a direct bearing on conveying messages which require less effort for their comprehension. This model has been widely cited and applied by many scholars who have researched issues relating to second language learning. Such issues include, amongst others: (i) grammatical competence (the knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology); and (ii) discourse competence. CC theory is based on three elements, namely Grammatical Competence, Discourse Competence and Sociolinguistic Competence. Brown (1941: 196) explains discourse as "everything from simple spoken conversations to lengthy written texts". Furthermore, grammatical competence focuses on sentence-level grammar, whilst discourse competence focuses on inter-sentential relationships. "Grammatical Competence is associated more with mastering the linguistic code of a language, the linguistic competence" (ibid). Furthermore, Grammatical Competence involves knowledge of lexical items, the knowledge of the rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar, semantics and phonology (Canale & Swain 1980: 29). Therefore, Grammatical Competence is regarded as the mastery of the linguistic code of a language (Brown 1941:196). These elements are understood as qualifiers of grammatical competence in a particular language. On the other

hand, Discourse Competence is viewed as the “ability to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances” (Brown 1941:196). Relating this notion to writing – and taking into account the relationship between the importance of orthography and Grammatical Competence – it may be argued that Discourse Competence enables one to form a meaningful whole out of a series of written sentences. Therefore, Discourse Competence is also a qualifying feature for communicative competence in lengthy written texts (ibid). Lastly, Sociolinguistic Competence is an element that involves socio-cultural rules of the language and the rules of discourse. It therefore requires comprehension of the social context in which the language is used (Brown 1941; Canale & Swain 1980).

This study has employed CC theory, firstly, for its focus on linguistic competence and linguistic performance as the elements of communicative competence. This therefore means that CC theory encompasses grammatical, discourse and sociolinguistic competence, which also serve as the primary focus areas of this study. Secondly, it is one of the theories that is most relevant to the focus of this study, thus it is the most suitable framework for this study. This study will not apply the dynamic nature of CC theory but will focus only on the communicative competence of the message producer, which, in this case, is a learner. Additionally, though CC theory relates widely to second language learning, it is also useful in first language learning because of the elements of communicative competence which may have a direct relationship with orthography, which is the main focus of this study. Canale and Swain (1980: 30), are of the view that “knowledge of the Socio-cultural rules is also imperative for the interpretation of utterances for social meaning, particularly when there is a low level of transparency between the literal meaning of an utterance and the speaker’s intention”. Relating this to written communication, it may be argued that knowledge of these rules will be crucial ‘in interpreting utterances for social meaning, particularly when there is a low level of transparency between the literal meaning of a text and the writer’s intention’. These sentiments amount to the view that, in order for one to understand the language at the required level of writing in different communication contexts, one has to understand the culture of the people of that particular language. Therefore, for one to have communicative competence in a language in relation to writing, one must be able to write in that particular language with an awareness of appropriate context and the values shared by the people of that language.

The main emphasis of the CC theory is on the application of grammatical rules on language performance. In simple terms, CC requires a language user not just to learn and understand the grammatical rules of the language, but especially apply the rules accurately to construct meaningful utterances and sentences. Therefore, CC treats grammatical competence and performance competence as two inseparable components, since grammar cannot be applied in a vacuum but should be used in specific discourses. Thus, the only way to measure communicative competence is through the way grammar is applied in day-to-day communication, especially with regard to written communication. In the eventuality that a language user is able to apply the learnt grammar accurately in his or her written communication, that learner may then be considered communicatively competent in that language.

In addition to this explanation of the elements of CC theory, there are the functions of language and language styles which contribute to communicative competence. Accomplishment of a language function and proper use of styles depends on the knowledge one possesses about language forms such as morphemes, words, grammar rules, discourse rules and other organizational competencies (Brown 1941: 199). Brown (1941: 210) further argues that categories of style can apply to different forms of written discourse, including essays. Emphasis is also placed on the view that, discourse styles are not social or regional dialects, but sets of conventions for selecting words, phrases, discourse and non-verbal language in specified contexts (Brown 1941: 209). This is also very important for this research study, as the essay data is used for analysis.

Another most important element of CC theory is non-verbal communication, and this is important owing to the very strong association of CC theory with spoken language. Basically, CC theory as explained in Canale & Swain (1980: 16), translates into the interconnection between grammatical, psycholinguistic, socio-cultural and probabilistic systems of competence.

There are some problems associated with the CC theory, just like those of any other theory. Firstly, the main problems highlighted in Hymes (1972: 269-280) include the following:

- The concern of the linguistic theory is mainly on the ideal speaker-listener, in a totally 'homogenous' speech community where the language is perfectly known and used with

no inadequacies resulting from grammatically irrelevant conditions such as: memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors which may play part in the application of the language knowledge in actual performance. To contextualise this within this research, there may be a need to substitute the concept 'speaker to listener' with 'writer to reader'.

- The inferences of competence and performance are much more unhesitatingly on the 'concrete persons, situations, and actions'.
- None of the modern linguistic theory addresses any of the internal structure or the intrinsic human significance in more depth.
- The theory speaks of performance and competence in isolation without showing how each may depend on the other.
- There seems to be some confusion between the different meanings of the notion of performance as used in the discussion of communicative competence, as in normal circumstances performance is used to refer to observable behaviour.

Additionally, the researcher also observed a problem with the CC theory and such relates to non-verbal communication as one of its main elements. Non-verbal communication seems only to apply to oral language. Since CC theory seems to be widely related to oral language, it seems to overlook the possibility of non-verbal communication as an element of written language. For example, in the school context looking at the communicative competence in relation to written communication; switching between a correct and incorrect language form, regular scratching out of words, or scratching out of words to replace them with incorrect language forms, could be non-verbal cues communicating different messages regarding, for example, the writer's lack of fluency, incomplete language acquisition, lack of knowledge of a particular language form, lack of confidence in using the language, or other psychological conditions such as those mentioned in the first bulleted point above. These may therefore need to be taken into consideration in research into orthographic errors in teaching and learning of indigenous languages as first languages.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The different aspects of the research methodology of this study are set out in the paragraphs below:

1.7.1 Research approach

This study has adopted both a qualitative and a quantitative approach, with the qualitative being dominant. The purpose of using the qualitative approach was to investigate, unearth and examine the orthographic errors, whilst the aim of using the quantitative approach was to determine the extent to which these errors are made. In addition, because of the objectives and choice of research methodology, a qualitative method design was selected because it was envisaged that it would contribute to credible findings and accomplishment of the objectives. For example, data was collected from different sources (i.e. a cohort of Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners, teachers and subject advisers). Apart from the learners' written essays, one-to-one, in-depth interviews were conducted with individual teachers and subject advisers. Arguably, such an approach has the potential of providing triangulation and validation of the findings of the study.

1.7.2 Sampling

The study participants included secondary school Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners studying in four different township schools from the following areas in the Western Cape: Strand, Mfuleni, Samora Machel and Gugulethu. The learners, ten per school and 40 in total, were randomly selected, but were inclusive of boys and girls. The gender ratio, however, was not prioritised in this study because of the selection procedure used; and because the study focuses on the errors made by the Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners in general, regardless of their gender. The medium of instruction in all four schools is English. All the learners are isiXhosa mother tongue speakers, and they learn isiXhosa as their L1.

In addition to the learner participants of this study, eight isiXhosa L1 teachers from the same schools were selected to participate in the study. Two teachers were selected per school to participate in the interviews. They had obtained their respective training from a variety of institutions offering different curricula, namely, Nated 550; Outcomes Based Education (OBE); National Curriculum Statement (NCS); and Curriculum Assessment Policy

Statement (CAPS). They also had different levels of experience. In addition to the eight teachers, two Western Cape Education Department subject advisers, with working experience in the field of one year and ten years respectively, were also interviewed as participants in the study.

To ensure that the data was credible, the above-mentioned participants were selected from districts within the same province.

Duplicates of the learners' original isiXhosa essay scripts were accessed from the above-mentioned schools and kept safely for analysis by the researcher.

In terms of validity and reliability of data, the researcher ensured that the samples and the data were representative of the participating groups (Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners; teachers and subject advisers).

1.7.3 Procedure

To ensure the authenticity of the data, the learners' written essays (formal assessment pieces for the June and December exams, 2017) were randomly selected and duplicated. The June data (written essays) was used for the random selection of the participants. After the selection from the June data was completed, the December written essays of the same learners were also selected. Thus, both sets of the selected data belonged to the same learners selected for this research.

The primary focus was on Grade 11; and the selection procedure, insofar as learners' data is concerned, was partly informed by various assumptions, including, but not limited to, the following:

- Grade 11 is considered to be an essential preparatory grade which determines the state of readiness of the learners as they pave their way to Grade 12 and ultimately tertiary level. Universities use Grade 11 results as part of their selection criteria and thus provisionally accept students whilst awaiting the final Grade 12 results.
- Also, this grade potentially serves as a testing ground for desired levels of language literacy in as far as the selected group is concerned.

Face-to-face interviews with teachers were arranged and conducted to gain insights from them, as they work closely with the learners. Subject advisers' perceptions and opinions were also solicited, as they work closely with teachers as part of their role in the Department of Basic Education.

The enquiry intended to uncover the following issues:

- (a) isiXhosa orthography and its importance;
- (b) types of orthographic errors that are common in learners' texts;
- (c) the impact of such errors on the proficiency and fluency of these learners in isiXhosa, as their mother tongue;
- (d) the impact of the errors on the learners' academic success; and
- (e) the pedagogical challenges that permeate the learning and teaching activities of Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 teaching and learning as a result of this linguistic reality.

1.7.4 Data capturing

1.7.4.1 Written essays

The collection of data (written essays) was undertaken in February 2019. The researcher personally visited the schools of the participants after scheduling appointments with schools and the times set by the schools. On her first visit to the schools, she held meetings with the principals, HODs of isiXhosa departments, and teachers at each school to give a detailed explanation about her study.

The second visit was scheduled for data collection. On her arrival at schools, for the actual data collection, the researcher was provided with the data (all Grade 11 isiXhosa essays) by the HOD in charge of the isiXhosa Department in each school. The data comprised the June and December 2017 exam essays belonging to each of the learner participants of this research. Some were duplicate essays, but others were originals. The random selection of the June essays involved choosing one essay after every 10 essays. The June essays selected determined which learners' essays would be selected from the December essays. Thus, after selecting the first set of essays from the June exams of each school, the

researcher chose essays from the December exam that had been written by the 10 learners whose June essays had previously been selected. In total, 20 essays were collected from each school. With four schools, these amounted to 80 essays collected as data units for this study.

The participating learners whose essays were selected were then called by the researcher to be informed about their selection to participate in the study. The study was explained to them in detail, including their rights. Upon finishing with all the formalities and ethical matters, the selected data was officially handed over to the researcher. Duplicates of the original scripts of the selected written essays were kept safely. In cases where some schools had not seen the need to keep the original scripts anymore and considered the making of copies a waste of resources, the researcher agreed to accept the original essay scripts. The duration of this exercise was a month.

The written essays were typed and saved in Word documents. This was for the purpose of including them in the thesis as appendices for ease of reference.

1.7.4.2 Interviews

After the collection of essays, the researcher scheduled interviews at times and places suitable for the individual interviews with the teachers and subject advisers. Two weeks before the interviews, the interview questions were sent to the interviewees via email, enabling them to be able to prepare thoroughly for their interviews. Prior to each interview, a detailed explanation of the procedure, including the recording of the interview session, was given to each interviewee. These interviews were audio-recorded by the researcher using a digital voice recorder. Thereafter, the interviews were transcribed as written text and saved as Word documents. The same interview text was translated from isiXhosa into English through the services of a sworn translator for ease of reference and accessibility to the readership. The duration of the interviews was also a month. In total, the data collection period took two months.

1.7.5 Data analysis

In the process of data analysis, the researcher had to validate the accuracy of the assumptions outlined in the study using data derived from the text data (written essays) of the Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners. As already mentioned, the researcher had also

transcribed the recorded interviews with the teachers and subject advisers and then analysed the transcripts. Both the written essays and interview transcripts were analysed through the use of selected analytical tools. Processes included reading the content of each essay and interview transcript, making notes, and marking the important themes for follow-up or further exploration. The data (written essays) was analysed using the isiXhosa orthography, *Oxford isiXhosa-isiNgesi: English-isiXhosa School Dictionary* (2014) and isiXhosa textbooks as models of accurate isiXhosa use to guide my analysis of the essay texts, as well as to use as a frame of reference for my teacher and subject advisers' interviews. These were chosen as models of accuracy for analysis because they stipulate and emphasise the correct use of isiXhosa grammar, spelling, punctuation, word division, syntax, semantics, vocabulary, capitalisation and other written language components which were required for analysis of the written texts. Furthermore, it was envisaged that, through data analysis of the selected texts (essays and interviews), credible findings would emerge which could answer the research questions and support the objectives of this study, possibly leading to further research studies.

1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study sheds light on

- (a) the nature of orthographic errors found in the learners' isiXhosa texts;
- (b) possible causes of these errors;
- (c) the exact orthographic rules broken by making such errors;
- (d) the possible ways in which these errors can be addressed in teaching and learning of isiXhosa;
- (e) the implications of these orthographic errors on teaching and learning, language development and language conservation;
- (f) the impact of such errors on the learners' academic success; and
- (g) the possibility for learners to realize and correct such errors before they proceed to Grade 12; and the role of feedback in addressing the latter issue.

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This study examined orthographic errors in the IsiXhosa texts of Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners in selected schools in the Western Cape within the ambit of Basic Education. As it was a primary requirement for the researcher to proceed with the research, a letter of approval, acceding to the request to conduct the study, was obtained from the Western Cape Education Department (WCED); Reference: 20170607-1807. A further process in relation to ethical clearance was requested and endorsed by the University of Fort Hare Research Ethics Committee (UREC); Reference: RAL011STIT01.

As already mentioned, the research was thoroughly explained to the participants before they could agree to be part of the study. Given the fact that the majority of the learners were under 18 years of age, letters of consent were generated and signed by parents on behalf of learners. Consent was also received from both teachers and subject advisers. All the names of the participants were anonymised and their identity was kept confidential throughout the study.

1.10 REFLECTION ON LIMITATIONS

The data collection part of the research became a daunting challenge due to the following:

- Some principals rejected the request for their schools to participate in the study and did not respond positively to my request to set up appointments to meet with them as the first line of contact for getting access to the schools.
- Some teachers were reluctant; and some completely refused to be part of the study.
- Some teachers were not willing to source the learners' written essays when requested to do so; and some failed to make these essays available until the data collection period was over.

The above-mentioned resulted in the following:

- Some schools initially identified as research sites had to be removed from the participating schools list and be substituted with others within the same districts.
- The data collection period took longer than the time allocated as per the work schedule.
- Incomplete data were features of both the written essays and interviews; and the researcher was eventually compelled to remove one school from the participant list due

to unavailability of the December data. That eventually resulted in having data from only three of the planned four schools. Additionally, ultimately, I interviewed only one teacher in one school and two in the other two schools, and that gave me a total of five teacher interviews for the study.

1.11 OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS

This study comprises the following chapters:

CHAPTER 1: Introduction

This introductory chapter presents the background to the research, problem statement, objectives of the study, theoretical framework, research methodology, and significance of the study. It also provides some information on the ethical considerations, as well as reflection on limitations of the study.

CHAPTER 2: Literature review

This chapter studies and critically engages with work done by various scholars on different issues relating to orthography, language importance and problems facing languages, different ways of addressing language issues, errors and error analysis, communicative competence, implications of errors and language deviation; this is just to mention a few. This chapter further looks at feedback as a viable solution, specifically to feedback as an important component of teaching and learning. It thus defines the concept of feedback, outlines types of feedback, discusses the role of feedback, examines feedback as an intervention, examines the impact of feedback as well as efficiency of feedback, and looks at the shortcomings on feedback. Lastly, this chapter considers theories which form the base of this study: Error Analysis (ER) and Communicative Competence (CC), providing an insight into how these two theories relate to this study.

CHAPTER 3: Research methodology

This chapter provides insights into the research method employed in this study and that includes research approach, sampling procedure, data capturing and data analysis.

CHAPTER 4: Data presentation and analysis

This chapter presents the data of this study and its analysis. It also provides insights into the analytical theory and analytical model employed in the analysis of the data of this study.

CHAPTER 5: Findings and Discussion

This chapter presents the findings of this study and show how they connect to the literature which has been reviewed earlier. It also provides a discussion of the results, showing which objectives the study has been able to meet.

CHAPTER 6: Conclusion and recommendations

This chapter provides the conclusion to the study and presents recommendations. It also identifies areas for future research emanating from the gaps and findings of this study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is divided into three parts. The first part broadly covers issues relating to errors. It mainly considers scholars' perspectives on language errors in language learning with specific reference to written language, but not overlooking the spoken language. To provide clear direction, a definition of language and its importance will be explored. Then there will be a brief but detailed background and discussion on the written isiXhosa language and its standardization, followed by a probe into different perspectives on orthography and its importance, especially in language learning. There will be further exploration of text and error analysis, communicative competence and other issues relevant to the topic under discussion.

The first part of the chapter will be approached in the following manner: defining language and the importance of languages; a brief history of written isiXhosa; Orthography; by definition, the broader scope and specific detail in relation to the classification and structure of isiXhosa; perspectives of scholars on the importance of orthography in language learning; the importance of language teaching, language curriculum and orthography; the importance of writing as a language component and skill; language errors; error analysis which also provides some insights into the steps of the process; and measures to address errors in language teaching and learning.

The second part of this chapter focuses attention broadly on the notion of feedback which is meant to be an intervention to address errors. Therefore, this part studies and critically engages with work done by various scholars on issues relating to feedback as an important component of teaching and learning. This topic is thus treated in the following specific themes: defining the concept of feedback, types of feedback, the role of feedback, feedback as an intervention, the impact of feedback, efficiency of feedback, shortcomings on feedback.

The third part of this chapter examines the two major theoretical formations which serve as a base for this research: Error Analysis (EA) of Corder (1981); and Communicative

Competence (CC) of Hymes (1972). These theories are complementary in the sense that they place emphasis on the importance of conveying messages in a comprehensible manner, without any language deviations because these have potential to hinder or impact negatively on comprehension. In other words, the two theories are connected in the sense that they both consider language use as the main important feature for clear and successful communication. In simple terms, CC requires a language user not just to learn and understand the grammatical rules of the language, but it is more concerned about the accurate application of such rules to construct meaningful utterances and sentences. Therefore, CC treats grammatical competence and performance competence as two inseparable components since grammar cannot be applied in a vacuum but should be used in specific discourses. Thus, the only way to measure communicative competence is through the way grammar is applied in day-to-day communication, especially with regard to written communication. In the eventuality that, as a language user, one is able to apply the acquired grammatical skills accurately in one's written communication, then one may be considered communicatively competent in a language. CC theory corresponds very well with EA theory, as EA theory emphasizes the principle that error-free sentences are those that are well formed and are both appropriate and acceptable. Thus, appropriateness and acceptability are also determinants of non-deviant communication. In a nutshell, communicative competence is achieved when appropriate and acceptable communication is produced through accurate application of the acquired knowledge of grammatical rules. Therefore, firstly, this section broadly discusses the EA theory. Secondly, this section broadly discusses the CC theory. In the discussion of EA, this section looks firstly at the principle of the theory; secondly, it focuses its attention on the procedure for conducting EA; thirdly, it considers EA as an analytical theory; and, fourthly, it explains the application of EA in the current study. This section then moves to discuss the CC theory. The initial focus of the section that discusses the CC theory is on the explanation of the theory; secondly, the elements of the theory; and thirdly, gaps within the theory. Finally, there will be a conclusion to the entire chapter.

2.2 DEFINING LANGUAGE AND THE IMPORTANCE OF LANGUAGES

Ranasuriya (2015: 2) defines language as “one of the important forms of communication which plays an important role in terms of human communication”. This author claims that language features a set of rules (grammar) that links the signs (words or vocabulary) to make meaningful messages in the form of speech or writing. This author further puts forward an important question about the importance of languages in human lives, and goes on to provide an answer: that languages are an integral part of people’s lives, “mainly because they evolve meanings in the people’s minds” (ibid). According to this author, “Language could be slated as the root of communication” (Ranasuriya 2015: 2). For example, in the case of amaXhosa, the first writers of isiXhosa were proud of the isiXhosa language and they took pride in the books they produced, as these books provided them with platforms to voice their views on different issues, such as political issues, including colonialism, urbanization and apartheid. Some of the issues explored through these writings included the following: the status of African tradition in the face of the Western colonial intrusion; the dangers of urban life in Africa; and the transcription of Xhosa oral traditions in the hopes of preserving them <https://www.alsintl.com/resources/languages/Xhosa/> (Accessed on the 7/07/2017). These insights arouse interest in the background of the written isiXhosa in South Africa, a topic on which the next discussion focuses attention.

2.3 A BRIEF HISTORY OF WRITTEN ISIXHOSA IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.3.1 Previous challenges facing the language

The indigenous languages in Southern Africa have been faced with numerous issues over the past centuries. In South Africa, to be specific, such issues have ranged from issues of recording, standardization, integration of these languages into the curriculum, as well as rights and protection of languages. IsiXhosa is one of the indigenous languages in South Africa that has not been immune to such challenges. For clarity and consistency’s sake, it is worth looking at the origins of the words ‘isiXhosa’ and ‘Xhosa’. UNESCO World languages report survey questionnaire (UNESCO 2000) gives the origins of these two words and reports that ‘isiXhosa’ is “Autoglotonym (name given to the language by its native speakers) while ‘Xhosa’ is “Heteroglotonym (name given by the non-native community to the language)”. ‘IsiXhosa’ is the preferred name based on its origins and for the purposes of this work.

In the centuries prior up until the early eighteenth century, isiXhosa was not a written language, so there were no books written in this language. This was due to a number of reasons, among which was the fact that, at that time, indigenous people, including Xhosas, were illiterate, in that they could not read or write. This is confirmed in *South African history online: Towards a people's history* (2017) where it is stated that, in the early eighteenth century, isiXhosa was not written: it was an oral language rich in music, oral poetry, folklore and praise poetry; and even the Xhosa traditions were passed to the younger generations through oral expression.

It is stated in Saul (2013: 27) and Switzer (1984: 461) that it was only at the beginning of the mid-nineteenth century, in 1823 to be specific, that isiXhosa was represented as a written language for the first time. It is further stated in Switzer (1984: 461) and Saul (2013: 27) that at that time the missionaries were not fully skilled in the isiXhosa language until in the 1830s when the first grammars were published. According to Switzer (1984: 461), such grammars were followed by *Ikwezi* ('Morning Star') which, between August 1844 and December 1845, was published jointly by the Presbyterians and the Methodists at Tyhume Mission Station near the present site of Lovedale. Switzer (1984: 461) adds that "Missionary publications in Xhosa were devotional, evangelical and educational in content". This author further reports:

The missionaries concentrated on producing translations of the Gospels and other portions of the Bible, catechisms prayer books, religious homilies, hymns and primary school instructional materials in addition to dictionaries and other works concerned with the language. The goal of all the mission societies was to produce the whole of the Bible in Xhosa – the centerpiece of literate culture. The first translation of the New Testament appeared in 1846 and this was followed by the Old Testament in 1857. In the 1860s the Presbyterian mission undertook to revise the Xhosa Bible and this was completed in 1887 (Switzer 1984: 461).

Furthermore, in 1897, a hymn written in isiXhosa, 'Nkosi Sikelel' i-Afrika' (God Bless Africa) came into existence. It was written by a school teacher named Enoch Sontonga (<http://www.sahistory.org.za/article/xhosa> (Accessed on the 7/07/2017)). This hymn is still popular as it is part of the South African National anthem. Such initiatives were made

possible by the Scottish missionaries of the Glasgow Missionary Society and the European missionaries, to name a few (Saul 2013: 27). These first isiXhosa writings opened doors for a number of isiXhosa genres in the nineteenth century: genres such as newspapers, novels, and plays. Amongst those were the first novels in isiXhosa, namely: 'uSamson' which was written, funded and published by S.E.K. Mqhayi in 1907; 'UNomsa', which was written by Guybon Sinxo in 1922; and 'Ingqumbo Yeminyanya' written by A.C Jordan in 1940. Amongst the aforementioned authors, Tiyo Soga, I. Bud-Mbelle, and John Tengo Jabavu, to mention a few, were some of the authors involved in the production of other isiXhosa genres (<http://www.sahistory.org.za/article/xhosa> (Accessed on the 7/07/ 2017)).

After the issue of reducing isiXhosa into writing was resolved, new challenges such as issues relating to what was to be written and included in the isiXhosa curriculum at school level mushroomed. The Nationalist Government of 1948 established Language Committees which were vested with the power to regulate the written language in a way that would conform to their prescriptions on the formulation of spelling rules, compilation of vocabulary for schools and the promotion and prescription of school books (<http://www.salanguages.com/unesco/isixhosa.htm> (Accessed on the 07/07/2017)). More clarity is given on this point in the UNESCO (2017) world languages report survey questionnaire:

The apartheid Language Boards were responsible for making recommendations about the highly influential and profitable market of prescribed books for schools, making sure that languages are 'pure' and not pushing the political agendas. As instruments of the government, their recommendations were expected to screen out any protest literature, with the result that published works in the African languages were restricted to traditional themes. Because of the association with apartheid structures, the standardization process therefore unfortunately lacked legitimacy.

Since every language should be guided by standardized rules, isiXhosa grammar books which followed in the nineteenth century were criticized by many based on the claims that such books were not written accurately according to the isiXhosa rules (<http://www.salanguages.com/unesco/isixhosa.htm> (Accessed on the 07/07/2017)). Not everybody had confidence regarding the early attempts at standardization by the first

isiXhosa grammar authors. They were referred to as “clumsy procedures ... each working to their own agenda, often basing their orthographies on those of their own languages” (ibid). This claim also appears in Saul (2013: 27) where he mentions that the missionaries from Europe had, in a way, lowered the standard of isiXhosa by “writing out of the blue”, excluding the contributions of the original speakers of the language. Writing in isiXhosa was a huge challenge to these missionaries as it was their first encounter with an African language, hence there should not be any surprises when their design of isiXhosa orthography shows imperfections (ibid). Nonetheless, the current standardization of isiXhosa is apparently based on the Ngqika and Gcaleka dialects (Nyamende 1994, as cited by Gxilishe 1996: 5 and (<http://www.salanguages.com/unesco/isixhosa.htm>) (Accessed on the 07/07/2017).

2.3.2. Current challenges facing the language

There are numerous challenges facing isiXhosa – and not just isiXhosa but other indigenous languages as well. The researcher has observed that arguments around standardization imply that there is dissatisfaction regarding standardization of the language. Thus, standardization seems to be one of the challenges facing the language. Possible extinction which may be caused by various factors also seems to be the biggest threat to the language. Dlanga (2011, paragraph. 5) available at <https://www.news24.com/columnist/khaya-Dlanga/English-has-colonised-our-languages-20110215> (Accessed on the 16/10/2017) quotes from an article published in the British publication, *The Economist*, titled ‘South African languages: Tongues under threat’, which reported that “English is dangerously dominant in South Africa, so dangerous that it is eating away at isiXhosa, Zulu, Tswana, Ndebele, Afrikaans and numerous other South African languages”. This, according to Dlanga (2011, para. 4) available at <https://www.news24.com/columnist/khaya-Dlanga/English-has-colonised-our-languages-20110215> (Accessed on the 16/10/2017) emphasizes the “slow decline of South African languages”. Dlanga (2011, paragraph. 6) offers himself as an example: he cannot proficiently read or write in isiXhosa which is his mother tongue. He reports that he has not read a single isiXhosa novel in his life, yet he has read so many English novels that he has even lost count. Furthermore, Dlanga (2011, paragraph. 7) claims that South African black people are participating in the neo-colonisation of their languages, including isiXhosa, and are glaringly encouraging it. Dlanga (2011, paragraph. 10) goes on to warn that, if black South Africans are not doing anything to prevent

a “spectacular demise” of the indigenous languages, these languages are going to end up like Latin, which is only studied by people who enjoy languages, and will finally become extinct. Furthermore, the limited value placed on the indigenous languages is not just commanding disrespect for such languages, but also “demeans” black people and “robs the world of rich culture”. The death of indigenous languages will lead to the end of understanding of black cultures (Dlanga 2011, paragraph. 10).

Moving on to standardization of the language as another challenge facing the language. It is without doubt that the current standardization of isiXhosa has always been a burning issue. There are current debates and different views on which isiXhosa rules ought to be followed. Some linguists believe that the standardized rules of isiXhosa need to be reviewed and updated (Saul 2013: 32-35). This is amongst the issues that Gxilishe (1996: 9) addresses, advocating for language change which, he maintains, would indicate that the isiXhosa language is still alive. Dyubhele (2001) as cited by Saul (2013: 34) shares the same sentiments and goes profoundly by reporting that there are some problems with the orthographic rules of isiXhosa. These problems lead to false and inconsistent application of rules when writing this language; and some of these rules are not accounted for. According to Saul (2013), this inconsistency causes confusion, even to the isiXhosa speakers who ought to have extensive knowledge of the correct system of writing. They seem to lack certainty about the application of rules as they are unsure exactly which rules are to be applied under which circumstances. As a result, diverse complications and inconsistencies are evident in various materials written in isiXhosa, such as manuscripts, dictionaries, the South African constitution and in electronic media. Such inconsistencies include capitalization, hyphenation and the spelling of isiXhosa-aspirated sounds. Gxilishe (1996) also expresses his dissatisfaction with language standardization as he strongly disapproves of the standardisation of isiXhosa. Gxilishe (1996: 5) quotes Nyamende (1994) who claims that what is termed a ‘standard isiXhosa’ is what was written at the time the missionaries started printing books. He makes mention of the Ngqika dialect, Thembu and Gcaleka variants as isiXhosa dialects which appeared in print and were initially adopted at schools as the standard isiXhosa. Giving clarity on this point, Gxilishe (1996: 5) reports that, except for these three dialects, the other isiXhosa dialects were regarded as non-standard, and, “as a result of the spread of education, the non-standard variants are marginalized as they are

not accepted in formal education” (ibid). This point will be discussed in detail later in this chapter.

2.3.3 The History of distribution and preservation efforts of isiXhosa

Despite all the challenges that have surrounded isiXhosa, it is yet one of the 11 official languages spoken in South Africa: and, according to Musehane and Mathabi (2016: 226), it has also received the honour of being protected by the Norms and Rules of The Pan South African Languages Board (PanSALB) as a standard language. Furthermore, IsiXhosa extends beyond the South African borders: it is also spoken in some other African countries. Kunju (2017: v) notes:

There are an estimated two hundred thousand South African amaXhosa who are mostly amaMfengu descendants living in Zimbabwe since the late 1800s-1900s. The majority are found in the areas of Mbembesi, Fort Rixon in Filabusi, Kenilworth and the Motapa area in Bubi.

Furthermore, some of the amaXhosa living in Zimbabwe came from the Eastern Cape with Cecil John Rhodes as domestic workers and travelled to Zimbabwe on wagons during the 1800s (ibid). Some of the facts unearthed by this author are how a cross-border language (isiXhosa) can survive against all odds. In the same breath, in <http://www.omniglot.com/writing/xhosa.htm> (Accessed on the 25/02/2017) it is reported that the estimated 7.9 million people speaking isiXhosa extends into Lesotho.

Apart from the fact that isiXhosa has survived beyond South African borders, its survival has also, to a certain extent, been maintained by the existence of bodies such as the PanSALB. As noted earlier, Musehane and Mathabi (2016) report that, the PanSALB is responsible for standardization of languages. The establishment of such a body and the inclusion of isiXhosa as a subject offered in the South African education system was not only a way of recognizing and paying respect to the language, it was also a way of ensuring the preservation of the language. Furthermore, isiXhosa has been growing over the years. This was made possible partly by its use as an official language on government platforms and in the media as a whole. As stated in <http://www.salanguages.com/unesco/isixhosa.htm> (Accessed on the 25/02/2017), the isiXhosa language is used in both written and spoken

forms, together with English, for both local and provincial government services in the Eastern Cape. In addition, <https://www.gov.za/speeches/eastern-cape-legislature-passes-use-official-languages-bill-1-dec-2016-0000> (Accessed on 12/10/2020) declared isiXhosa, Afrikaans, English and Sesotho as the official languages of the Province adopted by the Eastern Cape Government in 2016 (RSA ECPL 2016). IsiXhosa is also used, together with English and Afrikaans, in the Western Cape as an official language of the province. Print and electronic media, such as daily broadcasts on radio (*Umhlobo Wenene* and some local community radio stations), newspapers (*Imvo*), magazines (*Bona*) and television (SABC TV1 shared with other Nguni languages) are also making use of isiXhosa <http://www.salanguages.com/unesco/isixhosa.htm> (Accessed on the 25/02/2017).

This all proves that a lot has been done to uphold and preserve the isiXhosa language. However, these efforts do not seem to have brought an end to the challenges facing the isiXhosa language. The writing of isiXhosa at school level is still questionable, unsatisfactory and has drawn the attention of the researcher. It may be said with complete assurance that the writing of isiXhosa forms one of the main challenges facing isiXhosa in the twenty-first century, based on the fact that orthographic errors in texts present themselves as an evident language shortcoming in teaching and learning in schools. Such errors include, but are not limited to, spelling, punctuation, vocabulary, syntax, and semantic errors. The causes of such errors in language learning vary. For example, they may include: a lack of orthographic knowledge; limited reading; dialects (language variations); the influence of the media; language change; and attitude. Numerous language scholars have identified and suggested numerous different ways to minimize and prevent such errors from happening.

In relation to limited reading opportunities as a contributing factor to orthographic errors, Simon and Van Herreweghe (2010: 304) maintain that a learner of a particular language can develop his/her spelling of that particular language if they familiarize themselves with the orthography of that language of interest. There is no empirical study, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, that has proven that teachers contribute to the errors occurring in the learners' texts. However, this claim may not be overlooked, as teachers certainly have a task to develop learners' competence in language and are thus responsible for assisting them in the eradication of their errors (Nkani 1998: 1). Hypothetically, if teachers are not well trained in, nor familiar with, the language orthography, they might not be able to identify such

errors; and this lack of knowledge may be passed on to the learners and become interminable. In support of this view, Probert and De Vos (2016: 2) point out the following:

In South Africa, the relationship between language structure and orthography is not always reflected in pedagogy; teacher training is oriented to English and Afrikaans, indigenous language curriculum documents are often translated directly from English and therefore reflect English teaching concerns.

These sentiments lead to a necessary discussion on the subject of orthography. It is necessary to understand the concept, its broader scope and the detail of the orthography of isiXhosa in relation to its classification and structure.

2.4 ORTHOGRAPHY

2.4.1 Defining orthography

There are quite a few definitions of orthography in the field of linguistics. These assorted definitions share somewhat similar elements and, as such, they all relate to one important concept, that is, ‘written prescribed rules of a language’. To highlight a few definitions, <http://www.dictionary.com/browse/orthography> (Accessed on the 20/02/2017) defines orthography as the “art of writing words with the proper letters, according to accepted usage; correct spelling”. British dictionary definitions for orthography available on <http://www.dictionary.com/browse/orthography> (Accessed on the 20/02/2017) go further to emphasize that orthography “is a writing system, spelling considered to be correct and the principles underlying spelling”. Similar to the above definitions is the one that refers to orthography as “spelling, a system of rules that determine the uniformity of the means of representing speech – words and grammatical forms – in writing” (The *Great Soviet Encyclopedia* 1979, paragraph. 1, available at <https://encyclopedia2.thefreedictionary.com/Ortographic> (Accessed on the 14/11/2020). Furthermore, “The rules of orthography touch on the ways of representing phonemes and words in letters, use of capital letters, word division, and the open, solid, or hyphenated spelling of compounds” (ibid). Lastly, *Merriam Webster* (2017) available at <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/orthography> (Accessed on the 20/02/2017) defines orthography as “1a: the art of writing words with the proper letters according to

standard usage” and “1b: the representation of sounds of a language by written or printed symbols”; also, “2: a part of language study that deals with letters and spelling”. Corresponding with the above definitions, *Online Etymology Dictionary* (2020) available at: <https://www.etymonline.com/search?q=Orthography> (Accessed on the 4/11/2020) goes much deeper as to provide the origin and history of orthography by stating that the term ‘orthography’ comes from a Greek word “*orthographia*” which means “correct writing”. An understanding gathered from these definitions is that any written piece of language is expected to conform to the orthographic rules of that language, as language orthography forms the base for the written prescribed rules of that particular language.

A definition of orthography by an online website, Vocabulary.com, <https://www.vocabulary.com/dictionary/orthography> (Accessed on the 24/02/2017) places more emphasis on the point that “different languages usually have different systems of writing, and even subsets of language, like text-messaging lingo, have a sort of orthography”. This is similarly emphasized by The *Great Soviet Encyclopaedia* (1979, paragraph. 5) Available at <https://encyclopedia2.thefreedictionary.com/Orthographic> (Accessed on the 14/11/2020) that, “the history of an orthographic system is connected with the history of a given language’s writing system”. An understanding drawn from these statements is that the uniqueness of each language is reflected through its unique orthography. With reference to this emphasis, Probert and De Vos (2016: 2) distinguish between two types of orthographies, namely (i) deep and (ii) transparent orthographies. According to Probert and De Vos (2016: 2), “written language orthographies may vary according to orthographic depth and consistency”. These authors explain orthographic depth as the extent “to which there are one-to-one correspondences between graphemes and linguistic categories (such as phonemes and syllables)” (ibid).

Probert and De Vos (2016: 2) further explain that both historical and phonological considerations influence the use of different orthographies in different languages. According to these scholars, “isiXhosa has a fairly transparent, consistent, alphabetic orthography which is more amenable to sub-lexical processing” (ibid), versus the English orthography “which results in a deep orthography where readers rely less on grapheme-to-grapheme representation and more so on whole-word processing” (ibid). This simply means that one therefore cannot use the orthography of one particular language to write another language.

In addition, Probert and De Vos (2016: 1) maintain that, “approaches used in reading and cognitive skills are developed specifically according to particular languages”. Emphasis is also placed on the view that, “literacies in different languages present readers with different structural puzzles which require language-particular suites of cognitive reading skills” (ibid). Relating this notion to writing, and taking into account orthographic forms, it means that the standardized rules of a language offer a particular set of skills which results in ‘language-particular suites of cognitive writing skills’.

Moving on, according to Musehane and Mathabi (2016: 226), PanSALB was established through an Act of Parliament. This board has published Norms and Rules to guarantee that the establishment of the National Language Bodies, which are agencies of language development, put special emphasis on the standardization and recognition of the entire African language community. This was PanSALB’s initial step, amongst others, towards realizing its objectives. IsiXhosa, as one of the official languages of South Africa, also received the honour to be protected by the Norms and Rules of PanSALB through standardization (ibid).

What has been mentioned earlier is now put into perspective: in practice, anyone who writes isiXhosa is expected to follow the standardized form of the language as stipulated in the isiXhosa orthography; and, “if one does not adhere to the standardized guidelines for the language, one would be said to be ungrammatical” (Musehane & Mathabi 2016: 226). Arguably, any errors made to any of the features of orthography outlined earlier would amount to a violation of the language orthography (ibid). The reverse is true: if one adheres to the standardized guidelines for the language, one would be said to be using the language grammatically; and, arguably, that amounts to being competent in that particular language.

2.4.2 Characteristics of a good orthography

There are many theories surrounding the qualities of a good orthography. Such theories describe a good orthography as one that is practical, with specific reference to simplicity and clarity, whether it is for an African or any other language. An understanding drawn from Meinhof (1928) as cited in Saul (2013: 32) is that, the rationale for the requirement of simplicity of an orthography is that it is not envisioned solely for scholars, but largely for school children and the people who do not have higher levels of education.

The theory of Smalley (1964) as cited in Saul (2013: 36) on the general characteristics of a good orthography also gives some insight into possible features of a good orthography. This author is of the view that a good writing system is one where clear principles have been developed regarding, to mention a few, the following:

- a) Writing of capital letters.
- b) Indication of intonation and other important aspects of speech.
- c) Alphabetic systems where ideally each phoneme is independently represented by a different symbol.
- d) Representation of phonemes by the alphabet.
- e) At syllabic level, where each syllable, usually a group of one or two consonants followed by one or two vowels with or without final consonants, is represented by an individual symbol.
- f) The usage of the apostrophe.
- g) A writing system which is able to accommodate one dialect.
- h) Usage of diacritic marks, and
- i) Representation of vowels by diacritic marks above the vowel and below in the case of consonants to characterize tone.

Documents such as 'isiXhosa old orthography' (n.d.) and an isiXhosa grammar book of Satyo (1996) provide insight into the orthographic rules that should be followed when writing in isiXhosa. Such rules are similar to the characteristics of a good orthography outlined above. The 'isiXhosa Old Orthography' (n.d.: 5) stipulates that, terms listed in it should initially be applied at primary level and were mostly drawn from the syllabuses for the various primary school subjects. This orthography clarifies, specifies and lays emphasis on pronunciation of letters of the alphabet, the writing of the vowels, consonantal sounds and combinations, use of capital letters, word division, use of apostrophe, use of the hyphen and terminology. Satyo (1996) provides isiXhosa language guidelines, which are similar to the ones listed above and these are as follows: the use of the grammar of the isiXhosa language with emphasis on the importance of phonetics, use of literature and literature teaching in teaching and learning of isiXhosa language. Satyo (1996: 3) defines phonetics as a systematic in-depth learning about the ways in which language speech sounds are pronounced. These sounds include the actual sounds during pronunciation: stress of sounds; length of sounds; and the tone of sounds. In addition, phonetics is important

because it provides an understanding of the different ways of pronouncing the same sound by writing each sound in its unique way. This is done through the application of the rules of the International Phonetic Association (IPA) (Satyo 1996: 6). The IPA gave structure to the orthography of isiXhosa, which is the subject of the discussion to follow.

2.4.3 The isiXhosa orthography; classification and structure of isiXhosa

IsiXhosa forms part of the Nguni language family and has several dialects, namely Mpondo (Pondo), Xesibe, Bomvana, Gcaleka, Thembu, Mpondomise, Ndlambe and Ngqika which is considered a standard variety <https://www.mustgo.com/worldlanguages/xhosa/> (Accessed on the 15/01/2021). The Ngqika dialect is also referred to as Gaika (Bloom Ström 2019: 93). The isiXhosa orthography differs completely from the orthographies of other languages, one of which is English. For example, isiXhosa is considered fairly transparent, and has an agglutinative structure, meaning that it is written conjunctively. Scholars such as Probert and De Vos (2016: 2) connect to this view as they report that all Bantu languages are agglutinating and, consequently, a Bantu word structure includes rich, overt morphology. For example, nouns include noun class prefixes as well as stems, whereas verbs include morphological reflexes of subject marking, object marking, aspect mood, causality and negation, to mention a few (ibid).

Bantu languages are considered “fairly transparent and consistent”, yet they “tend to be much longer than their English equivalents” (Probert & De Vos 2016: 2).

The above theory of the Bantu word structure is in line with this research study, as it reveals the isiXhosa word structure and how it differs from other languages. Probert and De Vos (2016: 1) are in support of the view that isiXhosa has a comparatively simple syllabic structure constructed around a (C) V (V) template. As explained on <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/c-consonant-v-vowel> (Accessed on the 18/09/2021), ‘C’ stands for ‘consonant’, and ‘V’ stands for ‘vowel’. Etawa et al. (2019: 259) explains that, segments are not uttered in isolation, they are uttered in syllable. Hence, the syllable is most fundamental in order to understand the phonological processes of any language. Probert and De Vos (2016: 1) also clarify that isiXhosa differs from English which uses a more complex structure than CV. Etawa et al. (2019: 261) further explain that, the ‘CV’ syllable is made up of one consonant and one vowel sound. Conversely, according to

Etawa et al. (2019: 263), the 'CVV' '(CV:)' syllable structure is made up of one consonant and two similar vowel elements. Additionally, Van Wyk (1995: 83) speaks of isiXhosa as a conjunctive language, meaning that isiXhosa has some elements which are written jointly, but these are written separately in other languages. Probert and De Vos (2016: 1) further provide the following examples to unpack the difference between the structures of these two languages:

- (1) A CV structure: **Dla.la** (play), **Hla.ba** (stab)
- (2) A CCV structure: **try**, **glue**
- (3) A CCCV structure: **straw**, **strew**

Furthermore, isiXhosa orthography differs from the orthographies of other languages because of its phonology which is characterized by a simple vowel inventory and complex system of consonants; most syllables end in a vowel, and there are no consonant clusters <http://aboutworldlanguages.com/xhosa> (Accessed on the 7/07/2017).

2.4.3.1 The isiXhosa vowels

Understandably, isiXhosa has two different vowel systems. VanderStouwe (2009: 3) explains an isiXhosa vowel system that comprises five contrastive vowel qualities: a, e, i, ɔ, u. According to VanderStouwe (2009: 3), the vowel length can be predicted, whilst differences in length can be identified in some sets of noun class markers, the singular marker being [i] and the plural being [i:]. The five-vowel system is shown in table 1.

On the other hand, Maddieson and Sands (2019: 79) available at <https://www.routledgehandbooks.com/doi/10.4324/9781315755946-3> (Accessed on the 14/03/2021) explain both the five-vowels and the seven-vowel system and they are in line with Pahl (1983) and Satyo (1996) who explain isiXhosa vowels using the IPA system. According to Maddieson and Sands (2019: 79), 'the vowels of the isiXhosa five-vowel system are transcribed as /i e a o u/, whilst those of the seven-vowel system are transcribed as /i e ɛ a ɔ o u/'. Notably, the vowels of the seven-vowel system are most often regarded as the isiXhosa vowels as shown in figure 1.

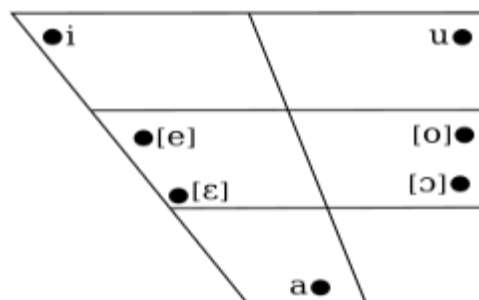
Table 1 IsiXhosa five-vowel system

Adapted from VanderStouwe (2009)

	FRONT	CENTRAL	BACK
High	i		u
Mid	e		ɔ
Low		a	

Pahl (1983) and Satyo's (1996) vowel chart explains these vowels in detail. The figure below is adapted from Pahl (1983) and Satyo (1996).

Figure 1 IsiXhosa vowels



How Satyo (1996: 10-11) describes the vowels is somewhat similar to the description in Table 1: Satyo (1996) explains that, [i] and [u] are closed vowels. [i] is pronounced with a high tone at the front of the tongue with lips stretched. [u] is also pronounced with a high tone at the back of the tongue, with pouting lips. Both [e] and [o] are middle vowels and have a slightly decreased tone. [e] is pronounced with the tongue slightly lifted at the front with lips stretched. [o] is pronounced at the back of the tongue with the tongue slightly lifted and slightly open lips. Both open [ɛ] and [ɔ] are low vowels are slightly open vowels, and are pronounced with the tongue hanging in the middle. [ɛ] is pronounced at the front of the tongue, whilst [ɔ] is pronounced at the back. Lastly, [a] is pronounced with open lips and flat tongue. It is therefore an open vowel.

2.4.3.2 IsiXhosa consonants

As explained at <http://aboutworldlanguages.com/xhosa> (Accessed on the 7/02/2017), the isiXhosa complex system of consonants also includes some uncommon consonants, including the following: clicks, implosive consonants, breathy-voiced consonants and ejective consonants. Moreover, consonants differ in terms of their sites of articulation and are classified in the following categories: bilabial, labial-dental, dental, lateral, alveolar (post) post alveolar/palatal, velar and glottal. Table 2 explains in detail these isiXhosa consonants.

Table 2 Places of articulation of isiXhosa consonants

Adapted from Saul (2013:19), VanderStouwe (2009:8-9), Satyo (1996:18-23)

		Bilabial	Labial-Dental	Dental	Lateral	Alveolar (Post)	Post-alveolar/palatal	Velar	Glottal
Clicks	Voiceless plain			k ^l (k)	k// (x)	k! (q)			
	Voiceless aspirated			k ^h (ch)	k// ^h (xh)	k! ^h (qh)			
	Voiced breathy			g ^h (gc)	g// ^h (gx)	g! ^h (gq)			
	Voiced nasalized			ŋ ^l (nc)	ŋ// (nx)	ŋ! (nq)			
	Voice breathy nasalized			ŋ ^h (ngc)	ŋ//g (ngx)	ŋ!g (ngq)			
Stops	Voiceless ejective	p' (p)		t' (t)	X		c' (ty)	k' (k)	
	Voiceless aspirated	p ^h (ph)		t ^h (th)			c ^h (tyh)	k ^h (kh)	
	Voiced breathy	b ^h (bh)		d ^h (d)			ɟ ^h (dy)	g ^h (g)	
	Implosive	ɓ (b)							
Fricatives	Voiceless		f (f)	s (s)	ɬ (hl)		ɮ (sh)	x (rh)	h (h)
	Voiced breathy		v ^h (v)	z ^h (z)	ɮ ^h (dl)			ɣ (gr)	ɦ (hh)
Affricates	Voiceless ejective		ts' (ts)				tɬ' (tsh)	kx' (kr)	
	Voiceless aspirated		ts ^h (ths)				tɬ ^h (thsh)		
	Voiced breathy						ɖ ^h (j)		
Nasals	Voiced plain	m (m)	n (n)				ɲ (ny)	ŋ (n')	
	Voiced breathy	m ^h (mh)	n ^h (nh)				ɲ ^h (nyh)		
Approximants	Voiced	w (w)			l (l)		y (y)		

Voiced breathy	W ^h (wh)	l ^h (lh)	y ^h (yh)
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In addition to the information given earlier on the isiXhosa orthography in relation to the structure, vowels, consonants and their places of articulation, it is worth noting that some of the orthographic rules in isiXhosa are similar to the orthographic rules of other languages, as there are general or universal rules of language which are shared across all languages. However, as emphasized earlier in this chapter, isiXhosa has some unique rules which set it apart from other languages. Among the specific characteristics of this language is its conjunctive nature. According to Brown (1941: 40), among the human language characteristics that form part of all languages are the following:

- Word order
- Morphological marking tone agreement such as subject and verb
- Reduced reference such as pronouns, ellipsis
- Nouns and noun classes
- Verbs and verb classes
- Predication
- Negation
- Question formation

IsiXhosa has similar characteristics to the ones listed by Brown (1941) and these are presented and explained in the 'isiXhosa old orthography' (n. d.) and Satyo (1996). This therefore proves that even though isiXhosa is unique, it shares some characteristics with other languages, e.g. morphology, grammar, rules of use of punctuation and syntax, to mention a few. These, therefore, are part of the guiding rules for all the users of the language. In line with this view, Musehane and Mathabi (2016: 226) state that anyone who does not conform to the standardized rules of the language would be considered to be in violation of the grammatical rules of that language. It may be said that this statement is also applicable to the use of isiXhosa. It is therefore necessary to explore the views of other scholars on the importance of orthography in language learning. Thus, the following discussion will focus on whether other scholars view orthography as something important in language learning.

2.5 THE VIEWS OF DIFFERENT SCHOLARS ON THE IMPORTANCE OF ORTHOGRAPHY IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Different language scholars share somewhat similar views on the importance of orthography, and they all relate to one important thought: it assists in providing standardized language guidelines. This can always be a point of reference when dealing with issues relating to language use. Among such scholars is Van Wyk (1995: 83-86) who claims that language writing style is guided purely by the orthography of that language; and, if it was not for the availability of language orthography, there would not be any knowledge of how the writing conventions for different languages differ. Orthography therefore assists with linguistically valid methods of language writing, as well as giving an account of word formation and other forms of language. In the same vein as Van Wyk (1995), Probert and De Vos (2016: 1) assert that orthography assists in three different ways, namely: (1) in defining the structures of a language; (2) in mediation of linguistic words in print orthography; and (3) it provides language learners with various “cognitive tools which they use to solve the reading puzzles” they come across within the language learning process (Probert and De Vos 2016: 1). According to these authors, such skills, including phonological and morphological awareness, dynamically develop in language learners by being exposed to print orthography. It is now clear that orthography plays a major role in language learning as it promotes fluency, amongst other things. Exploring the importance of language teaching at this stage is also necessary to gain a full grasp of its benefit in human lives.

2.6 THE IMPORTANCE OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

The researcher has observed that one of the most commonly asked questions is: ‘Why would there be language teaching at school?’ Notably, questions of this nature are often raised around the teaching and learning of indigenous languages. This arguably shows that, for most people, a remarkable number of whom are the speakers of the very same indigenous languages, prefer the teaching and learning of English and other subjects which are considered to be more relevant to their current life, as well as being highly sought-after in the job market. In a press article, Maunder (2015, paragraph. 23) quotes a former lecturer in African Language Studies and Media (Rhodes University), Thandeka Mapi: “If you go to schools, many learners are encouraged by their parents to do English and Afrikaans, so there really is no foundation and interest in reading or writing in these other languages”.

This is also noted in the work of Owu-Ewi and Edu-Buandoh (2014: 1): they report that “the study and use of indigenous African languages in education have been viewed unfavourably by many, including the African scholars, and this has resulted in fewer Africans studying their indigenous languages in school”. An answer to the question posed earlier regarding the importance of language teaching is offered by DeStefano (1984: 155) who reasons that schools are convenient places to learn language in ways that are generally not available in other contexts of society. In addition, effective language learning can only be achieved through the way the curriculum is designed. According to DeStefano (1984: 155) the curriculum encompasses instruction which is structured to increase a learner’s ability to: (1) Communicate orally and in writing (speaking and writing); and (2) assist learners in understanding the speech and writing produced by others. Basically, a good language curriculum is, preferably, one that covers all four language components. Therefore, time should be allocated to achieve language education.

DeStefano (1984: 155) believes that language education that is designed in this manner should develop communicative competence in both oral and written modes of expression. She explains that competency in language involves academic skills and abilities. Therefore, learners “must learn to read, write and commute”, and this includes learning a new set of registers, both in oral and written modes, including appropriate syntax and lexicon (DeStefano 1984: 156). This insight takes us back to a perspective discussed earlier, namely that language needs to be maintained and developed; and the only convenient way for that to happen is through formal education. According to DeStefano (1984: 156), even though education involves two people – the educator and a learner – the teacher is the one vested with the authority to ensure that language learning occurs properly. Furthermore, one could argue that, because of the authority teachers have, they are perceived as experts and custodians of the language.

Earlier, a point was made that thus far, to the best of the researcher’s knowledge, there is no scientific evidence proving that teachers have contributed towards the errors made by learners in their texts. This insight of DeStefano (1984) could, to a certain extent, prove the accuracy of this supposition in that, if teachers are responsible for the eradication of learners’ language errors, it becomes impossible for such errors to be eradicated when the teachers themselves are not sufficiently competent in using a particular language. Their limited

competence could make it highly unlikely that they would be able to identify errors and rectify them. Therefore, such incompetence may lead to the teacher's errors being passed on to learners and eventually become permanent. It is reiterated that the duties of the teacher include overseeing appropriate language use, whilst learners are expected to learn specific kinds of language usage. In short, there are certain language skills that a learner should acquire at different school levels, as per the language curriculum. This statement seems to be in line with the 'input' perspective of Corder (1967: 165), where he claims that the duty of a teacher is to teach learners, but taking in the information is the duty of the learner, as learners are the ones who select what they learn. Therefore, the teacher does not have control over such a process.

The language components emphasized by DeStefano (1984: 155) are almost the same as those prescribed by the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (RSA DBE 2011) for language teaching. Such components include the following: listening and speaking; writing; presenting; reading; and viewing, as well as the rules of language use.

With specific reference to writing as per the focus of this work, the CAPS prescribes 'editing' as a measuring tool to deal with errors in texts. In a classroom situation, learners should make error corrections to their texts before they present their texts to the teacher, as per the CAPS prescriptions (RSA DBE 2011). At this stage, the definition of editing is worth considering for two reasons: (1) to give a more profound understanding of and clarity on the relevance of editing in the study of errors; and (2) to clarify the claim made by Corder (1967: 166-167) that, in determining between a mistake and an error, a mistake can be corrected by the very same learner who has made it, unlike the error that a learner may not be able to correct without being assisted. The *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED 2014: 325) defines editing as "checking and improving a piece of writing by correcting spelling and grammar, choosing better words, and arranging the information well".

Correspondingly, Nordquist (2019, para. 1) available at <https://thoughtco.com/what-is-editing-1690631> (Accessed 20/02/2020) defines editing as "a stage of the writing process in which a writer or editor strives to improve a draft (and sometimes prepare it for publication) by correcting errors and by making words and sentences clearer, more precise, and as effective as possible". In addition, "the process of editing involves adding, deleting, and rearranging words along with recasting sentences and to cut the clutter and streamline

overall structure. Tightening your writing and fixing mistakes can actually be a remarkably creative activity” (ibid). Nordquist (2019, paragraph. 6) further quotes Anderson (2007) who claims that “editing is shaping and creating writing as much as it is something that refines and polishes it ...”. This author is of the view that editing may be done in class as well. This is Anderson’s (2007) view as quoted in Nordquist (2019, paragraph. 6):

A large portion of everyday **editing** instruction can take place in the first few minutes of class... Starting every class period with invitations to notice, combine, imitate, or celebrate is an easy way to make sure that editing and writing are done every day.

This insight into editing amounts to the suggestion made previously that editing is a skill that should be taught. It is therefore a skill that a learner may acquire in class. This view also seems to be in line with the prescriptions of the isiXhosa CAPS (RSA DBE 2011), as it clearly stipulates that proofreading and editing should form part of the steps to be taken in the process of text writing (RSA DBE 2011: 33). Hypothetically, corrections can be made in a text as much as they can be made in speech. However, in spoken words, corrections should be made immediately once the speaker realizes that he or she has made an error. Immediately that correction is made by the speaker, the receiver would definitely be able to note the correction. Conversely, in texts, the writer can make corrections by means of editing, and editing should be done before the communication reaches the receiver.

It is thus evidence of editing that the researcher will focus on in the analysis of errors in texts so as to be able to determine whether a learner has made a mistake or an error. It may therefore confidently be said that editing is a skill that should be taught in class.

At this stage, it may be necessary to explore whether there is a link between language curriculum and orthography: a discussion of orthography may not be complete without considering curriculum design, since orthography is supposedly part of the language curriculum.

2.7 LANGUAGE CURRICULUM AND ORTHOGRAPHY

Arguably, a discussion of orthographic errors in learners’ language use in both written and spoken forms may not be taken further without looking at the language curriculum and how

it is designed. One envisages a curriculum that (1) provides clear guidelines with reference to the language components that are key to learning the language to reach the required fluency level; and (2) observes the rules of the current recognised orthography; (3) equips teachers to be able to reach the objectives of the curriculum in their teaching; and (4) develops and motivates learners to acquire the language and reach fluency whilst encouraging them to be individual thinkers. At this stage it will also be worth looking at the curriculum and teachers as role players in the accurate application of orthographic rules and how these two parties may contribute to the elimination of errors in learners' language use. The curriculum prescribes what teachers should teach to learners; and teachers ensure that they deliver according to the prescripts of the curriculum and so learners eventually accept and learn whatever the curriculum has prescribed.

2.7.1 What is a curriculum?

Curriculum, as explained by Surbhi (2015: 1-2), available at <https://keydifferences.com/difference-between-syllabus-and-curriculum.html> (Accessed on 12/06/2019) "implies the chapters and academic content taught in school or college. It alludes to the knowledge, skills and competencies students should learn during study". This author further defines curriculum as "the guideline of the chapters and academic content covered by an educational system while undergoing a particular course or program". Clarifying this point, this author emphasizes that, "in a theoretical sense, curriculum refers to what is offered by the school or college" (Surbhi 2015: 4). According to this author, the main characteristics of the curriculum include that it is: (1) inclusive of the content taught in an educational system or a course; (2) prescriptive; (3) wide; and (4) is the same for all teachers (Surbhi 2015: 2-3). Moreover, "it has a wider scope which covers the knowledge, attitude, behaviour, manner, performance and skills that are imparted or inculcated in a student" (Surbhi 2015: 4). Correspondingly, in Oh and Rozycki (2017, para.4), available at <http://www.edelements.com/blog/what-exactly-is-curriculum> (Accessed on 12/06/2019) curriculum is referred to as "the knowledge and skills that students are expected to learn as they progress through our school system". As stated by Surbhi (2015: 1), there is commonly a misunderstanding of the terms 'curriculum' and 'syllabus'. Thus, it is important to examine the term 'syllabus' to gain clarity. In Surbhi (2015: 3), syllabus is defined as "the documents that consist of topics or portion covered in a particular subject". The characteristics used by

this author to describe a syllabus include 'descriptive', 'narrow' and the fact that it varies from teacher to teacher (ibid). Similarly, according to the *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED 2014: 519), a "syllabus specifies all the work that must be covered in a subject". In summary, "a subject syllabus is a unit of the curriculum" (Surbhi 2015: 5). Surbhi (2015) and the *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED 2014) therefore agree on the same concept of syllabus: detailed information regarding all the content that should be taught in a subject.

2.7.2 Background to the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)

CAPS is the currently used curriculum in the South African education system. It came into existence after the revision of two curriculum statements in 2002: Revised National Curriculum Statement and the National Curriculum Statement: Grades R-12. Curriculum revision became necessary after several challenges were identified regarding the implementation of the aforementioned curricula. The CAPS is used in association with the National Policy pertaining to progression and promotion requirements, the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12, as well as the National Protocol for Assessment: Grades R-12. These three are under the umbrella of the National Curriculum Statement: Grades R-12 which represents a policy statement for learning and teaching in South African schools and which has been implemented since 2012. The National Policy pertaining to the progression and promotion requirements has since been followed by a number of national assessment circulars pertaining to mark adjustment for the Senior Phase, such as the National Assessment Circular No. 3 of 2015 (RSA DBE 2015) which was applicable in the Senior Phase (Grades 7-9). Subjects where mark adjustments were applicable included languages which were taught and learnt as home language and first additional language. This therefore placed isiXhosa home language among the subjects for which mark adjustment was applicable. As a national policy, CAPS is applicable to all school subjects, including isiXhosa. The main objectives of the CAPS include the following:

- ensuring that all learners acquire knowledge.
- learners use language skills in ways that fit into the day to day life.

The CAPS therefore promotes teaching and learning of languages within the South African context but includes important global issues. The aspects promoted by the CAPS include respect and promotion of the languages which form part of the curriculum. Thus, the CAPS

promotes the use of all the language skills and the identification of learner needs and ways of addressing such needs. It may therefore be argued that writing, as one of the language skills specified in the CAPS, needs to be taught thoroughly; and so, learner needs, with regards to writing in a particular language – in this regard, isiXhosa – have to be identified and addressed properly. Since the CAPS promotes respect of language, it may therefore be argued that respecting the language implies correct usage which happens through the user of the language abiding by the standard rules of that language. In advancing this, it may be further argued that a curriculum that is designed to observe and respect language should at least be designed in alignment with the current orthography of that particular language. Also, the processes of its design and development should at minimum, involve all the language bodies. For example, to put this into context, isiXhosa curriculum design and development should involve language bodies such as PanSALB and other relevant bodies in order for it to be aligned with the current orthography of the language.

2.7.3 IsiXhosa curriculum development and orthography

This section focuses on possible links between curriculum development and orthography. It aims to discover whether isiXhosa CAPS is designed in harmonization with the current orthography of isiXhosa, as such alignment is envisaged by the researcher. However, in the explanation of a syllabus and how a language syllabus is built, as described by Ur (1996), there is no mention of the alignment of the standard current orthography in the processes of language syllabus design and development. Similarly, in the isiXhosa CAPS, there is no indication or stipulation of the specific alignment of the isiXhosa observed standard orthography with the actual curriculum. It may therefore further be argued that both the language syllabus and curriculum design and development are not aligned with the current language orthography.

Moving on, as mentioned in Chapter 1, one of the roles of PanSALB is to oversee the development of languages and that may include playing a major role in the development of the language curriculum. To the knowledge of the researcher, there is no set of fixed guidelines set by PanSALB to ensure the consistent, uniform use of languages in the education context. In addition, according to De Klerk (2002: 3), even with the responsibilities that were assigned to PanSALB, the development of indigenous languages is still progressing slowly. De Klerk (2002: 3) states it thus:

Despite legislation and the establishment of the Pan South African Language Board (PANSALB), Provincial Language Committees, lexicographical units and Language Bodies for each official language, there is persistent functional deficiency and low levels of development for indigenous languages in terms of corpus, status and prestige in the area of education, commerce, science and technology.

These views show that the issue of the involvement of PanSALB in curriculum development existed even before the CAPS curriculum, hence the possible lack of alignment of the isiXhosa curriculum with the current orthography of the language. This issue could also be relevant to the issue of uniformity outlined in Matiwane (2010: 49), where it is reported that learners who originate from different provinces speak different dialects of the same language (in this case, isiXhosa). It is then not known whether these learners are aware that, when writing, they need to use the standardized forms of the language, as opposed to using their dialects. In addition to that, it is probable that even the teachers may speak dialects of the same language. It is also not known whether the teachers themselves place emphasis on the use of the standardized forms of the language, especially in writing. It is clear, therefore, that uniformity is necessary for harmonization purposes. However, this does not suggest the exclusion of other isiXhosa dialects, as Gxilishe (2006: 10) and Sigcau (1998: 12) recommend observation of isiXhosa dialects in the education context. Moreover, a fixed set of guidelines on the use of isiXhosa may also assist in the corpus planning of the isiXhosa language curriculum. Kamwendo (2006: 65) explains that corpus planning refers to the “selection and codification of norms such as in the writing of grammars, the development and standardization of orthographies and the compilation of dictionaries”.

The isiXhosa CAPS curriculum has been studied here to get an understanding of its status and the contribution or the role played by the PanSALB as a body that regulates the use of languages. It may therefore be worth looking at the role of the teachers in teaching and learning of isiXhosa, as it may be premature to look at the learners’ orthographic knowledge, their orthographic errors and other aspects which form the basis of this study, without considering the other important role players in isiXhosa teaching and learning. Sigcau (1998: 10) claims: “the resources are not available to train teachers to develop grammars and orthographies, produce and translate into isiXhosa language”. In addition, researchers such

as De Klerk (2002: 2) somewhat agree with this claim: she asserts that isiXhosa language lacks a good curriculum and well-trained teachers. An understanding drawn from this is that, apart from the lack of a curriculum, even teachers themselves have some knowledge gaps which may limit their ability to teach isiXhosa to the best of their abilities. Regarding the limitations of the curriculum (and taking into consideration that the curriculum itself is set out by the government, is prescriptive and the same for all teachers), it may also be argued that no teacher may teach what is not included as per the prescripts of the curriculum: teachers can only teach what is prescribed and known to them.

Sigcau (1998: 10) goes further to suggest that isiXhosa should be developed so that it reaches the same standard as English and Afrikaans. This suggestion may translate into the possibility that the errors made by isiXhosa learners are caused by the gaps in the isiXhosa curriculum. How Sigcau's suggestion is understood could be said to be once again confirmed in her recommendation that, writers should improve the standard of isiXhosa by compiling new dictionaries which provide new terms used in the modern technological environment to avoid the trend by learners of opting for other languages and sometimes mixing isiXhosa with these languages. In simpler terms, what this means is that some errors made by learners, such as vocabulary errors, possibly result from the gaps in the curriculum and the unavailability of up to date language resources.

It has been observed that writing is an important language component and skill; and the insights drawn here imply that orthography relates more to writing. Thus, the following discussion will focus on the importance of writing as a language component and skill.

2.8 THE IMPORTANCE OF WRITING AS A LANGUAGE COMPONENT AND SKILL

2.8.1 Writing skill in education

Writing is considered the most important skill in education. It is also believed to be essential for it is a "...powerful resource that is often left untapped as a means of learning new information and solving problems, no matter what the discipline" (Beach & Bridwell 1984: 183). However, as important as the writing skill is, Nunan (1999), cited in Yaghi and Abdullah (2015: 1) points out that "producing a well-organized piece of writing is the most difficult task in language, since the written context is the medium between writer and reader". Putting this into the education context (teaching and learning), the writer is the learner; and the reader

is the teacher. Thus, it is important that the teacher understands what is written by the learner for a better chance of achieving academic success. Navsaria et al. (2011: 3) cite Kapp (2004) who shares the same sentiments as Beach and Bridwell (1984), as they emphasize the importance of written language as a learning and assessment instrument in the classroom. Navsaria et al. (2011: 3) further explain that the written language component accounts for two-thirds of the overall mark in the subject English; by contrast, oral communication accounts for only about one-third. This indicates the importance of writing and how it may have a strong bearing on the success or failure of learners. Navsaria et al. (2011: 3) agree that the high marks allocation for the written work shows the “high value placed on written language”. Moreover, the allocation of such high marks on the written work may be translated into the view that learners ought to have adequate written language skills to pass a grade and complete their schooling which will ultimately qualify them for employment opportunities.¹

The insights referred to by Navsaria et al. (2011) about the importance of writing in determining the academic success of the learner corresponds well with the requirements and prescriptions of the Grade 10-12 isiXhosa CAPS (RSA DBE 2011), in that written work accounts for a higher total towards the pass percentage of the isiXhosa subject compared to oral work. With specific reference to the focus of this research, the isiXhosa Paper Three has the highest maximum mark of 100 compared to Papers One and Two which have maximum marks of 70 and 80 respectively.

Beach and Bridwell (1984: 183) further outline a few assumptions about why writing is important:

- a) Writing, beyond reading or oral language, has some special advantages for learning.
- b) Writing can enable students to learn new information in subject area classes.

¹ The views of Kapp (2004), cited by Navsaria et al. (2011: 96), speak to the problem of written language, specifically the teaching and learning of the English language. Such sentiments correspond with the focus of this study on errors because the problem of written language which Navsaria et al. (2011) have investigated regarding the English language is the very same problem identified in this study of errors in the isiXhosa language.

- c) Writing facilitates students' problem-solving strategies for organizing both old and new information.
- d) Writing can teach students pragmatic conventions and audience awareness, developmental processes crucial to the ability to communicate successfully.
- e) Writing can teach students to evaluate critically the information they are learning.
- f) Writing can teach students how they perceive or analyse their own personal experiences.

It is important to note that the outlined suppositions for the importance of writing do not override the importance of other language competencies such as reading; but, for the purposes of this work, the focus is greatly on writing. Beach and Bridwell (1984: 183) assert that writing remains an integral part of education and of the entire language; however, there is a lack of empirical evidence to prove how, specifically, it is of benefit. The only unarguable fact is that it requires an ability to sustain one's thinking in a consistent systematic way over a stretch of written discourse. Perhaps it could be argued that, communicating in a written form benefits a writer by providing a wide ground to express him- or herself fully and freely, as opposed to communicating orally. An understanding drawn from Beach & Bridwell (1984: 183) is that communicating through writing offers learners wider ground and more freedom to express themselves. However, it also requires them to refine their writing skill and also develop other literacy skills such as the reading skill (Beach & Bridwell 1984: 183 & 184). Regarding the sentiments shared thus far about the importance of writing in education to the study of language errors in isiXhosa, it may be argued that writing is a skill that needs to be taught thoroughly since academic success depends heavily on it. This is highly relevant to the South African education curriculum (CAPS) in schools where isiXhosa is learned as the first language (L1) because passing it is a prerequisite for progressing to the next grade. In the previous sections, it was stated that reading and writing are inseparable as they complement each other in achieving language fluency. The next discussion will focus on comparing both these skills for a full grasp of how they are interconnected.

2.8.2 Comparison between writing and reading

The previous discussion makes it clear that writing is the core determiner for language competence. However, numerous language studies have shown that reading and writing are inseparable. Comparing reading and writing, Navsaria et al. (2011: 3) reports that writing

is mainly important for communicating ideas, while spoken language gives an essential base for the development of reading and written language; therefore, these two complement each other. Comparably, Beach and Bridwell (1984: 185) state that there are no grounds to say one language skill is better than the other; it is only justifiable to say that they all operate hand in hand. These authors believe that development in one medium promotes the development in another; and that leads to communicative competence and language competence. The American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA) (2020), as cited in Navsaria et.al (2011: 3), shares the same sentiments: “written language, together with spoken language and reading, contributes to the process of literacy”.

In trying to show the relationship between reading and writing, Beach and Bridwell (1984) highlight the differences between these two language competencies. These authors assert that, writing differs from reading in that writing could necessitate the writer to define and apply his or her own schema Beach and Bridwell (1984: 184). Competency in reading, on the other hand, enables one to deal with existing schema or schema stimulated by an author’s text (ibid). According to Pretorius and Mokhwesana (2009: 56), reading requires both decoding and comprehension, processes that occur “simultaneously and interactively during reading”. These authors define decoding as “the code-based processes involved in translating the written symbols into identifiable chunks of language”. Conversely, they define comprehension as the “processes that assign meaning to the text as a whole” (ibid). It may then be argued that both these processes, decoding and comprehension, are the same processes that take place when one is writing, in that one needs to *understand* and *know* the meaning of the symbols one is using to write in order for one’s writing to convey comprehensible meaning. These insights bring this discussion to the supposition that, because these two skills are interdependent, even though writing requires more cognitive processing, it can also reinforce effective reading processes (Beach & Bridwell 1984: 184). Thus, reading assists a learner to write articulately. Similar perspectives are shared in Simon and Van Herreweghe (2010: 303): based on the results of their study, they assert that “reading at an early age has an effect on the child’s developing phonological system”. They further reveal that learning to read develops phonemic awareness which tends to assist children in the acquisition of the writing system of their language.

Pretorius and Mokhwesana (2009: 55) have also noted that reading in the African home languages in primary school would be an initial step towards investing in the future of the African languages. These authors further report that the kind of reading ability that learners develop in school clearly provides an accurate reflection of what is actually happening in the classroom. In saying this, they emphasize that reading does not come naturally: it is a skill that should be taught to learners; and ignorance or incompetence in teaching this skill could possibly result in a significant number of learners having reading problems.

2.8.3 Studies of writing across the curriculum

Beach and Bridwell (1984: 185) outline two types of language function: transactional and poetic. Transactional writing focuses on the pragmatic purposes of the interaction between the producer of the text and the reader. It makes use of language to accomplish the more pragmatic, everyday business of the world, such as exchanging information, or performing various speech acts – requesting, inviting, ordering, and more. Conversely, poetic writing covers a more subjective interpretation of experiences. It therefore puts more emphasis on form in the language itself. According to Beach and Bridwell (1984: 185), a written piece serves a specific purpose, meaning that a writer targets a specific audience, for example, a child can write to a parent, a learner to a teacher, or an examiner to an unknown reader. In all the contexts mentioned here, the one that resonates more with the contents of this research is a text that is written by a learner for the information of a teacher or examiner. These authors further classify the learner to teacher written discourse as “dominated-school writing” (Beach and Bridwell 1984: 185).

ASHA (2002) as cited in Navsaria et al. (2011: 3) explains written language expression as a production process which comprises two stages: the process and the product. Furthermore, the process of writing comprises the cognitive-linguistic and motor acts that are involved in the production of written texts. “These include planning (pre-writing, organising, drafting, reflecting, revising and editing, as well as forming letters and sequences of letters into words” (ibid). Moreover, Beach and Bridwell (1984: 187) propose three types of relationships that “school dominated writing” should display, namely restating, recasting and inventing. These authors explain these three types of relationships as follows:

- In Restating – a student is simply recalling information in a text or lecture according to the schema within the text of a lecture.
- In Recasting – a student reshapes existing information using schemata that are different from those implied in the text or lecture.
- In Inventing – a student formulates new information using his or her own schema.²

Beach and Bridwell (1984: 188) report that the three above-mentioned relationships seem to be hierarchical, increasing in the different cognitive requirements which qualify the writer to be able to write context accurate texts, and each is important and relevant for a particular level. These authors explain that, when recasting, a learner can rely on the text structure that already exists to organize his or her writing. To recast, the learner ought to define and make use of his or her own text schemata to structure the existing information. Lastly, when inventing, learners must first generate and then organize information. The latter task demands processing at different levels. In the absence of proper instruction or prior experiences of such tasks, learners regularly make spelling and writing errors. Eventually, such spelling and hand writing inadequacy could be regarded as evidence of 'lower level processes' or insufficient competence. This study investigates and analyses errors found in the written texts which learners produced following the instruction given to them.

Therefore, attention will be given to inventing as it is a kind of task that resonates more with the type of texts which are the main data units of this study and since it requires competence in language use. Thus, inventing may require one to be familiar with the orthography of the language one is using to write a particular text.

INVENTING

Inventing is a writing task that necessitates learners to work on their own, starting from scratch. As mentioned above, in the text inventing task learners are not provided with information except for a (hopefully) clear instruction from the teacher on what and how exactly the learners should go about to completing the task at hand. In this type of relationship, learners depend heavily on the teacher's instruction, hence clarity of

² It is worth noting, however, that the focus of this work relates more to the inventing relationship, thus a considerable size of the discussion in this section will be dedicated to it.

instructions on the task to be completed by students is very important. It may therefore be said that the only 'equipment' learners have for inventing, except for the teacher's instruction, is the language: competence in the use of the language becomes of paramount importance as it becomes a necessary tool for writing. Beach and Bridwell (1984: 189) note that "problem-finding" is a critical technique in inventing. These authors define problem finding as a process of determining the inadequacies of their own formulations which leads to further writing and revision. Understandably, this process may include scrutinizing ideas and language use with the aim of perfecting the text. The writing task is also one of the tasks prescribed by the CAPS. Such tasks include essays, letters, memos, diaries, obituaries, curriculum vitae, reviews, autobiographies, speeches and wills. Another question people often ask relates to the importance and relevance of writing and inclusion of these aforementioned pieces of work in language teaching and learning. As per the Grade 10-12 CAPS language curriculum, these are the pieces required in the third paper which carries the highest exam mark of 100 (and that also includes the isiXhosa examination).

Beach and Bridwell (1984: 189-190) might have an answer to the question of the relevance of the inventing task in language teaching. These authors claim that inventing is good for problem finding which may result in problem solving, and they forward the following reasons to back their claim:

- It enables learners to define the nature of their own problems.
- It enables learners to relate their problems to their goals.
- It also enables learners to describe the relationships among elements of problems or contradictory goals.

Furthermore, Beach and Bridwell (1984: 190) emphasize that writing is not merely good for problem solving, it also serves as a medium for learning effective problem-solving strategies. However, for acquiring effective problem-solving to be possible, a teacher must guide the learners through the writing process. It is also indicated in Beach and Bridwell (1984: 190) that teachers generally evaluate only the final written product. What these authors do not

provide are the reasons why teachers do not evaluate learners' first drafts.³ An implication is that this practice may contribute to the perpetuation of the same errors made by learners in their language use, especially in writing. It may therefore be necessary to explore language errors to understand the conceptualization, the scope and causes of such errors.

2.9 LANGUAGE ERRORS

A large body of research on language errors has been dedicated to errors made in second language learning. Various works of different scholars in this area present similar results but also that tend to differ slightly. Nevertheless, the main objective of this study is to examine the orthographic errors that may occur in first language learning. Hypothetically, this suggests that errors could be made when writing, whether in first or second language learning. Prior to close examination of errors, it is worth noting a definition of the term 'error'.

2.9.1 Defining language errors

The *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED 2014: 331) defines error as a "mistake"; and the *UK Dictionary* (2020) notes that errors made in spelling are termed "spelling errors". Spelling, applies to writing, which means that spelling can be found in something written.

2.9.2 Differentiating between an error and mistake

Corder (1967: 167) provides a different notion of an error, not regarding it as proof of language deficiency, but rather as a proof of the system of the language that the learner is using, even though it is not the correct system. According to Corder (1967: 167) errors can be explained as "mistakes". This concept of an error can be referred to as "errors of performance", or a random guess, or a "slip" as errors are just a failure to use a known system properly. This author further refers to these as "unsystematic errors" as he believes that they are not permanent: it is possible for a language learner to correct them by him- or herself without the intervention of another person (ibid). According to this author, mistakes can have several causes such as these: memory lapses; physical conditions (such as

³ If this is also the case in isiXhosa teaching and learning in schools, it would be of paramount importance to know the reasons why teachers do not evaluate the learners' first drafts of essays. Knowing such reasons could possibly give clues regarding the challenges faced by learners.

tiredness); and psychological conditions (such as strong emotion). Moreover, mistakes arise in different forms such as hesitations, slips of the tongue, random grammatical incorrectness and other performance lapses in the speech of a native speaker of a language, as well as in that of a second language speaker. In more specific terms, Corder (1967: 166) associates mistakes more with the lapses that can be made by a first language speaker, as opposed to the errors made by a second language learner trying to acquire a target language.⁴

Conversely, there are also 'systematic errors', those that show a level at which a learner currently operates in a particular language. According to Corder (1967: 166-167), these types of errors are "idiosyncrasies" in the language of a second language learner which show exactly what the learner knows and what still has to be learnt. Subsequently, these are the errors that learners are not able to correct on their own. Due to their nature and the learners' inability to self-correct them, they are referred to "errors of competence".

2.9.3 Classification of errors

Earlier in the discussion it was mentioned that errors occur in different language aspects. This clearly confirms that errors are not of the same nature, thus they may be classified according to their nature. Yaghi and Abdullah (2015: 10) cite Corder (1973) who classifies errors into three categories and explains them as follows:

Pre-systematic errors

These are the types of errors that are usually made when the L2 learner is not knowledgeable about a specific rule in the target language.

Systematic errors

These are the types of errors that are usually made when the L2 learner has acquired an inaccurate rule.

⁴ An understanding drawn from Corder (1967) is that mistakes can only be made by native speakers of a language, as they are slight deviations that do not carry any weight, which can also be identified with less effort and ultimately be corrected by the speaker.

Post-systematic errors

These are the types of errors that are usually made when a known rule in the target language is inconsistently used by the L2 learner.

Touchie (1986) and https://www.academia.edu/12197473/Classifying_Language_Learning_Errors (Accessed on the 5/11/ 2020) also touch on the differing nature of errors and share similar sentiments on the classification of errors, even though they differ on certain points. Firstly, Touchie (1986) considers language learning errors, their types, their causes and various ways in which they can be treated. Like most language error researchers, this author's investigation is on errors in second language acquisition. Touchie (1986: 76) discusses the difference between performance errors and competence errors, as discussed by Corder (1967). However, Touchie (1986: 76) further reveals and dissects other categories of error: local and global errors. This author explains local errors as errors that do not hamper communication and comprehension of the meaning of an utterance. Conversely, this author refers to global errors as the most severe ones when compared to local errors due to their interference with communication as they disrupt the meaning of utterances. Examples of local errors include those made in noun and verb inflections, the use of articles, prepositions and auxiliaries. Global errors include incorrect word order in a sentence. According to Touchie (1986: 76-77), language learning errors extend to all language components: phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactic structure. This author further explains these errors in the following manner:

- i. Phonological errors are made when a learner is unable to differentiate between morphemes.
- ii. Morphological errors are made when a learner uses a wrong form of plural e.g. womans instead of women.
- iii. Lexical errors are made when an "inappropriate direct translation" is applied, "based on the learner's native language or the application of wrong lexical items in the second language".
- iv. Syntactic errors are made when a learner arranges words in an incorrect order in the sentence. These may also include incorrect application of subject-verb agreement and resumptive pronoun.

Touchie (1986: 77) attributes such errors to several sources, including interference from the native language, along with intralingual and developmental factors. According to this author (1986: 78), interference errors are caused by the influence of the native language as the user attempts to transfer a native language into the second language. Conversely, intralingual and developmental errors are caused by the difficulty of the second language, and they include the following:

- a) Simplification: this occurs when learners opt for easy constructions and forms of language instead of the ones that are more complex.
- b) Over-generalization: this happens when a learner applies one language form in a context where it is not applicable. This may include insertion and omission of words, letters or syllables.
- c) Hyper-correction: this happens when there is constant correction from a teacher which somehow results in students making errors in the correct forms while trying to correct what they assume to be wrong. These errors are also called 'induced errors'.
- d) Faulty teaching errors: these may be inherited from a teacher, as errors made by teachers could be transferred to learners through the use of teaching material and maybe the presentation order of the lesson.
- e) Fossilization: this type of error occurs when a learner has held a wrong language construction or form for a long time, such that it becomes very difficult to eradicate it.
- f) Avoidance: this occurs when learners are unable to produce some syntactic structures due to the difficulty of such forms to learners. To make things easy for themselves, learners resort to avoiding such structures and substituting such forms or structures with simpler ones.
- g) Inadequate learning: this emanates when learners overlook, under-differentiate rule restrictions and when incomplete learning takes place. This may include omission or deletion, insertion or addition of some language forms.
- h) False concept hypothesized: this occurs when learners have a wrong hypothesis or when they hold an incorrect rule about the target language.

https://www.academia.edu/12197473/Classifying_Language_Learning_Errors (Accessed on the 5/11/ 2020) also provides different categories of errors, some of which are similar to those outlined by Touchie (1986). According to https://www.academia.edu/12197473/Classifying_Language_Learning_Errors (Accessed on the 5/11/ 2020), the different ways in which errors can be classified include the following:

- (a) Type of linguistic item involved in the error: linguistic categories include the phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantics and lexicon (meaning) as well as vocabulary.
- (b) The surface structure of a sentence or expression is affected by the error: this classification may include omissions; additions; double negative markings; “misinformation errors sub-categorized into regularization errors”; “archi-forms”; and “alternating forms”, as well as “misordering errors”.
- (c) Communicative errors: this classification concerns the effect that the errors have on the message receiver (listener or reader) instead of concentrating on the actual errors. Such communicative errors are classified into two types, namely global and local errors. Global errors disrupt the whole sentence organization and consequently hamper communication. Conversely, local errors affect a single part of the sentence and are merely slight distraction to the communication. Local errors may be found in the following forms: a phoneme, a morpheme, a phrase, a clause, a sentence and even a paragraph.
- (d) A comparative classification of errors: this compares second language learner errors with other types of errors, most commonly first language learner errors. Comparison classification is categorized into two types of errors: developmental and inter-lingual errors. These two categories include two more minor categories: ambiguous and other errors. These minor categories include errors that cannot be, or are not easily, accounted for.

Furthermore,

https://www.academia.edu/12197473/Classifying_Language_Learning_Errors (Accessed on the 5/11/ 2020) explains a comparative classification of errors: developmental, inter-lingual, ambiguous and other errors, in the following manner:

Developmental errors

According to https://www.academia.edu/12197473/Classifying_Language_Learning_Errors (Accessed on the 5/11/ 2020), there is a need to compare how both L1 and L2 are learnt so as to find out whether there are any common elements in the learning of these languages. Such findings may assist in the application of first language theoretical implications and in the acquisition theory of the second language. Additionally, this may assist in determining the exact causes of errors in the acquisition of the first and second language. This insight is influenced by a belief that errors in first language learning may not be attributed to the same causes as second language errors. For example, in second language learning, some of the errors may be attributed to the interference of the first language and the mental processes of general language development: developmental errors.

Inter-lingual errors

As explained in https://www.academia.edu/12197473/Classifying_Language_Learning_Errors (Accessed on the 5/11/ 2020), inter-lingual errors are similar to the errors that a second language learner would make in his or her first language. These L2 errors have the same semantic structure as that of similar phrases or sentences in the learner's L1. This means that learners use their first language rules and knowledge to construct sentences in their second language. This may happen when the second language is used prematurely due to the pressure to perform in the second language; and in most cases, the second language learner is much more exposed in an environment where the use of the second language is partial.

Ambiguous errors

https://www.academia.edu/12197473/Classifying_Language_Learning_Errors (Accessed on the 5/11/ 2020) explains ambiguous errors as those where it cannot be clearly determined whether they are inter-lingual or developmental, because they reflect the characteristics of both categories. For example, errors that are commonly made by the first language learner and those that are made by the first language speakers of one language when learning another language.

Other errors

These, according to https://www.academia.edu/12197473/Classifying_Language_Learning_Errors (Accessed on the 5/11/ 2020), are the errors that do not fit the profile of the three above-mentioned categories (developmental, inter-lingual and ambiguous). Therefore, these are more difficult, and even impossible, to explain.

2.9.4 Different perspectives on language errors

The way in which language errors were viewed prior to the nineteenth century is completely different to the way they were viewed from the nineteenth to the early twenty-first century. Numerous language scholars and linguists in the nineteen hundreds have shared the same set of perspectives on language errors. They have opted to look at language errors from a more positive angle, as opposed to the language scholars prior to the nineteen hundreds. Sompong (2013: 110) reports that, before Corder (1967), errors were viewed as serious language problems that needed to be rooted out; but from the time of Corder (1967) onwards, they were viewed as an apparatus that learners could use to learn a language. In substantiating this view, Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 51) report that in prescriptive grammars dating back to the Eighteenth century – and reflected in a publication by the Fowler brothers, *The King's English* (Fowler & Fowler 1906) – errors of a native speaker started to be seen as 'bad language': "This early approach to the analysis of errors was essentially proscriptive and prescriptive; it was directed at showing what linguistic forms not to use and the ones to use. It continues today, as illustrated in Howard's *Good English Guide* of 1994" (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 51). By contrast, as explained by Sompong (2013: 110), Corder (1967) put forward a new perspective on language errors, viewing them as useful tools that can be used positively in the process of language teaching and learning by all different parties involved, i.e. educators, learners and researchers. Corder (1967: 163) bases the importance of learner language errors on two principles:

What actually leads to the occurrence of errors is the nonexistence of the perfect teaching method. If there was one, the errors would never be made in the first place, and therefore, the existence of error purely indicates inadequacy of the current teaching techniques.

This is an imperfect world and consequently errors will always occur in spite of the best efforts made. Therefore, the focus should be on mainly creating ways in which these errors can be dealt with subsequent to their occurrence.

Corder (1967: 167) claims that, unlike mistakes, errors are an important part of language learning. This author substantiates this claim as follows:

“Errors provide a teacher with an understanding of what the learner has learnt and what is lacking”.

- a) They provide evidence to the researcher about how the language is learnt or acquired, including evidence pertaining to the strategies and procedures a learner is employing in his/her discovery of the language.
- b) They serve as a device the learner uses in order to learn.

Brown (1941: 226) held the same perspective. He claimed that making errors is an important part of learning. By making mistakes, learners are, to a large extent, getting feedback which assists them in making new attempts; and such attempts eventually afford them the desired results.

2.9.5 Causes of language errors

Various language researchers have attributed language errors to causes such as the following: a lack of orthographic knowledge; limited reading; dialects; language change; interference of other languages; code switching; the role of the media; and attitude which may be a barrier to learning.

Earlier in this chapter, it was mentioned that there is no empirical study, to the best of the researcher's knowledge that has proven that teachers contribute to the errors occurring in the learners' texts. Nevertheless, the possibility should not be ignored since teachers have a responsibility to develop learners' competence in language in order to achieve complete eradication of their errors. The possibility that teachers contribute to learner errors emanates from the view of (Nkani 1998: 1) that, if teachers are not well trained or unfamiliar with the language orthography, they might not be able to identify language errors; and this lack of knowledge and expertise may be passed on to the learners and become permanent. Probert

and De Vos (2016: 2) point out that there may be teachers who are not highly competent in African languages, specifically in South Africa, due to the fact that there is no curriculum that speaks directly to teaching of indigenous languages. This situation could result in the adoption and application of the orthographies of the dominant languages in the teaching and learning of indigenous languages in South Africa. Touchie (1986: 78) gives us some clue as to whether teachers also have some contribution to make to address the existence of learner errors: when outlining the sources of different types of errors, Touchie (1986: 78) mentions “Faulty teaching”, and describes the errors that maybe inherited by a learner from a teacher. They may be errors made by teachers and passed over to learners through the teaching tools or in the manner the lesson is delivered (ibid). Through this insight, one may then arguably conclude that teachers may, to a certain extent, contribute to learner errors unintentionally and perhaps without even realizing it.

2.9.6 Lack of orthographic knowledge

This point of the lack of orthographic knowledge as one of the causes of orthographic errors takes us back to the issue that has already been touched upon: the importance of orthography. Drawing from Probert and De Vos (2016), a point has been made earlier in this chapter that, orthography is important in many ways, namely: (1) in defining the structures of a language; (2) in mediation of linguistic words in print orthography; and (3) it provides language learners with various cognitive tools which they use to solve the reading puzzles they come across in the language learning process. Additionally, orthographic knowledge may assist in resolving the issue of uncertainty regarding which language rules to apply when writing, which many African languages, including isiXhosa, are faced with.

Studies such as that of Probert and De Vos (2016: 4) maintain that there is a relationship between language, orthography and the particular cognitive strategies applicable in reading. Linguistic literacy is a result of a particular knowledge of the linguistic forms and orthographic principles of individual languages and so it is distinctive to each of the learner’s languages (Probert & De Vos 2016: 4). Furthermore, orthographic depth ascertains the types of strategies that will be necessary for learners to use when learning to read a language; it also ascertains the success attainable by these learners as they acquire these skills (Probert & De Vos 2016: 4). Probert and De Vos (2016: 1) made it clear that phonological and morphonological awareness in learners are among the numerous cognitive tools that can

be actively stimulated only by learners being exposed to print orthography. In addition, Maphalala et al. (2014) have introduced a different but relevant way to develop isiXhosa language learners' phonology. They report on the phonological development of 24 developing first language isiXhosa-speaking children aged three to six, in Cape Town, South Africa. They found that children developed a maximum of isiXhosa phonemes at the age of three years; however, at this age, not all the features of language were fully developed. Aspirated plosives, affricates, fricatives and clicks were among the language features that were still developing in the participants of the study (Maphalala et al. 2014: 1, 11, 16). The implication of this is that these other segments may be acquired at a later stage. Based on this information, it may be concluded that language acquisition is a building process that needs to be started at an early age to form a strong language base. Therefore, language orthography should be taught from pre-school level to promote and maintain the language standard. It is without any doubt that Maphalala et al. (2014) have shown that phonology is an important language element necessary for language acquisition.

The last-mentioned language acquisition can also be aligned to the importance of reading in language learning. Pretorius and Mokhwesana (2009: 57) also believe that orthography is important in language learning as it provides phonetic awareness. They claim further that, if a learner lacks phonetic awareness, the same learner might struggle in learning to read, as well as in spelling and writing. According to these researchers:

African language orthographies are phonetically transparent. Letter-sound relationships are usually practiced through basic consonant-vowel syllable structures used to build up words. Furthermore, these languages are tone languages; syllables within words might be structurally similar, but their vowels may differ in tone. Therefore, orthography is important so that the meaning of words can be decoded accurately in the context of words and sentences.

Many scholars have continuously argued that languages at school level are faced with various challenges, among which is the lack of orthography which gives rise to more severe language problems. The lack of orthography is constantly linked to limited reading; and that undoubtedly suggests that reading promotes orthographic knowledge. This amounts to the view that constant reading familiarizes one with the orthography of the language of interest.

This view is substantiated by Pretorius and Mokhwesana (2009: 56) who claim that reading in language teaching and learning is crucial to solve the literacy crisis that exists in schools; and, as long as there are no attempts to solve this crisis, learners will continue to lack knowledge of orthography. These authors further point to the lack of phonetic awareness as the main reason that many children have difficulty in learning to read. Thus, they conclude that phonetic awareness is as essential for learning to read as it is for spelling and writing. Based on the view that reading and orthography are interrelated, this point will be continued as it will form part of the discussion which is to follow below.

2.9.7 Limited reading

It is commonly perceived that people are no longer reading in their languages. Mapi (see section 2.6), when interviewed by Maunder (2015, paragraph. 28), reported: “Most people prefer to listen to their home language on radio than to read it”. Therefore, increasingly less reading of one’s own language is seen as one of the causes of learners’ language errors. Various works on language learning speak explicitly on the importance of reading in language learning. Reading is thus known and favoured for it results in fluency and proficiency. Apart from this, reading is also favoured because it assists in achieving the long-term goal of the language’s continued existence. In support of this view, scholars such as Pretorius and Mokhwesana (2009: 54) argue that the preservation of African languages in the twenty-first century depends heavily on the degree to which speakers of these languages willingly and effectively read and write in these languages. These authors further report that the literacy levels of learners in an African language, as a language of learning and teaching, drop as learners progress into the higher grades (Pretorius & Mokhwesana 2009: 55). This amounts to the view that, as learners are promoted to the higher grades, they slightly lose their first language (L1) proficiency. According to these authors, prioritizing reading in schools is an important strategy in teaching of literacy (and numeracy) in primary schools. They further argue that reading is of paramount importance because it is essential for educational success; and schools are the main institutions tasked with the responsibility of developing literacy in successive generations of the population. Beach and Bridwell (1984) also believe that reading plays a major role in language fluency and proficiency. According to these authors, characteristics of writing proficiently come from frequent reading which also increases the knowledge of the learner: “...not just information, but also understanding

how that information fits into larger contexts beyond the learner's own personal experiences" (Beach and Bridwell 1984: 185). Putting things into perspective, Maunder (2015, paragraph. 20), in an online news report, quoted Unathi Kondile, editor of *I'solezwe lesiXhosa*, as saying that today's isiXhosa speakers are unused to reading in isiXhosa: "It is now more of a spoken language than written and we have to factor in that Xhosa people are not educated in Xhosa, but English or Afrikaans". Furthermore, Kondile (Maunder 2015 paragraph. 20) expressed his view that there has been insufficient impetus in South Africa for speakers of all any languages to read and write in their mother tongue. Kondile adds: "... some of South Africa's greatest writers are Xhosa first-language speakers and they write in English" (ibid).

2.9.8 Dialects

The use of dialects in language teaching and learning is a controversial issue. Dialects are regarded by many teachers as unacceptable in the classroom; many teachers seem to be against the use of dialects, instead of promoting their use (Gxilishe 1996: 6). In some instances, language errors found in learners' texts are merely instances of the use of dialects. Elbow (1999: 359) reports that there is a tendency to refer to dialects of English as "wrong language, errors, carelessness, or non-mainstream language".

On the same issue, Gxilishe (1996) draws on the conflicting views in the education sphere about the use of isiXhosa dialects in the classroom. He (1996: 2) believes that "the relationship between 'dialect' and 'language' is inclusive rather than exclusive". According to this author, "language is a generic or super-ordinate term embracing any number of dialects" (ibid). This author also believes that, "a language is the sum of its dialects", and that the known philosophies on the dialect not being 'language proper' are unfounded (ibid). Gxilishe (1996: 2) observes that people hold different views pertaining to the use of dialects in the isiXhosa classroom. Those supporting the use of isiXhosa dialects believe that they may be useful as a bridge to a standard variety; and that the initial use of the home variety seems to be advantageous in promoting the child's self-image and sense of belonging. Conversely, those against the use of dialects reason that lacking knowledge of the standard variety may disadvantage one from gaining access to resources such as education, jobs, wealth and political position (Gxilishe 1996: 5). Gxilishe (1996) believes that an initial step to solve this dilemma would be to accept that language change is necessary to indicate that the language is still active. Consequently, this author supports the use of dialects in the

isiXhosa classroom where he maintains that adhering to the standardized language is indicative of resistance of change, and thus is closer to bringing disadvantage than advantage.

This notion of Gxilishe (1996) is supported by Elbow (1999: 360) who believes that it would not be a solution to abandon the dialects of a language; and that it is a responsibility of the teacher to improve the students' language. In simple terms, this means that the variants of a standard language should be given attention, so that the teacher can identify the areas that need to be improved upon to enrich the students' language. Elbow (1999) aimed at providing different ways of recognising English dialects in a writing classroom whilst promoting the Standard Written English (SWE). This was an attempt to show that a writing classroom can also provide an opportunity for speakers of English dialects to write in their language without fear of being criticized, as they usually only get that opportunity on online language sites. English, like other languages, has its dialects. Learners who are first speakers of those dialects are not regarded to be using 'proper language' in a formal class, and this may make them feel that their mother tongue is unacceptable. Dialects are often seen as "erroneous, careless usage of language or non-mainstream languages" (Elbow 1999: 361).

Apart from Elbow (1999) examining SWE, he also considers it at tertiary level, showing that the issues of language standardization and the use of dialects in formal education goes beyond basic education. In an attempt to offer clarity on SWE, Elbow (1999: 359) emphasizes that the correctness of the standard variety of English may appear in various texts, such as business, journalism, academic, etc., depending on the purpose of a particular text. However, in brief, Elbow (1999: 360) notes: "Standard Written English is the usage, grammar, syntax, punctuation, and spelling that will pass muster with most university faculty around here as correct or at least acceptable". This author is of the view that it would not be a solution to abandon the dialects of a language. This is similar to the notion of Gxilishe (1996), put forward earlier, that, "language is the sum of its dialects", and calling for its accommodation in the classroom, while giving the responsibility of improving the students' language to the teachers. In simple terms, this means that the variants of a standard language should be given attention so that the teacher can identify the areas that need to be improved to enrich the students' language.

Corresponding with Elbow (1999), Gxilishe (1996: 7) asserts that, since teachers have a responsibility to ensure that dialects are treated with respect and dignity, “they should have a better knowledge of the different variants” (ibid). This may be linked to the problem noted earlier: that the curricula for teaching and learning of indigenous languages in South Africa are not designed according to the needs of indigenous languages; and teacher training is not orientated to indigenous languages, so they do not reflect indigenous language teaching concerns. An understanding drawn from Gxilishe (1996) is that a point of departure in trying to resolve this problem would be to educate the teachers of indigenous languages about the different language variants that exist in our societies, as this could help in enriching isiXhosa.

Elbow (1999: 361) is of the view that different variants of English cannot be labelled ‘wrong language’. According to him, to their speakers, these variants are just their mother tongue. Therefore, the speakers of such variants cannot be punished for not being familiar with the standard variety. This author furthers his argument by stating “Standard English is no one’s mother tongue”, therefore it will always be difficult for any English speaker or learner to write in an appropriate Standard English.

Drawing on this argument, a conclusion may be drawn that speaking will always differ from writing. As Elbow (1999: 371) puts it: “speech and writing are different dialects”. Therefore, one has to follow a particular writing style, as per the standard rules of a particular language. Similar sentiments were also shared earlier in Musehane and Mathabi (2016: 226). This returns us to the argument made by Gxilishe (1996: 9), that language change should be considered for the language to develop. It would have served as a guide if Gxilishe (1996) would have had given a suggestion on which aspects of the language should this change be effected so that even if this change can be done, it does not affect the main aspects of the language which are considered to form the language base, and not leave out the aspects where this change is really necessary. An implication offered by Elbow (1999: 362) is that some students become rebellious and decide to use the language they know and understand better when writing, irrespective of the results that might be generated by such an attitude. By contrast, Elbow (1999: 364) argues that not all the speakers of criticized dialects are “resistant or angry”, but some have accepted that their mother dialect is

regarded as having lower status or incorrect, and acceptance of that helps them to learn the standard variety and be compliant to all the standard rules of that particular language.⁵

One of the reasons provided by Elbow (1999: 362) for why dialects of a language are important to their users is that their speakers can easily express themselves, so there is a smooth flow of ideas when writing. Likewise, Gxilishe (1996: 1) points out that dialect inclusion in education is important for two reasons: (1) it is assumed to be useful as a bridge to the standard variety; and (2) the initial use of the home variety has been shown to be a source of satisfaction for many, and may be beneficial in promoting the child's self-image and feeling of belonging. Elbow (1999: 364) makes this statement:

When language is in touch with the unconscious and draws on it, that language usually has more force and resonance. Writing gives energy, life and voice when it is fed by various linguistic elements that permeate the unconscious, but many of these elements are wrong or incorrect in writing: slang, colloquialisms, childishness, idiosyncratic voice, so-called deviant or nonmainstream dialects – and all the kinds of instinctive and bodily-linked utterances and partial utterances

This author maintains that the classroom would be the best place to accommodate these variants with the purpose of correcting and developing them to meet the standard level.⁶ Elbow (1999) seems to be in favour of the use of dialects as he maintains that “dialects allow

⁵ Relating that perspective to the focus of this study, the isiXhosa speakers of isiXhosa dialects (isiXhosa L1 learners) have supposedly been taught the standard isiXhosa at school from Grade One, as per the curriculum, which is why it would be expected of them to have a certain command of the standard language when they are at a particular school level; and, if not, their use of the dialects which are their mother tongue languages, would be referred to as the “interference of interlanguage”, as explained by Corder (1967).

⁶ As per the focus of this research study, Elbow (1999) could possibly provide some clues on what could be happening in an isiXhosa first language (L1) learning classroom, which could then shed some light on some of the questions that need to be addressed there pertaining to the orthographic errors in isiXhosa texts of isiXhosa L1 learners. It is possible that some learners are using dialects that even the teachers are not familiar with; and that could lead to their language being labelled as erroneous. If that is the case, the isiXhosa teachers still have a duty to teach the learners the standard isiXhosa.

their speakers to write without bothering about elements such as grammar etc.” Even though Elbow (1999) is fully in support of the use of dialects in writing, he also highlights the negativity of using such dialects when writing. It is for that reason that he suggests editing. He puts emphasis on the importance of having a few drafts before the final one so that learners can have the opportunity of editing, checking everything that could impact on the standard of the language used in the text, including grammar, spelling, syntax and other language elements.

Even with his views about the importance of editing, Elbow (1999: 365-66) maintains that, no matter how much some learners try to copy edit their work, they could still be unable to detect language errors in their texts. Elbow (1999) observes:

Too many students are simply incapable of getting their final drafts to conform to what we call SWE – no matter how vigilantly they copy-edit. We could try to *teach* them everything they need for successful copy-editing, but some students don’t need this teaching at all while others need more than we can provide even if we did nothing else.⁷

This notion of Elbow (1999) may be relevant to that of Torrance and Olson (1984) concerning learners’ different language competency levels and frequency of errors. Torrance and Olson (1984: 167) claim that learners have different levels of competency, which is why some learners make fewer or more errors than others. This claim basically explains why some learners can identify the mistakes they have made in their writings and correct them with complete accuracy, whilst others are absolutely unable to do that. These authors attribute the learners’ difference in competency levels to the connection between the child’s competence in their mother tongue and the more formal, decontextualized and unambiguous language that makes up a large part of the language of school. These authors found substantial and reliable links between oral language and competence, and progress in learning to read. This takes us back to the importance of orthographic knowledge and

⁷ This should not create confusion. The focus here is on the teaching and learning of isiXhosa. However, we cannot deny that the sentiments shared here on English writing and learning could have some relevance for writing and learning of isiXhosa.

reading in language learning. The relationship between these important parts of language learning improve language competency and may explain why there are different levels of competency among learners.

Moving forward, the problem described by Elbow (1999) regarding the students' difficulties with copy-editing could be a call for an intervention, meaning that there is still a little to be done in the classroom. One could then align this thought of Elbow (1999) to the notions of 'interlanguage' (IL) and Communicative Competence (CC). As defined by Selinker (1972: 35), Interlanguage refers to "a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which results from a learner's attempted production of a target language (TL) norm".

2.9.9 Linguistic change

Linguistic change could be another cause of orthographic errors. Linguistic change includes changes in sound. At this stage, clarity on how sound change can cause orthographic errors is important. One of the beliefs held is that sound change can possibly cause orthographic errors because of the language learner or speaker's internal speech forms; i.e. how a learner speaks may essentially determine the writing system of the learner. In other words, learners may possibly derive their writing forms from their speech forms. This could result from a lack of awareness that speaking differs from writing. An explanation for this difference is that spoken language is a simplified version of a written language. The view that spoken and written language are different is supported in Collins (1984: 203) who highlight that "spoken language is concrete and context-dependent; it requires shared reference and an interlocutor". Conversely, "written language is more abstract and context-independent; reference is textual, thus permitting communication with an absent or unknown reader" (Collins 1984: 203). This difference is termed "developmental transition from speaking to writing or from dialogue to monologue" (Collins 1984: 204). This author argues that writing has more cognitive demands, which then becomes different with speaking. Additionally, these are two different communication modes that also have different intended functions, namely: interpersonal function in speech; and ideational function in writing. Different kinds of sound change that may be displayed in learners' written language are outlined as follows:

- Consonant lenition
- Vowel reduction
- Deletion of segments

2.9.10 Interference of other languages

Weinreich (1953: 1), conceptualizes interference as a language deviance that occurs in the language of bilinguals due to the knowledge of different languages. This deviance occurs in norms of any of the languages known to a speaker. Interference is often assimilated with linguistic borrowing which is viewed as 'diffusion' and is explained as an instance when a speaker uses linguistic patterns learnt in another language to produce linguistic forms in another language known to the speaker (Weinreich 1953: 7). Instead of considering 'diffusion' as a sign of language acquisition, this author considers it as a sign of the language that is influenced. Moreover, as explained in Weinreich (1953: 7), interference does not depend on which language was learnt first. This view is based on the fact that a person's first language can interfere with their second language, the same way that a person's second language can interfere with their first language. Different situations wherein interference can occur are presented in Weinreich (1953: 3,4 & 56-60) and they include the following:

- It can be deliberately used by bilinguals to reinforce expression. It is likely used when a message producer knows that a receiver is also bilingual or can understand the message fully.
- If the message receiver is uni-lingual, the bilingual message producer would normally use less interference and limited borrowing to avoid communication breakdown.
- Bilinguals will only mix languages when there is a need to do so.
- Bilinguals can also perform word borrowing when they want to enrich their language.⁸
- Interference or borrowing happens automatically when people involved in the communication process are all bilinguals.⁹

⁸ This notion is relevant to the notion cited in Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 62) that, in some situations, learners intentionally use non-standard language forms to manage the impression they wish to leave with their listeners.

⁹ It should be noted that this insight relates more to the oral use of language. Possibly, interference or borrowing occurs in written language as well and the causes of it in written language use maybe completely different from how it happens in oral language use.

2.9.11 The role of the media

It has been observed that media play a huge role in people's daily lives as it influences how people eat, what they wear, how they live, talk and so on. Language use is a human activity that is greatly influenced by the media. However, language use in the media does not always adhere to the standard rules of the language and some deviations have been noted, especially in the oral use of African languages with specific reference to isiXhosa. Thus, another observation made is that some of the errors made by language learners may be inherited from how language is used in the media. Before looking at this point closely, it is worth looking at the definitions of media for a thorough understanding of the topic under discussion. Dictionary.com (2018), available at www.dictionary.com/browse/media (Accessed on the 19/06/2018), defines media as "the means of communication, as radio and television, newspapers, magazines, and the internet, that reach or influence people widely".

Still on the issue of the contribution of the media on learner language errors, Young (n. d., paragraph. 6 & 11) available at <https://u3asites.org.uk/files/h/hillingdon/docs/effectofsocialmediaonlanuage.pdf> (Accessed on the 11/06/2018), asserts that it is an undeniable truth that the language used in social media has an effect on the way people use the English language in their daily lives, including their written language. This writer outlines ways in which the media affects language and these include: shortening of words, coining of new words and using speech text instead of typed text. As Young (n. d., paragraph. 48) puts it, "short punchy sentences and the active voice are taking over as the most popular way to communicate in writing". At this stage, it may also be important to understand the impact the media has on indigenous languages such as isiXhosa, considering the impact it has had on the English language. What has been observed is that, among others, poor standard of vocabulary and spelling due to the effects of media have led to ultimate deterioration and loss of these language components. However, Young (n. d., paragraph. 24) available at (Accessed on the 14/11/2020), claims that social media is not entirely decimating languages but is having a positive effect on the way people write. Young (n. d., paragraphs. 25-27) further outlines different ways in which media exerts a positive effect on writing and those include but are not limited to the following:

- 1) Media increases awareness of mistakes, helps to prevent them.

- 2) Media differentiates writers. This means that, instead of writing “sloppily” when other social media users do, a person can take that opportunity to differentiate him- or herself by writing proficiently.¹⁰

Moving on to radio as another type of medium, Stuart-Smith et al. (2013: 529) put it that radio and television are considered catalysts, playing a role in increasing, strengthening, accelerating and reinforcing the current trends in language. Moreover, in the research they have conducted, these authors have discovered that broadcast media such as television can play a role in sound change (diffusion). This language change happens more with young people than it does with adults and is caused by young people watching popular television shows in foreign contexts, e.g. set in London. The linguistic features the young people displayed were found to occur in the characters of the dramas.

Ranasuriya (2015: 1) also reports that “... radio plays a great role in the lives of the people. It has changed the lives of the people in such a way that, it is an accepted fact that people cannot live without radio media”. This author further reports that, people prefer radio for various reasons which include the following:

Radio soothes the mind after a hard day’s work.

It entertains.

It educates.

It dispels loneliness.

Unlike the newspaper, it does not require an advanced literacy level.

It is affordable.

According to Ranasuriya (2015: 1), each medium has a responsibility to cater for the needs of the people in order to retain the viewership, listenership or readership; and if the respective medium does not provide according to their needs, the audience would likely

¹⁰ Now the question arising from this latter claim by Young (n.d.) is if what he is claiming happens across all the languages used in the media, including indigenous languages such as isiXhosa, or it just happens in some languages.

seek and opt for another mode of medium. The intention of Ranasuriya (2015) was to uncover the tendency of language mixing which was observed in the local media at that period in Sri Lanka. The interest developed after having observed that presenters in the local media industry tended to mix two languages (Sinhala and English) in their programmes. In English, this is referred to as 'code switching'. What this author identified as a problem was also discerned in South African media. It is also unpalatable to some South Africans, such as Mondli Makhanya, *City Press* editor as quoted by (Maunder 2015, paragraph. 29) available at <https://themediainline.co.za/2015/08/divided-and-divisive-why-is-there-so-little-african-language-media/> (Accessed on the 16/10/2017), who reported that it was highly annoying when he switched into an African station and heard presenters mixing the mother tongue with English. He even raised the question as to why presenters were working on particular radio stations if they could not even finish their sentences in their languages. Makhanya observed: "That is just a symptom of the contempt with which African languages are treated". What triggered Ranasuriya (2015: 1) the most was that "the presenters code switch profoundly and that affects the language purism". Mapi (Maunder 2015, paragraph. 28) shares somewhat similar sentiments as Ranasuriya (2015) as she reports: "The quality of language that people speak on air is mostly poor".¹¹

Ranasuriya (2015: 1) was also interested in finding out, among others, the following:

Whether code switching is essential in programmes, despite the existence of Sinhala terms.

The reasons why presenters code switch.

How the society feels about code switching.

The attitude of society towards code switching

Ranasuriya (2015: 2) hypothesized: "Linguistic purism of Sinhala language will soon vanish as a result of code switching that is being utilized by the radio presenters in the FM channels in Sri Lanka". This supposition is not so different to one of the concerns that led to this

¹¹ In theory, with specific reference to the topic of this study concerning errors in written texts, it may therefore be argued that code switching in media can lead to serious language deviations, especially in vocabulary, semantics, syntax and grammar, as Ranasuriya (2015) has also pointed out. These deviations could manifest themselves in both oral and written language.

investigation: that if isiXhosa language errors are not properly addressed, the language may keep on deteriorating and eventually face extinction. The similarity between the hypothesis of Ranasuriya (2015: 5) and the concern about the future of isiXhosa could be a possible indication of the fact that South Africa is not the only country faced with language challenges, and that no country is immune to language challenges. The conclusions reached by Ranasuriya (2015: 5) include the following:

- Radio listeners completely disfavoured the use of English in the middle of Sinhala sentences as it becomes destructive to the mother tongue. The concern was that, if such destruction continued, it would eventually leave Sri Lanka without any indigenous language.
- Presenters code switch because they want to keep up with the competition in the media; but mostly to become the best station.
- Presenters code switch to attract listenership; and to be unique.
- Linguists are concerned that code switching is performed to maintain the economy of the media at the expense of the indigenous languages which are in danger of dying.
- Few people were in favour of the use of English interspersed within the indigenous language.

Lastly, Ranasuriya (2015: 6) recommends that:

- The people responsible for the media policies should act to uphold good use of languages.
- Linguists should be more involved in the media institutions so as to be a good role model concerning the presentations on radio channels.
- The presenters should be trained so that they would minimize the usage of English equivalents in presenting the programmes.
- Media institutions should consider the value that the Sinhala language has, and always bear in mind that they are destroying their very own mother tongue before focusing on maintaining the media economy.

On a slightly different note, Bell (1991: 1) available at

<https://www.yumpu.com/en/document/read/7808040/allan-bell-the-language-of-news-media> (Accessed on the 3/3/2019), sheds some light on the language use in the media. An

understanding drawn from him is that language use in the news is totally different to that in other types of programmes. One of the differentiating factors is that the news language in the media ensures standardization. This author, therefore, makes it clear that accommodating the audience does not necessitate language deviation and impurity. This author further explains this by drawing a process of the function of copy editing which includes but is not limited to the following:

- Cutting (delete real information, delete redundant information, lexical or syntactic operation)
- Standardizing language (speech community rules of language such as syntax, lexicon, spelling and pronunciation, general guidelines on writing news).

Additionally, Bell (1991:10) explains that the language of news media includes “editing which usually consists of deleting sections of a story, adding basic explanatory material and cleaning up spelling mistakes and stylistic problems”. Drawing from this insight, it may be concluded that the language of news media may have close to no deviations and impurities as there is a specific and strict process to follow in the news editorial. Relating this to the notion of errors and mistakes, it can be strongly argued that it is very rare to find errors in news language, mostly it is mistakes that are found, as news readers are normally noticed making mistakes which they immediately realize and correct. It may further be concluded that the media news may not be considered one of the main sources of language errors. This, therefore, brings us to a conclusion that not all media programmes contribute to language errors made by people, whether in speech or writing.

2.9.12 Attitude

Attitude could also be the reason that a person does not master a language, which could reflect on how one uses language, in both spoken and written language. Owu-Ewie and Edu-Buoandoh (2014: 5) argue that scholars examine attitude from different perspectives, such as behaviourist and mentalist perspectives. From a mentalist perspective Bartram (2010) agrees with one of the earliest definitions of attitude by Allport (1935: 831) as “...a mental or neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects and situation with which it is related”. Conversely, from a behaviourist perspective, attitude is “...a learned predisposition to respond in a

consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object” (Fishbein & Ajzen 1975: 6). Owu-Ewie and Edu-Buandoh (2014: 5) claim that there are contradicting views around understanding attitudes. Some scholars believe that attitudes are not natural but are learned over a period of socialization. On the other hand, some believe that attitudes may be inherited. However, Baker (1992) and Edward (1994), as quoted by Dalvit (2004: 27), align the definition of attitude to language and conceptualize it “as a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to a language”. Some scholars of language attitude provide some comparable definitions of language attitude. For example, Dyers (n.d.:29) available at http://repository.uwc.ac.za/xmlui/bitstream/handle/10566/2177/Dyers_Investigation_1997.pdf?sequence=1 (Accessed on the 7/02/2020), defines language attitude as “strong positive or negative emotions experienced by people when they are faced with a choice between languages in a variety of situations or are learning a language”. Comparably, Crystal (1997), as quoted by Owu-Ewie and Edu-Buandoh (2014: 6), refers to language attitude as “the feelings people have about their own language or the language of others”.

Richards et al. (1992), as quoted by Owu-Ewie and Edu-Buandoh (2014: 6), explain that impressions of linguistic difficulty or simplicity, ease or difficulty of learning, degree of importance, elegance and social status may reflect on the expressions of positive or negative feelings towards a language. According to these authors, language attitude studies may be threefold, namely: (1) those that explore general attitudes towards language and language skills; (2) those that explore stereotyped impressions towards language, their speakers and their functions; and (3) those that focus on applied concerns (language choice and usage, and language learning) (ibid).

Owu-Ewie and Edu-Buandoh (2014) explore attitude to language in education. According to Baker (1992), as quoted by these authors, language attitude and education are closely related since education is largely considered to make a major contribution towards shaping language attitudes and influencing the outcomes of language maintenance and language shift processes (Owu-Ewie & Edu-Buandoh 2014: 7). These authors further cite Adegbija (1994) who claims that African languages are at a disadvantage since English seems to be highly favoured in most African junior secondary schools (Owu-Ewie & Edu-Buandoh 2014: 7). Thus, education is blamed for the fact that “the negative attitudes toward indigenous African languages are most glaringly displayed” (ibid). According to these authors, the

inference is that, if students are in favour of a particular language, they perform well in it (ibid).¹²

Correspondingly, Mapi (Maunder 2015, paragraph. 23) claims that uplifting the status of indigenous languages in the media will not be easy. Mapi's views are based on the sentiments shared by her students who believed that "the problem was caused by the lack of pride in African languages in that a lot of people regard their languages as poor and as a result, most of them do not want to be associated with such languages". Some of their reasons are that these languages are boring and not as 'funky' as English. Further to this, Makhanya (Maunder 2015, paragraph. 25) reveals the view that "Blacks hate their languages and think that they are backward". In the same breath, Dlanga (2015, paragraph. 2) available at <https://www.news24.com/news24/columnists/khaya-dlanga/English-has-colonised-our-languages-20110215> (Accessed on the 16/10/2017) reports that, "some parents in the various townships barred their children from speaking their mother tongues but English at home". In addition, even when black parents sent their children to former white schools when these schools were opened to black children, the motive was not for black children to acquire superior education, but it was for their children to learn to speak "great English, so that they could get great jobs, not just in South Africa but anywhere else in the world" (ibid). Dlanga (2015, paragraph. 14) goes on to try to convince black people that it is possible to change their attitudes towards indigenous languages and be proud of such languages in order to be able to preserve them. This advice is born from the belief that, if people are proud of their languages, those languages can also flourish to a level that they can be learnt and even be spoken internationally. Correspondingly, Fengu (2017) available at <https://www.news24.com/news24/southafrica/news/parents-resist-mother-tongue->

¹² It should therefore be noted that the issue here is not the prioritization of English but the attitude that people have towards the African languages. Relating the above insights to the context of this study, it may therefore be argued that some isiXhosa learners might have lost interest in isiXhosa; and, because of that they could be making less effort to learn isiXhosa, including reading material written in isiXhosa. The researchers' observations show that some learners indeed have a negative perception about learning isiXhosa at school, as they believe that it will not benefit them in any way. It is therefore, that very same perception that actually clouds the importance of putting more effort into learning isiXhosa, hence the errors L1 learners make that sometimes do not appear to be errors made by L1 learners but by L2 and even L3 learners.

[20170715](#) (Accessed on the 16/10/2017), sheds some light on the attitudes of black people towards indigenous languages. In a news report, Fengu quotes Mtswesi whose view is that it would not help for learners to learn an indigenous language since children might find employment in an environment where there would not be a single person who understands isiXhosa.

Still on the issue of attitude, Dalvit (2004: 27) outlines three major components of attitude which correspond with the sentiments shared above, and are explained as follows:

- a) Cognitive function which refers to beliefs on the usefulness of the language in terms of communication and provision of better job opportunities.
- b) Affective component which implies that there are feelings accompany a particular language which could reveal some emotion towards that language.
- c) Conative which shows the actions that a person wishes to take concerning a language; this could include rejection or enthusiasm about learning that language.

Arguably, there could be a possible connection between limited reading and a lack of enthusiasm for learning a language, in that learners might not read the material written in a particular language because of the attitude that has developed owing to the beliefs they have regarding the language itself. As a result, they could eventually not be familiar with the orthography of that language. Due to such attitudes, the future of a language could be at stake; and its development or deterioration might well depend on the attitude of people towards it.

Pretorius and Mokhwesana (2009: 57) use the term “Literate behaviours and practices”, which might be similar to attitude, to explain how learners’ lack of interest in using printed language resources may develop. They explain that children learn literate behaviours from the adults surrounding them. At preschool level, they learn the importance of familiarizing themselves with printed material when they see their parents or other grown-ups involving themselves with literate activities such as reading newspapers, magazines or books, making lists, writing notes, letters or reports, working on computers, going to libraries or book shops, and the availability of such print material at home (Pretorius & Mokhwesana 2009: 57). Furthermore, the availability of funds which makes such reading materials accessible

becomes an advantage for children as they can engage in more literacy activities. However, if children are from a family that is not fortunate enough to afford such reading materials, chances are limited that they will engage in more literary activities. Also, among others, home story book reading facilitates children's educational success. That means that, if children are introduced to a culture of reading at home, they will have positive attitude towards reading, and that will assist them in succeeding in their studies.¹³

Owu-Ewie and Edu-Buandoh (2014: 8) report that there are limited studies conducted on language attitude towards language use and study in Ghana. As few as they are, these studies have constantly revealed the existence of negative attitude towards the use of indigenous languages as a medium of instruction and as a subject of study in education. In a study which aimed at investigating the negative attitudes towards the study of Ghanaian language in the Senior High School (SHS), Owu-Ewie and Edu-Buandoh (2014) discovered that there are indeed negative attitudes towards the use of Ghanaian languages in SHS. Some of the results of this study include the following:

- 1) Parents, school authorities, other language teachers and students, and the general population have negative attitudes towards Ghanaian language study in the SHS. The negative attitudes are manifested in what they say, in their actions and behaviours.
- 2) Students are able to cope with the negative attitudes towards them through self-motivation, encouragement from their teachers, parents and Ghanaian language interns from the universities, and professors of Ghanaian languages.
- 3) The negative attitudes towards the study of Ghanaian languages in the SHS can be changed through concerted efforts of all the teachers and students, parents, school administrators, the government and the general population. Such concerted efforts, according to the study, include educating people about the benefits of studying the Ghanaian language, the provision of materials, and making the study of Ghanaian language a core subject in the SHS.

¹³ It is important to note that the concept of literate behaviours and practices applies in reading generally and it is not language specific, but resonates very well with the content of the study.

Owu-Ewie and Edu-Buandoh (2014: 7) mention that most African countries do not have clear language policies beyond education. African languages need to be invested in; and that would be made possible by the formation of efficient policies. However, for a policy to thrive, it must do the following: (a) conform to the expressed attitudes of those involved; (b) persuade those who express negative attitudes about the rightness of the policy; and (c) should seek to remove the causes of disagreement. It may be argued that investing in indigenous South African languages is something that South Africa needs to do, especially in the education sector. For example, in South Africa, the National Education Department pays more attention to, and invests more in, the development of the English language. The Annual National Assessment (ANA) and the Systemic tests for Grade 9 focus on English and Mathematics. Focusing on one language only, English, whilst excluding the South African indigenous languages used in each province is, on its own, sending a message that academic success can only be attained through fluency in English. However, the point here is not to criticize the ANA and Systemic tests, but to highlight the contribution that the exclusion of these indigenous languages in such assessments could have in building negative attitudes against these languages, one of which is isiXhosa. However, the reason why these tests focus solely on the English language amongst other languages is fully understood because English is used as a medium of instruction in South Africa, therefore mastering it may guarantee success for the majority of learners. Nevertheless, it should also be considered that these other languages are not disadvantageous to learners in terms of the achievement of academic success.

2.9.12.1 Other causes for learner language errors

The causes of learner language errors which may hinder the competencies expected from any language learner are not limited to the ones outlined above, further to those are the following:

2.9.12.1.1 Social factors

Social factors also affect how one uses a language; equally so, they could make a significant contribution to the deviations, errors and mistakes learners make in their everyday use of the language in the classroom. As mentioned earlier, Communicative and Interactive competence are the two forms of language needed in the classroom, as per the specifics of Sociolinguistics. When one can use language to achieve both these competencies, one is

said to be competent. Both these competencies are important for achieving other educational objectives.

Wilkinson (1984:147) believes that sometimes the way learners use a language may be driven by the desire to display status. This desire might be a contributing factor in the errors made by learners in speech. Similarly, Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 62) cite Rampton (1987) who report that, in some instances, learners may deliberately use non-standard forms to manage the impression they wish to make on their audience. Wilkinson (1984: 147) notes that learners could resort for non-standard forms, forgetting that the “art of learning a language is learning to use it effectively”. Due to the limited knowledge of the difference between written and spoken language, these errors may then be transferred from speech into writing.

Additionally, Stuart-Smith et al. (2013: 502) report that some errors may be transferred through social interactions. As these authors state it, the earliest historical records reflect such changes. These records demonstrate the following:

... that language variation and change arise from processes that take place between speakers during live social interaction. When people talk with each other, tiny little adjustments are made on the individual level, and over time, and in conjunction with numerous factors, but especially personal, social, and ideological, these shifts can lead to community-level systemic change.

Selinker (1972) refers to the phenomenon of ‘interlanguage’. Linguists often talk about ‘mother tongue’ which is used interchangeably with ‘first language’. These two are different concepts but share a somewhat similar meaning. A personal understanding is that mother tongue is not acquired for reasons of competence but rather for performance reasons since its acquisition may be merely for communication reasons. Therefore, presumably, not much attention is given to grammatical specifications. Prior to continuing with this discussion, it is worth looking at the definitions of mother tongue and first language for full comprehension of the insights to be unearthed here.

Numerous definitions of mother tongue have been examined, and such definitions are somewhat comparable. Those include the following:

- Mother tongue “...refers to one's native language or parent language” (Thyab 2016: 1).
- Mother tongue is “one’s native language” (MW 2017) Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/mother%20tongue> (Accessed 02/05/2021).

The concept of mother tongue is defined identically to ‘first language’. It is therefore important to also look at the definition of first language for clarity. Some of the definitions used to define it are these:

- “A person’s native language” (*The Free Dictionary* 2017, available at: <https://www.thefreedictionary.com/first+language> (Accessed 16/10/2017).
- “First language is one’s native language; the language learned by children and passed from one generation to the next” (*The Free Dictionary* 2017, available at <https://www.thefreedictionary.com/first+language> (Accessed 16/10/2017).
- The language that you learn to speak as a child; the language that you speak best (OALD 2010).

From these definitions, it is now clear that first language and mother tongue are used interchangeably to refer to the language one initially learns from birth.

As noted earlier, language has its dialects. IsiXhosa for example, has a number of dialects. These dialects are mother tongue (or first languages) for some learners, meaning that some learners start schooling with a knowledge of only such dialects. Wilkinson (1984: 146) has reported that, “some students come to the classroom knowing something about how to use a language... However, the special characteristics of the classroom may not be recognized by all students”. This may translate to one view that the knowledge of linguistic forms that learners may already know, including when they are non-standard, may not be easily eradicated. Thus, the new correct language forms may not be easily grasped.

2.9.12.2 The education system

Navsaria et al. (2011) also investigated problems surrounding the English language, specifically problems in written language. The results of their study revealed that the language challenges in the learners’ language usage were not caused solely by learners’ lack of skills in the language but the education system had also made a significant

contribution to such gaps (Navsaria et al. 2011: 98-100). They categorized the contributing factors as follows:

- a) Barriers at the school system level; education constituency where the majority of the challenges were found.
- b) Barriers at the individual learner level; education part where “aversion to read and write” was found to be the main challenge to the learner writing problem.
- c) Barriers at the social/home community level where the lack of parental support was found to have contributed hugely to the identified problem.

According to Navsaria et al. (2011), the main problem with the current education system is that it has abandoned the good of the old system, particularly with regards to reading and writing. Also, teachers are working within tight time constraints which put pressure on them to progress learners with writing challenges. As reported, the aspects which the Grades Five and Six learners were struggling with included all the written work aspects: spelling, punctuation, reading and writing comprehension, as well as sentence construction. Now the concern is that, if learners continuously fail to meet the writing outcomes, they face the risk of not being able to catch up; and eventually the gap between the learners and the required outcomes will be constant. Lastly, inclusive education makes it difficult and often almost impossible for teachers to give support to the learners with barriers in reading and writing, as they have to apply an umbrella teaching approach, even though learners have different learning challenges. In the case of the Republic of South Africa, the application of the mark adjustment circulars also relates to the pressure the teachers are enduring in having to progress learners who lack language skills, who then fail to meet the demands of the grades to which they are progressed. Circulars such as the National Assessment Circular No. 3 of 2015 (RSA DBE 2015) are examples of the policies that can be blamed for the flawed education system in this country. Exploring error analysis may be necessary, as knowing how to determine an error may contribute to finding a solution to that error. As mentioned earlier, errors provide information pertaining to systems the learners use in learning the language. Therefore, understanding the process of error analysis may assist to find ways to address errors in language teaching and learning in order to avoid the problem described above. The following discussion therefore focuses its attention on error analysis and its

processes. It is also important to note that error analysis is used to analyse learner language errors in second language learning. However, it may be applicable in the analysis of errors in first language learning as it has been observed that there is a link between learning the first language and the second language, considering that the learning of both requires the learner to conform to the standardized rules of the language; the orthography.

2.10 ERROR ANALYSIS

Linguistics differentiates between learning a mother tongue and learning a second language. According to Corder (1967: 163) learning a mother tongue is necessary and unavoidable, but learning a second language is not. This author further argues that learning a second language (L2) starts after a child has learnt the first language (L1). Therefore, the motivation for learning a first language differs from that of learning a second language (ibid).

In continuation, there are no specific motives provided thus far for learning a first or second language. However, Corder (1981: 7) believes that learning a L1 might be different from learning a L2 on the basis of motivation and strategies, even though that is not scientifically proven. Nevertheless, as different as they could be, some of the strategies used by the learner of a L2 are substantially similar to those used in first language learning. Corder (1967: 163) explains that the learning of the mother tongue is part of the entire maturational process of the child, whilst second language learning usually commences just after the maturational process has completed. As Cook (1969, para. 8), available at <http://www.viviancook.uk/Writings/Papers/IRAL69.htm> (Accessed 16/10/2017) puts it, in the theory of first language learning, errors are viewed as a crucial part of the learning process and indicate what the child's developing grammar lacks, whilst in second language teaching, errors are seen as an indication of unappreciated language. It is therefore important to note that language learning, whether it is L1 or L2, is accompanied by making errors which are a part of the process of learning. Even so, the errors made in first language learning are expected to differ from those made in second language learning, and that includes their causes. The only way in which this difference can be discerned is through error analysis.

Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 51) define error analysis as the study of errors made by learners in their speech and writing. Its primary aim is to identify, describe and explain learner errors. There are two areas of language learning in which error analysis can be done, namely

comprehension and production. For the purposes of this study, more attention will be given to production analysis for its relevance to the purpose of the study of errors in texts. For coherence, prior to error analysis, error evaluation should be performed since that would ensure accurate findings. As defined by Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005), error evaluation refers to a set of procedures for assessing the relative seriousness of learner errors. As mentioned earlier, Corder (1967: 167) outlines three reasons why errors are important:

- 1) They provide teachers with insight into what a learner has learnt and what more still needs to be learnt.
- 2) They provide the researcher with evidence of the strategies and procedures used by learners in acquiring a language.
- 3) They are a device a learner uses to learn a language.

For teachers to be able to determine what learners know and what they do not know, error analysis and evaluation should both be conducted. On the other hand, error analysis can be conducted to achieve exclusively two objectives: (a) to get evidence about how languages are learnt; and (b) to discover the devices which learners can use to observe and understand the rules of the target language.

Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005:51) describe Error Analysis (EA) as the oldest approach used by most language errors researchers since the eighteenth century when errors were viewed as deficiencies in language, and EA is still used nowadays. Yet, error analysis is not the first approach to be used in the study of learner errors.

The insights shared by Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 52) prove that the perspective on language errors has changed over the years: prior to EA, Contrastive Analysis (CA) was a popular mode used in language analysis. It aimed at analysing learner language and it involved contrasting two native-speaker language systems, the mother tongue and the target (second) language. The main objectives of contrastive analysis included the following:

- Describing comparable features across the two languages.
- Identifying the differences between the two languages.
- Predicting what errors would be made by learners.

CA yielded these results:

- Provided an explanation for why learners make errors.
- Provided information for identifying the structural areas of the target language necessary for teacher to teach.

For several reasons, CA had to be replaced by EA. Reasons included the following:

- Many of the errors CA predicted to occur did not really occur.
- Some errors occurred that were not predicted.

Consequently, it became clear that CA was not yielding convincing results, hence the substitution by EA. The substitution was, however, followed by a number of newly introduced learner language analysis models such as obligatory occasion analysis, interpretative analysis and contrastive rhetoric. However, the existence of these other approaches did not necessarily put an end to EA: even though it was not the preferred approach in the analysis of L2 acquisition by scholars, it was always trusted as a tool for measuring accuracy (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005:53). Such works included those that investigated the following:

- a) Learners' written compositions to distinguish the kinds of errors made by two groups of learners with different levels of overall L2 proficiency.
- b) The calculation of a commonly used measure of accuracy-Error-free clauses.

Additionally, Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005: 53) cite James (1998) who points out that EA also applies in research inquiries concerning mother tongue literacy and forensic linguistics.

2.10.1 The process of conducting error analysis

As indicated in Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 57) and Corder (1981: 21-25), there are five steps to follow when conducting error analysis, namely:

- 1) Collection of a sample of learner language
- 2) Identification of errors
- 3) Description of errors
- 4) Explanation of errors
- 5) Error evaluation

Corder (1981: 37-38) further presents two ways to describe and interpret learner errors, namely:

- Authoritative interpretation
- Plausible interpretation

As explained by Corder (1981: 37), authoritative interpretation occurs when a learner is asked to interpret his or her utterance; and such interpretations provide authoritative reconstruction. Conversely, plausible interpretation involves a researcher interpreting the learner's utterance in the absence of the learner, based on the form, and linguistic and situational context of an utterance. This type of interpretation provides the researcher with plausible reconstruction (Corder 1981: 38).

Corder (1981: 39-41) further explains acceptability and appropriateness as both measures that can be used when conducting language error analysis. Appropriateness is twofold:

- Referential appropriateness (material truth value of the utterance)
- Social appropriateness (the use of the appropriate style or register of language for the social situation)

Corder (1981: 41-44) also explains the theory of acceptability and appropriateness used to explain erroneous sentences:

- Acceptable + appropriate = Free from error
- Acceptable + inappropriate = erroneous
- Unacceptable + appropriate = erroneous
- Unacceptable + inappropriate = erroneous

In simple terms, what the above theory claims is that the only sentences that are error free are those that are both acceptable and appropriate. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 56) assert that, the researcher's subjective evaluation is the determinant of sentence acceptability, and such evaluation requires making stylistic rather than grammatical judgments. Moreover, errors may be defined in terms of grammaticality, and that involves distinguishing between covert and overt errors. Covert errors manifest when a larger stretch of the discourse is considered (discourse level errors). Conversely, overt errors can be identified when one inspects a sentence in which they occur (sentence level errors). Below is a diagram provided

by Corder (1971: 167) as a procedure for identifying errors in second language learner production data.

As explained earlier, there are similarities in learning L1 and L2 in that the learning of both requires one to follow the orthography of the language in order to be grammatically correct and to acquire fluency in the language. What is demonstrated in Diagram 2.10.2 below can also be said to confirm this understanding. For example, this diagram shows that any sentence that cannot be meaningfully interpreted and reconstructed according to the standard rules of the learnt (target) language is unacceptable. This translates to the explanation provided earlier that the only sentences that are error free are those that are both acceptable and appropriate. This rule is therefore applicable whether the language is learnt as the first or second language, as there are no exceptions in the application of the language orthographic rules. Arguably, the idea of learning the language is ultimately to achieve fluency. That is where the importance of language teaching lies.

Diagram 2.10.2

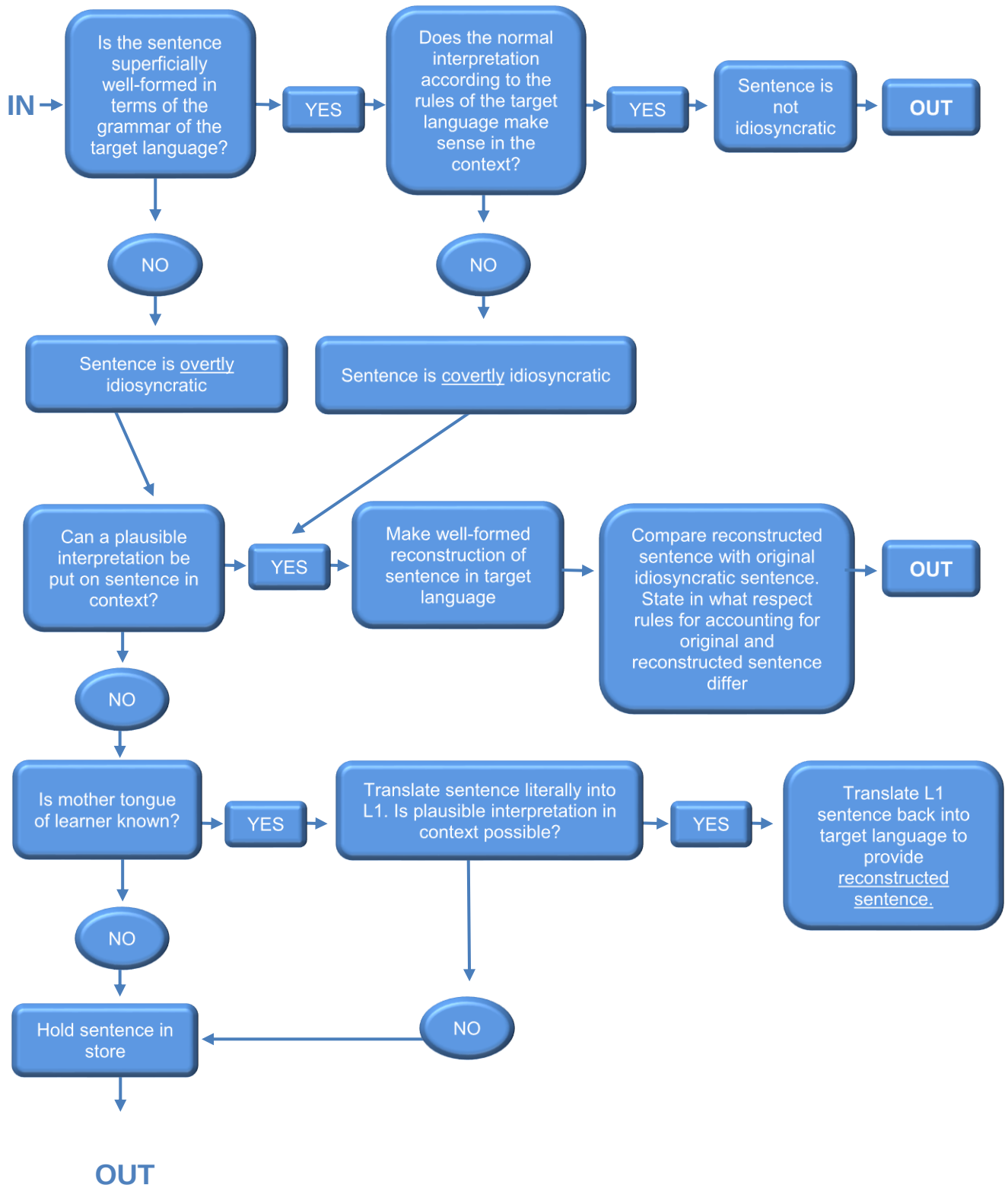


Figure 2 Algorithm for identifying errors in second language learner production data (Corder 1981: 23)

2.11 MEASURES TO ADDRESS ERRORS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

Researchers (Brown 1941; Beach & Bridwell 1984; Touchie 1986; Elbow 1999; https://www.academia.edu/12197473/Classifying_Language_Learning_Errors (Accessed on the 5/11/ 2020); and Navsaria et al. 2011) propose various measures to address errors in language teaching and learning. There are general language and learning interventions that could be useful in addressing errors. Brown (1941: 48) suggests the direct method of teaching the first language. This method was used by one of the first language teaching and learning researchers and, according to Brown (1941), this method may also be used in second language teaching and learning. Brown (1941: 48) further summarizes the goals of the direct method of teaching as follows:

- To conduct classroom instruction exclusively in the target language.
- To teach only everyday vocabulary and sentences in classes of the target language.
- To build up oral communication skills in a carefully graded progression organized around question and answer exchanges between teachers and students, in small, intensive classes.
- To teach grammar inductively.
- To introduce new teaching points orally.
- To teach concrete vocabulary through demonstration, objects and pictures; and abstract vocabulary by association of ideas.
- To teach both speech and listening comprehension.
- To emphasize correct pronunciation and grammar.

Touchie (1986: 79-80) suggests ways in which errors may be dealt with in second language learning, such as these:

- Teachers should concentrate on rectifying errors that affect comprehensibility, meaning and clarity of utterance. Those would be global errors instead of local errors.
- More attention should be given to correcting high frequency and generality errors instead of less frequent errors. An example of high frequency and generality error would be an omission of a third person singular.
- Educators should concentrate more on rectifying errors that are made by most learners and those would be high frequency errors.

- Teachers should concentrate more on stigmatizing or irritating errors. This would help those learners who are sensitive and scared of being ridiculed because of their flawed language. In most cases, such learners are those that come from lower socioeconomic classes.¹⁴
- Lastly, teachers should concentrate more on errors that relate to educational focus. These errors affect the subject of a lesson so that the learner's attention is not on something that is not directly connected to the lesson subject.

An observation is that the measures suggested by Touchie (1986) may also be applied in first language learning as they seem to have the potential to address errors made by L1 learners. Touchie (1986) makes another important observation in relation to measures that are meant to address learner language errors. For example, he suggests that teachers should not try to attend to every oral error made by a learner because that could possibly disrupt the language learning process, whilst also discouraging the anxious learners from attempting to use the target language when communicating. Elbow (1999):365-368 also identifies the following possible solutions which include but are not limited to:

- Make the teaching of grammar a large part of the curriculum.
- Extend the language teaching time.
- Offer English as a subject in every grade.
- Restrict regular one semester first year writing class to those students who don't need instruction in conventions of usage or copy-editing and put the others in remedial or basic classes devoted to those matters.
- Get extra help for learners to help them acquire the desired grammar, syntax, punctuation and spelling.
- Make it a requirement for students to submit three first drafts before the final one.
- Expose students to plenty of informal writing in class.¹⁵

¹⁴ It should be noted that these suggestions are for teachers of second languages, therefore some of them, like suggestion on the fourth bullet, might not apply completely in first language learning.

¹⁵ It should be noted that possible solutions to the language errors outlined by Elbow (1999) speak specifically to English teaching and learning; however, they may relate to the teaching and learning of any language.

In the same vein, Navsaria et al. (2011) shares some views in relation to measures that can be used to address learner language problems appropriately and those include the following:

- Remedial classes.
- Training for teachers around assessment.
- Libraries in schools.
- Reducing teacher-learner ratio.
- Providing interesting and culturally-related reading books.
- Greater parental involvement and support to learners (joint partnership between the school and home).

https://www.academia.edu/12197473/Classifying_Language_Learning_Errors (Accessed on the 5/11/ 2020) shares somewhat similar sentiments with Touchie (1986) in relation to measures for addressing learner errors in language teaching and learning. He puts more emphasis on selective error correction as he asserts that the selection of global errors for correction would be a more effective instructional technique. Moreover, differentiating between local and global errors before error rectification would assist the teacher in determining which types of errors to correct whilst it also provides a strategy for curriculum planning. This author also believes that global errors should be attended to before attending to local errors, reasoning that, once learners are able to communicate, they can easily concentrate on eradication of local errors. Lastly, according to this author, paying more attention to local errors affect learners' language use negatively as it increases the amount of local errors made by learners.

All these researchers share the same sentiments regarding the importance of addressing errors in language teaching and learning, with prioritization of grammar teaching as another important step towards addressing learners' language errors. Elbow (1999: 367-368) is concerned that if learners whose dialects are not in line with the standard language are not helped to address their errors, they will be disadvantaged in their school studies and in the workplace. This may be unfair, but he has found that these learners understand and usually work at getting help addressing their errors. It is the mainstream learners (probably whose language is the target language) that tend to resist addressing their errors as they do not think they need help. This point of Elbow (1999) also implies that learners who are mother tongue speakers of a language have a tendency of resisting help that will improve their

proficiency levels in their language because they believe that they know their language.¹⁶ Beach and Bridwell (1984: 190) make further suggestions about various measures that could be used in addressing errors, namely: teachers should dedicate more time to show learners how to produce good writing through specific learning activities, rather than focusing on discussing and defining what good writing is. Additionally, these authors regard peer evaluation as an additional strategy that could help the learners to be good writers. This strategy is trusted, for it will give learners an opportunity to critique one another's writing; and, in that way, learners will learn to assess their own writing processes. Moreover, peer evaluation may result in the development of learners' ability to learn through writing. This implication of peer evaluation results may be aligned to the thought that; assigning responsibility to learners and more drill may have positive outcomes for language teaching and learning. Assigning responsibility in a form of peer evaluation may also afford learners an opportunity to be more familiar with the process of assessment and feedback since assessment leads to the generation of feedback. The following discussion will focus on feedback as a potential measure in dealing with errors in language teaching and learning.

2.12 FEEDBACK AS A VIABLE SOLUTION TO ADDRESSING LANGUAGE ERRORS

Earlier in this chapter, issues relating to language errors, specifically in the school context, were examined. Assessment and editing as processes which lead to error identification were discussed. Assessment is the educational component and process that is somehow understood to generate some form of feedback. Such feedback is on how one uses language or perhaps the level at which one uses language. Editing seems to be considered one of many ways of eliminating errors in writing. Feedback is an important mechanism that could be used in addressing errors over time, although it has not been given much attention in the literature reviewed so far in this chapter. Arguably, measures to address errors in language teaching and learning are incomplete without looking at feedback as part of the

¹⁶ This point of Elbow (1999) is understood to suggest that resisting help meant to address language errors may be another cause of these errors in the language use of learners. This could therefore be the case with some isiXhosa L1 learners who are L1 speakers of the language. These learners often make errors that are expected to be made by second language (L2) learners and even third language (L3) learners of isiXhosa

intervention in addressing errors over time. This section therefore looks at feedback and the notion of it being a viable solution to addressing language errors, specifically in written communication. Various researchers (Kluger & DeNisi 1996; Ur 1996); Hattie & Timperley 2007; Ellis 2009; Price et al. 2010; Akter 2011; Butler, Godbole & March 2013; Boud & Molloy 2013; NSW DE&C 2015; Barry 2018; Carless & Boud 2018; Thomson 2019) propose feedback as a well-coordinated mechanism that is critical in terms of addressing errors, not just in language teaching and learning but in education broadly.

2.12.1 Defining the concept of feedback

Feedback is viewed as an unavoidable part of people's everyday life, such as at school or work. As Thomson (2019: 1), available at <http://patthomson.net/2019/03/18/giving-feedback-on-writing-be-specific/> (Accessed on 17/05/2019) puts it, people get feedback whether they want it or not. The concept to be looked at here is that of feedback in the education context. On defining feedback, Ur (1996: 242) refers to it as "information that is given to the learner about his or her performance of a learning task, usually with the objective of improving this performance". Correspondingly, Hattie and Timperley (2007: 81) refer to feedback as "information provided by an agent (e.g. teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding". Feedback is consequently an outcome of performance (ibid). On a slightly different note, Molloy & Boud (2013: 11) and Boud & Molloy (2013: 700) claim that 'feedback' was not initially a term coined to be used in education; however, it was applied in education for the purpose it served in other disciplines. Thus, its application in education was flawed from the beginning. According to Boud and Molloy (2013: 700, feedback was a term imported from the field of mechanics where it was used for regulating flows of unwanted or dangerous matter, such as gas, energy or fuel. How feedback is conceptualized results to assumptions of it as a simple idea which is easy to carry out (Molloy and Boud 2013: 17). Based on these reasons, the notion of feedback should be reviewed so as to align it to the education context (ibid). Such alignment would be made by outlining the purpose or aim of feedback and how the purpose can reach efficiency. According to Molloy and Boud (2013: 18), the current concept of feedback disregards the role of learners in feedback production and their ability to think, as though feedback is designed in isolation from the curriculum. Additionally, the current

conceptualization of feedback carries some misconceptions about the qualities of feedback, such as the following:

- All feedback is good
- The more the merrier
- Feedback is telling
- Feedback ends in telling

Molloy and Boud (2013: 19) regard the current concept of feedback as “the imparting of hopefully useful information” which, according to them, would be improper to consider as feedback.

Different scholars who have researched issues relating to feedback agree on one similar view: that assessment and feedback are two inseparable education elements. On a similar note, Ur (1996: 1) explains assessment and correction as the two main, distinct elements of feedback: in assessment, the learner is provided with mere information on the level of his or her performance (ibid). This may be referred to as evaluative feedback (State of New South Wales. Department of Education and Communities (NSW DE&C 2015:2), available at https://www.academia.edu/35522820/Types_of_feedback_Oral_and_written_feedback_Or_al_feedback (Accessed on 24/03/2019). Conversely, in correction, certain information regarding the learner’s performance is provided in different forms which may include explanation and provision of better versions or alternatives; and this may be referred to as descriptive feedback (NSW DE&C 2015:2).

Some of the general characteristics of feedback highlighted by different scholars include that it should be specific, clear and timely. Another common feature among the views of different authors is that they associate feedback with correction. This is echoed by Ur (1996: 242): it is explained that a common understanding of feedback by teachers and learners is that of correction of mistakes. Since this research study focuses on errors, feedback will be used to refer to the correction of errors. However, it is argued that feedback refers to more than the mere correction of errors: more detail is needed to maximize the learner’s understanding of the error and to convince the learner about the accuracy and the basis of correction.

2.12.2 Types of feedback

Feedback is of two different types: oral and written (NSW DE&C 2015: 1). In addition, oral feedback is generally timelier than written feedback as oral feedback is normally given during the task. However, it is somewhat undervalued because of its less formal nature, even though it can be a very powerful teaching technique (ibid). Moreover, oral feedback can probably be provided with less effort during teaching (ibid). On the other hand, written feedback is usually provided after task completion. This kind of feedback can work best when it details what students are doing well, what more they need to do to improve their current performance, and what steps are to be taken in an attempt to improve their current performance (ibid).

Because the focus of this research is on written texts, more focus will be on written feedback, as most scholars consider it the most frequently used in the assessment of written texts. The following are the important qualities of written feedback (NSW DE&C 2015: 1):

- Timeliness; so that it is paired as closely as possible with the event.
- Comprehensibility; for complete grasp of its contents by students.
- Should be realistic for students to be able to make revisions.

Butler et al. (2013: 290) present corrective, elaborative and verification feedback as different feedback types. They define elaborative feedback as any type of feedback that provides more detail than just correcting what is found to be wrong. They go on to mention explanation and re-study feedback as two styles of elaborative feedback. According to these authors, there is a widely shared assumption that elaborative feedback increases chances for improving learning. Even though feedback seems to be considered an integral part of teaching and learning, the issue of which type of feedback is more efficient than others is still arguable, as various feedback researchers present conflicting views on this matter. However, they share one similar view: that of the importance of feedback, especially in language teaching, with specific reference to writing. Giving clarity on this point, Boud and Molloy (2013) assert that corrective feedback is considered as a feedback strategy that accelerates the language acquisition process.

I also agree that feedback is important in language teaching, especially when teaching writing, as I consider it to have the potential of minimizing errors in written communication.

However, I believe that the curriculum should draw clear guidelines on which types of feedback to use in language teaching and learning, especially in the teaching of indigenous languages at first language level, to ensure that it serves the purpose it is meant to serve. This may also necessitate new ways of planning and providing feedback.

2.12.3 The role of feedback

From the definitions of feedback, one may conclude that the main role of feedback in education is to inform students about their performance. Hattie and Timperly (2007: 86) note that the role of feedback is to “reduce discrepancies between current understandings and performance and a goal”. This is also reiterated in Butler et al. (2013: 290) feedback “allows learners to reduce the discrepancy between actual and desired knowledge”. Additionally, feedback enables learners to rectify errors and sustain correct responses. On a slightly different note, Price et al. (2010: 278) assert that correction is the main element of a traditional conceptualization of feedback; thus, correction is meant to ‘put things right’. According to Boud and Molloy (2013), the role of feedback should be to improve learner’s final performance to meet the standards for good work. This therefore means that feedback should serve a purpose in developing learners’ capacity and promoting individual thinking. Price et al. (2010: 278) go on to argue that feedback may be attributed at least five roles, namely: reinforcement, forensic diagnosis, benchmarking, longitudinal development and correction being the main ones. These core categories of feedback are interconnected; they all need to be existent for feedback to be effective.

Feedback may come in different forms, depending on the method used for assessment. Those forms include teacher-feedback; peer-feedback; and self-feedback. These forms of feedback play different roles in teaching and learning, with such roles explained by various researchers as follows:

- Self-feedback helps with teaching students to be more independent and set goals for themselves, whilst at the same time gaining knowledge (NSW DE&C 2015: 4). Moreover, self-feedback is more useful if students are able to do corrections which will eventually provide them with opportunities of generating their own responses. Self-feedback is also believed to work best when it is generated in collaboration with the teacher, because it ultimately turns to be an excellent way of addressing errors.

- Peer-feedback helps in providing students with the opportunity to view other students' work. That exposure can possibly expand the knowledge and comprehension of the learning goals (NSW DE&C 2015: 4). In addition, this form of feedback is known for its efficacy and is important as it takes the focus away from the teacher (Akhter 2011: 16).
- Teacher-feedback: An understanding gathered from the sentiments shared by different authors is that teacher-feedback plays the role of guiding, improving learning and, most importantly, imparting knowledge to students. Based on this widely shared understanding, this type of feedback became the most commonly used form in teaching and learning. However, simply being the most popular form of feedback does not overwrite the reality that it is still not well understood; and, because of that, there are many conflicting views about its role in teaching and learning. A view by Ur (1996: 242) is that this form of feedback has an element of being judgmental. In addition, this type of feedback can either play a positive or negative role, depending on how it is given (NSW DE&C 2015: 2). Even though its primary aim is to enhance learning, as noted in Akhter (2011), it may not fulfil this role because, when teachers provide feedback on written work, they usually mark the mistakes, simply underline, indicate, specify the kind of error, correct the error in the text, and give comments or grades on the written work – without clarifying such comments and annotations. When this happens, students are left without an understanding of what strategies to use to improve their writing (Akhter 2011: 17).

These are not just forms of feedback but, as noted in Akhter (2011: 17), they are also considered important steps for error correction. I also agree that the role of feedback should be to improve performance; and, for such a role to be fulfilled, both teachers and learners need to have a common understanding of the function of feedback in teaching and learning. I also believe that it may also be necessary to consider the teaching and learning context, as well as the subjects, to assess the possibility of applicability of each type of assessment and feedback. For example, one agrees that all three forms of assessment are important in teaching and learning. However, a question may arise around their application and fulfilment of their roles in classes that have high numbers of learners. If the isiXhosa teachers also do not provide feedback in a way that will enable it to fulfil its role, it may be necessary to investigate the reasons for such to assist them to provide feedback that plays the role intended.

2.12.4 Feedback as an intervention

In the previous sections of this chapter, feedback is spoken of as a way of addressing errors and mistakes. It is very important to note that the way in which errors and mistakes are conceptualized is based on the readings studied. That, however, does not change how errors and mistakes are understood and conceptualized in this study. It may therefore be worth emphasizing that, in this chapter, the term 'error' is used to refer to incorrect language, as well as to other deviations from the rules and principles of writing, whilst, 'mistakes' will be used to refer to language deviations that have been corrected by the very same person who has made them.

Moving forward, Kluger and DeNisi (1996: 255) conceptualize feedback intervention as "actions taken by an external agent(s) to provide information regarding some aspect(s) of one's task performance". These authors go on to align the concept of feedback intervention with the concepts of 'Knowledge of performance', 'Augmented feedback' and 'Extrinsic feedback' (Kluger & DeNisi 1996: 255). However, they go on to show how the concept of feedback intervention differs from these other conceptions and mention that feedback intervention has a broader scope because it has an element of knowledge of results, but it focuses on a number of activities. Thomson (2019: 3) views feedback in writing as a strategy that is aimed at particular components of writing. One may interpret this as referring to the use of feedback to address the areas where students are lacking knowledge. It may therefore be argued that for any intervention to be effective, there must be proper planning to necessitate quality feedback. Barry (2018: 25) states that "teacher monitoring and teacher feedback of student progress are critical predictors of student success". This view of Barry (2018: 25) may be said to re-iterate an important thought noted earlier: that feedback is intended to promote learner success. Therefore, when a teacher uses feedback as an intervention, the interest is more on the learner's academic success. Barry (2018: 25) outlines some characteristics of quality feedback:

- Timeliness
- Quantifiability and objectivity
- Provision of positive re-enforcement
- Offering constructive criticism

According to Barry (2018: 25), feedback with these characteristics has multiple effects, such as that it is:

- Motivating to students;
 - Draws a clear picture of a student's performance;
 - Informs students about learning expectations;
 - Promotes a student's growth;
 - Highlights potential errors; and
 - Provides resources to assist with identification and correction of errors.
- Various works on feedback intervention provide different views on how feedback can be applied in teaching and learning. Such views range from the types of feedback most suitable to teaching and learning, to theories and their advantages and disadvantages. Ur (1996: 244) provides a list of theories which may be considered during decision-making and planning of feedback interventions. The following is an outline of such theories, with a brief summary of each:
- Audio-lingualism, which emphasizes doing things correctly from the onset, with the view that people should have their performance re-inforced so as to do things correctly. Therefore, there will not be need for correction and that is the proper way to learn.
 - Cognitive code-learning, which emphasizes that no learner is proud of mistakes and thus avoiding them is appropriate. However, if they are made, they should be corrected immediately to avoid recurrence.
 - Interlanguage, which emphasizes the importance of mistakes in the process of learning (language). Thus, when they are corrected, learner's incorrect language gets better and eventually meets the standard of the target language.
 - The communicative approach, which emphasizes that trying to correct all the mistakes is ideal but not a realistic objective. Therefore, only mistakes that pose a greater threat to learning the language for communicating competently should be given attention, and accurate language use should not be the focus of language teaching and learning.

- Monitor theory, which emphasizes that correction may hinder the process of learning. Thus, teachers should focus on providing clear knowledge that promotes language acquisition instead of correction.

Kluger and DeNisi (1996) investigated the effect of intervention feedback on performance and went on to highlight some gaps and discrepancies with its theories. These theories include: Law of effect; Control theory; Goal setting theory; Multiple-cue probability learning paradigm; Socio-cognition; and Variation of learned helplessness theory. According to these authors, the gaps identified with these theories are of a differing nature; but they include the individual inability to prove the effect of intervention feedback on performance improvement. These theories themselves present great potential; however, they also have some challenges, a major one of which is application. These authors further maintain that feedback intervention efficiency is not guaranteed. One thing that is unquestionable is that “feedback does not uniformly improve performance”, for it is “just information, that is data, and as such has no consequences at all” (Kluger & DeNisi; 1996: 254). In addition, feedback efficacy is situation-dependent, as there are some situations where it improves performance and some where it weakens it, depending on the nature of the task. Carless and Boud (2018:1318) raise a different view with regard to feedback intervention. They state that teachers need to teach learners about feedback and its importance as an intervention in education. An understanding drawn from this view is that feedback intervention pedagogy may also help in understanding academic goals, as a lack of such understanding, according Hattie and Timperley (2007: 89), results in a lack of commitment to academic goals. They go on to clarify that, learners are assumed to share a commitment to academic goals, yet the only way to ensure understanding and commitment to academic goals is through nurturing and building it (Hattie & Timperley 2007: 89). One may argue that, when students share commitment to academic goals, the future of peer assessment and feedback may be bright, since peer-feedback is also considered a powerful strategy for improving learning and performance. According to Carless and Boud (2018: 1322), feedback literacy may teach students to engage with feedback and eventually encourage them to generate, receive and use feedback.

2.12.5 The impact of feedback

By virtue of feedback being a strategy used in teaching and learning with the purpose of improving learners' academic success, one assumes that its impact can only be positive. However, that is not the case, as per the literature and results drawn from different studies on feedback. As mentioned earlier, there are some assumptions that some types of feedback have more impact than others. Butler et al. (2013) are amongst the authors who have questioned such assumptions. They mention that some of those assumptions are around elaborative feedback, which is postulated to have a positive impact on learning; as such, it is mostly used as part of programmes meant to enhance learning (Butler et al. 2013). However, some views around the impact of feedback include that the effectiveness of feedback depends on how the feedback is communicated. Such views are accompanied by suggestions that, for feedback to have a positive impact, it needs to be communicated with caution.

Molloy and Boud (2013:12) agree that feedback is a complicated process which can either have a positive or negative impact on learning and performance, depending on the circumstances under which it is provided. Not only critical or harsh feedback may have negative effect on feedback: even feedback that carries praise may have a very limited impact on a learner's performance and learning. Additionally, feedback has the potential of developing a defensive attitude among learners.

2.12.6 Efficiency of feedback

Arguably, feedback, just like any strategy, should be monitored to ensure that its efficiency improves. Improvement of its efficiency would ensure that it is still relevant. However, very little of this is happening. Price et al. (2010: 277) argue that, in education, much time is allocated to offering feedback; however, examination of its effectiveness is awarded very little effort. More often, feedback seems to be ineffective due to various contributing factors. Even though students seem to be in urgent need of feedback, they are not using it for its purpose as they usually do not read it. In some instances, when they do read it, they do that without proper comprehension and they also consequently fail to use it. This may result in an inability to observe the importance of feedback as an element of academic success (ibid). Price et al. (2010: 277) highlight two things: that feedback efficiency depends on the gaps it

is trying to address; and that more feedback does not guarantee more learning. Similarly, Molloy and Boud (2013) argue that not all feedback is guaranteed to be efficient. Feedback efficiency depends on context, timing, as well as on learner and teacher attributes. Furthermore, feedback efficiency depends on the information the teacher avails to the students regarding ways in which learning gaps can be addressed. A similar assertion is made by Hattie and Timperley (2007: 82) that feedback can only be efficient when it is provided in a suitable context to address a specific issue. In addition, Price et al. (2010: 278) also claim that the purpose of the feedback plays a major role in its efficacy. For example, if the purpose of feedback is just to make the student aware of the errors that he or she makes, feedback may be considered efficient when it is eventually received by the student. Conversely, if the purpose of the feedback is to motivate the student to treat errors properly, feedback may be considered efficient when it succeeds in these ways: (a) eventually to prevent recurrence of errors; (b) when learners finally obtain knowledge on the possible causes of errors; and (c) when learners consequently comprehend errors. The implication of this view is that efficiency may well depend on the method of evaluation. Consequently, if feedback used is meant to motivate the student to treat errors properly, that may also positively influence future learning. As noted earlier, feedback efficiency is still an unresolved issue, especially when it comes to which type of feedback is more efficient than others.

Contradicting sentiments are shared in relation to corrective feedback. Such contradicting views are noted in Ellis (2009: 5): "Corrective feedback has a negligible effect on the developing system of most language learners". This author goes on to report that corrective feedback in a written piece of work may assist learners to eliminate errors in the final draft. However, that does not guarantee grammatical accuracy in the pieces that may be written in future. Therefore, it does not guarantee that learning has occurred. This means that correcting learners' errors or providing learners with correct answers may not result in the consequent understanding of the subject matter (ibid). This latter claim is also disputed, on the basis that corrective feedback could be effective if the issue of quality assurance has been considered in the process of producing corrective feedback. This then means that corrective feedback can lead to learning if the nature of the corrective feedback has been given attention in terms of its possible effect. One of the ways that can be used to ensure quality of corrective feedback is to ensure that clarity and consistency are applied in the

production of such corrective feedback. If so, acquisition through such corrective feedback will eventually be achieved.

On a slightly different note, Butler et al. (2013: 290) assert that including correct answer in the feedback maximizes the level of its efficiency because it provides the students with answers necessary for them to rectify their errors. Their claim is based on the availability of empirical evidence on corrective feedback efficiency. In addition, as noted in Butler et al. (2013), it is believed that it may be helpful to supplement corrective feedback with other information necessary for learners to improve learning. Butler et al. (2013) confirm that explanation feedback leads to better performance when assessing understanding, compared to corrective feedback. These authors go on to report that there is no theory that is able to explain the efficacy of each feedback type; and they agree that such a gap provides no clarity as to what constitutes feedback efficacy and compatibility between each assessment type and specific feedback type (*ibid*). These statements may be said to reflect that feedback efficiency is, indeed, a complex issue; and it is even more complex when it comes to determining which type of feedback is more efficient than other types. A suggestion made by Butler et al. (2013: 295) is that feedback efficiency may be forged through a deep consideration of understanding as a learning outcome. To put this into the context of orthographic errors, a teacher may have to substitute corrective feedback with maximizing learner understanding of orthographic rules; and learners will need to understand ways of applying such rules in language use so that they are able to apply such rules when writing different types of texts.

Stepping back to the role of feedback discussed in Hattie and Timperley (2007), these two authors noted that a reduction in the discrepancies they have highlighted depends on the applied strategies which may vary in their effectiveness in enhancing learning. Consequently, these authors claim that feedback efficacy is only possible if the feedback itself addresses three questions: the goal being pursued; the nature of the progress being made towards the pursued goal; and the activities that ought to be performed for performance improvement (*ibid*). Hattie and Timperley (2007) are of the view that, it is of paramount importance to ensure that the students at which feedback is directed are at an appropriate level of language learning, because some feedback may be efficient in reducing the discrepancy between current understanding and the desired outcome, and some may

be inefficient. Thus, Price et al. (2010: 277) emphasizes that it is important to understand the difference between feedback efficiency and feedback delivery. According to Price et al. (2010), the only way feedback can be efficient is when a learner has a full grasp of it, is eager, and has the capacity to act in response to it. Moreover, interpretation of feedback and the level to which the learner engages with it are also determining factors of its effectiveness. Carless and Boud (2018) share the same sentiments: they claim that students' comprehension and interpretation of feedback is of paramount importance if they are to respond positively to feedback. These two authors also mention that there are limited opportunities for students to engage with and act on feedback. More often, such limitations exist because assessment tasks are only submitted at the end of modules; and that minimizes time and opportunities for students to respond thoroughly to teacher comments on their work. Carless and Boud (2018: 1323) further emphasize that, "Students require multiple opportunities and practice in interpreting, recording and acting on feedback information". This could probably be an approach that language teachers may have to apply in language teaching to maximize feedback efficacy.

Earlier in this chapter, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, as well as attitude, were outlined as components which may play a role in the making of errors in language learning. It may therefore be argued that these components may influence how a learner engages with feedback regarding the language errors the students make. Thus, such influences may also contribute to feedback efficiency. To elaborate on this, Price et al. (2010: 279) note that, "Students have a choice about whether to act on feedback. Their motives to do so or not may result from positive responses such as deep consideration of the feedback and reasoned rejection of it ...". This, therefore, implies that feedback efficiency does not simply depend on the aforementioned components, but also on the attitude learners have towards that particular subject for which the feedback is intended. A similar view is shared in Boud and Molloy and (2013), namely that feedback efficacy depends heavily on students realizing the pivotal role they ought to play in engaging in depth with the feedback they receive. This may start by students taking a lead as role players in their academic development. Carless and Boud (2018) forward a similar view: that to improve feedback efficiency, students need to understand their role in feedback efficacy. Price et al. (2010) conclude that feedback efficacy is not easy; and its accurate measurement may be impossible. An understanding drawn here is that determiners of feedback efficiency mentioned in the previous sections of

this chapter cannot necessarily prove feedback efficacy; and, if students do not respond positively to feedback, it is thus considered inefficient. In light of these points, the discussion then moves on to the following section which discusses the shortcomings of feedback.

2.12.7 Shortcomings on feedback

As mentioned in the previous section, the studied literature uncovers the reality that the feedback process is not a smooth one: just like any other process, it is often characterised by a series of shortcomings. Thus, such shortcomings do not affect feedback only, but also assessment, since feedback efficiency is believed to be measured during the assessment which comes after such feedback. Boud and Molloy (2013: 699-700) are among the scholars who have observed this. They have therefore, identified the following shortcomings on feedback and assessment:

- Increase in student numbers / class size which leads to overloading of teachers.
- The number of assessment tasks which is considered to be high.
- Fewer regular tasks which should promote more students' involvement in learning.
- Learners' less systematic knowledge of their performance.
- Time on task (the limits and pressure exerted by the curriculum on teachers) which is meant for coverage and certification.
- Irregular location of tasks which renders insufficient time between the first and the second task information and feedback going to student for it to be prepared, received and acted upon.

The sentiments shared by Carless and Boud (2018) on the limitations of feedback also seem to form part of the shortcomings on feedback, as the point on the limited opportunities for learners to practise and engage thoroughly with feedback seems to correspond with point number three and five above. An understanding drawn here is that, even though feedback is considered a viable intervention to addressing errors, it also has its challenges which need to be taken into consideration for feedback to be efficient.

2.13 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

As mentioned earlier in this chapter on the introduction, theoretical framework forms part of the chapter. Part of error analysis is discussed earlier in this chapter mainly to give full understanding of what exactly error analysis is, to provide the basis for its use, and to give details of the manner in which it is conducted. This section further examines Error Analysis (EA) of Corder (1981); and Communicative Competence (CC) of Hymes (1972) as the two major theoretical formations which serve as a base for this research.

2.13.1 Error Analysis (EA) theory

2.13.1.1 The principle of EA theory

To understand the concept of errors and the extent to which errors can impact on message comprehension, this study draws on Corder's (1967) EA theory. Apart from analysing all sources of errors, EA theory explains that sentences or utterances that may be considered error-free are measured through appropriateness and acceptability. Anything that does not constitute these two qualifiers may be observed as deviant from the standard rules of the language.

2.13.1.2 Procedure for conducting error analysis

EA further provides five different steps for conducting error analysis, namely: collection of a sample of learner language; identification of errors; description of errors; explanation of errors; and error evaluation. This theory looks at both competence and performance and explains these two in terms of acceptability and appropriateness. The emphases are not only on the production of the correct language but also on the correct application of such language in appropriate situations. This means that, as already mentioned, error-free sentences can only be those that are appropriate and acceptable in terms of the use of correct language. Error analysis focuses mainly on errors in second language (L2) learning, and some of its perspectives may not account for the errors made in first language (L1) learning. Nevertheless, the most important criterion is that it underpins the central issue, i.e. that errors are an inevitable part of language learning and their causes are different. It also goes further to explain that some errors are easy to identify whilst some are not.

Burt (1975) explains error division: there are varying degrees to which errors can affect message comprehension. Such division can be related to Hymes's (1972) theory of Communicative Competence (CC) and thus it necessitates the use of this theory in this work. As mentioned earlier, this theory focuses on two language components: the grammatical component and the performance component. It emphasizes not only the knowledge of grammatical structures of the language but the ability to use that knowledge to create meaningful utterances and sentences. Communicative competence amounts to the production of error-free sentences in terms of appropriateness and acceptability, as per social and sociolinguistic requirements. Thus, it may be said that, if learners are making errors in their language usage, their communicative competence may be questionable since communicative competence requires both knowledge of grammatical rules and the knowledge of how to apply such knowledge to produce correct utterances or sentences. For more on the suitability of both these theories to a study of errors in African languages at first language level, we may extend our argument and consider their connection to a point where committing errors in any language component may raise concerns about communicative competence, especially if such errors fall within the global category. However, even if such errors are of a local nature, they may reflect challenges to communicative competence, as even local errors are arguably not acceptable at a particular level of schooling. CC is explained in depth later in the last part of this section.

2.13.1.3 Error Analysis as an analytical theory

EA can be applied in two ways: as a framework; and as an analytical theory. That is exactly how it is applied in this study, for "it is one of the best ways to describe and explain errors committed by L2 learners" (Sompong 2013: 110). This author states clearly that EA is more suitable for analysis of errors in second language. Even so, it is selected for analysis of errors in this study of first language learning for a couple of reasons: firstly, because of the lack of error analysis theories that speak specifically to errors in the African languages, especially at first language level. Secondly, it is still relevant as it investigates errors made in language components, some of which are also investigated here, such as grammar, syntax, morphology and semantics.

Moreover, as Sompong (2013) reports, error analysis can uncover sources of errors and the root causes for their repeated occurrence. When clarity is gained on the sources and causes, it becomes possible to devise strategies to address such errors.

2.13.1.4 The application of Error Analysis theory as analytical theory in this study

Analysis of data in this study was conducted according to the following procedure:

- Selection of a sample of learner language.
- Identification of errors.
- Explanation of errors
- Correction of errors
- Evaluation of frequency
- Classification of errors according to local or global

2.13.2 Communicative Competence (CC) Theory

2.13.2.1 The concept of CC

Returning to the CC theory as a second theoretical framework for this study. Communicative competence is described as a specific feature of competence in humans which makes it possible to convey and interpret messages and negotiate interpersonal meanings within specified contexts (Hymes 1972). Relating this to written communication, communicative competence may be said to have a direct bearing on conveying messages which require less effort to comprehend. This model has been widely cited and applied by many scholars who have researched issues relating to second language learning. Such issues include, amongst others: (i) grammatical competence (the knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology); and (ii) discourse competence. Because of its nature, CC has also been applied in two ways in this study: as a framework; and as an analytical theory.

As explained earlier, CC theory is employed in this study, firstly, for its focus on linguistic competence and linguistic performance as the elements of communicative competence. This therefore means that CC theory encompasses grammatical, discourse and sociolinguistic competence which are also a primary focus of this study. Secondly, CC is

one of the theories that are especially relevant to the focus of this study; thus, it is the most suitable framework for this study. Lastly, the lack of theories that speak specifically to competence in indigenous African languages at first language level has also motivated the use of CC theory as a framework in this study. As Hymes (1972: 269) puts it, “it is not that there exists a body of linguistic theory that practical research can turn to and has only to apply. It is rather that work motivated by practical needs may help build the theory that we need”. These sentiments of Hymes lent motivation to the researcher’s study of CC theory, as it could be related to and reworked to suit this research project. Thus, on a different note, this study will not apply the dynamic nature of CC theory but will focus only on the communicative competence of the message producer which, in this case, is a learner. Additionally, CC theory widely relates to second language learning, but it is also useful in first language learning because of the elements of communicative competence which may have a direct relationship with orthography which is the main focus of this study.

2.13.2.2 The elements of CC theory

According to Brown (1941: 196), discourse means “everything from simple spoken conversations to lengthy written texts”. Furthermore, grammatical competence focuses on sentence-level grammar, whilst discourse competence focuses on intersentential relationships. “Grammatical Competence is associated more with mastering the linguistic code of a language, the linguistic competence” (ibid). These elements of CC theory are explained in depth below.

Grammatical competence

In addition to what has been explained earlier, this element of CC theory encompasses knowledge of lexical items, the knowledge of the rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar, semantics and phonology (Canale & Swain 1980: 29). Thus, grammatical competence is regarded as the competence of mastering the linguistic code of a language (Brown 1941: 196). In simpler terms, these elements are what qualifies one to be grammatically competent in a particular language.

Discourse competence

This is explained as the “ability to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances” (Brown 1941: 196). Relating this notion to writing – and taking into account the relationship between the importance of orthography and grammatical competence – it may be argued that discourse competence enables one to form a meaningful whole out of a series of written sentences. Therefore, discourse competence is also a qualifying feature for communicative competence in lengthy written texts (ibid).

Socio-linguistics competence

As Brown (1941) and Canale and Swain (1980) explain, this element encompasses sociocultural rules of the language and the rules of discourse. It therefore requires comprehension of the social context in which the language is used. According to Canale and Swain (1980: 30), “knowledge of these rules will be crucial in interpreting utterances for social meaning, particularly when there is a low level of transparency between the literal meaning of an utterance and the speaker’s intention”. Relating this to written communication, it may be argued that knowledge of these rules will be crucial in interpreting utterances for social meaning, particularly when there is a low level of transparency between the literal meaning of a text and the writer’s intention. These sentiments amount to the view that, in order for one to understand the language to a level of writing it in different communication contexts, one has to understand the culture of the people of that particular language. Therefore, for one to be communicatively competent in a language in relation to writing, one must be able to write in that particular language in a way that is appropriate to the context and display an awareness of the values shared by the people of that language.

In addition to these elements of CC theory are the functions of language and language styles which also contribute to communicative competence. Accomplishment of a language function and proper use of styles depend on the knowledge one possesses about language forms, such as morphemes, words, grammar rules and discourse rules and other organizational competencies (Brown 1941: 199). According to this author, categories of style can apply to different forms of written discourse, including written essays. Emphasis is also placed on the view that “discourse styles are not social or regional dialects, but sets of conventions for selecting words, phrases, discourse and non-verbal language” (Brown 1941:

209). This is also very important for this research study, as the data units used for analysis are written essays.

Another most important element of CC theory is non-verbal communication due to the association of CC theory predominantly with spoken language. Basically, CC theory translates to interconnection between grammatical, psycholinguistic, sociocultural and probabilistic systems of competence (Canale & Swain 1980: 16).

2.13.2.3 Gaps within the CC theory

There are some problems associated with the CC theory, just like those of any other theory. Firstly, the main problems highlighted by Hymes (1972: 269-280) include the following:

- The concern of the linguistic theory is mainly on the ideal speaker-listener, in a totally 'homogenous' speech community where the language is perfectly known and free from the effects like grammatically irrelevant conditions such as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors which may play a part in the application of the language knowledge in actual performance. To contextualise this within this research study, we may need to substitute 'speaker to listener' for writer to reader.
- The inferences of competence and performance are much more unhesitatingly on the "concrete persons, situations, and actions".
- None of the modern linguistic theory addresses any of the internal structure or the intrinsic human significance in depth.
- The theory speaks of performance and competence in isolation, without showing how each may depend on the other.
- There seems to be some confusion between the different meanings of the notion of performance as used in the discussion of communicative competence as, in normal circumstances, performance is used to refer to observable behaviour.

In addition to the above specified gaps of CC theory is a personally observed problem with the CC theory: this theory relates to non-verbal communication as one of its main elements. It seems to overlook the fact that non-verbal communication only applies to oral language. CC theory seems to relate widely to oral language. With that having been observed, CC

theory therefore seems to overlook the possibility of non-verbal communication as an element of written language. For example, looking at the communicative competence in the school context in relation to written communication, non-verbal communication is evident in switching between a correct and incorrect language form; regular scratching of words; and scratching of words to replace them with incorrect language forms. These could be non-verbal cues communicating different messages regarding, for example, a lack of fluency, incomplete acquisition, a lack of knowledge of a particular language form, a lack of confidence in using the language, or other psychological conditions such as those mentioned in the first bullet. These non-verbal cues may therefore need to be taken into consideration in research on orthographic errors in teaching and learning of indigenous languages at first language level.

2.14 CONCLUSION

This chapter has focused mainly on the theoretical perspectives of different scholars on language errors in language learning, specifically on the written language, but not overlooking the spoken language. This chapter has also examined the theories of error and text analysis, Communicative Competence and other issues pertinent to orthography and language errors. Preceding the discussions on the aforementioned areas was a brief but detailed background and discussion of the written isiXhosa language and its standardization. An investigation on the different perspectives on orthography, its importance and issues relating to language standardization, with specific reference to isiXhosa orthography, also formed part of this chapter. The findings from the literature reviewed in this chapter reveal important facts regarding the importance of language, language teaching, orthography, language errors, error analysis and addressing errors in education. The findings from this review reveal various challenges facing languages, specifically the indigenous languages. Such challenges include the current status of the standard isiXhosa and the review of the orthography of this language. Errors, as discussed in this chapter, will apparently always be part of human language use, whether in spoken or written language. As the literature distinguishes between errors and mistakes and different ways in which errors are viewed, it is still not clear whether errors made by mother tongue speakers of indigenous languages such as isiXhosa should also be treated as an important part of language learning, or as an endangerment to these languages. Lower literacy levels (reading and writing) in African

languages were revealed to form part of the causes of language errors found in the language use in education. However, it is still not clear whether, if it happens that the Government and the Department of Education address that, the state of literacy levels would improve, since attitudes were revealed to play a significant role in the learning of indigenous languages. This is, therefore, an opportunity for further research. The literature reviewed provides theories of analysing errors in second language learning. However, the theories of first and second language learning differ; and a large amount of research has been conducted on errors in second language learning. It is now of much interest to see what results the use of second language (L2) error analytical theory might yield when used to analyse errors in first language (L1). This review has revealed a link between first and second language learning, even though the processes of learning and causes of errors in L1 and L2 learning might differ. Nevertheless, this review has not revealed the actual differences in the causes of errors in L1 and 2, even though it is still suspected that they are not the same.

This chapter went on to look at feedback and the notion of it being a viable solution to language errors, specifically in written communication. The literature studied defined feedback from a wider perspective; but in this research and for its purposes, a definition of feedback had to be scaled down to the context of education. Thus, the concept of feedback as information generated by the teacher or examiner, based on the learners' performance, was chosen. However, this concept had to be aligned more closely with detailed correction aimed at maximizing learners' understanding of the identified errors, as well as at convincing learners about the importance of accuracy and the basis of corrections. Types of feedback were explored; and a view held here is that feedback is important, especially in teaching and learning of indigenous languages as first languages. It is further advocated that the curriculum should give specific guidelines on the use of feedback in the teaching of indigenous languages. This may therefore necessitate the establishment of new ways of planning and providing feedback. The literature studied here observes feedback as a widely-used strategy to deal with learning gaps. However, it presents contributing views on how this strategy should be applied in teaching and learning, especially with regard to the types of feedback. Some sentiments on the importance of learner role in promoting feedback efficacy were also shared. It is also reckoned that learners ought to be educated about the importance of feedback intervention to maximize their comprehension so that they can use feedback productively. There is also a common observation around feedback and its two-

fold impact on learning and performance. Lastly, as noted earlier, contradicting views are also presented on feedback efficacy. In light of those views, support goes to the view that learners ought to be taught about orthographic rules and ways of applying such, so as to minimize errors in their language. Such support is based on the understanding that, if learners have comprehension of orthography, it may be easy for them to grasp and interpret feedback accurately; that will eventually enable them to respond positively to feedback. For as long as students do not respond positively to feedback, feedback will continue to be considered inefficient. It is also agreed that the point of departure towards feedback efficacy could be to provide opportunities for learners to gather an understanding of the important role they ought to play in improving feedback value, as well as preparing for feedback challenges. Thus, it may be said that feedback intervention has the potential to solve the errors in language teaching and learning. However, much is still to be done, as Kluger and DeNisi (1996: 259) report that some feedback intervention theories have potential, but application is still a challenge. Apart from the challenge of application, other challenges to feedback were also revealed.

Lastly, this chapter discussed two major theories on which this research is built: EA and CC. EA theory emphasises the view that sentences or utterances that may be considered error-free are assessed through appropriateness and acceptability. CC theory lays emphasis on (i) grammatical competence (the knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology) and (ii) discourse competence as the most important elements for competence in communication, thus it invites us to view communicative competence as such. This chapter views these theories as complementary, as they both emphasize sending messages that are free from any grammatical and discourse flaws which, in some instances, could possibly hinder message comprehension. This chapter also notes some gaps within these two theories, which a study of this nature may need to observe, as their existence may unearth new knowledge and insights. Lastly, whether a language is L1 or L2, it should still be used in a clear and comprehensible manner to avoid communication breakdown and to maintain its standard to ensure that it survives. EA and CC theories are applied in this study despite the fact that they apply to L2 teaching because they both place emphasis on the importance of conveying messages in a comprehensible manner, without any language deviations to maintain clear and successful communication.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methodology for the study. Firstly, it provides the background to research approaches. Secondly, it explains the nature of this research. Thirdly, it explains the research design for this study. Fourthly, it provides participants' demographic information. Finally, it provides a conclusion to the chapter.

3.2 BACKGROUND TO RESEARCH APPROACHES

Creswell and Creswell (2018: 3) explain a research approach as “plans and the procedures for research that span the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation”. According to Creswell and Creswell (2018: 4), research has three approaches, namely: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods. These approaches are explained as follows:

3.2.1 Qualitative approach

This approach is useful for it unearths information about things that matter and in ways that matter to the society, especially with regard to everyday life and the significance of the meanings generated by this knowledge (Mason 2002: 1). Similarly, Denzin and Lincoln (2011: 3) explain that “...qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them”. Creswell and Creswell (2018: 4) also concur that a qualitative approach is used to explore and comprehend the meaning people or groups assign to a social or human problem. Researchers interpret the data and the conclusion bears a flexible structure (ibid). In general, this approach is characterized by the use of words as opposed to numbers, and also uses open-ended questions and responses.

3.2.2 Quantitative approach

This approach is used to put objective theories to the test by examining the relationship among variables. Researchers usually employ statistical procedures to analyse numbered

data (Creswell & Creswell 2018: 4). Unlike a qualitative approach, this one is characterized by the use of numbers, as well as closed-ended questions and responses. It is thus used mainly to minimize the possibility of bias, controlling for alternative or counterfactual explanations, as well as avoiding generalizing and replication of the findings (ibid).

3.2.3 Mixed methods

A mixed method approach employs a combination of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The integration of qualitative and quantitative data generates more understandings external to the knowledge produced by the sole use of either the qualitative or quantitative data (Creswell & Creswell 2018: 4).

According to Creswell and Creswell (2018: 3), apart from the philosophical assumption the researcher brings to the study, the selection of a research approach is also influenced by (a) the nature of the problem or issue which the research intends to address; (b) the researcher's personal experience; and (c) the audience(s) for the study. More attention is given to qualitative approach as a selected approach for this present study.

To continue, in a qualitative approach, Creswell and Creswell (2018: 19) further explain that this approach may be used when important variables that need to be examined are not well known to the researcher. This approach may therefore be necessary based on a number of reasons, including that the topic is new, the subject has never been addressed with a certain sample or group of people, and also because the existing theories are not applicable to the particular sample or group under study. Creswell and Creswell (2018: 13) further outline qualitative approach designs which include case studies, grounded theory, and ethnographies, to mention a few. These qualitative designs are explained as follows:

Case study

- A case study is an “intensive analysis of an individual unit (as a person or community) stressing developmental factors in relation to environment (Denzin & Lincoln 2011: 301). Similarly, Creswell and Creswell (2018: 14) describes case studies as follows:

Designs of enquiry found in many, especially evaluation, in which the researcher develops an in-depth analysis of a case, often a program, event, activity, process or one or more

individuals. Cases are bounded by time and activity, and researchers collect detailed information using a variety of data collection procedures over a sustained period of time.

Grounded theory

- As explained in Denzin and Lincoln (2011: 360), grounded theory is:

... a method of social scientific theory construction. It comprises flexible guidelines that assist researchers to focus their data collection and to develop middle-range theories. These guidelines emphasize studying processes in the field setting(s), engaging simultaneous data collection and analysis, adopting comparative methods, and checking and elaborating our tentative categories.

Correspondingly, Creswell and Creswell (2018: 13) explain grounded theory as:

... a design of enquiry in which the researcher derives a general, abstract theory of a process, action, or interaction grounded in the views of participants. This process involves using multiple stages of data collection and the refinement and interrelationship of categories of information.

Ethnography

- Denzin and Lincoln (2011: 318) describe ethnography as a strategy that provides researchers with a language that assists them to explore the expressive elements of culture. It assists as an instrument for representing scholarly engagement. Similarly, Creswell and Creswell (2018: 13), explain ethnography as a research design originating from anthropology and sociology where the enquirer examines the shared patterns of behaviours, language and actions of an intact cultural group in a natural setting over a lengthy period of time. Observations and interviews are commonly used data collection methods.

3.3 NATURE OF RESEARCH

3.3.1 Primary descriptive research

This research is primary research because it originates from primary sources of information. Rabianski (2003: 43) refers to primary data as “information that researchers gather first hand”. Similarly, Hox and Boeije (2005: 93) refer to primary data as “original data collected for a specific research goal”.

This qualitative research uses a case study that utilizes a combination of ethnographies and grounded theory to collect and analyse the data. For example, data was derived from two sources: written texts and interviews. Learners’ written texts were the main primary data source for identification of errors and addressing the other questions forming part of the main objectives. Interviews, on the other hand, were the source of additional primary data, also used to discover errors that are generally made by learners in the Grade 11, possible causes of such errors, the implications of such errors, as well as the extent to which these errors can be addressed in teaching and learning of isiXhosa.

This is an empirical research study with Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners as the target group. Thus, the study was conducted to discover the orthographic errors made by the Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners in the Western Cape when they write in isiXhosa.

The study involved an analysis of both the learners’ texts and transcripts of the interviews conducted with isiXhosa teachers and subject advisers.

From the three approaches explained above, it is clear that this study adopted qualitative and quantitative approaches, with qualitative approach being the dominant one, as the main focus was on the qualitative methods and data.

On conceptualizing a qualitative research approach, Creswell and Creswell (2018: 4) consider this approach useful for exploring and gaining an understanding of the meaning which individuals or groups assign to a social or human problem. As Creswell and Creswell (2018: 4) explain, the process of qualitative research involves emerging questions and procedures, data typically collected in the participant’s setting, data inductively building from particular to general themes, and the researcher interpreting the meaning of the data. This gives insight into the qualitative approach adopted here.

Creswell and Creswell (2014: 181) further explain qualitative research as one that uses various sources of data such as interviews, observations, and audio-visual information instead of relying on a single source of data. In addition, qualitative research uses natural settings, meaning that data is collected at the sites where the problem under research is experienced by the participant(s).

Moving on, the quantitative nature of this research featured through the use of quantitative data analysis method which was used to determine the extent to which errors found spanned the language elements examined in this study. For example, errors were counted to measure the frequency of errors per language category from both June and December data (texts) of each learner, and to determine the language element with the highest frequency of errors in this research. This analysis was done in order to be able to achieve the third objective of this study; identification of the implications of the learner errors and the extent to which such errors can be addressed in teaching and learning of isiXhosa. According to Creswell and Creswell (2018: 4), researchers who use a quantitative approach “have assumptions about testing theories deductively, building in protections against bias, controlling for alternative or counterfactual explanations and being able to generalize and replicate the findings”. Furthermore, a quantitative approach becomes the best approach to use when the research problem necessitates the identification of factors that influence an outcome, the utility of an intervention, or when it is important to understand the best predictors of outcome.

3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

3.4.1 Participants and setting

The participants of this study were the Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners who are also mother tongue speakers of isiXhosa. Forty learners were selected from four Western Cape high schools, ten per school, through random selection of their June Paper Three examination written essays. Following this selection, the researcher arranged collection of the December Paper Three examination written essays of the same learners whose scripts had been randomly selected according to the group selected for the June data. However, as explained earlier, due to the limitations of the study, one school had to be removed as a participating school, resulting in only three schools participating in the study. In addition, limit extraction

method had to be applied due to the high volume of data collected. For practical reasons, three learners from each school, according to highest, middle, and lowest scores achieved in the June Paper Three exam, had to be selected from three schools. That amounted to a total of nine scripts for the June exams and another nine for December, totalling eighteen scripts for analysis as data units of this study. The use of Grade 11 examination scripts for different semesters as data units for this study was based on the following reasons:

- (1) It was assumed that Grade 11 learners' scripts would give a clear indication of orthographic errors, their possible causes and the extent to which they can be addressed before these learners proceed to Grade 12, the last grade in basic education.
- (2) It was also assumed that, if these errors are not addressed before the learners progress to Grade 12, chances that they will be addressed effectively before progressing to higher education are minimal, as an assumption is that, in Grade 12, more time is dedicated to revision, thus chances for correcting faulty knowledge are minimal, especially regarding language use, as most learners value languages such as English more than their indigenous languages. Thus, if these errors are addressed to a lesser extent, they may have negative implications on learning and use of the language, the national examination pass rate of isiXhosa, as well as the future of the language, since some of these learners may pursue the teaching profession as isiXhosa language teachers.

June and December data were used for comparative purposes on language usage between these two periods to determine any development and to ascertain if there was any effectiveness in strategies used to address such errors. The schools of the participants fall within different districts, so the selection was done to get a wide scope of results on errors made by the target group. The study did not focus on age, gender, socio-economic status and performance in the subject due to the nature of the selection criteria and the purpose of the study.

Eight isiXhosa teachers and two subject advisers with a varying number of years in the service, who were trained, and who have served under different curriculum systems, were also interviewed since they are involved in teaching and learning of isiXhosa in schools. The selection criteria (regarding years in service and of training under different curriculum

systems) were employed to get a deeper insight into the issues relating to the problem investigated by the study. As explained earlier, qualitative research is conducted in a natural setting and researchers normally collect data from the sites where the problem under research is known and experienced by the participants.

3.4.2 Sources of data

As explained previously, the two main sources of data were written texts and interview.

Written texts

- Grade 11 L1 learners' written texts were used as the main source of data in this research. The use of such texts was mainly to address the research questions:
- Question one (identification of errors);
- Question two (causes and impact of these errors on teaching and learning, language development and language conservation); and
- Question three (the implications of these errors and the extent to which they can be addressed in teaching and learning of isiXhosa (see paragraph 1.4 for full details). According to Mason (2002: 106) documents are used when one believes that written words, texts, documents, records, objects, visual or spartial phenomena or aspects of social organization, shape, form and so on, are meaningful constituents of the social world. The use of these could also be motivated by an interest in the process by which they are produced, or by a belief that they act as a form of expression or representation of relevant elements of the social world. Similarly, Denzin and Lincoln (2011: 530), explain that written texts are used as data sources when the intention of the researcher is not to follow any predefined protocol in conducting his or her analysis. Thus, a researcher would read and reread the empirical materials to try and pin down their key themes, which could make it possible to explain presuppositions and meanings that constitute the cultural world of which the textual material is a sample.

Interviews

- This study also uses interviews as a data source. The use of interviews was mainly to get the insights of the people who work in settings where the problem under discussion

is known and experienced in order to get answers to the research questions so that the objectives of the study can be achieved. As Mason (2002: 63) explains, “interviews are one of the commonly recognized forms of qualitative research method”. They are thus used when the researcher has determined their necessity, and what is expected from their use. Furthermore, interviews are used when the researcher believes that people’s knowledge, views, understandings, interpretations, experiences and interactions are meaningful properties of the social reality which one’s research questions are intended to explore.

3.5 PARTICIPANTS’ DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

The following tables provide demographic information of the participants of this study.

Table 3 Learners’ information

Total number of learners		9
Total number of learners per school	School A	3
	School B	3
	School C	3
Variability	Top achievers in the June essay	3 in total, 1 from each school
	Moderate achievers in the June essay	3 in total, 1 from each school
	Low achievers in the June essay	3 in total, 1 from each school
Geographic location		South Africa (Western Cape Province)
IsiXhosa mother tongue speakers		All
IsiXhosa L2 speakers		None
Originating from South Africa		All
Originating from other countries		None
Grade		11

Table 4 Teachers' information

Total number of teachers		5
Total number per school	School A	2
	School B	2
	School C	1
Gender	Females	5
	Males	None
Geographic location		South Africa (Western Cape)
IsiXhosa mother tongue speakers		All
IsiXhosa L2 speakers		None
IsiXhosa L1 teachers		All
IsiXhosa L2 teachers		None
Teacher years of service	Less than 5 years	
	Less than 15 years	
	15+	

Table 5 Subject advisers' information

Gender	Females	2
	Males	None
Geographic location		Western Cape
Districts	Metropole East Education District (MEED)	1
	Metropole South Education District (MSED)	1
IsiXhosa mother tongue speakers		All
IsiXhosa L2 speakers		None
IsiXhosa L1 Subject advisers		All
IsiXhosa L2 Subject advisers		None

Subject advisers' years of service	Less than 5 years	1
	15+ years	1

3.6 CONCLUSION

The main aim of this chapter was to provide insights into the research method employed in this study. It firstly provided background to research approaches. This was followed by an explanation of the nature of this study. It went on to explain the research design for the study as employing both qualitative and quantitative approaches, with the qualitative approach as the dominant one, as attention and focus was limited to the qualitative method and the data is also mostly qualitative. This chapter also includes a description of the participants and setting of the study, as well as the sources of data for the study. Finally, this chapter provided participants' demographic information.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF DATA AND ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses mainly on the analysis of errors. Firstly, it provides a presentation of data which includes the nature of texts received, the text data presentation procedure and the structure of the interview sessions. Secondly, it provides and explains data analysis which includes analytical theory, an analytical model, analysis of learners' written texts, and analysis of the transcripts of the interviews conducted with the teachers and subject advisers.

With regard to both the written texts of Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners, as outlined in the title of this thesis and the interview transcripts, this chapter analyses errors in response to all three research questions. This includes: (a) the identification of errors found in the learner texts (written essays) which are data units of this study; (b) their possible causes and impact; as well as (c) the extent to which these errors can be addressed in teaching and learning of isiXhosa. With regard to the first questions, as may be recalled from the definitions drawn from the literature, errors are deviations from the standard rules of the language. These deviations are made by learners in their written texts; and learners are unable to correct them by themselves without any assistance. In this research, errors are interpreted in terms of the following language components: grammar, spelling, punctuation, word division, syntax, semantics, vocabulary, and capitalisation. In addition to these are five different types of deviations, which fall beyond the usual scope as far as language components are concerned. New names were coined to refer to such error categories, and these are: new lexical items; incomplete words; incorrect word construction; multiple errors; and writing inconsistencies. As already mentioned, these errors are also analysed in response to the second and third questions of this research. Interview responses of teachers and subject advisers are also analysed, partially in response to all three research questions. Finally, the chapter ends with a conclusion.

4.2 DATA PRESENTATION

4.2.1 Nature of texts received

The main data units received and analysed in this study were the original copies and duplicates of written texts; learners' essays (formal assessment pieces for the June and December exams of 2017); and the transcripts of the recorded interviews with teachers and subjects advisers.

With regards to the written essays, the schools that provided the originals believed that there was no reason to keep the data anymore and they were trying to save the photocopying costs. The June data (written essays) were used for the random selection of the participants. Basically, both the June and the December sets of the selected data (written essays) belonged to the same selected learners.

4.2.2 Text data presentation procedure

4.2.2.1 Naming of participants

Consideration of ethical issues is an important component of research. Creswell and Creswell (2018: 89, 90) lay emphasis on the protection of research participants by researchers and that includes respecting their privacy and anonymity. One can do that by "assigning fictitious names or aliases; develop composite profiles of participants". In compliance with this, participants of this study (schools, learners, teachers and subject advisers) were given pseudonyms in the following way:

Schools were named School A, B & C.

Learners were named using a numbering system, e.g. one, two, etc. Learners Four, Six and Nine are from School A; Thirteen, Fifteen and Nineteen are from School B; and Twenty-five, Twenty-six and Thirty are from School C.

Teachers were also named using a numbering system, e.g. Teacher A1 and A2 are from School A; B1 and B2 are from School B; and C1 is from School C.

4.2.2.2 Explanation of terms

Data is presented and analysed using a number of terms. For clarity, the terms used in the analytical tables below are explained as follows:

- **Period** – shows the time when the analysed essay was written, e.g. June or December.
- **Categories** – show the language categories used to analyse data, the initial ones and those that were coined and added during the course of analysis due to the nature of errors identified from the data.
- **Error** – indicates the exact error as identified from the data.
- **Position** – indicates the exact spot where the error was identified on the original script. The use of position may help the reader to locate the error presented on the analytical table from the data, as presented on the appendices. Following is an explanation of terms used in the position column:
 - **CP** – Cover Page
 - **D** – Date
 - **H** – Heading
 - **MM** - Mind Map – “...a diagram that presents information with a central idea in the middle and connected ideas arranged around it” (Oxford Learner’s Dictionary (OLD n.d.) Available at <https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/mind-map> (Accessed on 12/05/2021).
- **MP** – Main Point
- **P** – Paragraph, e.g. P1 – Paragraph 1
- **Explanation** - explains the nature of error under each language category.
- **Correction** – shows the reconstruction of learner language with the identified error corrected.
- **Frequency** – shows the rate of occurrence of each nature of error under each category.

4.2.2.3 Explanation of used symbols

The information from the original learner scripts (written essays) was typed for purposes of transparency. Certain symbols had to be used to maintain the authenticity of data; these are explained below.

(1) Superscript numbers were used in the following manner:

- ¹ to indicate incorrect division of a word at the end of a line.

- ² to indicate omission of a hyphen to indicate that a word has been divided at the end of a line.
- ³ to indicate improper spacing between words and punctuation marks.

(2) Ø To indicate unclear or indeterminable part/s in words due to erasure or scratching out.

4.2.2.4 Newly coined categories of errors

- a) New lexical items: these include words with some changes as a result of language development and where such change is not accounted for in the orthography of the language.
- b) Incomplete words category: this includes words with omitted suffix.
- c) Incorrect word construction category: this includes words that are ungrammatically constructed through combining parts of two different parts of speech and so are in violation of the morphological patterns.
- d) Inter-categorical range: this includes words or phrases that fall between two different categories; and their violation can be explained in two ways, as far as language components are concerned.
- e) Multiple deviations category: this includes words or phrases that reflect more than one error or mistake.
- f) Writing inconsistencies category: this includes words or phrases with the following anomalies: incorrect division of a word at the end of a line; omission of a hyphen to indicate that a word has been divided at the end of a line; and improper spacing between words and punctuation marks.

4.2.3 Structure of the interview sessions

The interviews were scheduled with the interviewees (teachers and subject advisers) at time and venues that best suited them. Interview questions were sent to the interviewees prior to the scheduled dates of the interviews to allow for the interviewees to prepare thoroughly for the interview and for transparency reasons. The entire process of the interview, in terms of the duration, procedure and the equipment that would be used to record the interview, was also explained prior to the interview. During the actual interview, the researcher asked the prepared interview questions which consisted of closed-ended and open-ended questions. Follow-up questions were also asked where necessary to gain clarity.

4.3 DATA ANALYSIS

4.3.1 Analytical theory

As explained earlier in chapter two, both EA and CC are also applied as analytical frameworks for this study. This is the case for EA for reasons that include the following: (1) because of the lack of error analysis theories that speak specifically to errors in the African languages, especially at first language level; and (2) EA is still relevant as it investigates errors made in language components, some of which also form part of the components investigated here, including: grammar, syntax, morphology and semantics. Lastly, as explained earlier, EA has the potential to reveal sources of errors and the root causes of their frequency. When such knowledge is revealed, it becomes highly likely that such errors may be addressed using suitable strategies. Pertaining to CC, as explained earlier, the reasons for its application as an analytic framework include the following: (a) it focuses on linguistic competence and linguistic performance as the elements of communicative competence, thus, it encompasses grammatical, discourse and sociolinguistic competence which are also a primary focus of this study; and (b) CC is one of the theories that are most suitable and especially relevant to the focus of this study as it puts emphasis on grammatical and discourse correctness for clear and comprehensible communication, and those are considered to have a direct relationship with orthography which is the main focus of this study.

4.3.2 Analytical model

Data for this study is derived from two sources: learners' written texts; and interviews with teachers and subject advisers. Due to the nature of the data used here, the analytical model used employs a sequence of different linear phases for the different types of data concerned (written texts and the transcripts of the recorded interviews).

For the written texts, steps followed include the following: (1) Identifying the period of the production of the texts; (2) Careful reading of the texts; (3) Identification of errors; (4) Categorization of errors; (5) Identification of the positions of the errors as they appear in the texts; (6) Explanation of errors; (7) Reconstruction and correction; and (8) Determining the frequency of errors.

For the recordings, steps followed included the following: (1) Listening attentively to the recordings; (2) Transcribing; (3) Identifying critical information from the transcripts, as per the interview questions; (4) Coding; and (5) Summarizing the information according to the themes.

The taxonomy of analytic phases employed here is not meant to describe the way any particular researcher might or should proceed with analysis of the types of data used in this study, but rather to put forth personal hypotheses about appropriate phases of analysis, as guided by the literature reviewed and the frameworks on which this study is based. This personal position invites researchers to decide, in the context of their research, which are the important aspects of ideas and reasoning to focus upon, as well as the implementation sequence of the proposed phases.

4.3.3 Analysis of learners' written texts

4.3.3.1 Analysis of School A's data

Table 6 Analysis of Learner Four's essays

PERIOD	CATEGORIES	ERROR	POSITION	EXPLANATION	CORRECTION	FREQUENCY
JUNE	Grammar	...wama-23 Tshazimpunzi...	P2	Omission of a prefixal syllable in a preposition.	...wama-23 kuTshazimpunzi...	
		...ndandingawu-valanga Ucango...	P3	Use of incorrect object concord.	...ndandinga-luvalanga...	
		...into ezechla...	P5	Omission of a syllable in the noun prefix.	...izinto ezechla...	
		...baye...	P5	Omission of a conjunction.	...kwaye baye...	
	Spelling	...ndike...	P2	Omission of a consonant.	...ndikhe...	
	Word division	...ndizakuthetha ...	P1 & 2	Failure to separate an auxiliary verb from a verb.	...ndiza kuthetha...	This error also has been made in another word such

					as “uzakundibulelela”.
	...nalento...	P1 & 4	Failure to separate a demonstrative from a noun.	...nale nto...	This error has also been made in other sentences as indicated in the position column e.g. “lomfana”,
	...olunga mantombazana ...	P3 & 5	Unnecessary division.	...olungamant ombazana...	This error has also been made in other sentences as indicated in the position column e.g. “baba hoye”
Punctuation	Kwenzeka ntoni	MM	Failure to use a question mark.	Kwenzeka ntoni?	This error has been found in other points on the mind map e. g. “...ntoni emva kwesiganeko”
	Kwenzeka ntoni,	P1	Substitution of a question mark with a comma.	Kwenzeka ntoni?	
	...ngowama 2015...	P2	Failure to use a hyphen.	...ngowama-2015...	
Syntax	...ndodwa ndabe ndingaluvalanga ...	P2	Unnecessary insertion of an adverb.	...ndodwa, ndingaluvalanga...	
Vocabulary	...osele emncane...	P5	Use of isiZulu word.	...oselula...	
Capitalization	...Yam...	MM, P1, P3, P5	Unnecessary use of capitalization in the middle of the sentence.	...yam...	This error has been made in other sentences as indicated on the position column e.g. “Sincoko”, “Sam”, “Umlomo”, “Kwezi”, “Zilandelayo”, “Ukuba”, “Kubo”, “Umntwana”
	athi...	P4	Failure to use capitalization at the beginning of a sentence.	Athi...	
New lexical items	...pha...	P2	Ungrammatical omission of a final syllable.	...phaya...	

	...ogqiba...	P2	Inexplicable shortening of an adverb.	...esakugqiba...	
	...ukuyojonga ba...	P2	New lexical items.	...ukuyokujo- nga ukuba...	
Multiple errors	...buhlungu. ndizakuthi...	P1	Incorrect use of capitalization and failure to divide words.	...buhlungu. Ndiza kuthi...	
	Kwoku ngomhla...	P2	Misspelling and unnecessary word division.	Kwakungomhl a...	
	...Umabonakude ...	P2	Unnecessary use of capitalization and failure to use a hyphen.	...umabona- kude...	
	...Ucango ndathi...	P2	Incorrect use of capitalization and syntax.	...ucango. Ndathi...	
	...sele engena emnyango ogqiba waluvala wangen a ndathi...	P2	Use of a new lexical item and incorrect syntax.	...sele engena emnyango esakugqiba waluvala ucango. Ndathi...	
	...Uzakundibula lela apho ndabe...	P2	Unnecessary use of capitalization, incorrect word division and failure to use punctuation.	...uza kundibulalela apho, ndabe...	
	...ndikhala wasondela wandivala Umlomo wahamba...	P2	Failure to use punctuation marks and unnecessary use on capitalization.	...ndikhala. Wasondela wandivala umlomo, wahamba...	
	...laba-Zali...	P2	Unnecessary use of a hyphen and unnecessary use of capitalization.	...labazali...	
	...lomfana...	P2	Grammar and word division	...loo mfana...	
	Unobangela kungo kuba...	P2	Grammar, semantics and word division	Unobangela yayikukuba...	

DECEMBER	Grammar	kulunga...	P1	Omission of the initial vowel of a noun prefix.	Ukulunga...	
		Nokungalungi...	P1	Use of a connection instead of a noun.	Ukungalungi ...	
		...Kulungile ukuba ulutsha luwubukele umabonakude ngoba luluncedo ...	P2	Use of a wrong form of a copulative.	...uluncedo...	
		...indaba...	P2 & 4	Omission of a second vowel that signals a plural form of a noun.	...iindaba...	This error has been made four times and is also found three times in another word such as "kwindaba" instead of 'kwiindaba'
		...zona...	P2	Use of an absolute pronoun instead of a conjunction.	...kuba...	
		...uye ahlale endlwini abukele umabonakude azichithe isithukuthezi...	P2	Unnecessary insertion of an incorrect object / subject marking.	...achithe...	
		...ulutsha alulali ebusuku lubukela izinto ezingalunganga kumabonakude babukele ...	P3	Insertion of a wrong subject concord.	...lubukele...	This error has also been found in other words such as "bazibukele", "balinde", "bajonge ezingabafuniyo", "bebukele", "bajike" instead of 'luzibukele', 'lulinde', 'lujonge', 'lujonge ezingalufuniyo', 'lubukele', 'lujike'.
		...babulalwe...	P3	Insertion of a wrong suffix.	...babulawe...	
		...xa...	P3	Use of a wrong conjunction.	...kuba...	
		...ubuhlezi ujongana nomabonakude ...	P3	Application of a wrong verb tense.	...ujongene...	
		...umabonakude funeka ungamjongi...	P3 & 4	Omission of a syllable.	...kufuneka...	This error has been made twice and is also found in another column as

					shown in the position column.
	...uphumzise...	P3	Unnecessary addition of a suffix.	...uphumze...	
	...ngokuba...	P4	Use of a wrong conjunction.	...kuba...	
	...nge isimo...	P4	Failure to correctly combine vowels to achieve the necessary sound change.	...ngesimo...	
	...uxelelwa nangezezimali zase mzantsi Afrika kufuneka...	P4	Omission of a conjunction	...Afrika kuba kufuneka...	
Spelling	Nkszna	CP	Addition of a vowel.	Nkszn.	
	...uke...	P3	Omission of a consonant.	...ukhe...	
Word division	...ndizakuthetha ...	P1	Failure to divide an auxiliary verb and a verb.	...ndiza kuthetha...	
	...zase njikalanga...	P2	Unnecessary division.	...zasenjikalanga...	
	...yako wabo...	P2	Unnecessary division.	...yakowabo ...	
	...ubenolwazi...	P4	Failure to divide an auxiliary verb and a verb.	...ube nolwazi...	
Punctuation	...komabona-kude...	H, MM & P3	Failure to use a hyphen in a compound word.	...komabona-kude...	This error has also been found twice in other positions as indicated in the position column and in another word such as “nomabona-kude”
	...kulutsha, esi...	P1& 4	Substitution of a full stop with a comma.	..kulutsha. Esi...	This error has also been found in another sentence in a different paragraph as indicated on the position column, e.g. “kwantshabalala ndicebisa”, instead of ‘kwantshabalala. Ndicebisa’.

Syntax	...kulutsha ndinike nesiphelo sengcebiso...	P1	Incorrect sentence progression	...kulutsha. Ndakuvala ngokuthi ndinike ingcebiso...	
	...indaba...	P2	Unnecessary repetition of a noun.	The “indaba” after the word “zona” is unnecessary.	
	...okanye ukutshona kwelanga...	P2	Use of a phrase that carries the same meaning as the one that precedes it.		
	...kwizinto zase zitalatweni ezimbi kungokuba ebehleli kwindlu yako wabo umabonakude engazihoyanga ezenzeka phandle (Multiple errors)	P2	Syntax and word division.	...kuba uza kube engazihoyanga.	
	...koko ngoba zonke...	P3	Unnecessary insertion of a conjunction and incorrect sentence progression.	...koko. Zonke ke...	
	...ukuzenza nabangamantom bazana baye batshaye iziyobisi,	P3	Wrong sentence progression.	...ukuzenza. Amantombazana nawo aye atshaye iziyobisi,	
	...akho lutsha.	P3	Unnecessary insertion of a noun.	...akho.	
	...kufuneka sibukele...	P4	Unnecessary insertion of an auxiliary verb.	...sibukele...	
	...ziyakuthwala zikuse apho ufuna ukuya khona.	P4	Incorrect sentence progression.	...ziyamthwala umntu zimse apho afuna ukuya khona.	
Semantics	...ngaphantsi...	P1	Change of meaning due to the use of a wrong adverb form.	...phantsi...	
Capitalization	...Zibachazela...	P2	Unnecessary use of capitalization.	...zibachazela...	This error has also been found in

					another word e.g. "Kwaye"
	...emzantsi...	P2	Failure to use capitalization to capitalise the first letter of the name of the country.	...eMzantsi...	
New lexical items	...emveni...	P3	Unconventional addition of a suffix.	...emva...	
	...osogqiba	P3	Unconventional word formation.	...besakugqiba...	
Inter-categorical range	...ezonto...	P3	This falls between incorrect word construction (combination of a demonstrative and a noun) and new lexical items.	...ezo zinto...	This error has also been found in another sentence in the same paragraph.
	...ubuhlezi...	P3	This falls between spelling (substitution of a consonant) and vocabulary (use of isiZulu word).	...ubuhleli...	
Multiple errors	...kamabonakude ndizothi...	P1	Failure to use a hyphen in a compound word, syntax and incorrect word construction.	...kamabonakude. Ndiza kuthi...	
	...Kwezingongoma...	P1	Unnecessary use of capitalization and failure to divide words.	...kwezi ngongoma...	
	...ngomabonakude.	P1	Grammar and failure to use a hyphen in a compound word.	...nomabonakude.	
	...kwimfundo yabo lutsha,	P2	Grammar and incorrect use of punctuation marks.	...kwimfundo yolutsha.	
	...ukuze zebavule...	P3	Grammar and word division.	...ukuze luvule...	
	...bazeze umzekele...	P3	Misspelling and syntax.	...luzenze. Umzekelo woko,	
	...amaXhegwazana,	P3	Incorrect use of capitalization and incorrect insertion of a comma.	...amaxhegwazana...	

	...yabo ngenxa yojonga umabonakude.	P3	Grammar and semantics.	...yawo. Zizinto ke ezo athi azibone kumabona-kude	
	...mihla aphele amehlo ayakho sewene ngxaki...	P3	Syntax, spelling and incorrect word construction.	...mihla. Amehlo akho aye aphele sele enengxaki...	
	...nomabonakude. umabonakude...	P3	Failure to use hyphens and capitalization.	...nomabona-kude. Umabona-kude...	
	...yonke funeka...	P3	Punctuation and grammar.	...yonke, kufuneka...	
	...ntoni kwindaba...	P4	Failure to use a full stop and grammar.	...ntoni. Kwiindaba...	

COMMENTS AND OBSERVATIONS

In Table 6, the following observations are noted:

This learner makes errors in relation to grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, syntax, capitalization, new lexical items and multiple deviations. These were all found in both June and December data. June and December data share errors of a similar nature in the following categories: spelling, word division, capitalization, and multiple deviations. Errors of inter-categorical range were not found in the June data, whilst in the December data, only errors of vocabulary were not found. There were no stand-alone semantic errors in June; and the existing errors in this category reflect as multiple deviations. There were no stand-alone, incorrect word construction errors in December data. The existing errors in this category reflect under multiple deviations. More local than global errors were made¹⁷.

¹⁷ Local errors are the errors that do not hamper communication and comprehension of the meaning of an utterance (Touchie 1986: 76). Conversely, global errors are the most severe errors compared to local errors as they interfere with communication by disrupting the meaning of utterances (ibid).

However, the global errors found on this learner's text do not hinder message comprehension. Even so, some of these global errors do affect the structure of the sentences in which they occur and, to some extent, are not a sign of proficiency in the language use of this learner.

Table 7 Analysis of Learner Six's essays

PERIOD	CATEGORIES	ERROR	POSITION	EXPLANATION	CORRECTION	FREQUENCY
JUNE	Grammar	Lo nto...	P1, 4	Use of a wrong demonstrative form.	Loo nto...	This error has also been found in another word e.g. "lo moto" instead of 'loo moto'
		...yayilusuku lam...	P1	Use of a wrong possessive form.	... yayilusuku lwam...	
		...ngabanta-nga kunye nam...	P1	Use of a conjunction in a place of an adjective.	...ngabanta-nganye nam...	
		...otsotsi...	P2, 3	Omission of a second vowel which indicates a plural form.	...ootsotsi...	This error has also been found in other words such as "impahla" instead of 'iimpahla'
		...avume ndiyokubona ...	P2	Omission of a conjunction.	...avume ukuba ndiyokubona ...	
		...esibhedle-le siye safakwa...	P5	Use of a wrong verb tense.	...esibhedle-le saye safakwa...	
		...amayeza ndabhade-shwa.	P5	Omission of an auxiliary verb.	amayeza ndaze ndabhade-shwa.	
	Spelling	...imbiyozo...	P1	Omission of a vowel and an aspirated sound.	...imibhiyozo ...	
		...kandi...	P2	Substitution of a consonant.	...kanti...	
		...sisihama...	P4	Substitution of a vowel and omission of a consonant.	...sasihamba ...	
		...endlini...	P4	Omission of a semi-vowel.	...endlwini...	
		...umxeba...	P4	Omission of a consonant.	...umnxeba ...	

	...ndokuzijonga...	P6	Substitution of a vowel.	...ndakuzijonga...	
Word division	...sesosiganeko...	MM & P1	Failure to separate an identifier from a noun.	...seso siganeko...	This error has also been found in another word such as “ngalomhla”, instead of ‘ngalo mhla’.
	Ibabuhlungu...	MM	Failure to separate an auxiliary verb from a verb.	...iba buhlungu...	
	...mhlobo kazi...	P2, 3 & 4	Unnecessary division.	...mhlobokazi...	This error has also been found in other words such as “ndandinga yazi”, “umalume kazi”, “Umhlobo kazi”.
	...kwabakanti...	P2	Failure to divide two auxiliary verbs.	...kwaba kanti...	
	Ngalolonke...	P3, 4	Failure to separate an adjective from an inclusive quantitative pronoun.	...ngalo lonke...	This error is also found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
	...eloxesha...	P3 & 4	Failure to separate a demonstrative from a noun.	...elo xesha...	This error is also found in other words such as “elixesha”, lento instead of ‘eli xesha’ and ‘le nto’.
	...eyayizazokuthatha...	P3 & 4	Failure to separate auxiliary verbs from a verb.	...eyayiza zokuthatha...	This error has also been found in another word such as “ezakubhatalwa”, instead of ‘eza kubhatalwa’.
Punctuation	...kwacima nomculo yazizikhalo...	P2,3	Failure to use a comma on a list of a series of incidents.	...kwacima nomculo, yazizikhalo...	This error is also found in another sentence, e.g. “Babeleqana bedubulana abanye”.
	...ndilila ndathi xa...	P2	Failure to use a comma between two phrases.	...ndilila, ndathi xa...	
	...endandizin xibile wandigalela...	P3	Failure to use a comma in listing a series of incidents.	...endandizinxibile, wandigalela...	
	...kamama endleleni...	P4	Failure to use a full stop to separate two sentences.	...kamama. Endleleni...	
	...ahlukeneyo mna...	P4	Failure to use a comma to show a pause in a sentence.	...ahlukeneyo, mna...	
	...igumbi ndafakwa...	P5	Failure to use a comma between two phrases.	...igumbi, ndafakwa...	

Syntax	...ukubophisa ndaphinda ndaphila...	P5	Incorrect sentence progression.	...ukubophisa, ndabe ke ndiyaphila kanjalo...	
Semantics	...yaka...	P2	Incorrect meaning due to use of a wrong idiom.	...yiba...	
	...ngesitulo.	P5 & 6	Incomplete expression due to omission of an adjective.	...ngesitulo esinamavili...	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
Capitalization	...sima umhlobo wam...	P6	Failure to use capitalization in a proper noun.	...Sima umhlobo wam...	
New lexical items	...noba...	P3	Omission of a basic prefixal syllable.	...nokuba...	
Inter-categorical range¹⁸	...ndicinge nango ² ...	P6	This falls between word division (unnecessary division) and punctuation (failure to use a hyphen to show that the word has been divided at the end of a sentence).	...ndicinge nango-	
Multiple errors	...lonto...	MM	Grammar and word division.	...loo nto...	This error has also been found in another sentence.
	...ka 2009...	P1	Grammar and punctuation.	...wama-2009...	
	Ngalomini ndandenzelwe...	P1	Grammar and word division.	...Ngaloo mini...	
	Kwakungu wele wele...	P1	Word division and punctuation.	Kwakungu-wele-wele...	
	...ndithini...	P3	Grammar and punctuation.	...mandithini, ...	
	...engange veki...	P5	Grammar and word division.	...engangeveki...	
	...kemnake ...	P5	Word division and syntax.	...ke mna...	

¹⁸ Superscript number ² is used to indicate omission of a hyphen which indicates that a word has been divided at the end of a line.

		...kulandawo ...	P6	Grammar and word division.	...kule ndawo...	
	Writing inconsistencies	Incorrect paragraph construction and failure to use hyphenation to indicate word division at the end of a line.	P2 & 3	<i>Unnecessary division of paragraphs, e.g. paragraph 3 should be part of paragraph 2; since it doesn't start a new subject, it is a continuation of the subject in paragraph 2.</i> Failure to use a hyphen to show that the word has been divided at the end of a line. <i>Failure to use a hyphen to indicate that the word will be completed in the following line due to insufficient space.</i>		
DECEMBER	Grammar	Zintoni...	MM, P2, 3 & 4	Omission of a second vowel which indicates a plural form.	Ziintoni...	This error has also been made in other words such as "Ngobani", "inzame", "intshaba", "indlela", "imeko".
		...ofuneka...	MM	Insertion of a wrong subject concord.	...ekufuneka...	
		...abawaphumelelisi...	P2	Use of a non-existent verbal extension form.	...abawaphumezi or abawafezekisi...	
		...namantombi...	P4	Use of incorrect plural noun form.	...neentombi...	
		...lakho...	P6	Use of incorrect possessive concord.	...lwakho...	
		...uyabadanisa.	P6	Use of a wrong object concord.	...uyazidanisa.	
		...itshaba...	P7	Insertion of a wrong initial vowel.	...utshaba...	
		...yenza...	P8	Use of a wrong modal verb.	...wenze...	
	Spelling	...ukuhlale...	P2, 3	Substitution of a vowel.	...ukuhlala...	This error has also been found in other words such as "zokufumane", "ezimfitshane", "intilongo", instead of

					'zokufumana', 'ezimfutshane', 'intolingo'.
	...endlini...	P2 & 7	Omission of a semi-vowel.	...endlwini...	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
	...yibokisi...	P3	Omission of an aspirated sound.	...yibhokisi...	
	...yomcwabo...	P3	Omission of a syllable.	...yom-ngcwabo...	
	...abakungqo kileyo...	P6	Substitution of a syllable.	...abaku-ngqongileyo...	
Word division	...elobanga...	P2, 3	Failure to separate a demonstrative from a noun.	...elobanga...	This error has also been found in other words e.g. "lendlu", "ezozinto".
	...ntonje...	P2	Failure to divide a vocative from an enclitic.	...nto nje...	
	...emvakoko...	P2	Failure to separate a preposition from a demonstrative pronoun.	...emvakoko...	This error has also been found on two more occasions in this paragraph.
	...uzakuthatha...	P3	Failure to separate an auxiliary verb from a verb.	...uzakuthatha...	This error has also been found in another word e.g. "zizakutshabalalisa".
	...emvakwayo...	P3	Failure to separate a locative and a pronoun.	...emvakwayo...	
	...kulamadoda...	P4	Failure to separate a demonstrative copulative from a noun.	...kulamadoda...	
	...ukubangug qirha...	P5	Failure to separate a predicate from a copulative.	...ukubangugqirha...	
	...ubenabantwana...	P5	Failure to separate a predicate from a copulative.	...ubenabantwana...	
	...uzakuba...	P6	Failure to separate an auxiliary verb from a predicate.	...uzakuba...	

	...aphakubo ...	P6 & 7	Failure to separate a locative adverb from an adverbial pronoun.	...apha kubo...	This error has also been found in another word e.g. "aphakuwe".
	...kwenzanto ...	P6	Failure to separate a verb from a noun.	...kwenza nto...	
	...bazakwenz a...	P7	Failure to separate an auxiliary verb from a verb.	...baza kwenza...	
	...ngalendlel a...	P7	Failure to separate an instrumental adverb from a noun.	...ngale ndlela...	
	...wenzanga yo.	P7	Failure to separate a verb from an instrumental adverb.	...wenza ngayo.	
	...ungabingu nonkala...	P7	Incorrect division of a negative auxiliary verb and a copulative.	...ungabi ngunonkala ...	
	...uyakhona ...	P8	Failure to divide a verb and an adverbial pronoun.	...uya khona...	
Punctuation	...umsebenzi uphangele...	P2, 4, 6	Failure to use commas to show a pause in a sentence.	...umsebenzi , uphangele, ...	This error has been also found in other paragraphs, e.g. "kwazo umntu", "kuwasebenzela usapho", "ziphumelela".
	...uyathakath wa kutheni...	P2	Failure to use a comma between phrases.	...uyathaka- thwa, kutheni...	
	...zakho.	P2	Substitution of a question mark with a full stop.	...zakho?	
	...kuwasebe nzela usapho...	P6	Failure to use comma to show a pause.	...kuwasebe- nzela, usapho...	
Syntax	...ekubeni bangaba uzithande...	P2	Unnecessary addition of a word.	...ekubeni uzithande...	
	Kuyo yonke...	P6	Unnecessary addition of a word.	Yonke...	
	...oyenzayo abantwana...	P7	Incorrect sentence progression due to omission of words.	...oyenzayo yazi ukuba abantwana...	
Vocabulary	...zikanokuts ho...	P2	Use of isiZulu phrase.	...zexabiso eliphezulu or zodidi oluphezulu...	

Multiple errors	...icwadi...	P2	Grammar and spelling.	...iincwadi...	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
	...incwadizak ho...	P2	Grammar and word division.	...iincwadi zakho...	
	...entle enkulu enempahla...	P2	Punctuation and grammar.	...entle, enkulu neneempa-hla...	
	...ngumeza ...	P2	Vocabulary and punctuation.	...ngumme-lwane,	
	...ucimbe...	P3	Syntax and new lexical items.	...wakugqiba ucinge ukuba...	
	...uzakuphu melele...	P3	Word division and punctuation.	...uza kuphumelela,	
	...zininzike...	P3	Word division, grammar and punctuation.	...zininzi, ...	
	...babengots otsi...	P3	Word division and grammar.	...babe ngootsotsi...	
	...yonkelonto ...	P3, 6	Word division and grammar.	...yonke loo nto...	
	...lonto...	P4, 8	Grammar and word division.	...loo nto...	
	...ukubanguT itshala/kazi...	P5	Word division and punctuation.	...ukuba ngutitshala okanye utitshalakazi or ngumfundisi-ntsapho...	
	...nezihloboz ako...	P6	Word division and spelling.	...nezihlobo zakho...	
	...ukuqhubek ekisa impilo ibheke...	P7	Grammar and vocabulary.	...ukuqhube-la ubomi bakhe...	
	...inzame ngandlela zonke...	P8	Grammar and syntax.	...iinzame...	

COMMENTS AND OBSERVATIONS

From Table 7, the following observations are noted:

This learner makes errors in relation to grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, syntax and multiple deviations. All were found in both June and December data. June and

December data share errors of a similar nature in the following categories: grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, and multiple errors. In both periods, there were no errors of incomplete word and incorrect word construction. Only errors of vocabulary were not made in June; while, in December, there were no errors of semantics, capitalization, inter-categorical range and writing inconsistencies. There were no stand-alone new lexical items errors; the existing errors in this category reflect multiple deviations. More local than global errors were made ¹⁹. The global errors made were not a hindrance to message comprehension. Even so, some of these global errors do affect the structure of the sentences in which they are made and are, to some extent, not a sign of proficiency in the language use of this learner.

Table 8 Analysis of Learner Nine's essays

PERIOD	CATEGORIES	ERROR	POSITION	EXPLANATION	CORRECTION	FREQUENCY
JUNE	Grammar	...wona...	P4	Use of an absolute pronoun belonging to another noun class.	...ona...	
		...akaphinde ...	P4	Substitution of the last vowel.	...akaphindi ...	
		...liyohlulakala...	P5	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...iyohlulakala ...	
	Spelling	...ngwezi...	P1	Substitution of a sound.	...kwezi...	
		...kabantu...	P2	Omission of a semi-vowel.	...kwabantu ...	

¹⁹ Local errors are the errors that do not hamper communication and comprehension of the meaning of an utterance (Touchie 1986: 76). Conversely, global errors are the most severe errors compared to local errors as they interfere with communication by disrupting the meaning of utterances (ibid).

Word division	...zibentle...	MM, P1 & 2	Failure to divide a predicate from an adjective.	...zibe ntle	This error has been repeated three times.
	...walomkhwa?	P2	Failure to separate a demonstrative from a noun.	...walo mkhwa?	This error has been found in another paragraph, e.g. "zezintswelaboya".
	...olu khulu...	P4	Unnecessary division.	...olukhulu...	
	...kengoku...	P4	Failure to separate an enclitic from a predicate.	...ke ngoku...	
Punctuation	...khonukuze ...	P2	Failure to use an apostrophe where a vowel is omitted.	...khon' ukuze...	
	...ubulale loo nto...	P5	Failure to use a comma to separate two phrases.	...ubulale, loo nto...	
Syntax	...kwaye afele...	P4	Wrong sentence progression.	...,abe efela...	
	...unetyala, xa ngaba lo...	P4	Wrong sentence progression.	...unetyala. Xa lo...	
Vocabulary	...zikaJuni	D	Use of an English borrowed word.	...zeyeSilimela	
Capitalization	masibuyiswe isigwebo...	MM	Failure to use capitalization at the beginning of the sentence.	Masibuyiswe isigwebo...	
	...Sentambo ...	MM	Unnecessary use of capitalization in the middle of a sentence.	...sentambo ...	This error has been found in another word repeated three times, e.g. "URhulumente".
Multiple errors	Masibuyiswe-lwe isigwebo sentambo,	P1	Punctuation and capitalization.	"Masibuyiswe isigwebo sentambo",	
Writing inconsistencies²⁰	...kunga ² nyanzeleka...	P4	Failure to use a hyphen to show that the word has been divided at the end of a line.	...kunga-nyanzeleka...	

²⁰ Superscript number ² is used to indicate omission of a hyphen which indicates that a word has been divided at the end of a line.

DECEMBER	Grammar	...kuthiwani xa kuthiwa...	P1	Use of a short verb form instead of a long form.	...kusithiwa ...	
		...iqhalo elithi "isala kutyelwa sibona ngolophu" ithetha...	P2	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...lithetha...	
		...hayi ukuba...	P3	Use of a wrong conjunctive.	...kuba...	
		...ukuba uhamba kwam ebusuku kungandifaka ...	P3	Omission of a basic prefix.	...ukuhamba ...	
		...mna ndala ukumamela ...	P4	Omission of a subject marking	...ukubama-mela...	
		Ngethamsa-nqa ke bandixolela kwaye besithi...	P5	Unnecessary insertion of a conjunction.	Ngethamsa-nqa ke bandixolela besithi...	
		Ukungama-meli abazali bakho xa bekunqanda, bekuyala okanye bekucebisa entweni kusa...	P6	Omission of a subject marking.	...kukusa...	
	Spelling	...engciphe-kweni...	P3	Omission of a consonant.	...emngci-phekweni...	
	Word division	Oko kuqala...	P2	Unnecessary division.	Okokuqala...	
	Punctuation	...ngolophu, ...	P1 & 3	Failure to close a quote.	...ngolophu", ...	This error is also found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
		...ndibana-nze ukutsho...	P3	Failure to use a comma to show a pause in a sentence.	...ndibana-nze, ukutsho...	

	...u-hayi...	P6	Unnecessary use of a hyphen.	...uhayi...	
Syntax	...nokuba ndixelelwa ngomncinci.	P5	Tautology.	...okanye ngomncinci.	
	...yonke loonto ngenxa yokungamameli, ngenxa yokungeva u-hayi nangenxa yokungayaleki.	P6	Incorrect sentence progression.	...yonke loonto engenzeka ngenxa yokungamameli, ukungeva uhayi nangenxa yokungayaleki.	
Semantics	...zokwalandityelwa?	MM & P1	Improper choice of words.	...zokuba nenkani ndixelelwa?	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
	...ndaqhubeleka...	P3	Incorrect phrase.	...ndaqhubeleka...	
	...emva kwentloko yam...	P4	Incorrect phrasing.	...ngemva entloko...	
Capitalization	Ukungamameli...	P1	Failure to use capitalization at the beginning of the sentence.	Ukungamameli...	
Multiple errors	Yabayintoni...	MM & P1	Capitalization, grammar and word division.	Zabayintoni...	
	...isala kutyelwa sibona ngoloph?	P1	Incomplete word and punctuation.	...“isala kutyelwa sibona ngolophu?”	
	...yabayintoni...	P1	Grammar and word division.	...zabayintoni...	
Writing inconsistencies²¹	...kwesi ² hloko...	P1 & 3	Failure to use a hyphen to show that the word has been divided at the end of a line.	...kwesi-hloko...	This error has also been found in another word such as “Ndandi ² hamba”.

²¹ Superscript numbers are used for the following reasons:

- ¹ to indicate incorrect division of a word at the end of a line.

		Ndandingu- mnt ¹ wana...	P3	Incorrect division of the word at the end of a line.	Ndandingu- mntwa- na...	
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COMMENTS AND OBSERVATIONS

Regarding Table 8, the following observations are noted:

This learner makes errors in relation to grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, syntax, capitalization, multiple deviations and writing inconsistencies which were all found in both June and December data. No errors of semantics and incomplete words were made in either period. June and December data share errors of a similar nature in the following categories: grammar, spelling, word division, capitalization and writing inconsistencies. Errors of semantics and incomplete words were not made in June, whilst only vocabulary errors were not made in December. There were no stand-alone, incomplete word errors made in December; the existing errors in this category reflect under multiple deviations. More local than global errors were made²². Some global errors made do not affect message comprehension, but slightly disturb the intended message. Even so, these global errors are, to some extent, a sign of limited language proficiency of the language use of the learner.

4.3.3.2 Analysis of School B's data

Table 9 Analysis of Learner Thirteen's essays

PERIOD	CATEGORIES	ERROR	POSITION	EXPLANATION	CORRECTION	FREQUENCY
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- ² to indicate omission of a hyphen to indicate that a word has been divided at the end of a line.

²² Local errors are the errors that do not hamper communication and comprehension of the meaning of an utterance (Touchie 1986: 76). Conversely, global errors are the most severe errors compared to local errors as they interference with communication by disrupting the meaning of utterances (ibid).

JUNE	Grammar	Ukuba nabahlobo afunda nabo...	MM	Insertion of wrong copulative concord.	...ofunda...	
		...ukuze aphumelele emagqabini <i>kufuneka</i> iincwadi uzifunde kakhulu...	P1	Insertion of a wrong subject concord.	...azifunde...	
		...kuba khona umvuzo omhle ngokuba xa...	P2	Use of a wrong form of conjunction.	...kuba...	This error has also been found in seven other sentences, e.g. "ngokuba" instead of 'ngoba'.
		...uzimele xa ufuna into uyazithengel a awusokolisa ni nabazali...	P2	Use of a longer verb form and a wrong verb tense.	...uzithengele ungasokolisa ni...	
		...uzam xelesa lendawo ungayivanga ukucacisele ...	P3	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...akucacisele ...	
		...abanye abantwana <i>babanendloni</i> ukubuza ...	P4	Use of a noun instead of a possessive.	...zokubuza ...	
		...xa uvula incwadi <i>ukhe</i> ufunde kukho into...	P5	Use of a wrong verb mood.	...ufunde kubakho...	
		...onofumana ...	P6	Omission of a basic prefix.	...onokufuma na...	This error is also found in other parts of speech; verb "funeka" instead of kufuneka.
		...ibanga 12...	P7	Failure to use a possessive predicate.	...ibanga le-12...	
		...ngokuba umsebenzi ungakwazi ukumfumana ...	P7	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...ukuwufuma na...	

	...angakwazi ukubhatalela xa...	P7	Omission of a subject marking.	...ukukubhata lela...	
Spelling	...ukunzimisela... a...	MM, P2, 3, 4	Addition of a consonant.	...ukuzimisela ...	This error is also found in another sentence and other words such as “kuyancenda”, “iyancenda”, “ayanziyo”, instead of ‘kuyanceda’, ‘iyanceda’, ‘ayaziyo’.
	...obubhahlile yo...	P2 & 6	Substitution of a sound.	...obubhadlile yo...	This error is also found in another word such as “ubumelele” instead of uphumelele.
Word division	...lendawo...	P3	Failure to separate a demonstrative from a noun.	...le ndawo...	
	...kubalula...	P4 & 7	Failure to separate a predicate from a copulative.	...kuba lula...	This error has also been found in another word such as “bubelula” instead of ‘bube lula’.
	...ungayi vanga...	P3, 4 & 6	Unnecessary division.	...ungayivang a...	This error is also found in other words such as “naba hlobo”, “ngoku zimisela”.
Punctuation	...zakhe	P1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 & 7	Failure to use a full stop at the end of the sentence.	...zakhe.	This error is also found in other paragraphs. e.g. “...nabazali”, “...uthule”, “...ngawe”, “...kakhulu xa...” instead of ...kakhulu. Xa...
	...nayo...	P3 & 6	Failure to use a comma between two phrases.	...nayo,	This error is also found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column, e.g. “...kunomvuzo...”
	...ngempela veki...	P4	Failure to use a hyphen in a compound word.	...ngempela- veki...	
Syntax	...kufuneka iincwadi...	P1	Wrong sentence progression.	...ziquka ukuba iincwadi...	
	...akubonise ukuba yenziwa njani	P3	Wrong sentence progression.	...ngendlela eya kubangela...	

	kuyoba nzima...				
	...uyilibale nolonto	P3	Wrong sentence progression.	...uyilibale. Into...	
	...uyazijonga ukuba xa uhleli wedwa uyamva...	P5	Wrong word order.	...xa uhleli wedwa uyazijonga ukuba umvile na...	
	...kakuhle kodwa nokuphumelel a into ikuwe ngokusebenz a...	P6	Wrong sentence progression.	...kakuhle kufuneka usebenze...	
	...ibanga le- 12 lonto yenza ubomi...	P7	Wrong sentence progression.	...ibanga le- 12 kukuba kungenza ubomi...	
Semantics	...uzive ayazi...	P1	Unclear meaning.	ukuze azi...	
	...wasekhaya wasesikolwen i...	MM & P5	Incorrect expression.	...owunikwe esikolweni...	This error is also found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
	...umesebenz i ophakamileyo o...	P2	Incorrect contextual application.	...okwizinga eliphezulu...	
	...wenze umsebenzi...	P5	Unclear meaning.	...wenze nomsebenzi wokuzihlola.	
Vocabulary	...upasa...	P2	Use of an English borrowed word.	...uphumelela ...	
Incomplete words	...nganto...	P1	Omission of a suffix.	...ngantoni...	
New lexical items	...uzamva...	P4	Unaccountable conjunctive writing and deletion of a basic prefix.	...uza kumva...	
Multiple errors	...ukubalulek a ngoku phumelela emagqabini...	P1 & 7	Grammar and word division.	...kokuphume lela...	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.

...kumisi...	P3 & 4	Vocabulary and semantics	...kumfundisi-ntsapho...	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
...ngepela veki	MM & P4	Spelling and punctuation.	...ngempela-veki	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
...ngokunzi misela...	MM	Spelling and word division.	...ngokuzimisela...	
Ukunzimisela kakhulu kwizifundo zakho kuba khona umvuzo...	P2	Syntax and spelling.	Xa uzimisela kakhulu kwizifundo zakho kuba khona umvuzo...	
...ozakwenza ...	P2	Word division and grammar.	...oza kwenza ukuba...	
...uzimele xa...	P2	Punctuation and grammar.	...uzimele, naxa...	
...uzam xelesa...	P4	Word division and grammar.	...uza kumxelesa...	
...babanendlo ni...	P4	Word division, grammar and spelling.	...baba neentloni...	
...komisi okanye...	P4	Vocabulary, semantics and syntax.	...kubefundisi-ntsapho. Kwakhona...	
...uzaku cacisela...	P4	Word division and grammar.	...uza kukucacisela ...	
...ngendlela ayanziyo ukuba <i>uzamva</i> ...	P4	Spelling and semantics.	...ngendlela aqondayo ukuba iza kukucacela,	
...akazuku ngenzela...	P4	Spelling and word division.	...akazukuku gezela...	
...ukuba umisi ebesithini ukhe...	P5	Vocabulary, semantics and syntax.	...umfundisi-ntsapho ukuba ebesithini, ...	
...uyan zinceda a...	P5	Syntax and spelling.	Ngokwenza njalo uyazinceda...	

	...ukhe ufunde...	P5	Syntax and grammar.	...ufunda...	
	...uzayibamb a noba awuyi bambanga yokhe kodwa ikhona into oyifunduleyo	P5	Grammar, syntax, word division and spelling.	...oyizuzayo kwaye uyakwazi ukuzibona naxa ungaqondi.	
	...engayisebe nzi langa yilonto...	P6	Spelling, word division, syntax and grammar.	...engayisebe nzelanga. Yiloo nto...	
	...zakho	P6	Punctuation and syntax.	...zakho, oko kubonisa ukuba into ileli kuwe.	
	...lonto...	P7	Grammar and word division.	...loo nto...	
Writing inconsistencies²³	...alufuma ² nayo...	P1	Failure to use a hyphen to indicate that the word has been divided at the end of a line.	...alufuma-nayo...	

DECEMBER	Grammar	...funeka...	MM	Omission of a basic prefix.	...kufuneka...
		...lizimisele...	MM	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...luzimisele ...
		...ngokuba...	MM	Use of a wrong conjunction.	...kuba...
		...lingalisa...	MM, P2, 3, 4, 5 & 6	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...lungalisa... This error has also been found in other words such as “abanye abanawo”, “lingazimisela”, “lizimisele”, “bangasi”, “lingalisa”, instead of ‘olunye alunawo’, ‘lungazimisela’, ‘luzimisele’, ‘lungasi’, ‘lungalisa’.

²³ Superscript number ² is used to indicate omission of a hyphen which indicates that a word has been divided at the end of a line.

	...ukufunda...	MM, P4	Use of a verb instead of a copulative.	...kwimfundo...	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
	...ngaso...	P2	Use of a wrong pronoun.	...ngalo...	
	...ngokuba...	P2 & 5	Use of a wrong conjunction	...kuba...	This error has also been found in another sentence in the same paragraph and another one, as indicated in the position column.
	...umntu uyavuka eye esikolweni...	P3	Use of a past continuous instead of a present continuous tense.	...umntu uyavuka aye esikolweni...	
	...sesuka...	P3	Use of a wrong verb tense.	...osele esuka...	
	...ngolwimi lakho ...	P5	Use of a wrong possessive.	...lwakho...	This error has also been found in other words in the same paragraph. Those words are “lwethu”, “wethu”, instead of ‘lethu’, ‘yethu’.
	...ayifani...	P5	Use of a wrong adverbial concord.	...akufani...	
	...zingavule...	P5	Use of incorrect probability verb.	...sivule...	
	...eyabonisa ...	P6	Use of a past tense verb instead of a probability verb.	...ingabonisa ...	
	...ukubona...	P6	Omission of an object marking.	...ukumbona ...	
Spelling	...liyen za ixesha...	MM & P2	Addition of a consonant.	...liyeza ixesha...	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
	...funeka...	P2	Omission of a syllable.	...kufuneka...	This error has also been found in another sentence in the same paragraph.
	...abekwenzil a...	P2	Substitution of vowels.	...ebekwenze la ...	This error has also been found in another word in the same paragraph, e.g. “nomahluko”, instead of ‘nomahluko’.

Word division	...elilizwe...	MM, P2, 5 & 6	Failure to separate a demonstrative from a noun.	...eli lizwe...	This error has also been found in other three sentences and other word such as “elaxesha”, instead of ‘ela xesha’.
	Kuzo shiyeka...	P1, 3 & 6	Unnecessary division.	Kuzoshiyeka ...	This error has also been found in other words such as “silu lutsha”, “akazi boni”, “baseku hlaleni”, “uyakha thala”.
	...ulisaphambili...	P2	Failure to separate a verb from a locative adverb.	...ulisa phambili...	
	...izakwenza ...	P4	Failure to separate an auxiliary from a verb.	...iza kwenza...	
Punctuation	...namaphupha umntu...	P3	Failure to use a comma to show a pause.	...namaphupha, umntu...	This error has also been found in another sentence, e.g. “kuphumelela nokuba”.
	...ufundile. angaveli...	P3	Use of a full stop in a place of a comma.	...ufundile, angaveli...	
Syntax	into ekuwe ukuba...abethu abantu...	P5	Incorrect sentence progression.	Into efunekayo ngoku kukuba ulutsha luzimisele kwimfundo ukuze luqiniseke ukuba eli lizwe liya phambili, lungazivulela neenkampani ezithi lona.	
	...uyayiva, uyakwazi ngoku...	P4	Incorrect sentence progression.	...ivakale ukuze naye umfundi akwazi...	
	...ebalulekileyo yokusa elilizwe...	P6	Incorrect sentence progression.	...efunekayo ukuqhubela eli lizwe...	
Vocabulary	Grade 11D	CP	Use of an English borrowed word.	Ibakala le-11D	

	...ngumisi...	P4	Use of an English borrowed word.	...ngutitshala kazi...	
Capitalization	...indlela. ngoku...	P3	Failure to use capitalization at the beginning of a sentence.	...indlela. Ngoku...	
New lexical items	...uzozama...	P2	Inexplicable word construction.	...uza kuzama...	
Inter-categorical range	...abafundile ...	P3	This falls between vocabulary (use of isiZulu word) and incomplete word (deletion of a suffix).	...abafundileyo...	
Multiple errors²⁴	...angacedi sana...	MM & P6	Spelling and word division.	...angancedis ana...	This error has also been found in another paragraph and another word such as “nowo twana”, instead of ‘nomntwana’.
	...ulutsha ayikho into ebaqhandayo...	MM & P5	Grammar and spelling.	...elunqandayo...	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
	...bangesi...	MM	Grammar and spelling.	...lungasi...	
	...ixesha esizo shiyeka Sodwa.	MM	Syntax, semantics, and capitalization.	...ixesha apho siza kushiyeka sodwa.	
	...elizweni lethu ukuphila ubomi obuphucukile yo	P1	Syntax and spelling.	...ukuphila ubomi obuphucukile yo elizweni lethu.	
	...ekufundeni ngokuba, ...	P2	Punctuation and grammar.	...ekufundeni kuba...	
	...ixesha esizo shiyeka Sodwa. Kulo mhlaba...	P2	Syntax, word division, capitalization, and punctuation.	...ixesha apho siza kushiyeka sodwa kulo mhlaba...	

²⁴ Superscript number ² is used to indicate omission of a hyphen which indicates that a word has been divided at the end of a line.

...asizu soluko...	P2	Word division and spelling.	...asizukusolo ko...	
...ukhona umama notata ndizo lala ndityile, liyeza...	P2	Punctuation, word division and syntax.	...“ukhona umama notata ndizolala ndityile”. Liyeza...	
...bazasi shiya...	P2	Spelling and word division.	...baza kukushiya...	This error has also been found in another word in the same paragraph, e.g. “kuzaba zima”, instead of ‘kuza kuba nzima’.
...yilonto...	P2	Grammar and word division.	...yiloo nto...	This error has also been found in another word, e.g. “lamntu”, instead of ‘laa mntu’.
...nokuba nam ndinga ² yeka ...	P3	Grammar and Inter-categorical range; writing inconsistency (failure to use a hyphen to show that the word has been divided at the end of a line) and word division (unnecessary division).	...nokuba nam ndinga-yeka...	
...akuzo bakho umahluko, funeka...	P3	Grammar, spelling and punctuation.	...awuzi kubakho/awuzukubakh o umahluko. Kufuneka...	
...luku ² khutha za...	P3	Spelling and Inter-categorical range; writing inconsistency (failure to use a hyphen to show that the word has been divided at the end of a line) and word division (unnecessary division).	...loku-khuthaza...	
...baba bonise ebonzimeni	P3	Word division, syntax and spelling.	...bababonise ukuba ebunzimeni	

	nokuzimisela ...			nasekuzimise leni...	
	...uzayifuman a...	P3	Semantics and incorrect word construction.	...oza kuyifumana...	
	...kuku, zimisela...	P4	Word division and punctuation.	...kukuzimisel a...	
	Lonto...	P4	Grammar and word division.	Loo nto...	
	...benga cacilwanga.	P4 & 5	Word division and spelling	...bengacacel wanga.	This error has also been found in another word, e.g. "naku ndala", instead of 'nakudala'.
	...uvunda...	P5	Grammar and spelling.	...kufundwa ...	
	...ngelwemi...	P5	Grammar and spelling.	...ngolwimi...	
	...khampani ...	P5	Grammar and vocabulary (use of an English borrowed word).	...iinkampani ...	
	...abamnya	P5	Incomplete word and punctuation.	...abamnyam a.	
	...wakhe, lonto...	P6	Punctuation, grammar and word division.	...wakhe. Loo nto...	
	...ngekamva lakhe ngenye...	P6	Semantics and syntax.	...ngekamva lomntwana wakhe, kuba ngenye...	
	...ngokwakhe , uziboni nawe ungumzali...	P6	Punctuation and syntax.	...ngokwakhe . Nomzali angatshe azibone naye...	
	...kuku zinikezela efundweni nokuzinikela ngamandla...	P6	Word division, spelling and syntax.	...kukuba ulutsha luzimisele kwimfundo kwaye luzinikezele.	

COMMENTS AND OBSERVATIONS

The following observations apply to Table 9:

This learner makes errors in relation to grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, syntax, vocabulary, new lexical items and multiple deviations. These are evident in both June and December data. Errors of a similar nature are shared in the June and December data in the following categories: grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, syntax, and multiple deviations. Errors of capitalization, incorrect word construction and inter-categorical range were not made in June whilst only errors of incomplete words were not made in December. There were no stand-alone errors of semantics, incorrect word construction and writing inconsistencies evident in the December essays; the existing errors in these categories reflect under multiple deviations. There were instances of more local than global errors²⁵. Some of these global errors affected the structure of the sentences in which they appeared; and others interfered with message comprehension because, with these errors, the meaning becomes unclear and sometimes gets lost. The negative impact of global errors brings into question the communicative competence of this learner.

²⁵ Local errors are the errors that do not hamper communication and comprehension of the meaning of an utterance (Touchie 1986: 76). Conversely, global errors are the most severe errors compared to local errors as they interference with communication by disrupting the meaning of utterances (ibid).

Table 10 Analysis of Learner Fifteen's essays

PERIOD	CATEGORIES	ERROR	POSITION	EXPLANATION	CORRECTION	FREQUENCY
JUNE	Grammar	...unike umdla kwabantu...	H	Use of a possessive instead of an adverb.	...kubantu...	
		...badibanisa intloko...	P4, 5	Omission of a second vowel which indicates a plural form.	...iintloko...	This error has also been found in other words such as "nengcinga", "obani".
		...le yabafana ibhola ekhatywa...	P5	Use of a wrong verb form.	...ekhatywayo...	
		...Uye ube luncedo kulutsha ngokuthi lwenze ulutsha...	P6	Use of a wrong subject agreement.	...wenze...	
		...ukwa sindisa ulutsha ukuba...	P6	Use of a conjunction instead of an adverb.	...ulutsha ekubeni...	
		...ulutsha lube nento yokwenza elokishini endaweni yokuba bahlale...	P6	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...luhlale...	
		...umlo wamaqela amakhwenkwe, ukuselwa...	P6	Use of a prefix instead of connective morpheme.	...nokuselwa...	
		Abanye abadlali baye <i>bebenalo</i> ithamsanqa athengwe...	P7	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...bathengwe...	

Spelling	...wamamakh wenkwe...	MM	Addition of a syllable.	...wama-khwenkwe...	
	...wabantwan a bezidlale esitalatweni...	P3	Omission of a completive verb extension	...bezidlalela ...	
	...awayefunis a...	P3, 6, 8 & 9	Omission of a consonant.	...awayefundi sa...	This error has also been found in other words such as "kotwala", "wenzwa", "emdlaleni", instead of 'kotywala', 'wenziwa', 'emdlalweni'.
Word division	...ngoo bani...	MM, P1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 & 9	Unnecessary division.	...ngoobani...	This error has also been found in other words such as "zase zitalatweni", "ibikuku qala", "obunga bazi", "ne sikolo", "kungo kuba", "owaye wudlala", "nje nge sikolo", "nje ngomdlalo", "ngee ngxowa", "zama orenji", "nje ngo titshala", "owaye dlula", "be wudlala", "kuwu buza", "ngu titshala", "ngelika Pelinho", "owaye yititshala", "nangu bani", "njengo mdlalo", "nanga base tyhini", "kungo kuba", "ukwa sindisa", "ezi gwenxa", "zase lokishini", "uku kukhupha", "ngesi thonga kazi", "ngu mdlali", "waye ngumntwana", "ngu Diago", "owaye hlala", "lase Argentina", "waye khubazekile", "lase Spain", "yi Barcelona", "ba bulawe", "nga loo".
	...kulomdlalo ...	MM, P3 & 4	Failure to separate a locative demonstrative from a noun.	...kulo mdlalo...	This error has also been found in other words, e.g. "lomdlalo", "ezongcinga" instead of 'lo mdlalo', 'ezo ngcinga'.
	...ibengcono ...	P7	Failure to separate a predicate from a relative.	...ibe ngcono...	

	...babenalalo...	P7	Failure to separate a predicate from a copulative.	...babe nalo...	
Punctuation	...ekhatywayo	MM	Omission of a question mark.	...ekhatywayo?	This error has also been found in four other sentences.
	...eli-13...	P8	Omission of a comma.	...eli-13,	
	...amazwe	P8	Omission of a full stop.	...amazwe.	
	...yi (Egypt).	P9	Omission of a full stop.	...yi-Egypt.	
Semantics	...uxhaphake okomdlalo...	MM	Incorrect expression which changes the meaning.	...udume njengomdlalo...	
	...ngumdlalo othi wakhe ubuhlobo nabantu...	P2	Incorrect expression which changes the meaning.	...ngumdlalo othi ukwenze wakhe ubuhlobo nabantu...	
	...uxhaphake...	P5	Use of unsuitable word.	...udume...	
	...ungalandela...	P7	Incorrect expression which changes the meaning.	...ungakhokhelela...	
	...bavaleke isifuba ngenxa yokudinwa ebaleni lokudlalela.	P9	Incorrect expression.	...bavaleke isifuba ngenxa yokudinwa ngelixa bedlala.	
Vocabulary	Meyi	CP	Use of an English borrowed word.	Canzibe	
	...empilweni zabantu...	MM	Use of isiZulu word.	...ebomini babantu...	
	...uzivocavoce...	P6	Use of isiZulu word	...uzilolonge...	
Capitalization	Isixhosa	CP, H	Incorrect use of capitalization.	IsiXhosa	This error has also been found in other words, such as "FezekA", "Jikelele".

Incomplete words	...bantwa...	P3	Omission of a suffix.	...bantwana...	
Multiple errors²⁶	...ka Sompempe...	P2, 3, 7	Word division and capitalization.	...kasompempe...	This error is also found in other word such as “owaye Sebenza”, “Waba bukela”, “ngu Saziwayo”.
	...enjenge nqununu...	P2	Word division and semantics.	...enjengeyen qununu...	
	...ulutsha ukuba lu ² PhePhe kwizinto...	P6	Grammar, semantics, vocabulary, writing inconsistency and capitalization.	...ulutsha ekubeni lu ² phelele kwizinto...	
	...liqembu lakwelinye ilizwe...	P7	Semantics and vocabulary.	...ngamaqela akwamanye amazwe...	
	...Semali	P7	Capitalization and punctuation.	...semali.	
	...ene ² minya...	P8	Writing inconsistency and word incompleteness.	...ene-minyaka...	
	...nge bomu, loo...	P9	Word division and syntax.	...ngebomu. Loo...	
	Kwa wanye...	P9	Word division and spelling.	Kwamanye...	
Writing inconsistencies	...uwu ² qale...	P2, 3, 4, 6 & 8	Failure to use a hyphen to show that the word has been divided at the end of a line.	...uwu-qale...	This error has also been found in other words such as “ngoku ² fanayo”, “lase ² Brazil”, “bewudla ² la”, “owaye ² saziwa”, “waba no ² mdla”, “ekhatywa ² yo”, “ngelika ² Lionel”.

²⁶ Superscript number ² is used to indicate omission of a hyphen which indicates that a word has been divided at the end of a line.

DECEMBER	Grammar	Ukubulala kwemiphunga nengqondo yomntu...	MM	Failure to use neuter verb extension.	Ukubulaleka ...	
		...khumbula inkqayi...	P3	Failure to use a conjunction.	...khumbula ukuba inkqayi...	
		...ngentlontlo ...	P3	Omission of a second vowel which indicates a plural form.	...ngeentlontlo ...	
		Ubungozi beziyobisi kulutsha kukuba xa bethe baziqala ...	P4	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...luthe lwaziqala...	
		Ulutsha luthi xa lubuya <i>kwelokhaya</i> , lubuyele kubahlobo bazo luphinde...	P4	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...balo...	
		...engahambi kakuhle isikolo.	P6	Omission of a subject marking on the verb; and use of a prefix instead of a connective morpheme.	...engasihambi kakuhle nesikolo.	
		Amapolisa ezitalatweni enze umthetho...	P8	Use of incorrect verbs.	...Amapolisa kufuneka ezitalatweni amisele umthetho...	
		...ukuba ufunyanwe neziyobisi...	P8	Use of incorrect verb tense.	...ukuba ufunyenwe neziyobisi...	
	Spelling	...zezigobisi	MM, P2	Substitution of a consonant.	...zeziyobisi	This error has also been found in another sentence and in another word, such as "ucinzelelo" instead of 'uxinzelelo'.
		...abanintsi	MM & P8	Substitution of a sound.	...abaninzi	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.

	...kubeko...	P8	Deletion of a consonant.	...kubekho...	
Word division	...loo ntanga	MM, P1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	Unnecessary division.	...loontanga	This error has also been found in other words such as “boku tshaya”, “oo nogada”, “zizii ndidi”, “bene nkolelo”, “nge ntsango”, “loo ntanga”, “aba sebenzisi”, “nge ngqondo”, “abangazi sebenzisiyo”, “kwa ukuzisebenzisa”, “nee mali”, “kwii ndawo”, “ebengu mntwana”, “engasa wenzi”, “kwa bodwa”, “ezi kolweni”, “oono gada”.
	...ngalendlela...	P2 & 4	Failure to separate a demonstrative from a noun.	...ngale ndlela...	This error has also been found in another word, e.g. “kwelokhaya”, instead of ‘kwelo khaya’.
Punctuation	...isiyobisi	MM	Omission of a question mark.	...isiyobisi?	This error has also been found in two other sentences in the same position.
	...nazo.	P3 & 8	Omission of a full stop.	...nazo.	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
Syntax	...nezinye njalo njalo.	P1	Redundancy.	...nezinye.	
	...eyilahla engayicimi umntwana...	P3	Incorrect sentence progression.	...ewulahla engawuciman ga umdiza yena awuthathe...	
	...kukuba bakhuthuze bazokutshaya .	P7	Incorrect sentence progression.	...kukuba bakhuthuze ukuze bafumane imali yokutshaya.	
Semantics	...abakuzo.	P6	Use of wrong meaning.	...abe kuzo.	
	...senziwe...	P8	Use of wrong meaning.	...sisetyenzis we...	

	...enze...	P8	Use of wrong meaning.	...abeke/amis ele...	
	...uyathatha ...	P8	Use of wrong meaning.	...uza kuthathwa...	
Capitalization	...buPhelela ...	MM, P2 & 3	Incorrect use of capitalization.	...buphelela ...	This error has also been found in other words such as "UPhela", "angaPhesheya", "ukuPhulukana"; Instead of 'Uphela', 'angaphesheya' and 'ukuphulukana'.
New lexical items	...kokwabo...	P3	Inexplicable consonant addition.	...kowabo...	This error has also been found in another sentence.
Incomplete words	Iziyobi...	P1	Omission of a suffix.	Iziyobisi...	
	...yokutheng ...	P5	Omission of the final vowel.	...yokuthenga ...	
	...umntwa...	P7	Omission of a suffix.	...umntwana ...	
Multiple errors²⁷	...kwii ² mfono mfono	MM	Failure to use a hyphen to show that a word has been divided at the end of the sentence.	...kwii-mfono-mfono	
	budlala...	MM	Capitalization and grammar.	Zidlala...	
	...ngee ndidi kukho ³ ,itiki...	P1	Word division, writing inconsistency and punctuation.	...ngeendidi, kukho itiki...	
	...baye bathi bazibukele...	P2	Syntax and grammar.	...luzibukela ...	

²⁷ Superscript numbers are used for the following reasons:

- ¹ to indicate incorrect division of a word at the end of a line.
- ² to indicate omission of a hyphen to indicate that a word has been divided at the end of a line.
- ³ to indicate improper spacing between words and punctuation marks.

	...kwi mfono mfono...	P2	Grammar and punctuation.	...kwiimfono-mfono...	
	...abe ² culi...	P2	Spelling and punctuation.	...aba-culi...	
	...uyekude naye atshaye...	P2	Word division and syntax.	...uya kutshaya naye...	
	...ngayo umve ebizo ngo JZ...	P2	Punctuation, semantics and spelling.	...ngayo, uve ebizwa ngokuba nguJZ...	
	...kubahlobo	P2	Semantics and punctuation.	...kubahlobo bakhe.	
	...banga kwazi...	P3	Grammar and word division.	...lungakwazi ...	
	...imfono mfono...	P5	Grammar and punctuation	...iimfono-mfono...	
	...emakwabo	P5	New lexical item and punctuation.	...emawabo.	
	Abanye uziqala esafunda umbone nokuba...	P6	Grammar and syntax.	Abanye baziqala besafunda, athi nokuba...	
	... abe yindlavini kokwabo abethe umzali lo wakhe.	P7	Grammar and new lexical item.	...babe ziindlavini kumawabo babethe nabazali abo babo.	
Writing inconsistencies	...ezintolong w ¹ eni	MM	Incorrect division at the end of a line.	ezintolongwe-ni	
	...siyitshi ² nts he...	P1, 2 & 3	Failure to use a hyphen to show that the word has been divided at the end of a line.	..siyitshi-nts he	This error has also been found in other words, such as ziyo ² bisi, utha ² nda, efincele ² la.

COMMENTS AND OBSERVATIONS

Regarding Table 10, the following observations are noted:

This learner makes errors in relation to grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, semantics, capitalization, incomplete words, multiple deviations and writing inconsistencies, as evident in both June and December data. June and December data share errors of a similar nature in the following categories: grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, capitalization, incomplete words and writing inconsistencies. In both periods, there were no errors of incorrect words construction and inter-categorical range. Errors of new lexical items were not made in June essays, whilst no vocabulary errors were made in December. There were no stand-alone syntactical errors in June; the existing errors in this category reflect under multiple deviations. There were more local than global errors²⁸. Some of these global errors affected the structure of the sentences in which they occurred and disturbed the intended meaning, whilst others are a hindrance to message comprehension, as they completely alter the meaning. This negative impact of global errors raises some doubts about the communicative competence of this learner.

Table 11 Analysis of Learner Nineteen's essays

PERIOD	CATEGORIES	ERROR	POSITION	EXPLANATION	CORRECTION	FREQUENCY
		Unendlebe...	MM, P5 & 6	Omission of a second vowel to show a plural form.	Uneendlebe ...	This same error has also been found in P6 and in other words such as "yemeko", "ngendlebe", instead of 'yeemeko', 'ngeendlebe'.

²⁸ Local errors are the errors that do not hamper communication and comprehension of the meaning of an utterance (Touchie 1986: 76). Conversely, global errors are the most severe errors compared to local errors as they interference with communication by disrupting the meaning of utterances (ibid).

	...yacaca ukuba...	P2	Use of a conjunction instead of a possessive pronoun.	...yacaca eyokuba...	
	...kungabikho ... ubulungisa...	P3	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...bungabikho ubulungisa...	
	...kushishinw a ngenjongo yongcamla ...	P4	Omission of a basic prefix in a possessive.	...yokungcam la...	
Spelling	...ukulwe...	MM, P4 & 7	Substitution of a vowel.	...ukulwa...	This error has also been found in other words such as “onoko”, “bengamaxhobo” instead of ‘onako’, ‘bengamaxhoba’.
	Ukwehlwa...	MM	Addition of a semi-vowel.	Ukwehla...	
	...zeenyembe ii...	P1	Substitution of a consonant with a vowel.	...zeenyembe zi...	
	...apheke...	P5	Omission of a syllable.	...aphetheke ...	
Word division	...lento...	MM, P7, 8 & 9	Failure to divide words.	...le nto...	This form of error has also been found in other paragraphs, e.g. “kweziveki”, “lenyewe”, “nalengxaki”.
	...nkomoni...	P1 & 2	Failure to divide a noun from an interrogative.	...nkomo ni...	This form of error has also been found in another paragraph, e.g. “isibekaphi” instead of ‘isibeka phi’.
	...kuyi lemhla...	P7	Incorrect division.	...kuyile mihla...	
Punctuation	...maAfrika...	P1	Failure to use a hyphen to avoid vowel juxtaposition.	...ma-Afrika...	
	...saseAfrika ...	P1	Failure to use a hyphen between two vowels.	...sase-Afrika...	
	...gadalala.	P2	Use of a full stop in place of a question mark.	...gadalala?	This error has also been found in another sentence, e.g. “ubungozi boku.”

	...impatho gadalala...	P 3,7 & 9	Failure to use a hyphen in a compound word.	...impatho-gadalala...	This error has also been found in other words such as “Umgaqo siseko”, “empatho gadalala”, “zizinqanda mathe”, “Impatho gadalala”.
	...kuza-kwenzeka...	P7	Unnecessary use of a hyphen.	...kuza kwenzeka...	
	...zabo	P7	Failure to use a full stop at the end of the sentence.	...zabo.	
Syntax	Mihla ndizipheka...	P1	Incorrect sentence progression.	Mihla le ndizipheka...	
	...ngakumabhinqa leyo into iphuhlisa...	P3	Insertion of unnecessary words.	...ngakumabhinqa iphuhlisa...	
Semantics	...athathiweyo...	P8	Use of incorrect meaning.	...asekiweyo...	
Vocabulary	...lunocinizelelo	P5	Use of incorrect word.	...lunoxinzelelo...	
	...ahlukumezeka...	P6	Use of isiZulu word.	...axhaphazeka...	
Capitalization	...kaRhulumente...	MM	Unnecessary use of capitalization.	...karhulumente...	
	...amaxhosa...	P2 & 5	Failure to use capitalization on the tribal name.	...amaXhosa...	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column and in another word, e.g. “somzantsi Afrika”; instead of ‘soMzantsi Afrika’.
Incomplete words	...gadala...	P1	Deletion of a suffix.	...gadalala...	
	...abangama ntombaza...	P4	Deletion of a suffix.	...abangama ntombazana...	
New lexical items	...amabhinqa abhubhileyo emveni kokuba ...	P6	Inexplicable insertion of a suffix.	...amabhinqa abhubhileyo emva kokuba ...	
Inter-categorical	...iyozala...	P1 & 2	This error falls between two categories; Incorrect word construction and New lexical items.	...iya kuzala.../...iy okuzala...	

Multiple errors	...KWABA SE TYHINI	MM	Word division and spelling.	...KWABASE TYHINI	
	...bethu iingekuba...	P3	Punctuation and spelling.	...bethu, ingekuba...	
	...lofumana isidima...	P3	Grammar and semantics.	...lokuphathw a ngesidima...	
	...abase Tyhini...	P3	Word division and capitalization.	...abasetyhini ...	
	Yayaphi no iqhayiya...	P3	Grammar and spelling.	Layaphi na iqhayiya...	
	...uphela sirhuqeka ed akeni.	P3	Grammar; insertion of a wrong object concord and omission of a basic prefix.	...siphela sirhuqeka eludakeni.	
	Siluvile ukhwelo kungani singasabeli nje.	P5	Grammar and punctuation.	Silivile ikhwelo! Kungani singasabeli nje?	
	...yokuxhaph aza abase Tyhini.	P6	Grammar and capitalization.	...yokuxhatsh azwa kwabasetyhin i.	
	...kwabe Tyini...	P6	Word division, capitalization and spelling.	...kwabasety hini...	
	...lonto...	P6	Grammar and word division.	...loo nto...	
	Umzekelo ³ ,ukukho...	P7	Writing inconsistency, punctuation and spelling.	Umzekelo; kukho...	
	...ndibongoza ndisithi...	P7	Semantics and grammar.	...ndikhalimel a uluntu ngelithi...	
	Ukuvala lento...	P9	Punctuation and word division.	Ukuvala, le nto...	
Writing inconsistencies ²⁹	...samagwala ³ ,kwaye...	P9	Unnecessary spacing before a comma.	...samagwala , kwaye...	

²⁹ Superscript number ³ is used to indicate improper spacing between words and punctuation marks.

		...kakhulu ³ , kwaye...	P9	Unnecessary spacing before a comma.	...kakhulu, kwaye...	
DECEMBER	Grammar	Udlwabevu lentshayelelo	MM	Insertion of a wrong subject concord.	...lwentshayel elo...	
		...ulutsha elizikhoboza ...	MM	Insertion of a wrong verb concord.	...oluzikhoboza...	
		...ebangela isizwe...	MM	Omission of a conjunction.	...ebangela ukuba isizwe...	
		Ukulwa ubuqhetseba iinkokheli...	MM	Use of a prefix instead of a locative formative.	...kwiinkokheli...	
		...Ukukhulela kolutsha besebancinci	MM	Use of wrong subject marking.	...luseluncinci	
		...Ukubaluleka kolutsha oluqiqileyo	MM	Use of a wrong verb tense.	...oluqiqayo...	
		Amathuba oneleyo ukubakha	MM	Use of a wrong relative concord and subject marking.	...okulwakha	
		Igalelo lamakhaya ukuhlumisa...	MM	Use of a noun instead of a locative.	...ekuhlumise ni...	This error has also been found in another sentence.
		Ulutsha ngoku sele bekhobozeka	P2	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...lukhobozeka...	
		...xelelwa mna ke...	P2	Omission of a conjunction.	...xelela mna ke ukuba...	
		...ulutsha... li zijul' jacu...	P3	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...luzijul' ijacu	
		... elethu ulutsha...	P3 & 8	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...olwethu...	This error has also been found in another word, e.g. "lethu", instead of 'lwethu'.
		...sifane...	P3	Use of a wrong verb form.	...sifana...	
		Ulutsha langoku...	P5	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...lwangoku...	

	Loo nto iyaphuhlisa ...	P5	Use of a long verb form instead of a short one.	...iphuhlisa...	
	...iinkokheli... nezingophu ma-silwe ...	P5	Omission of a second vowel which shows a plural form.	...nezingooph uma-silwe...	This error has also been found in another word, e.g. "inkqubo", instead of 'iinkqubo'
	Lutsha lakowethu ...	P6	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...lwakowethu ...	
	...kufuneke bayeke...	P7	Omission of a conjunction.	...kufuneke ukuba bayeke...	
	...iyalibulala lkamva lezizwe ...	P7	Use of a plural form instead of a singular.	...lesizwe...	
	Ndiyawangqi na lo mazwi...	P8	Use of a position one demonstrative instead of a position two.	...loo...	
	...esinolutsha oluqiqileyo ...	P8	Use of a wrong verb tense.	...oluqiqayo ...	
	Ulutsha... lusi lela ekubeni...	P8	Use of a short verb form instead of a long one.	...luyasilela...	
	...ulutsha into abayenzayo ...	P 8, 9, 10, 11 & 13	Use of a wrong subject concord.	...oluyenzayo ...	This error has also been found in other words, e.g. "bathathelwe", "bathathe", "bakhe", "alifuni", "bekhona", "luxhomekeke", "abajamelene", "bazame", instead of 'luthathe', 'luthathelwe', 'lwakhe', 'alufuni', 'lukhona', 'lixhomekeke', 'olujamelene', 'luzame'.
	...uze...	P 11	Use of a wrong conjunction.	...ukuze...	
	...inene...	P 11	Use of double plurals.	...ngenene...	

	...imiceli-mingeni...	P 13	Unnecessary use of a plural form.	...imiceli-mngeneni...	
	...ekuqinisek eni...	P 13	Use of an adverb instead of a verb.	...ukuqinisek a...	
	...kodwa ke ukhumbule nto okokuba...	P 13	Use of incorrect parts of speech.	...into yokokuba...	
Spelling	...ezingandilis ekayo	MM & P3	Substitution of a sound.	...ezingandilis ekanga	This error has also been found in another word, e.g. "lokowethu", instead of 'lwakowethu'.
	...ntuumbant uumbeka...	P3	Substitution of vowels and consonants.	...lusantyp antypumpeka ...	
	...isiswe...	P3	Substitution of a consonants.	...isizwe...	
	...nendle...	P3 & 5	Substitution of a vowel.	...nendlu...	This error has also been found in other words, e.g. "enganaphahla", "ngamaqala", instead of 'engenaphahla', 'ngamaqela'.
	...kulakhiwo lesizwe...	P11	Omission of semi-vowels.	...kulwakhiwo lwesizwe...	
Word division	...nkomoni...	MM	Failure to separate a noun from an interrogative.	...nkomo ni...	
	...bazakukha nyisa...	P 2, 6 & 10	Failure to separate an auxiliary from a verb.	...baza kukhanyisa...	This error has also been found in other words, e.g. "uzakulakha", "izakwenza", instead of 'uza kulakha', 'iza kwenza'.
	...kwelixesha ...	P3	Failure to separate a locative demonstrative from a noun.	...kweli xesha...	

	...abenakamva...	P 4, 9 & 11	Failure to separate an auxiliary from a verb.	...abe nakamva...	This error has also been found in other words, e.g. "ibenguye", "babengoogqirha"; instead of 'ibenguye', 'babe ngoogqirha'
	...lento...	P7	Failure to separate a demonstrative from a noun.	...le nto...	
Punctuation	...lesizwe	MM P 2, 6 & 7	Failure to use a question mark at the end of the question.	...lesizwe?	This error has also been found in other paragraphs, as indicated in the position column.
	...izikolo, iinkonzo...	P1	Unnecessary use of a comma on the last word in a list instead of a connective morpheme.	...izikolo kunye neenkonzo...	This error is also found in another sentence in the same paragraph, e.g. "izibhedlela", "amangcwaba", instead of 'izibhedlela', 'namangcwaba'.
	...apho ulutsha...	P3	Failure to use a comma to show a pause in a sentence.	...apho, ulutsha...	
	...ulutsha-	P4	Unnecessary use of a hyphen.	...ulutsha	
	...amatiletile...	P9	Failure to use a hyphen in a compound word.	...amatiletile...	
	...asinakamva	P1 & 3	Failure to use a full stop at the end of the sentence.	...asinakamva	
	a			a.	
Semantics	...ndiziphepha...	P1	Use of a wrong meaning.	...ndizipheka...	
	...liselele...	P8	Use of a wrong meaning.	...sisilele...	
	...ozixelelayo ukuba usisizwe buqu.	P9	Incorrectly communicated meaning.	...ozimiselayo ekubeni amele isizwe.	
	...ekuqinisekени...	P 11 & 12	Use of a wrong meaning.	...ekuqinisekени...	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.

	...bangoma...	P 11	The word doesn't make sense.	The possible meaning which could be attached to it is "bangomso".	
Vocabulary	Grade 11A	CP	Use of an English word.	Ibakala le-11A	
	Paper III	CP	Use of an English word.	Iphepha lesi-III	
Capitalization	...amangesi ...	P4 & 9	Failure to use capitalization on the name of the national designation.	...amaNgesi ...	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
Incomplete words	...kalo...	P3	Deletion of a suffix.	...kaloku...	
New lexical items	...ebomini nesona sixhobo soqaqambis a ikamva...	P13	Inexplicable word construction.	...sakuthi siqaqambise ...	
Multiple errors	...esing ¹ cono ngoku...	P7	Writing inconsistency and syntax.	...esingco- no. Ngoku ke...	
	...kubangama vila...	P 10	Semantics and word division.	...kukuba ngamavila...	
Writing inconsistencies ³⁰	...ulonwa ² bo.	P3	Failure to use a hyphen to show that the word has been divided at the end of a line.	ulonwa- bo.	
	...izizwe ³ ,	P3	Unnecessary spacing before a comma.	...izizwe,	

³⁰ Superscript numbers are used for the following reasons:

- ¹ to indicate incorrect division of a word at the end of a line.
- ² to indicate omission of a hyphen to indicate that a word has been divided at the end of a line.
- ³ to indicate improper spacing between words and punctuation marks.

COMMENTS AND OBSERVATIONS

Regarding Table 11, the following observations are noted:

This learner makes errors of grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, semantics, vocabulary, capitalization, new lexical items, incomplete words, multiple deviations and writing inconsistencies. All these errors are found in both June and December data. Errors of a similar nature are found in June and December data in the following categories: grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, semantics, capitalization, incomplete words and writing inconsistencies. In both periods, there were no errors involving incorrect word construction. No errors of inter-categorical range were evident in the December data. There were no stand-alone errors of syntax in the December data; existing errors in this category reflect under multiple deviations. More local than global errors were made³¹. Some global errors were a hindrance to message comprehension, while some altered the intended meaning in the sentences in which they appeared. Some of these global errors also affected the structure of the sentences in which they were made. This negative impact of global errors casts some doubt on the communicative competence of this learner.

³¹ Local errors are the errors that do not hamper communication and comprehension of the meaning of an utterance (Touchie 1986: 76). Conversely, global errors are the most severe errors compared to local errors as they interfere with communication by disrupting the meaning of utterances (ibid).

4.3.3.3 Analysis of School C's data

Table 12 Analysis of Learner Twenty-Five's essays

PERIOD	CATEGORY	ERROR	POSITION	EXPLANATION	CORRECTION	FREQUENCY
JUNE	Grammar	Ukukhulela kwikhaya elinobutyebi liye libamoshe...	P1	Use of wrong subject concords.	Ukukhulela kwikhaya elinobutyebi kuye kubamoshe...	
		...kuba uyayazi ukuba ukuze kulunge ekhaya kufuneka ndifundile...	P5	Use of a wrong object concord and use of first person subject marking.	...kuba uyazi ukuba ukuze kulunge ekhaya kufuneka efundile...	The object concord error "uyayazi ukuba" has also been found twice on P6.
	Spelling	...usheke...	P4	Omission of consonants.	...ushiyeke...	
	Word division	...ubenemali ...	P2 & 5	Failure to separate a predicate from a copulative.	...ube nemali...	This error has also been found in other words such as "abemdakana", "abenomehluko".
		...naninina...	P2	Failure to separate an adverb from an enclitic.	...nanini na...	
		...naxabenga sekho...	P3	Failure to separate an adverb of time from a verb.	...naxa bengasekho.	
		...anga hoyi...	P6	Unnecessary division.	...angahoyi...	
	Punctuation	...mntwini, ukwazi ukuzimela.	P2	Failure to use a comma to show a pause in a sentence.	...mntwini, ukwazi ukuzimela.	
	Syntax	Nto leyo ibangela...	P6	Improper way of starting a sentence.	Loo nto ke iye ibangele...	
	Semantics	Umntu kubekho...	P7	Use of a wrong meaning.	Umntu kube khona / ngona...	
		Akafani nophuma kutyewe	P6	Unknown / incomprehensible meaning.	Akafani nophuma kwikhaya	

	kowabo kuba...			elinobutyebi kuba	
Vocabulary	...ezibizayo...	P4	Use of isiZulu word.	...zexabiso eliphezulu...	
New lexical items	...kokwenu...	P3	Inexplicable addition of a consonant.	...kowenu...	
	...sengenanto...	P4	Inexplicable formation.	...sele engenanto...	
	...setshaya...	P5	Inexplicable formation.	...sele etshaya...	
Incomplete words	...baphe...	P5	Omission of a suffix.	...baphele...	
	...abantwa...	P7	Omission of a suffix	...abantwana...	
Inter-categorical range	Abanye baye balibale ukuba imali ekhoyo kokwenu...	P4	This falls between new lexical item and grammar.	...kumawabo...	
	...setshaya...	P5	This falls between Incorrect word construction and New lexical Items.	...sele etshaya...	
Multiple deviations³²	Okunye ngenye imini abazukubakh o ebomini bakho...	P3	Syntax and semantics.	Okunye abakulibalayo kukuba abazali babo ngenye imini abazukubakh o ebomini babo...	
	...uzihoye ngokwakho kuba bangakushiya naninina.	P3	Syntax and semantics	...bazihoye ngokwabo kuba abazali bangabashiya nanini na.	
	...yiyo lonto...	P3	Grammar and word division.	...yiyo loo nto...	

³² Superscript numbers are used for the following reasons:

- ¹ to indicate incorrect division of a word at the end of a line.
- ² to indicate omission of a hyphen to indicate that a word has been divided at the end of a line.
- ³ to indicate improper spacing between words and punctuation marks.

...nabahlobo ayinxile athenge nempahla ezibizayo angalungisele li...	P4	Punctuation, grammar and vocabulary.	...nabahlobo, ayinxile, athenge neempahla zexabiso eliphezulu, angalungisele li...	
...bangabikho kwaphela imali usheke ungenabani uwedwa.	P4	Semantics, syntax and spelling.	...bemke ukuphela kwemali, ushiyeke ungenabani.	
...berobha beqhekeza imizi batshaye iziyobisi.	P5	Vocabulary, punctuation and grammar.	...bekhuthuza , beqhekeza imizi, batshaye neziyobisi.	
...baye baphele sebethengisa ...	P5	Grammar and Inter- categorical range ("sebetshaya" falls between Incorrect word construction and New Lexical Item).	...aye aphele sele ethengisa...	
...ngemizimba balale namadoda abangawaziyo o bosuleleke kwizifo.	P5	Punctuation and grammar.	...ngemizimba , alale namadoda angawaziyo aphele esosuleleka nazizifo.	
...afunde alala etyile kwaye...	P6	Punctuation and grammar.	...afunde, alale etyile kwaye...	
...abene ^{2nd} aw o	P6	Word division and writing inconsistency.	...abe ne- ndawo...	
...uyayifuman a nto leyo ibangela angakhathali. Kwaye...	P6	Punctuation, grammar and syntax.	...uyayifuman a, nto leyo ibangela ukuba angakhathali. Kwakhona,...	
...sebenga ² sekho xa emane esithi funde kuba ngomso ndingangabik ho.	P7	Writing inconsistency and grammar.	...sebenga- sekho xa bemane besithi makafunde kuba ngomso bangangabik ho.	

		...abayifunay o. Kuba bayayazi abantwana baye banga ² khatha li kuba bayayazi...	P7	Syntax, grammar and writing inconsistency.	...abayifunay o. Oko kudala ukuba abantwana banga ² khatha li kuba besazi...	
		Ingcebiso zam kulutsha zezokuba bafunde ukuze sikwazi ukuzimela singahoyi...	P8	Grammar and punctuation.	lingcebiso zam kuthi lutsha zezokuba sifunde ukuze sikwazi ukuzimela, singahoyi...	
	Writing inconsistencies	Ukungathat ¹ hi...	MM	Incorrect division of the word at the end of a line.	Ukungatha- thi...	
		...ezingalung a ² nga...	P 2, 4, 6 & 7	Failure to use a hyphen to show that the word has been divided at the end of a line.	...ezingalung a- nga...	This error has also been found in other words such as "we ² nzela", "yaba ² zali", "bem ² shiye", "ko ² nke", "sebenga ² sekho", "naba ² zali", "banga ² khathaleli".

DECEMBER	Grammar	...bayeke...	P2	Insertion of a wrong subject concord.	...luyeke...	
		...utywala...	P7	Substitution of adverb of association formative with an initial vowel.	...notywala...	
		...wona...	P8	Use of a wrong absolute pronoun.	...ona...	
	Spelling	...abokukene yo	P2	Substitution of a sound.	...abohlukene yo...	
		...nasendlini ...	P7	Omission of a semi- vowel.	...nasendlwini ...	
	Word division	...amakhayaa bo...	P5	Failure to separate a noun from a possessive.	...amakhaya abo...	
		...babebesihl a...	P5	Failure to separate an auxiliary from a verb.	...babe besihla...	

	...babengam asela...	P6 & 8	Failure to separate a verb from a copulative.	...babe ngamasela...	This error has also been found in other words such as “babezizikoli”, “babamdaka”.
Punctuation	...imali	P7	Failure to use a full stop to indicate the end of a sentence.	...imali.	
Syntax	...baye balibale ngabantu...	P3	Tautology.	...nangabant u...	
	...bebaseka bebaxhasa...	P3	Tautology caused by use of isiZulu word.	...bebaxhasa ...	
	...ikamva labo. Kuba kufunwa bafunde...	P5	Incorrect sentence progression.	...amakamva abo ukuze bafunde...	
	Kodwa bona...	P5	Use of a conjunction and the beginning of a sentence.	Endaweni yoko, bona...	
	...bebabela bebakhuthuz a.	P9	Incorrect sentence progression.	...bebabela futhi bebakhuthuz a	
Semantics	...ukwazi...	P9	Use of wrong meaning.	...ukuze...	
Vocabulary	Septemba	D	Use of an English borrowed word.	EyoMsintsi	
Capitalization	...Ingakumbi ...	P1 & 9	Use of capitalization in the middle of a sentence.	...ingakumbi ...	This error has also been found in another paragraph. e.g. “Bafunde”.
New lexical items	...amantomb azana aye athengise ngemizimba yo.	P8	Use of unknown/ inexistent/un- grammatically shortened possessive.	...amanto- mbazana aye athengise ngemizimba yawo.	
Multiple errors³³	...akhangele izinto ezizakumfum anisa...	P4	Word division and vocabulary.	... akhangele izinto eziza kumphathela ...	

³³ Superscript numbers are used for the following reasons:

- ¹ to indicate incorrect division of a word at the end of a line.
- ² to indicate omission of a hyphen to indicate that a word has been divided at the end of a line.

	...yeziyobisi abanye bathe ng ^{1, 2} ise...	P7	Punctuation, syntax, word division and writing inconsistency.	...yeziyobisi, abanye baye bathengi- se...	
	...k ^{1, 2} waye...	P8	Incorrect division at the end of a sentence and writing inconsistency.	...kwa- ye...	This error has also been found in another word in the same paragraph e.g. "abahl ^{1, 2} ambi".
	...azuzubenz elanto...	P9	Spelling, grammar and word division.	...azizukuben zela nto...	
Writing inconsistencies	...edolo ² phini ...	P1- 7	Failure to use a hyphen to show that a word has been divided at the end of a line.	...edolo- phini...	This error has been found 12 times in 7 of the 9 paragraphs, as indicated in the position column.

COMMENTS AND OBSERVATIONS

The following observations are noted concerning Table 12:

This learner makes errors in relation to grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, syntax, semantics, vocabulary, new lexical items, multiple deviations and writing inconsistencies, as found in both June and December data. June and December data share errors of a similar nature in the following categories: grammar, word division, syntax, semantics and writing inconsistencies. In both periods there were no errors of incorrect word construction. Errors of capitalization were not made in June, whilst in December, there were no errors of incorrect word construction and inter-categorical range. There were more local than global errors³⁴. Some global errors affect the word structure of the sentences in which they appear. Some of these global errors are a hindrance to message comprehension; and some confuse the meaning in the sentences where they are found. This negative impact of global errors raises some doubts about the communicative competence of this learner.

³⁴ Local errors are the errors that do not hamper communication and comprehension of the meaning of an utterance (Touchie 1986: 76). Conversely, global errors are the most severe errors compared to local errors as they interfere with communication by disrupting the meaning of utterances (ibid).

Table 13 Analysis of Learner Twenty-Six's essays

PERIOD	CATEGORIES	ERROR	POSITION	EXPLANATION	CORRECTION	FREQUENCY
JUNE	Grammar	...ababethwa	MM	Use of a wrong verb form.	...ababethwa yo	
		...nangela...	P1	Use of a wrong demonstrative adverb.	...nangelaa...	
		...iswazi...	P2	Use of a wrong initial vowel.	...uswazi...	
		...zange kuphinda kubekho...	P2	Use of a wrong verb form.	...zange kuphinde kubekho...	
		...yintoni ebangela baye ezikolweni.	P2	Omission of a conjunction.	...yintoni ebangela ukuba baye ezikolweni.	
		...kuba beyazi abazukubeth wa...	P3	Insertion of a wrong subjectival concord and omission of a conjunction.	...kuba besazi ukuba abazi kubethwa...	
		...layekisway o iswazi...	P4	Omission of a semi-vowel and use of a wrong initial vowel.	...lwayekiswa yo uswazi...	
		...naye atshintshe ubomi babazali babo...	P4	Use of a plural possessive instead of a singular.	...naye atshintshe ubomi babazali bakhe...	
		...ebenceda ebefuna umfundi aphumelele.	P4	Use of a wrong verb form.	...ebenceda efuna umfundi aphumelele.	
		Ibangela ilizwe litshabalale...	P5	Omission of a conjunction.	Ibangela ukuba ilizwe litshabalale...	
		Ingcebiso zam...	P6 & 7	Omission of a second vowel indicating a plural form.	lingcebiso zam...	This error has also been found in other words, e.g. "nenkokheli ezi", "nogqirha aba" instead 'neenkokheli ezi', 'noogqirha aba'.

	...sakuthi sivuka emaqandeni sele singenazo...	P6	Omission of an auxiliary verb.	...sakuthi sivuka emaqandeni sibe sele singenazo...	
Spelling	...ootishala...	P2, 3	Omission of a consonant.	...ootitshala ...	This error has also been found in another word, e.g. “ngutishala”
	...kwantsha- balalo...	P6	Substitution of a vowel.	...kwantsha- balala...	
Word division	Ndizakuthi...	P1	Failure to separate an auxiliary verb from a verb.	Ndiza kuthi...	
	...belungeka yekiswa...	P1, 3	Unnecessary division.	...belungekay ekiswa...	This error has also been found in another word such as “ne mbeko”,
	...ibentle...	P2	Failure to separate a verb from an adjective.	...ibe ntle...	
	...lento...	P3, 6	Failure to separate a demonstrative from a noun.	...le nto...	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
	...abafunang ayo...	P3	Failure to separate a verb from an adverb.	...abafuna ngayo...	
	...ngelixesha ...	P4	Failure to separate a demonstrative adverb from a noun.	...ngeli xesha...	
	...kubabona ...	P5	Failure to separate a conjunction from an absolute pronoun.	...kuba bona...	
	...nabazaliba khe...	P6	Failure to separate a noun of association from a possessive.	...nabazali bakhe...	
Punctuation	...ukumamela omnye abafundi...	P2	Failure to use a full stop to separate two sentences.	...ukumamela omnye. Abafundi...	
	...badala kunabo balibala ukuba...	P2	Failure to use a comma in a list of incidents.	...badala kunabo, balibala ukuba...	
	...into abayiyelayo	P2, 3, 4, 6	Failure to use a comma to show a	...into abayiyelayo	This error has also been found in other paragraphs, as

	yimfundo apho...		pause in a sentence.	yimfundo, apho...	indicated in the position column.
	...yabo yesikolo. umntu afune...	P3	Incorrect use of a full stop.	...yabo yesikolo, umntu afune...	
Syntax	...umntu ofundiswayo nditsho mna kwavele kwanqaba...	P3	Incorrect sentence progression.	...umntu ofundiswayo. Ndithetha ukuthi kwavele kwanqaba...	
	...bezenzela into abayifunayo ezikolweni. Abafani nabafundi ...	P5	Incorrect sentence division.	...bezenzela into abayifunayo ezikolweni, abafani nabafundi...	
	...into abayifunayo babefuna impumelelo befuna imbeko nangoku baphumelela.	P5	Incorrect sentence progression.	...into abayifunayo, njengempum elelo nembeko, nangoku bazifumana.	
Vocabulary	Meyi	D	Use of an English borrowed word.	Canzibe	
New lexical items	Sukela...	P2	Ungrammatical omission of a prefix.	Ukusukela...	
Multiple errors	...ngalamini ...	P2 & 5	Grammar and word division.	...ngalaa mini...	This error has also been found in other words such as "belaxesha", "abelaxesha"; instead of 'belaa xesha', 'abelaa xesha'.
	...ko ² tishala...	P2	Grammar, writing inconsistency and spelling.	...koo-titshala...	
	...umntu acinge nguyeyedwa ...	P3	Grammar and word division.	...umntu acinge ukuba nguyeyedwa...	
	...kotishala...	P3	Grammar and spelling.	...kootitshala ...	
	...kwabamas ebe ezemfundo kunye nakumasebe	P4	Semantics, capitalization, syntax and grammar.	...kwabeSebe Lezemfundo nakwiSebe Lamalungelo	

	amalungelo abantwana balibale...			Abantwana, alibale...	
	...kwaye abangumntu ebantwini naye...	P4	Spelling, word division and punctuation.	...kwaye abe ngumntu ebantwini, naye...	
	...lo tishala...	P4	Grammar (use of a position one demonstrative instead of a position three) and spelling.	...loo titshala...	This error has also been found in another word such as "lo tishalakazi" in the same paragraph.
	...uzakuphele lwa...	P4	Grammar and word division.	...aphelelwe ...	
	...ibekuyabet hwa...	P4	Grammar and word division.	...ukuba kubethwe...	
	...ezikolweni kodwa umntu...	P4	Punctuation, grammar and semantics.	...ezikolweni, abe utitshala...	
	Abafundi abaninzi bayamitha bayatshaya iziyobisi ezikolweni...	P5	Punctuation and grammar.	Abafundi abaninzi bayamitha, batshaya iziyobisi ezikolweni...	
	...abazukufun a ukuxelelwa bacetyiswe babethwe ngotishala babo Sele...	P5	Punctuation, grammar and spelling.	...abazukufun a ukuxelelwa, bacetyiswe okanye babethwe ngootitshala babo. Sele...	
	...yokungabet hwa ezikolweni. Ngoba...	P6	Semantics and punctuation.	...yokungabet hwa kwabafundi ezikolweni, ngoba...	
	...umntu ade abone ukuba makayeke ukufunda umntu angaboni ukuba...	P6	Grammar and syntax.	...umntu ade abone ukuba makayeke ukufunda kuba engaboni ukuba...	
	...uzakuphum elelaphi aphelele...	P6	Word division, semantics and syntax.	...uza kuya phi, ade aphelele...	

	Writing inconsistencies 35	...ku ² bafundi ...	MM, P2 & 7	Failure to use a hyphen to show that a word has been divided at the end of a sentence.	...ku-bafundi...	This error has also been found in other words such as “uku ² tshintsha”, “kunga ² bikho”
DECEMBER	Grammar	...lixhaphakile ...	P2	Insertion of a wrong subject concord.	...luxhaphakil e...	
		...emihla...	P4	Use of a possessive instead of a noun.	...imihla...	
		...obuphila...	P4	Insertion of a wrong object concord.	...oluphila...	
		...akunqwene lelwana into entle.	P4	Use of wrong noun form and wrong adjective concord.	...akunqwene lelwana nto intle.	
		...ezibangela lubhubhe...	P4	Omission of a conjunction.	...ezibangela ukuba lubhubhe...	
		...notshata...	P4	Omission of a basic prefix.		
		...bayamonel ana nomonelana ...	P4	Insertion of a wrong subject concord and omission of a basic prefix.	...luyamonela na nokumonelan a...	
		...lakowethu ...	P5	Insertion of a wrong possessive concord.	...lwakowethu ...	
		Ingcebiso zam...	P6	Omission of a second vowel that indicates a plural.	lingcebiso zam...	
	Spelling	...kuzanya...	P2	Omission of a semi-vowel.	...kuzanywa ...	
		...kwimvundo ...	P3	Substitution of a consonant.	...kwimfundo ...	
		...basheke...	P4	Omission of a syllable.	...bashiyeke ...	
	Word division	...bubengcon o...	P1 & 6	Failure to separate a verb from a copulative.	...bube ngcono...	This error has also been found in another word e.g. “bubemnandi”.

³⁵ Superscript number ² is used to indicate omission of a hyphen which indicates that a word has been divided at the end of a line.

	...obubomi...	P1, 2 & 5	Failure to separate a demonstrative from a noun.	...obu bomi...	This error has also been found in other words such as “ngolulwimi”, “kobubomi”.
	Ndizakuthetha...	P1	Failure to separate an auxiliary from a verb.	Ndiza kuthetha...	
	...amaxesha...	P2	Use of a noun in place of an adverb of time.	...ngamaxesha...	
	...zangezona...	P2	Failure to separate a negative predicate from an absolute pronoun.	...zange zona...	
	...bathibephumama...	P3	Failure to separate an auxiliary from a verb.	...bathi bephuma...	
Punctuation	...omnye wonke...	P4, 5 & 6	Failure to use a comma to show a pause in a sentence.	...omnye, wonke...	This error has also been found in other paragraphs, as indicated in the position column.
Semantics	...ndizathuze...	P1	Use of a wrong word.	...ndicacise...	
Vocabulary	September	D	Use of English word.	EyoMsintsi	
	...ukutitshwa...	P2	Use of an English borrowed word.	...ukufundi-swa...	
Capitalization	...lwamangesi...	P2, 3	Failure to use capitalization in the name of a race.	...lwamaNgesi...	This error has also been found in other sentences, e.g. “lwesingesi”, “isingesi”.
Multiple errors³⁶	...kwe ² yasesilalini...	P2	Writing inconsistency and spelling	...kwe-yasezilalini...	
	...nesisixhosa...	P2	Word division and capitalization.	...nesi siXhosa...	
	...itishala...	P2	Grammar and spelling.	...iititshala...	
	...abubomi...	P3	Spelling and word division.	...obu bomi...	

³⁶ Superscript number ² is used to indicate omission of a hyphen which indicates that a word has been divided at the end of a line.

	...lonto...	P3	Grammar and word division.	...loo nto...	
	...intoyothi...	P3, 4	Word division and grammar.	...into yokuthi...	This error has also been found in other paragraphs, e.g. "bengenandawozola la" instead of 'bengenandawo zokulala'.
	Ne ² nkokheli ...	P4	Writing inconsistency and grammar.	Nee-nkokheli...	
	...olungaluha mbelisindawo ...	P4	Vocabulary and word division.	...olungalusi ndawo...	
	...uku grhagrhamela na ukuba singabambisa na...	P6	Word division, spelling and syntax.	...ukugragra melana. Ukuba singabambisa na...	
Writing inconsistencies	...eku ² fanele ...	P4, 5 & 6	Failure to use a hyphen to show that a word has been divided at the end of a line.	...eku-fanele...	This error has also been found 4 times in other paragraphs, as indicated in the position column.

COMMENTS AND OBSERVATIONS

Regarding Table 13, the following observations are noted:

This learner makes errors in relation to grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, vocabulary, multiple deviations and writing inconsistencies, as found in both June and December data. Errors of a similar nature are found in the June and December data in the following categories: grammar, spelling, word division, vocabulary and multiple deviations. In both periods no errors of incomplete words, incorrect word construction and inter-categorical range were found. Errors of new lexical items were only found in the June essays. No stand-alone errors of capitalization and semantics were evident in the June data; the existing errors in these categories reflect under multiple deviations. There were no stand-alone errors of syntax made in the December essay; the existing errors in this category

reflect under multiple deviations. There were more local than global errors³⁷. These global errors are not a hindrance to message comprehension. However, some of these global errors affect the structure of the sentences in which they appear, whilst some disturb the intended meanings of sentences. These global errors are, to some extent, a sign of this learner's limited proficiency in the language used.

³⁷ Local errors are the errors that do not hamper communication and comprehension of the meaning of an utterance (Touchie 1986: 76). Conversely, global errors are the most severe errors compared to local errors as they interfere with communication by disrupting the meaning of utterances (ibid).

Table 14 Analysis of Learner Thirty's essays

PERIOD	CATEGORIES	ERROR	POSITION	EXPLANATION	CORRECTION	FREQUENCY
JUNE	Grammar	...kweswazi ...	MM	Insertion of a wrong adjective concord.	...koswazi...	
		...ubethwa...	MM	Omission of a syllable in a prefix.	...ukubethwa ...	
		...yenza abantwana...	P1	Omission of a conjunction.	...yenza ukuba abantwana...	
		...ngotitshala ...	P1, 2, 6 & 7	Omission of a second vowel that signals plural.	...ngootitshal a...	This error has also been found in other paragraphs, as indicated in the position column; and in other parts of speech, such as noun of association, "notitshala",
		...libe iswazi lilimaze...	P3	Use of incorrect agreements and prefix.	...lube uswazi lulimaze...	
		...ezinkulu...	P3	Unnecessary use of palatalization.	...ezikhulu...	
		...ezikolweni ...	P4 & 10	...Incorrect use of plural.	...esikolweni ...	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
		...yobethwa ...	P4 & 5	Omission of a syllable.	...yokubethw a...	This error has also been found in another word e.g. "ubethwa".
		...abasiyekileyo...	P4	Use of a wrong verb tense which changes the intended meaning.	...abasiyekayo...	
		...lwabantwana...	P4	Insertion of incorrect subject concord.	...Labantwana...	
		...woyikwa...	P5	Incorrect use of a passive verb instead of a neuter.	...woyika...	

	...woyikwa ubethwa aphoswe kukufunda...	P5	Omission of a conjunction.	... woyikwa ubethwa aze aphoswe kukufunda...	
	...kwaye yenza abantwana besikolo bafunde...	P7	Omission of a predicate.	...kwaye yenza ukuba abantwana besikolo bafunde...	
Spelling	...umntana...	P3	Omission of a semi- vowel.	...umntwana ...	This error has also been found in another sentence in the same paragraph.
	...makangu- gqe...	P4, 6 & 10	Addition of a consonant.	...makaguqe ...	This error has also been found in another paragraph and in other words as well, e.g. “angeze”, “kungcende”; instead of ‘ageze’, ‘kuncede’.
	...bengenagx ala...	P6	Substitution of a sound.	...bengenaxh ala...	
Word division	...bengena/ xhala...	P1 & 7	Unnecessary division.	...bengenaxh ala...	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
	...lento...	P2, 4 & 8	Failure to divide a demonstrative and a noun.	...le nto...	This error has been found twice in the same position and is also found in other paragraphs in the same word and in another word (as indicated in the position column), e.g. “oluswazi”.
Punctuation	...ezikolweni abanye...	P2	Failure to divide sentences with a full stop.	...ezikolweni. Abanye...	
	, utitshala...	P3	Use of a comma instead of a conjunction.	...kuba utitshala...	
	...isifundo le...	P4	Failure to divide sentences with a full stop.	...isifundo. Le	

Syntax	...babo ngenxa kungasabeth wa ezikolweni umntwana ayenze ...	P2	Incorrect sentence progression.	...babo. Oko kudalwa kukuba kungasabeth wa ezikolweni. Omnye umntwana uye ayenze...	
	...esikolweni ...	P3	Incorrect sentence progression.	...esikolweni ze...	
	...esikolweni aphele esemva...	P5	Incorrect sentence progression.	...esikolweni. Aphele ke esemva...	
	...ngolonwab o abafundi iphelile...	P6	Incorrect word selection.	...ngolonwa- bo kuba iphelile...	
Semantics	...lunengxaba niso...	P3	Incorrect diction.	...ludala ingxabano...	
	...ahlambe...	P4 & 10	Unclear contextual application and meaning.	...acoce...	This error has also been found in another paragraph, as indicated in the position column.
Vocabulary	...sePramarie	P4	Use of misspelt English word.	...bakumaban ga asezantsi...	
Inter- categorical range	...amaphu- pho...	P4	This error falls between vocabulary error where isiZulu word is used, and spelling where a vowel is substituted with an incorrect one.	...amaphu- pha...	
Multiple errors	...yalento uswazi...	P2	Word division and grammar.	...yokuba uswazi...	Yalento is used incorrectly; however, it should be written disjunctively as 'yale nto'.
	...umntana iphele bengxabana ...	P3	Grammar, syntax and spelling.	...umntwana. Loo nto ke iphele ixabanisa...	
	...walomntwa na bethukana...	P3	Word division and syntax.	...walo mntwana, baphele...	

DECEMBER		...uzasifunda ...	P4	Syntax and incorrect word construction.	...kuba uza kusifunda...	
		...iswazi isininzi sabo...	P4	Grammar and syntax.	...uswazi. Uninzi lwabo...	
	Grammar	...ebhatala...	P2	Insertion of a wrong relative concord.	...ibhatala...	
		...utshintsha ...	P2	Omission of a basic prefix.	...ukutshintsh a...	
		...wabe...	P3	Use of a wrong auxiliary verb.	...wade...	
		...nemali...	P3	Omission of a second vowel that indicates plural.	...neemali...	This error has also been found in another word, e.g. "zobawo" instead of 'zoobawo'.
		...abaziseben zeleyo...	P4	Use of a long verb from instead of a short form.	...abaziseben zele...	
		...ukwazi...	P5 & 6	Use of a deficient verb instead of a conjunction.	...ukuze...	This error has also been found in another sentence in the same position and in another paragraph.
		...kuwo...	P5	Use of a wrong locative adverb.	...kubo...	
		...uphila...	P6	Omission of a basic prefix.	...ukuphila...	
		...utshintshe ...	P6	Use of a wrong verb form.	...ukutshintsh a...	
		...imeko ubuphila kuyo...	P6	Use of singular forms instead of plural forms.	...iimeko besiphila kuzo...	
	Spelling	...sisitixo...	P1 & 6	Substitution of a sound.	...sisitshixo...	This error has also been found in another paragraph.
		...uzophelele ...	P2	Substitution of a vowel.	...uzophelela ...	
		...engcingci...	P2 & 3	Addition of consonants.	...encinci...	This error has also been found in other words such as "uliqhaba", "sisintyebi",

					“ungxibe”, instead of ‘uliqaba’, ‘sidityebi’, ‘unxibe’.
	...wonyabe...	P2	Substitution of a consonant.	...wonwabe...	
	...ebatwini...	P4 & 6	Omission of a consonant.	...ebantwini...	This error has also been found in another word such as, e.g. “Incebiso”, instead of ‘Ingebiso’.
Word division	...ubeyenye ...	P1	Failure to separate a predicate from an adjective.	...ube yenye...	
	...kulemisebe nzi...	P2	Failure to separate a locative demonstrative from a noun.	...kule misebenzi...	
	...ezi koneni...	P4	Unnecessary division.	...ezikoneni...	
Punctuation	...khona	P4	Failure to use a full stop at the end of a sentence.	...khona.	
	...abaphumel eleyo xa...	P5	...Failure to use a full-stop to separate two sentences.	...abaphumel eleyo. Xa...	
	...umntu zithembe...	P5	Failure to use a comma to show a pause in a sentence.	...umntu, zithembe...	
Syntax	...ukwazi nawe uzoba ngumntu...	P2	Incorrect sentence progression.	...ukuze nawe ube ngumntu...	
	...engaphefu mliyo kwaye engathethiyo ...	P2	Incorrect sentence progression.	...engaphefu mliyo nengathethiyo ...	
	...sobomi ndithi masifundeni ...	P6	Incorrect sentence progression.	...sobomi. Ngoko ke, ndithi masifundeni ...	
	...bazidle ngathi futhi bazingce ngathi.	P6	Redundancy.	...bazidle ngathi.	

Semantics	...kuba uleqa impumelelo uzothi ufikelele kuyo.	P2	Unclear meaning.	...kuba uzibona ukwazile ukuyifumana impumelelo ubuyinqwenela.	
	...uye ungaphangeli ungafumani misebenzi uhlale...	P3	Changed meaning.	...kukungaphangeli kuba ungafumani msebenzi, uze uhlale...	
Vocabulary	...ezibizayo kakhulu.	P3	Use of isiZulu word.	...zexabiso eliphezulu.	
	...kayiwani...	P6	Use of Xhosalised English word.	...kanye...	
Incorrect word construction	...uzabe...	P2	Combination of an auxiliary verb and part of a predicate.	...uza kube...	This error has also been found in another sentence.
Inter-categorical range	...amaphupho...	P1, 2	This falls between spelling (substitution of a vowel) error and vocabulary error (use of isiZulu word).	...amaphupha...	This error has also been found in another word, e.g. "iphupho".
	...ngeke...	P2	This falls between vocabulary error (use of isiZulu word) and new lexical items.	...awungekhe...	
	...kuthwani...	P2	This falls between spelling errors (omission of a vowel) and new lexical items.	...kuthiwani...	
	...sewugqekeza...	P3	This falls between vocabulary error (use of isiZulu word) and multiple errors (new lexical items and spelling)	...sele uqhekeza...	
Multiple errors³⁸	...obelungu...	P2	Spelling and capitalization.	...abeLungu...	

³⁸ Superscript number ² is used to indicate omission of a hyphen which indicates that a word has been divided at the end of a line.

	...ungavanob a...	P2	Word division and new lexical item.	...ungava nokuba...	
	...ungaza ² zeli nto.	P2	Semantics and inter-categorical range; word division (unnecessary division) and writing inconsistency (failure to use a hyphen to indicate that the word has been divided at the end of a line).	...ungazi nto.	
	...nempandla ...	P3	Grammar and spelling.	...neempahla ...	
	...lonto...	P5	Grammar and word division.	...loo nto...	This error has also been found in another sentence in the same paragraph.

COMMENTS AND OBSERVATIONS

The following observations pertain to Table 14:

This learner makes errors in relation to grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, syntax, semantics, vocabulary, inter-categorical range and multiple deviations, as evident in both June and December data. Errors of a similar nature are found in June and December data in the following categories: grammar, spelling, word division, vocabulary and inter-categorical range. In both periods, there were no errors of incomplete words. There were no errors of capitalization, new lexical items, and writing inconsistencies in the June data. In the June data, the only category in which there were no errors was in the category of vocabulary. In December, there were no errors in several categories: semantics, capitalization, inter-categorical range and writing inconsistencies. There were no stand-alone incorrect word constructions in June data; the existing errors in this category reflect under multiple deviations. There were no stand-alone errors of capitalization, new lexical items errors, incorrect words construction and writing inconsistencies in the December data;

the existing errors in these categories reflect under multiple deviations. There were more local than global errors³⁹. Some global errors are, to some extent, a hindrance to message comprehension, in that the message becomes unclear and sometimes completely altered. Some of these global errors also affect the structure of the sentences in which they occur. The negative impact of global errors raises some doubts about the communicative competence of this learner.

4.3.4 Analysis of the transcripts of the teachers' interviews

4.3.4.1 Presentation of School A teachers' interviews

Table 15 Presentation of Teacher A1's responses

Teacher	Challenges faced as isiXhosa teacher	Errors usually found in learners' written work	Suspected causes of such errors	Ways used to address such errors	The extent to which such errors can be addressed prior to Grade 12
A1	• Negative attitude learners have towards the language (undermining the language). • Learners are challenged when it comes to reading and understanding the language. • Learners' use of unknown language, e.g. "uveske". • Learners' possession of limited knowledge of the language (vocabulary and type of language in	• Syntactical errors (inability to construct meaningful sentences). • Spelling errors. • Divergence from the discussion topic.	• Interference of social media. • Limited use of isiXhosa language (as it is only used during the isiXhosa period and the only subject taught in isiXhosa; lack of use of the standard isiXhosa and no effort to build language knowledge beyond school borders).	• Identifying incorrect language whilst marking the learner scripts. • Return scripts to learners and give feedback on what has been done incorrectly. • Reading in class for learners and allow learners time to read isiXhosa texts, as well as encouraging learners to read a lot.	• There is some improvement in the learners' language use but not among all of them. • On a scale of 100%, there is a roughly 60% chance for learners' errors to be corrected prior to them moving on to Grade 12; and only 40% of errors may still be made by these learners when they are in Grade 12.

³⁹ Local errors are the errors that do not hamper communication and comprehension of the meaning of an utterance (Touchie 1986: 76). Conversely, global errors are the most severe errors compared to local errors as they interfere with communication by disrupting the meaning of utterances (ibid).

	terms of formality and informality).		• Less reading of the material written in isiXhosa.	• Giving learners informal spelling activities.	
Recommendations	• IsiXhosa should be treated equally with other languages by involving technology in its teaching and learning. • Reading competitions should be introduced in schools to encourage learners to be passionate about the language and value it. • Other subjects should be integrated in teaching and learning of isiXhosa.				

Table 16 Presentation of Teacher A2's responses

Teacher	Challenges faced as isiXhosa teacher	Errors usually found in learners' written work	Suspected causes of such errors	Ways used to address such errors	The extent to which such errors can be addressed prior to Grade 12
A2	• Learners do not take isiXhosa as a priority subject, reasoning that they do not know its value and careers relevant to it. • Learners question the structure and relevance of the isiXhosa curriculum to their current lives. • Learners do not proofread their work; and because of that, their work is often characterized by poor spelling. • Learners do not make use of feedback.	• Spelling • Word division (lack of the knowledge of the rules of conjunctive and disjunctive writing).	• Poor/a lack of language base, for example: some learners start learning isiXhosa at high school level, coming from English medium schools; and some are from other countries; they learn isiXhosa for the first time and as a completely new language. • Too little reading of isiXhosa books.	• The teacher: • Gives written and oral corrective feedback. • Always reminds learners about the orthographic rules of the language, especially with regard to conjunctive and disjunctive writing.	• There is acceptable language improvement. • The errors made by learners are, to a certain extent, correctable. On a scale of 100%, 80% of these errors eventually get corrected.
Recommendations	• There should be integration of technology, such as tablets and phones, in teaching and learning of isiXhosa. • Prescribed books should be loaded on these devices to arouse interest and passion of the language among learners. • Reading should be made a basic part of the curriculum. For example, it should be made a compulsory introductory part of the lesson on a daily basis. This will help to familiarize learners with the writing rules and conventions of the language. • Learner ratio should be reviewed to reduce class numbers so that the teacher can give individual attention to all learners.				

4.3.4.2 Presentation of School B teachers' interviews

Table 17 Presentation of Teacher B1's responses

Teacher	Challenges faced as isiXhosa teacher	Errors usually found in learners' written work	Suspected causes of such errors	Ways used to address such errors	The extent to which such errors can be addressed prior to Grade 12
B1	• A tendency for learners to use an oral register when they write (lack of knowledge about difference of language in speaking and writing). • Use of improper language when speaking.	• Word division (incorrect combining and division). • Capitalization (incorrect use of lower and upper case). • Language use. • Punctuation (failure to use punctuation marks properly). • Vocabulary (lack of vocabulary). • Semantics (problem with assigning and using meaning properly in different contexts).	• Influence of social media (adopting the improper language used on social networks). • Poor language base. • Learners take the language for granted to the extent of not developing their language in terms of reading and writing in isiXhosa. • Negative attitude towards the language (undermining the language). • Laziness and withdrawal from participating in language-related activities. • Learners associate knowledge and fluency in isiXhosa with low status and backwardness.	• Advises learners to use standard language such as full words when communicating in isiXhosa in their everyday communication . • Advises learners always to use isiXhosa when communicating on social networks and, if possible, avoid code mixing and speak English only when necessary. • Uses intervention strategy of giving much attention to word division, use of demonstrative, emphasizing essay writing; working with meaning of idioms in different contexts; use of punctuation marks and editing when teaching grammar.	• With regard to essay writing, there is little improvement in how learners use language. They know their points for discussion, but how these points are expressed using the language is very poor. The writing errors are found to a higher extent in written activities in every term of the year, even those that are not expected from them as Grade 11 learners. • There are minimal chances that these errors may be addressed before these learners progress to Grade 12. Only 70% of these learners are able to write coherently using acceptable language rules; and there will always be those who pass

					because of how the rubric is designed; but largely, in reality, writing errors are always found.
Recommendations	• The reading class activities that used to form part of the old curricula should be brought back into the curriculum so that all learners can get an opportunity to acquire and practise these skills since such skill is also assessed through writing. • The reading skill component should be taught thoroughly to enhance the writing skill component because these skills go together.				

Table 18 Presentation of Teacher B2's responses

Teacher	Challenges faced as isiXhosa teacher	Errors usually found in learners' written work	Suspected causes of such errors	Ways used to address such errors	The extent to which such errors can be addressed prior to Grade 12
B2	• Large learner numbers. • Learners' lack of understanding of the aims and objectives of activities given to them. • Improper use of language with regard to spelling.	• Spelling • Pronunciation • Incorrect word division • Non-standard language use	• Too much use of technology instead of spending time on their books and reading literature (books). • Absence of reading periods which assist in familiarizing learners with the orthography of the isiXhosa language. • Lack of interest in doing activities that will assist in developing their language use; and those include orals. • Lack of individual attention in class due to high numbers of learners.	• Gives feedback. • Gives group work. • Provides activities: reading aloud to improve pronunciation. • Identifies and focuses on language components that are problematic to learners. • Uses corrective and evaluative feedback after assessment. • Explains the assessment tools used to mark learners' activities to learners. • Revises assessment activities with	• Improvement manifests, especially when the drilling method is used. • The prior mentioned errors are addressed to a larger extent, at the percentage scale of 100%.

			How the curriculum is designed also contributes to writing errors because there are time limits on when and how much a particular subject should be taught, forcing teachers to leave some gaps which lead to incomplete acquisition.	learners to clear any misunderstanding.	
Recommendations	IsiXhosa content should be minimised; and some elements of OBE, such as more informal activities, prior to formal assessment and teaching of syntax, should be integrated back into the curriculum. In this way, teachers will not teach for assessment but for knowledge construction.				

4.3.4.3 Presentation of School C teacher's interview

Table 19 Presentation of Teacher C1's responses

Teacher	Challenges faced as isiXhosa teacher	Errors usually found in learners' written work	Suspected causes of such errors	Ways used to address such errors	The extent to which such errors can be addressed prior to Grade 12
C1	- Learners' inability to write properly in isiXhosa. - Learners lose interest when they are taught a lesson with the same content they have been taught before. - Learners undermine isiXhosa and value other languages.	- Vocabulary (learners mix isiXhosa with English due to lack of the knowledge of equivalent isiXhosa words). - Inappropriate use of capital letters. - Inability to write logically and coherently. - Spelling.	- Learners do not apply their minds before and when writing. - Laziness and negative attitude towards writing. - Learners do not study and prepare for Paper 3 exam because they underestimate this paper.	- The teacher gives written feedback. - The teacher also gives general oral corrective feedback based on the common errors found on all learners' written texts of a particular assessment.	Mid-year assessment activities show acceptable level of language development regarding the errors learners make. However, there is still a substantial number of learners whose work reflects high levels of

	- Teachers of other subjects also undermine isiXhosa and that contributes to the negative attitude learners have towards isiXhosa. - Learners are lazy to follow the necessary steps for the skill of writing when writing, e.g. they do not write the first draft. - Learners do not read instructions provided for a particular assessment. - Learners lack creativity and understanding of the language and different contexts it is used for.		None use teachers' written feedback on previously written work.		error persistence resulting from habits of incorrect language use. Roughly, 70% of these errors ultimately get corrected.
Recommendations	Teachers should be creative, such as by creating relevant teaching tools such as videos and pictures, and use those in their lessons to make the subject, isiXhosa, interesting to learners.				

4.3.5 Analysis of the transcripts of the subject advisers' interviews

4.3.5.1 Presentation of subject advisers' interviews

Table 20 Presentation of subject adviser 1's (MEED) responses

Challenges facing schools regarding the teaching of isiXhosa	Errors usually found on learners' written work	Suspected causes of such errors	The extent to which such errors can be addressed	Most common errors across districts
- Teachers are struggling to mark using the rubric. - Learners do not follow all the steps necessary	- Spelling - Punctuation (Incorrect use	- Shallow teaching. - There is limited time allocated	Language errors can be addressed to a larger extent. Roughly, on a	Improper planning prior to text writing.

for the writing skill when writing isiXhosa texts.	of punctuation marks)	for teaching the skill of language use and rules.	scale from 0% to 100%, 80% of these errors are correctable at provincial level.	• Improper paragraph construction. • Spelling • Word division • Syntax (redundancy)
• Teachers expect learners to be at the same level of thinking as theirs.	• Language use	• Exam/assessment stress		

Advice given to teachers regarding the teaching of isiXhosa and error treatment	Recommendations
• Their everyday teaching of students should focus on spelling of challenging sounds. • To keep a resource file with different written and visual texts. • Their teaching of the skill of language rules and grammar should be text-based.	• Learners should be taught about the importance of their language (isiXhosa) so that they can respect and value it. • Learners should also be made aware of, and taught about, existing careers involving the isiXhosa language. • Academics in the language disciplines should motivate and conscientize learners in schools about the benefits and importance of the language. • Language teachers should organise campaigns and events to promote isiXhosa language so that it gains the same respect and level of development which other languages have managed to acquire.

Comment

- It is rare to find punctuation errors in learners' written texts.

Table 21 Presentation of Subject Advisor 2's (MSED) responses

Challenges facing schools regarding the teaching of isiXhosa	Errors usually found on learners' written work	Suspected causes of such errors	The extent to which such errors can be addressed	Most common errors across districts
• Learner use of other languages such as (isiZulu) when writing in isiXhosa. • Some learners struggle to spell correctly. • Schools allocate isiXhosa as a teaching subject to teachers who are not trained to teach the language. • Schools allocate GET grades to inexperienced teachers, forgetting that language base is critical in the GET grades. • The Metropole South Education District does not have the curriculum for isiXhosa for Grades 5-7. • Teachers largely do not use the rubric as an assessment tool. Those who use it do not use it appropriately; they look	• Capitalization (incorrect use of capital letters). • Spelling • Incorrect word division at the end of the sentence. • Word division (conjunctive writing of pronouns and nouns). • Sentence and paragraph writing.	• Overuse of media which affects language use. • Incorrect language inherited from the media such as radio stations, e. g. 'Umhlobo Wenene'. • Language contact with other languages in the communities (influence of other languages spoken in the communities)	• The errors made by learners can be addressed to a higher extent if schools deal with the identified challenges, which include allocating isiXhosa as a teaching subject to teachers who are qualified; and assign in the GET phase teachers who are experienced in teaching language.	• Grammar

only at one language component.		where learners live).		
• Learners do not have knowledge of the rubric as an assessment tool used to mark their assessment tasks and that impacts on how they approach their assessment activity, as they do not know the learning goals and expected learning outcomes. • Some teachers expect learners to express ideas and opinions similar to theirs; they seem to forget that learners have their own views of the world and are still learning.				

Advice given to teachers regarding the teaching of isiXhosa and error treatment

Recommendations

- | | |
|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Always advises teachers to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Practise reading, using isiXhosa books and newspapers such as <i>Isol ezwe</i> and to use such texts in class for teaching skills in reading and language. ○ Teach more reading. ○ Use other isiXhosa books in addition to the prescribed ones. ○ Encourage learners to make reading a hobby and read isiXhosa written material beyond the school hours. ○ Have classroom reading corners with isiXhosa books for learners to read other books other than the set work books. ○ Go an extra mile to provide resources to learners, e.g. buy newspapers ○ Start book clubs. This will motivate learners to read more books so that they can get knowledge and be familiar with isiXhosa orthography with specific reference to spelling. ○ Request that more isiXhosa books be made available in libraries. • Advises teachers and their schools to build relationships with publishers so that publishers can donate old and unused books to schools. • Advises that teachers be allocated classes in both the General Education Training (GET) and Further Education Training (FET) phase so that they can close the learning gaps between the two phases. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Administrative work for teachers should be reduced because it interferes with the time that should be used for teaching all the language skills, and teachers end up teaching to assess. • Assessment tasks should also be reduced to provide more time for teaching. |
|---|--|

Comment

- Teachers do not teach the assessment rubric with learners simply because they themselves do not understand it.
- Teachers are faced with a challenge of high learner numbers in class, which also affects teacher creativity in terms of providing learners with reading material.

4.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter has mainly focused on the analysis of errors in written texts of Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners, as outlined in the title and in the analysis of the interview transcripts. With regard to written texts, errors were analysed in response to all three research questions. The language components, examined for errors pertaining to the first question, included the following: grammar, spelling, punctuation, word division, syntax, semantics, vocabulary and capitalisation. In addition to these are five different newly-found types of deviations which fall beyond the usual scope, as far as language components are concerned. Since they were unconventional types of errors, the following terms were used to refer to them: 'new lexical items', 'incomplete words', 'incorrect word construction', 'multiple errors' and 'writing inconsistencies'. Interview responses of teachers and subject advisers were also partially analysed in response to all three questions of this study pertaining to the types of errors found in learner texts, their possible causes, their impact, as well as the extent to which these can be addressed in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa. The data analysis was accompanied by a summary of the analytical framework and a model serving as a guide for the chapter.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the themes and insights which emerged during the course of this research. This includes presentation of the summary of findings from the observations and the answers revealed during the data analysis and throughout the entire course of this study. Firstly, it provides a discussion of the analysis based on the three research study questions. Secondly, it provides findings pertaining to the three questions of the study. Finally, it provides conclusions for the chapter.

5.2 DISCUSSION

This study has entailed analysis of the errors made by a selected group of Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners in the Western Cape. At the beginning of this study, three research questions were posed, and this section discusses what has been discovered in relation to these questions. A summary of these questions is as follows:

- What are the orthographic errors occurring in the writing of isiXhosa?
- What are the possible causes and impact of these errors on teaching and learning, language development and language conservation?
- What are the implications of these errors and to what extent can they be addressed in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa?

After the data was collected, the researcher followed Corder's (1981) approach to error analysis (EA) which has been used in many previous studies, including those of Hasbún (2007) and Ahour and Mukundan (2012). An outline of Corder's approach is presented in Table 22 to clarify how error analysis was performed in this study.

Table 22 Steps to analyse errors

Corder's steps	Researcher's steps
Collection of data	Collected 60 written text samples from schools
Identification of errors	Verb tense, relative clause, singular/plural, subject/verb/object/adverbial concords omission, use of pronouns, articles, use of prepositions, conjunctivism and disjunctivism, use of small and capital letters, use of punctuation marks, spelling, word ordering, application of vocabulary, lexicalization & anomalies.
Classification of errors	Grammar, spelling, punctuation, vocabulary, syntax, semantics, word division, capitalization, new lexical items, incomplete words, incorrect word construction, inter-categorical range, multiple errors and writing inconsistencies.
Quantify errors	Determining the frequency of each error type.
Analyse source	Examination, explanation and correction of each error, as well as determining the possible common causes of errors and the extent to which they can be addressed, which is determined through examining the nature of errors and the information from the interviews regarding these errors.

5.2.1 Types of errors identified from the data

This section addresses the first question of this research which intends to discover the types of orthographic errors occurring in the writings of isiXhosa L1 learners. The literature consulted makes it clear that language errors are commonly made in different language aspects and extend to all language components, namely: phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactic structure. Thus, it is acknowledged that errors are not of the same nature. The literature further classifies errors into two categories: local and global. As explained in the literature, local errors include noun and verb inflections, the use of articles, prepositions and auxiliaries, etc. They are known not to be a barrier to communication and comprehension of the meaning of a message. Conversely, global errors include incorrect word order in a sentence. They are considered the most severe category of errors because of their interference with communication and their disruptive nature to the meaning of a message. During the interviews, various types of language errors were mentioned, most of

which fit into the classification specified in the literature, as they seemed to range from local to global categories. During the interviews, the isiXhosa teachers mentioned various types of errors which are frequently made by learners when writing in this language; and these are summarised in Table 23.

Table 23 Types of errors cited by isiXhosa teachers as frequently found in learners' texts

Type of error	Teacher interviewee				
	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1
Grammar	–	–	–	–	–
Capitalization	–	–	√	–	√
Punctuation	–	–	√	–	–
Spelling	√	√	–	√	√
Word division	–	√	√	√	–
Vocabulary	–	–	√	–	√
Syntax	√	–	–	–	–
Semantics	–	–	√	–	–
Anomalies/others	–		Language use	Non-standard language use	Lack of logic and coherence

Table 23 shows that, during the interviews, there were no grammatical errors reported as being found frequently in learners' written texts. Errors of capitalization and vocabulary were only mentioned twice, whilst errors of punctuation, syntax and semantics were only mentioned once. Spelling was mentioned four times, whilst word division was mentioned three times. There were also anomalies which include language use, non-standard language use and lack of logic and coherence.

Of the causes mentioned in the literature review, only a few were mentioned by the subject advisers as being among those frequently found in learners' texts within their districts. These are summarized in Table 24.

Table 24 Types of errors cited by isiXhosa subject advisers as frequently found in learners' texts

Error type	Subject Adviser interviewee	
	Metropole East Education District (MEED)	Metropole South Education District (MSED)
Grammar	—	—
Spelling	√	√
Word division	—	√
Punctuation	√	—
Capitalization	—	√
Vocabulary	—	—
Syntax	—	√
Semantics	—	—
Others	Language use	—

Table 24 shows that the errors mentioned by the MEED Subject Adviser are those that are frequently found in the learners' texts: errors of spelling, punctuation and language use. On the other hand, the MSED Subject Adviser mentioned errors of syntax, capitalization, word division and spelling, whilst mentioning no other types of errors. To ensure that the question on the types of errors found on learners' written texts was answered fully, the analysis was specific in terms of identifying the types of orthographic errors found in the sampled learners' written essays. Thus, during the data analysis, a wide range of identified errors predominantly correspond with the categories suggested in the literature and in the interviews. In addition to these are the types of errors which are considered as anomalies. In determining the types of errors made by these learners, the researcher identified, analysed, classified, counted and then compared error types, as presented in the tables that follow. The value '0' indicates no errors. The shaded value '0' indicates no stand-alone errors (the existing ones in each category are presented under the 'multiple deviations' category. The multiple errors category consists of words or phrases which have more than one

deviation). The other numbers indicate the actual number of the errors found per category, per text. What follows is the summary of all the errors found in the texts analysed in this study.

SCHOOL A

Table 25 Errors made by Learner Four

Error type	Frequency	
	June	December
Grammar	4	28
Spelling	1	2
Word division	6	4
Punctuation	4	6
Syntax	1	9
Semantics	0	1
Vocabulary	1	0
Capitalization	10	3
New lexical items	3	2
Incomplete words	0	0
Incorrect word construction	0	0
Inter-categorical range	0	3
Multiple deviations	10	12
Writing inconsistencies	0	0
Total number of errors	40	70

Table 25 shows that the types of errors made by L4 in June were different from those made by him/her in December. There is some similarity in some of the types of errors across the two months, even though they are not of the same frequency. For example, grammar,

spelling, word division, punctuation, syntax, capitalization, new lexical items and multiple deviations were errors made in both June and December. The existing semantic errors in June are presented under 'Multiple deviations'. There were no errors entailing incomplete words and writing inconsistencies. The existing incorrect word construction errors in December are presented under 'Multiple deviations'. Very few vocabulary errors were made in June. Conversely, errors of semantics and inter-categorical range were only made in December, with semantic errors having the same frequency level as the vocabulary errors. In addition, this learner made more local than global errors in that there are generally few errors that affect word order in the sentences; and such errors did not affect the intended meaning of the sentences in which they occurred. Even though one type of error made in June was not made at all in December, and some which had high frequency in June had lower frequency in December, the frequency of errors in December remained higher, compared to that of the errors made in June. Thus, this may be considered to reflect an overall lack of improvement in the language use of this learner. In addition, the nature of some errors made in some language elements in December were the same as those made in June. Those language elements include the following: spelling, word division, capitalization and multiple deviations. This therefore, casts some doubts about the language development of this learner, as far as the isiXhosa orthographic rules are concerned, as well as some level of uncertainty around the communicative competence of this learner.

Table 26 Errors made by Learner Six

Error type	Frequency	
	June	December
Grammar	9	10
Spelling	6	11
Word division	15	22
Punctuation	9	7
Syntax	1	3
Semantics	3	0
Vocabulary	0	1

Capitalization	1	0
New lexical items	1	0
Incomplete words	0	0
Incorrect word construction	0	0
Inter-categorical range	1	0
Multiple deviations	9	16
Writing inconsistencies	2	0
Total number of errors	57	70

Table 26 shows that the types of errors made by L6 in June were different from those made by him/her in December. There is some similarity in some of the types of errors made in those months, even though they are not of the same frequency. For example, grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, syntax and multiple deviations were made in both June and December. Errors of incomplete words and incorrect word construction were not made at all. Vocabulary errors were only made in December, whilst errors of capitalization, inter-categorical range and writing inconsistencies were only made in June and then at a very low frequency. The stand-alone errors of new lexical items were also made at low frequency in June; more of the existing errors in this category are presented under 'Multiple deviations'. In addition, this learner made more local than global errors in that there are generally few errors that affect word order in the sentences and such errors did not affect the intended meaning of the sentences in which they occurred. Even though some types of errors made in June were not made at all in December, the frequency of errors in December remains higher compared to that of the errors in June. Thus, this may be considered to reflect an overall lack of improvement in the language use of this learner. Additionally, the nature of some errors made in some language elements in December (namely grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation and multiple errors) is still the same as those made in June. These errors cast some doubt on the language development of this learner, as far as the isiXhosa orthographic rules are concerned, as well as some level of uncertainty around the communicative competence of this learner.

Table 27 Errors made by Learner Nine

Error type	Frequency	
	June	December
Grammar	3	6
Spelling	2	1
Word division	7	1
Punctuation	2	4
Syntax	2	2
Semantics	0	4
Vocabulary	1	0
Capitalization	4	1
New lexical items	0	0
Incomplete words	0	0
Incorrect word construction	0	0
Inter-categorical range	0	0
Multiple deviations	1	3
Writing inconsistencies	1	3
Total number of errors	23	25

Table 27 shows that the types of errors made by L9 in June were different from those made by him/her in December. There is some similarity between the types of errors in those months, even though the frequency is not equal. For example, errors of grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, syntax, capitalization multiple deviations and writing inconsistencies were made in both June and December. On the other hand, errors of new lexical items, incorrect word construction and inter-categorical range were not made at all. The stand-alone errors of incomplete words were also made at low frequency in June, and more of the existing errors in this category are presented under 'Multiple deviations'. Errors

of semantics were only made in December, whilst vocabulary errors were only made in June. The frequency of errors of grammar, punctuation, multiple deviations and writing inconsistencies was high in December compared to June. Moreover, the frequency of errors of spelling, word division and capitalization was low in December compared to June. The frequency of syntactical errors was at the same level in June and December, whilst errors of grammar had the highest frequency in December compared to all the errors made in other language elements. Furthermore, errors of word division had the highest frequency in June compared to all the errors made in other language elements. Conversely, there was a significant improvement in this learner's use of word division: the frequency of such errors in this language element was much lower in December. Additionally, this learner made more local than global errors in that there are generally few errors that affect word order in the sentences and such errors did not affect the intended meaning, but are a slight disturbance in the sentences in which they occurred. There is not much difference in the frequency of errors made in these two different periods. Nevertheless, there is an error type which was not made in June but only in December; and some errors of a low frequency showed a slightly higher frequency in December. Moreover, one type of error made in June was not made at all in December; and some which showed a high frequency in June had a lower frequency in December; yet the frequency of errors made in December remains slightly higher compared to that of the errors made in June. The inconsistent use of language and the slight difference in the frequency of errors made in June and December may be considered to reflect an overall relative lack of improvement in the language use of this learner, as far as the isiXhosa orthographic rules are concerned. In addition, there is the similarity of some kinds of errors in some language elements through to December, namely grammar, spelling, word division, capitalization and writing inconsistencies. Thus, there might be reasonable doubt about the communicative competence of this learner.

SCHOOL B

Table 28 Errors made by Learner Thirteen

Error type	Frequency	
	June	December
Grammar	18	23
Spelling	6	5
Word division	6	7
Punctuation	10	3
Syntax	6	3
Semantics	5	0
Vocabulary	1	2
Capitalization	0	1
New lexical items	1	1
Incomplete words	1	0
Incorrect word construction	0	0
Inter-categorical range	0	1
Multiple deviations	23	33
Writing inconsistencies	1	0
Total number of errors	78	79

Table 28 shows that L13 made different types of errors in June and in December. There is some similarity between the types of errors made in those two months, even though they were not made at an equal frequency. For example, errors of grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, syntax, vocabulary, new lexical items and multiple deviations were made in both June and December. No errors of word construction were made in June; the existing errors of semantics, incorrect word construction and writing inconsistencies in December are presented under 'Multiple deviations'. The stand-alone errors of semantics

and writing inconsistencies were only made in June, whilst errors of inter-categorical range were only made in December. Moreover, new lexical items and multiple deviations were made at an equal frequency in both June and December, whilst multiple deviations and grammar errors had the highest frequency compared to errors of all other categories, with grammar errors showing an increase in December. This learner's language use showed a major improvement in punctuation and semantics: the frequency of errors made in these two language elements dropped in December. However, there was evidence of inconsistent use of language and a slight difference in the frequency of errors made in June and December, as the overall number of errors made in December is slightly high. This learner also made more local than global errors in that there are generally few errors that affect word order, whilst others are a barrier to message comprehension because the meaning becomes unclear and sometimes gets lost. The nature of some errors made in some language elements in December, namely grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, syntax, and multiple deviations, was still the same as those in June. When considered together, the errors raise some doubts about the language development of this learner as far as the isiXhosa orthographic rules are concerned. Thus, the communicative competence of this learner might be questionable.

Table 29 Errors made by Learner Fifteen

Error type	Frequency	
	June	December
Grammar	10	8
Spelling	6	6
Word division	42	20
Punctuation	8	5
Syntax	0	3
Semantics	5	4
Vocabulary	3	0
Capitalization	3	4
New lexical items	0	2

Incomplete words	1	3
Incorrect word construction	0	0
Inter-categorical range	0	0
Multiple deviations	11	14
Writing inconsistencies	7	5
Total number of errors	96	74

Table 29 shows that L15 made different types of errors in June and in December. There is some similarity between the types of errors in June and December, with a slight improvement in the vocabulary category, as no errors were made by this learner in this category. Errors of grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, semantics, capitalization, incomplete words, multiple deviations and writing inconsistencies were made in both June and December, even though the frequency is not equal. On the other end, stand-alone errors of syntax and new lexical items were only made in December, whilst more errors of syntax made in June are presented under 'Multiple deviations. Errors of incorrect word construction and inter-categorical range were not made at all. Errors of spelling were made at an equal frequency in both June and December, whilst errors of grammar, punctuation, semantics and writing inconsistencies were made at a slightly low frequency in December compared to June. Errors of word division were made at the highest frequency compared to all other categories. However, the language use of this learner in this category shows some difference in December, as the frequency at which this error type is made had dropped noticeably. Errors of capitalization and incomplete words show some increase in the frequency at which they were made in December as compared to June, followed by multiple deviations. The language use of this learner reflects some inconsistency in that the frequency of some errors made in June had increased in December. Moreover, the language use of this learner also shows constant deviation from the rules of some language elements, as the nature of errors made in June remains the same in December. In addition, the total number of errors made in June decreased in December. Also, this learner made more local than global errors. As few as they are, some of these global errors had a markedly negative effect on the intended meaning of the words used, so much so that they hindered message

comprehension; by contrast, some only affected the word order in the sentences in which they occurred. Considering the lower frequency of errors made in December, it may be argued that there is some difference in the language use of this learner between these two periods. However, between June and December, there is similarity in the nature of some errors made in some language elements, namely grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, capitalization, incomplete words and writing inconsistencies. It may therefore be concluded that there is a lack of improvement in the language use of this learner as far as the isiXhosa orthographic rules are concerned. Thus, the communicative competence of this learner might be questionable.

Table 30 Errors made by Learner Nineteen

Error type	Frequency	
	June	December
Grammar	8	39
Spelling	6	8
Word division	7	9
Punctuation	12	10
Syntax	2	0
Semantics	1	6
Vocabulary	2	2
Capitalization	4	2
New lexical items	1	1
Incomplete words	2	1
Incorrect word construction	0	0
Inter-categorical range	2	0
Multiple deviations	13	2
Writing inconsistencies	2	2
Total number of errors	62	82

Table 30 shows that L19 made different types of errors, both in June and in December. There is some similarity between the types of errors made in those months. For example, errors of grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, semantics, vocabulary, capitalization, new lexical items, incomplete words, multiple deviations and writing inconsistencies were made in both June and December. However, errors of grammar, spelling, word division and semantics were made at a high frequency in December compared to June. Conversely, errors of punctuation, incomplete words and multiple deviations were made at a low frequency in December compared to June. Moreover, stand-alone errors of syntax, and inter-categorical range were only made in June, whilst the existing syntactical errors in December are presented under 'Multiple deviations', with no errors of inter-categorical range made at all in December. Errors of incorrect word construction were not made at all. Errors of grammar had the highest frequency compared to all other categories, followed by multiple deviations and punctuation errors which showed the highest frequency in June. In addition, errors of vocabulary, new lexical items and writing inconsistencies occurred at an equal frequency in both June and December. The frequency of incomplete words and capitalization showed a slight decrease in December. The language use of this learner shows some inconsistency, and the total number of errors made in June increased remarkably in December. In addition, this learner has made more local than global errors in that there are generally few errors that affect word order. However, as few as these global errors are, they still have a negative effect on comprehension of the intended meaning in that some alter the intended meaning in the sentences where they occur. Even though one type of error made in June was not made at all in December; and some which had a high frequency in June had a lower frequency in December, the frequency of errors made in December remains higher than that of the errors made in June. Additionally, the nature of some errors made in some language elements in December, namely grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, semantics, capitalization, incomplete words and writing inconsistencies, is still the same as those made in June. When all these are considered together, they cast some doubts about the language development of this learner as far as the isiXhosa orthographic rules are concerned. Thus, the communicative competence of this learner is also questionable.

SCHOOL C

Table 31 Errors made by Learner Twenty-five

Error type	Frequency	
	June	December
Grammar	5	3
Spelling	1	2
Word division	6	5
Punctuation	1	1
Syntax	1	5
Semantics	2	1
Vocabulary	1	1
Capitalization	0	2
New lexical items	3	1
Incomplete words	2	0
Incorrect word construction	0	0
Inter-categorical range	2	0
Multiple deviations	14	5
Writing inconsistencies	8	12
Total number of errors	46	38

Table 31 shows that L25 made different types of errors in June and in December. There is some similarity between the types of errors made in June and those in December, with a noticeable improvement in the multiple deviations category. Errors of grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, syntax, semantics, vocabulary, new lexical items, multiple deviations and writing inconsistencies were made in both June and December, even though the frequency at which these errors was made is not equal. The frequency of errors of grammar, word division, new lexical items, semantics and multiple deviations was low in

December compared to June, whilst the frequency of errors of spelling, syntax and writing inconsistencies rose in December. There was no difference in the frequency of the errors of punctuation and vocabulary, whilst there were no errors of incorrect word construction at all in both periods. Errors of capitalization were only made in December, whilst errors of incomplete words and inter-categorical range were only made in June. Multiple deviations in June were of the highest frequency compared to all other categories, followed by writing inconsistencies which had the highest frequency in December. In addition, this learner has made more local than global errors. Some of these global errors affect word order in the sentences. However, as few as these global errors are, some still negatively affect comprehension of the intended message; and some confuse the meaning in the sentences where they occur. The language use of this learner reflects some inconsistency in that the frequency of some errors made in June had risen in December. However, a noticeable number of categories had a low frequency of errors in December compared to June. Thus, the total number of errors made in December is low compared to June. The decrease in the errors made in December compared to June reveals a clear difference in the language use of this learner. Nonetheless, the nature of some errors made in December in the following language elements (grammar, word division, syntax, semantics and writing inconsistencies) remains the same as those made in June. Together, this therefore casts some doubts on the language development of this learner as far as the isiXhosa orthographic rules are concerned.

Table 32 Errors made by Learner Twenty-six

Error type	Frequency	
	June	December
Grammar	14	9
Spelling	3	3
Word division	10	9
Punctuation	7	3
Syntax	3	0
Semantics	0	1

Vocabulary	1	2
Capitalization	0	3
New lexical items	1	0
Incomplete words	0	0
Incorrect word construction	0	0
Inter-categorical range	0	0
Multiple deviations	18	10
Writing inconsistencies	3	5
Total number of errors	60	45

Table 32 shows that L26 made different types of errors in June and in December. There is some similarity between the types of errors made in those two months. For example, errors of grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, vocabulary, multiple deviations and writing inconsistencies were made in both June and December, even though the frequency at which they were made is not equal. The frequency of errors of vocabulary and writing inconsistencies was low in June compared to December, whilst the frequency of errors of grammar, word division, punctuation and multiple deviations was low in December compared to June. There was no difference in the frequency at which errors of spelling were made in June and December, whilst there were no errors at all in categories of incomplete words, incorrect words construction and inter-categorical range in both periods. There were no stand-alone errors of semantics and capitalization in June. The existing errors in these categories reflect under ‘Multiple deviations, and the same applies to syntactical errors in December, where the existing errors only reflect under ‘Multiple deviations’. Conversely, errors of new lexical items were only made in June. Multiple deviations category had the highest frequency of errors in June and in overall compared to all other categories, followed by grammar category which had second highest frequency of errors in June and in overall. In addition, this learner has made more local than global errors. Some of these global errors affect word order, whilst some are a disturbance to the intended meanings within the sentences where they are made. The language use of this learner reflects some inconsistency in that the frequency of some of the errors made in June had risen in December. However, a noticeable number of categories had a low frequency of errors made in

December compared to June. Thus, the total number of errors made in June dropped in December. The decrease in the frequency of errors made in December, as compared to June, indicates a clear difference in the language use of this learner across these two periods. However, the nature of some errors made in some language elements in December, namely grammar, spelling, word division, vocabulary and multiple deviations, is still the same as those made in June, and that raises some doubts about the language development of this learner as far as the isiXhosa orthographic rules are concerned. Therefore, the communicative competence of this learner is, to some extent, also questionable.

Table 33 Errors made by Learner Thirty

Error type	Frequency	
	June	December
Grammar	18	13
Spelling	7	10
Word division	6	3
Punctuation	3	3
Syntax	4	4
Semantics	3	2
Vocabulary	1	2
Capitalization	0	0
New lexical items	0	0
Incomplete words	0	0
Incorrect word construction	0	1
Inter-categorical range	1	4
Multiple deviations	5	6
Writing inconsistencies	0	0
Total number of errors	48	48

Table 33 shows that the types of errors made by L30 in June and in December were different. There is some similarity between the types of errors made in June and in December. For example, errors of grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, syntax, semantics, vocabulary, inter-categorical range and multiple deviations were made in both June and December, even though the frequency of their occurrence is not equal. The frequency of errors of spelling, vocabulary, inter-categorical range and multiple deviations was low in June compared to December, whilst the frequency of errors of grammar, word division, and semantics was low in December compared to June. The frequency of errors of punctuation and syntax was equal in June and December. There were no stand-alone errors of incorrect words construction in June; the existing errors in this category reflect under 'Multiple deviations'. The same applies to errors of capitalization, new lexical items and writing inconsistencies in December, where the existing errors in these categories only reflect under 'Multiple deviations'. Moreover, there were no errors of capitalization, new lexical items and writing inconsistencies at all in June. Conversely, new lexical item errors were not found at all in either June or December. The 'Grammar' category had the highest frequency of errors compared to all other categories in both June and December as well as overall, followed by the spelling category which had the second highest frequency both in June and December, as well as in overall. Four categories of errors, namely spelling, vocabulary, inter-categorical range and multiple deviations, showed an increase in frequency in December compared to June. Despite this increase, the total number of errors made in June remained the same as that of errors made in December. In addition, this learner made more local than global errors. Some global errors are, to some extent, a hindrance to message comprehension, as they negatively affect the intended message by making it unclear; and sometimes the message is completely altered. Some of these global errors also affect word order in the sentences in which they occur. The increase in the frequency of some errors in December as compared to June, along with the inconsistency in this learner's language use, may be interpreted as evidence of a lack of improvement in this learner's language use. Furthermore, the nature of some errors made in some language elements in December, namely grammar, spelling, word division, vocabulary and inter-categorical range, is the same as those made in June. When considered together, all these errors raise some doubts about the language development of this learner as far as the

isiXhosa orthographic rules are concerned. Therefore, the communicative competence of this learner is, to some extent, also questionable.

5.2.2 Possible causes and impact of errors identified from the data

The second question that this research investigates is the possible causes of the errors made by the sampled learners when writing in isiXhosa. The question was phrased as follows: 'What are the possible causes and impact of these errors on teaching and learning, language development and language conservation?'

5.2.2.1 The possible causes of errors

The studied literature outlines several of the causes of errors in learners' language usage with specific reference to writing. Those causes include: lack of orthographic knowledge; limited reading; dialects; language change; interference of other languages; code switching; the role of the media; and attitude which might result to ignorance. During the interviews, the isiXhosa teachers and subject advisers outlined a number of possible causes of errors, some of which correspond with the ones suggested in the literature, whilst others are newly discovered as they are not mentioned in the literature. A summary of such errors, as suggested by the isiXhosa teachers and the subject advisers, follows here in Table 34.

Table 34 Possible causes of errors cited by isiXhosa teachers

Possible causes	Teacher interviewee				
	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1
Media (influence of social media)	√	—	√	—	—
Use/overuse of technology	—	—	—	√	—
Lack of orthographic knowledge	—	—	—	—	—
Social interactions	—	—	—	—	—
Limited reading	√	√	—	√	—
Dialects	—	—	—	—	—

Feedback-related causes (pertaining to learners' none – use of the feedback provided by the teacher's)	–	–	–	–	√
Linguistic change	–	–	–	–	–
Interference of other languages/code mixing	–	–	–	–	–
Attitude	–	–	√	–	√
Incomplete acquisition/faulty teaching	–	–	–	√	–
Others	Limited use of isiXhosa.	Poor or lack of language base.	Poor language base Lack of respect for the language. Looking down on the language. Learner laziness.	Lack of teacher attention due to over-crowding in class. Lack of learner interest. Inefficient curriculum design.	Absent minded-ness. Learner laziness. Non-preparation for exams.

Table 34 shows that Media (influence of social media) and attitude were each identified twice by the five teachers interviewed in this study as possible causes of errors, whilst use, or overuse of technology, feedback-related causes and incomplete acquisition/faulty teaching were each mentioned only once. Moreover, none of the five teachers mentioned lack of orthographic knowledge, social interaction, dialects, linguistic change and interference of other languages as possible causes of errors. In addition, limited reading was the most frequently mentioned (three times). Other causes were also cited. These fall within the category of newly discovered causes, as they were not mentioned in the literature. Those include: limited use of the language (isiXhosa); lack of respect for the language; disdaining the language; lack of teacher attention due to overcrowding; lack of learner interest;

inefficient curriculum design; learner absent-mindedness; learner laziness; and non-preparation for examinations. Each of these was mentioned once. Lastly, a poor language base, or a lack thereof, and learner laziness were each mentioned twice. The following table presents the possible causes of learner language errors cited by the interviewed subject advisers.

Table 35 Possible causes of errors cited by isiXhosa subject advisers within their districts

Possible causes	Subject Adviser interviewee	
	MEED	MSED
Language contact or influence of other languages	—	√
Influence of the media	—	√
Shallow teaching	√	—
Limited time to teach the skill of language use and rules	√	—
Exam or assessment stress	√	—

Table 35 shows that the two subject advisers have cited different possible causes of learner language errors. For example, language contact or influence of other languages, along with the influence of the media, were only cited by the subject adviser from the MSED. The subject adviser from the MEED cited shallow teaching, limited time to teach the skill of language use and rules, as well as exam or assessment stress. An observation from this is that, of the suspected causes of learner language errors mentioned by these subject advisers, only two correspond with the suspected causes mentioned in the literature, namely language contact or influence of other languages, and influence of the media. There is some correspondence on the issue of limited teaching time mentioned as a possible cause of learner language errors by the MEED subject adviser, with the same cause put forward by one teacher (B2). According to this teacher, the inefficient curriculum design results in time limitations and eventually teachers are forced to leave some gaps in the curriculum of teaching and learning of the language. This contributes to the existence of learner language errors and incomplete acquisition. Furthermore, these subject advisers have cited completely differing possible causes of errors. However, there is some correspondence

between shallow teaching and the limited time for teaching language use and rules, with the time on task expectation of the curriculum, as mentioned by the subject adviser from MEED. According to this curriculum adviser, the time on task expectation exerts time limits and pressure on teachers. This is what is also mentioned in the literature as one of the shortcomings of providing feedback. This correspondence seems to confirm the implication that there are, indeed, some gaps affecting teaching and learning, not only of isiXhosa, but other subjects as well, and these result from how the current curriculum design. In addition to this, an increase in student numbers (class sizes which are considered to be high) has been observed as a shortcoming to feedback, also mentioned in the literature and by Teacher B2 as a challenge faced by teachers in the teaching of isiXhosa, as well as the learners receiving limited teacher attention due to overcrowding in class (also mentioned by Teacher B2 as another suspected cause of errors).

During the analysis of learners' texts, no exact causes could be linked to the existence of the errors identified from the data; only possible causes could be drawn, as follows: (1) from the interviews conducted with the isiXhosa teachers and subject advisers; and (2) through linking the insights drawn from the literature studied here and the nature of the actual errors identified during data analysis. With reference to (2), an understanding drawn from the data analysis is that some of the identified errors might have been caused by these factors: incomplete acquisition; the education system; faulty teaching; social interactions; and factors relating to feedback. The latter would include inadequate feedback provided by teachers to learners; wrong choice of feedback type provided; limited opportunities for students to engage and act on feedback; and learners' failure to pay attention to feedback.

The information drawn from the the teachers and subject advisers along with the literature studied, from which the possible causes of learner language errors were drawn, corresponds well with the errors identified from the written texts data analyzed in this study. Following is a discussion of each possible cause of errors, as mentioned earlier.

Lack of orthographic knowledge

During the interviews, a lack of orthographic knowledge was mentioned as one of the possible causes of errors. Looking at the nature of errors identified in the data, one may argue that they are a result of a lack of orthographic knowledge, in that they are not the

types of errors one would expect Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners to make. In Table 36 are examples of such errors, and their corrections.

Table 36 Examples of errors (in the data) linked to lack of orthographic knowledge

Error type	Error	Correction
Capitalization	Amaxhosa	amaXhosa
Spelling	Obubhahlileyo	Obubhadlileyo
Word division	ezi koneni	Ezikoneni

The definitions of orthography drawn from the literature studied here share one similar view: that orthography constitutes the rules of writing words using the proper letters, word division, and punctuation, according to accepted use and correct spelling. Thus, errors committed to any of the features which form part of orthography would amount to a violation of the language orthography. As noted in Chapter 2, language orthography and the particular cognitive strategies applicable in reading are interconnected. It is also stipulated that a language learner can only be fully literate in the target language if he or she is familiar with the linguistic forms and orthographic principles of that particular language. Based on this insight, it may therefore be said that the identified errors, with specific reference to the examples provided above, confirm that the sampled learners lack some orthographic knowledge. This is based on the perspectives shared previously on orthography and the demands of the current isiXhosa curriculum (CAPS), which considers the rules of the language elements, such as those three outlined above, as the basic components of orthography with which a Grade 11 learner is at least expected to be familiar.

Limited reading

During the interviews, limited reading was also mentioned as one of the possible causes of errors. Following are examples of the nature of errors identified from the data which may be associated with limited reading.

Table 37 Examples of error categories associated with limited reading (identified from the data)

Error type	Explanation
Capitalization	Use of lower-case letters at the beginning of a sentence and in the first letters of names of people and places, national and tribal designations, as well as names of languages.
Punctuation	Omission and incorrect use of full stops, commas, question and quotation marks, hyphens, etc.
Spelling	Omission or deletion, insertion, or addition of some language forms.
Word division	Division of words which should be written conjunctively; and combining words which should be written disjunctively.
Vocabulary/code mixing	Use of other languages, such as English, isiZulu and township language.
Semantics	Incorrect use of words and idiomatic expressions.
Syntax	Incorrect sentence and paragraph construction and progression.
Incomplete words	Omission or deletion of final vowels and suffixes.
Writing inconsistencies	Incorrect division of the word at the end of a line: omission of the hyphen to indicate that the word has been divided at the end of a line; and unnecessary spacing before the punctuation marks.

As already noted in the previous section, reading and orthography are interrelated. Thus, we cannot speak of reading and omit orthography as an important element in learning to read. It is also noted in the literature that reading not only promotes language fluency and proficiency but also facilitates continued existence of a language. This means that, if learners do not read frequently, they may slowly lose a language and eventually the language will deteriorate. In addition, the literature also mentions that the degree to which speakers of the African languages are willingly and effectively reading and writing in these languages is the main means by which these languages can be preserved in the twenty-first century. Furthermore, the learners of the African languages slightly lose their first language (L1) as they progress to higher grades and that has been proven by the dropping literacy

levels in these languages. One may therefore argue that the above-mentioned types of errors identified from the data analysed here (Grade 11 written texts) are a clear indication of language deterioration, as far as the isiXhosa orthography is concerned. It may therefore be said that these errors confirm that these learners are not frequent readers of the material written in isiXhosa. If they were, they would not be making errors of this nature, especially at academic level.

Dialects

The literature studied also outlines dialects as being among the causes of learner language errors. The literature notes that the use of dialects in the classroom is a debatable issue. As controversial as it is, the use of dialects in the classroom remains unacceptable as long as teachers appear to be against it. One of the suggestions made in the literature is that, instead of opposing the use of dialects, teachers should promote it and create an opportunity for learners to learn the standard alternative to such dialects to develop the learners' language (Gxilishe 1996: 6). In this way, education would be "inclusive" rather than "exclusive" of existing dialects; and, most importantly, this would create learner confidence and promote a positive environment for learning. During the interviews, the use of dialects in language learning was also mentioned as a possible cause of errors. However, during data analysis, no errors were found which could be directly linked to the use of isiXhosa dialects. Even so, this issue cannot be left hanging. The fact that there were no language errors identified from the analysed data which could be linked to the use of dialects does not guarantee that dialects are not used in isiXhosa teaching and learning. This is a gap which future research may have to investigate to determine whether there are any cases where dialects are used in isiXhosa language learning. An investigation on the use of dialects in isiXhosa teaching and learning could be beneficial for learners' language development and may also assist in addressing the afore-mentioned controversy about the use of dialects in the classroom. Eventually, this could assist in aligning the dialects with the standard isiXhosa, as well as familiarizing learners with the isiXhosa standard orthography, whilst building confidence of the speakers of these dialects and building unity among the speakers of isiXhosa language dialects.

Linguistic change

Linguistic change is also one of the causes of language errors outlined and discussed in the literature. It includes changes in sound (sound change). It is personally understood as originating from the learner or speaker's internal speech forms. For example, it occurs when a learner forms his or her written language from how he or she speaks. Thus, the learner's oral language influences his or her writing system. This may result from a lack of knowledge and understanding of the places of articulation of different sounds and from not understanding the difference between written and spoken language. As noted in the literature, there are three different kinds of sound change that may be displayed in the learners' written language, namely consonant lenition, vowel reduction and deletion of segments. During the interviews, a teacher from School B mentioned that, in isiXhosa as a subject, a challenge is that learners have a tendency to use the oral register when they write; and the teacher thought that this was caused by a lack of knowledge of the differences between spoken and written language, as far as the orthographic rules are concerned. This was therefore understood to be the cause of errors. During the data analysis, errors which may be linked to this challenge were observed. Some examples of such errors found in the data, and their corrections, are set out in the Table 38.

Table 38 Examples of errors (extracted from the data) linked to linguistic change

Type of sound change	Language category	Error	Correction
Consonant lenition and Deletion of segments	(a) Spelling	Ndike	Ndikhe
		Endlini	Endlwini
		Yibokisi	Yibhokisi
	(b) New lexical items	Pha	Phaya
		Noba	Nokuba
		Funeka	Kufuneka
Vowel reduction	(c) Grammatical errors	lo nto	loo nto
		Zintoni	Ziintoni

	(d) Inter-categorical range (falls between grammar, spelling and new lexical items)	Akaphinde	Akaphindi
	(e) Punctuation	khonukuze'	khon' ukuze

Interference of other languages and code switching

The studied literature also cites interference of other languages as one of the causes of errors. It is understood that this interference can also manifest itself through code switching. As explained in the literature, any form of deviation from the rules of the language which occurs in the speech of bilinguals due to their familiarity with more than one language is understood as interference. In the case of writing, interference is understood to happen in the written language of a bilingual. Moreover, borrowing is another way in which interference can manifest. It is also explained that interference is not a question of which language was learnt first, as any of the languages known to a bilingual, first language (L1), second (L2) and languages beyond L2, can interfere with each other. Since this study investigates errors in the first language, which is isiXhosa, interference is thus conceptualized as the interference of any other second language which is known to the learner with the first language. During the interviews with the subject advisers, language contact with other languages in the communities (influence of other languages spoken in the communities where learners live) was mentioned as a suspected cause of language errors by learners. This is understood as interference of other languages, since learners use other languages they know to close the gaps in their first language. Various factors which may be linked to interference were also mentioned and those include: (i) poor language base; (ii) learners possess limited knowledge of the language (vocabulary and type of language in terms of formality and informality); and (iii) learner use of other languages, such as isiZulu when writing in isiXhosa. In the literature, an outline of situations in which interference can occur is provided and that includes the following:

- It can be deliberately used by bilinguals to reinforce expression. It is likely used when a message producer knows that a receiver is also bilingual or can understand the message fully.
- If the message receiver is uni-lingual, the bilingual message producer would normally use less interference and limited borrowing to avoid communication breakdown.
- Bilinguals can only mix languages when there is a need to do so.
- Bilinguals can also perform word borrowing when they want to enrich their language.
- Interference or borrowing happens automatically when people involved in the communication process are all bilinguals.

During data analysis, vocabulary errors were identified where learners used words from other languages. These were labelled vocabulary errors since learners failed to use strictly isiXhosa vocabulary and opted for borrowing from other languages. The borrowing could have been caused by forgetting or not knowing the equivalent words in their language (isiXhosa). Moreover, the borrowing could have been caused by failure to realize that the words which they had used were borrowed from other languages, were not even isiXhosa words. It is thus unlikely that the borrowing found in the data was used in all the five situations suggested by Weinreich (1953). The possibility is that the observed borrowing was only based on the third situation: that there was a need to do so, and such a need might have arisen from a lack of the knowledge of equivalent words in isiXhosa. Table 39 sets out some examples of the vocabulary errors found on the data, and their corrections.

Table 39 Examples of errors (from the data) linked to interference of other languages and code switching/borrowing

Borrowing/code switching	Explanation	Correction
osele emncane	Borrowed from isiZulu	Osemncinci
Zikanokutsho	Borrowed from isiZulu	zexabiso eliphezulu
zikaJuni	Borrowed from English	zeyeSilimela
Upasa	Borrowed from English	Uphumelela
Grade 11D	Borrowed from English	ibakala le-11D
Ngumisi	Borrowed from English	Ngutitshalakazi

Meyi	Borrowed from English	Canzibe
uzivoca-voce	Borrowed from isiZulu	Uzilolonge
Ahlukumezeka	Borrowed from isiZulu	Axhaphazeka/aphatheka gadalala
Ukutitshwa	Borrowed from English	Ukufundiswa
Kayiwani	Borrowed from English	Kanye

The influence of the media

As per the literature review, the media has also contributed to the writing errors made by learners. Shortening of words, coining of new words and using speech text form instead of written text form are some of the influences of the media on language usage. In addition, the profound code switching by presenters and the quality of the language spoken on air is often poor. The language use during news broadcasts is totally different from that used during other types of programmes: the news broadcasts on television usually minimize deviations by adhering to the standardized rules of the language during the prior editorial processes. An understanding drawn from these statements is that any deviations acquired by learners from the media most frequently arise during media programmes other than in the television news. This therefore suggests that learners may not be regular viewers or listeners of the news. This means that learners would possibly acquire improved language if they were viewing news more frequently. During the interviews, the negative influence of social media was acited as one of the suspected causes of language errors made by learners. As per the information drawn from the interviews, social media influences include: improper language used in the social networks which learners adopt; incorrect language inherited from the media such as radio stations, e.g. Umhlobo Wenene, as a case in point; and the incorrect use of idiomatic expressions. Other factors cited as suspected causes of errors in learner language use were overuse of media, along with too much use of technology instead of reading academic books and literature. Different types of errors identified from the data which may be associated with the influence of the media include the following: grammar, semantics, spelling (which may be influenced by incorrect

pronunciation), new lexical items, and items in the inter-categorical range. The following, extracted from the data, are some examples of such errors and their corrections.

Table 40 Examples of errors (from the data) linked to the influence of the media

Error type	Error	Correction
Grammar	<u>into</u> ezehla	izinto ezehla
	<u>It</u> shaba	Utshaba
	unike umdla <u>kw</u> abantu	unike umdla kubantu
Spelling	N <u>dike</u>	Ndikhe
	E <u>nd</u> lini	Endlwini
	Um <u>nt</u> ana	Umntwana
Semantics	...amanzi ashushu andithi <u>yaka</u> apha engalweni...	Yiba
	ndaqhubeleka okomdlalo	Ndaqhubekeka
	Uxhaphake	udume njengomdlalo
Vocabulary	Meyi	Canzibe
	Lunocinizelelo	lunoxinzelelo
	Ahlukumezeka	Axhaphazeka/aphatheka gadalala
New lexical items	Pha	Phaya
	Ko <u>kw</u> abo	Kowabo
	<u>Se</u> tshaya	sele etshaya
Inter-categorical range	Amaphup <u>h</u> o	Amaphupha

Attitude

As per the literature reviewed, attitude also makes a major contribution to the errors in the language use of the learners because it influences how the learners feel about the language they are learning. The literature further asserts that attitude could be a reason for learners not mastering a language, since how the learners feel about the language influences their actions towards the language. The way learners feel about the language may reflect on the way one uses the language, in both spoken and written forms. During the interviews, attitude towards isiXhosa language was widely cited as one of the challenges in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa in schools and was a suspected cause of the language errors made by learners. The teachers and subject advisors interviewees who cited it as a challenge referred to the following as the root causes:

- Negative attitude learners have towards the language (undermining the language).
- Learners not considering isiXhosa as a priority subject because they do not know its value and careers relevant to it.
- Learners' uncertainty about the structure and relevance of the isiXhosa curriculum to their current life.
- Learners undermining isiXhosa and valuing other languages.
- Teachers of other subjects also undermining isiXhosa makes some contribution to the negative attitude of learners towards isiXhosa.

There are other factors mentioned during the interviews with the teachers and subject advisers which may be linked to attitude: actions which reflect how learners feel about the language, including these:

- Limited reading of material written in isiXhosa
- Learners take the language for granted to the extent that they do not develop their reading and writing in isiXhosa.
- Learners are lazy and withdraw from participating in language-related activities.
- Learners associate knowledge and fluency in isiXhosa with low status and backwardness.

During data analysis, no errors were identified which can be directly attributed to attitude. However, some errors can be linked to attitude, including those that may be attributed to

limited reading and a lack of orthographic knowledge. One may argue that a negative attitude may explain limited reading and a lack of orthographic knowledge of isiXhosa in that, if learners have a negative attitude towards the language, they may be less interested in reading material written in the language. Such learners may eventually be unfamiliar with the orthography of the language. Furthermore, errors that occur as a result of a failure to pay attention to feedback may be linked to a negative attitude towards the language; if learners did not have a negative attitude, they might respond with interest and understanding to the feedback they are provided with. This would assist them in developing their language use and minimize the number of errors made. This would apply especially to the feedback on issues that are considered basic at Grade 11 level. Examples of basic language elements include capitalization, punctuation, spelling, and word division. Possibly because of the attitude learners have towards the language, in December several learners repeated the same types of errors they made in June, regardless of the feedback they received which addressed identical types of errors. Errors which may be linked to attitude may therefore be errors that suggest inattention, such as the ones presented in Table 41.

Table 41 Examples of categories of errors (from the data) associated with attitude

Error type	Explanation
Capitalization	Use of lower-case letters at the beginning of the sentence and for the first letters of people's and place names, national and tribal designations, as well as languages.
Punctuation	Omission and incorrect use of full stops, commas, question and quotation marks, hyphens, etc.
Spelling	Omission or deletion, insertion or addition of some language forms.
Word division	Division of words which should be written conjunctively; and combining words which should be written disjunctively.
Vocabulary/code mixing	Use of other languages, such as English, isiZulu and township language.
Semantics	Incorrect use of words and idiomatic expressions.
Syntax	Incorrect sentence and paragraph construction and progression.

Incomplete words	Omission or deletion of final vowels and suffixes.
Writing inconsistencies	Incorrect division of the word at the end of a line; omission of the hyphen to indicate that the word has been divided at the end of a line; and unnecessary spacing before the punctuation marks.

Incomplete acquisition, the education system and faulty teaching

Other factors considered to contribute to learners' language errors include incomplete acquisition, inadequacies in the education system, and faulty teaching. In this discussion these three are grouped together because they are considered interconnected since education and curriculum cannot be separated. During the interviews, incomplete acquisition was mentioned as a possible cause of the learners' language errors. It was linked to the manner in which the curriculum is designed, with the reasoning that the design of the current curriculum imposes time limits on when and how much of a particular body of content should be taught; and that forces teachers to omit certain areas of the curriculum. This is one way in which incomplete language acquisition occurs. In addition, incomplete acquisition may be linked to certain errors: there were patterns of inconsistency in language use, such as where, in some instances, a learner would use the orthographic rules correctly, yet sometimes violate the very same rule in the same essay. Inconsistency of language use is referred to as 'post-systematic errors', where known rules are applied inconsistently.

In this study, it was considered that the application of the mark adjustment circulars for the Senior Phase, such as the National Assessment Circular No. 3 of 2015 (RSA DBE 2015) which was applicable in the Senior Phase (Grades 7–9) in 2015 when the sampled learners were in Grade 9, could also be blamed for such incomplete acquisition. When the current mark adjustment rules were applied, some learners' marks were adjusted and they progressed to Grade 10 following a set of criteria that includes these: (1) the years the learner has spent in the same phase; and (2) the age cohort. Such circulars might have promoted learners who, in terms of the isiXhosa curriculum, did not have a reasonable knowledge of the isiXhosa orthographic rules and therefore could not meet the pass requirements of the isiXhosa subject, nor the demands of Grade 10 to which they were promoted. Because they were promoted before they had acquired a full grasp of the

isiXhosa orthographic rules (embedded in the isiXhosa curriculum), when they reached Grade 11, they had a limited knowledge of the language content they ought to have had to meet the demands of Grade 11. This scenario confirms what is explained earlier in the literature where Navsaria et al. (2011: 99) asserts that the education system puts teachers under pressure to promote learners despite their writing challenges such as spelling, punctuation, reading and writing comprehension and sentence construction.

Another factor which may also be linked to the education system was mentioned during the interviews, and that is the absence of reading periods which assist with familiarizing learners with the orthography of the isiXhosa language. None allocation of such periods is understood to have a major impact on the learner errors made, as this is considered as under-teaching the skill of reading in the FET phase. The point of limited reading has been mentioned frequently in the previous sections owing to the importance of reading in language teaching and learning. In this study, promoting reading is considered a viable solution for addressing learners' language errors.

In addition, the literature suggests that some of the learner errors are inherited from the teachers through faulty teaching. The analysed data has also, to some extent, proved this to be correct. For example, in the June essay of Learner Nine, the learner had correctly applied the word division rule, i.e. "kuba lula", but the teacher gave incorrect feedback, suggesting that the learner had made an error by separating those two words. Figure 3 shows the inappropriate teacher feedback. However, in the December essay, the same learner applied the same rule suggested by the teacher in June e.g. "yabayintoni", and then teacher gave inadequate feedback which suggested that the learner had made an error by writing that word conjunctively: the learner should have had written it as "yaba yintoni". Figure 4 shows the inappropriate teacher feedback referred to here. Judging by these two examples, it is clear that the teacher used the language inconsistently regarding the word division rule. This suggests that the teacher does not have full knowledge of how to apply the word division rule. It may be concluded that the word division error, i.e. "yabayintoni" which the learner made in the December essay was inherited from the teacher through that teacher's faulty teaching in the form of inaccurate feedback to the learner in the June essay.

Other factors which may also be linked to faulty teaching were also mentioned in the interviews: (a) allocation of isiXhosa as a teaching subject to teachers who are not trained

to teach the language in schools; and (b) allocation of GET grades to inexperienced teachers in schools, forgetting that the language base is critical in the GET grades. In the case of the latter two issues, teachers of such calibre are bound to practise faulty teaching of isiXhosa and, in a way, also violate the orthographic rules of the language.

Figure 3 An example of incorrect teacher feedback copied directly from Learner Nine's June essay (data)

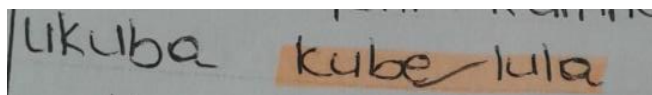


Figure 4 An example of teacher feedback copied directly from Learner Nine's December essay (data)



Social interactions and language change

The literature review touches on the work of Stuart-Smith et al. (2013: 502) who report that:

Information from the earliest historical records demonstrates that language variation and change arise from processes that take place between speakers during live social interaction. When people talk with each other, tiny little adjustments are made on the individual level, and over time, and in conjunction with numerous factors, but especially personal, social, and ideological, these shifts can lead to community-level systemic change.

The above statement by Stuart-Smith et al. (2013) talks about tiny little adjustments. These adjustments could be the errors transferred through social interaction as they may be adjustments that are not grammatically acceptable or accounted for in the language used during such social interaction. Nothing mentioned during the interviews directly links social interaction to learner errors. However, some elements were mentioned which may be linked to this factor, namely: learner use of unknown language; learner use of other languages such as (isiZulu) when writing in isiXhosa; and language contact with other languages in communities (influence of other languages spoken in the communities where learners live).

These three factors cited in the interviews relate to learners interacting with speakers of the other languages. The researcher's observation is that, in the communities, isiXhosa is spoken for communication purposes only; no one is really concerned about whether the language one speaks conforms to the rules of the standard language. This is how new versions of isiXhosa, which are not accounted for in the orthographies of isiXhosa, are developed, and to which people (including learners) consequently become accustomed. In addition, there is no certainty that social interaction is the cause of errors found in the analysed data. However, some types of errors identified from the data may be said to have been caused by social interactions since they are part of the language which is usually found in day-to-day oral language interactions. Also, the day-to-day learner oral language shows some patterns of language change which may result from a lack of knowledge of the basic elements of the language, such as grammar, spelling and vocabulary. When considered together, all these deviations amount to errors which cannot be accounted for in the orthography of isiXhosa. Such types of errors include the ones displayed in Table 42.

Table 42 Examples of categories of errors (from the data) associated with social interaction and language change

Error type	Error	Correction
Spelling	Umntana	Umntwana
New lexical items	Ukubana	Ukuba
	Sogqiba	Sakugqiba
	Phayana	Phaya
	Pha	Phaya
	ukuyojonga ba	ukuyojonga ukuba
	Emveni	Emva
	Uzamva	uza kumva
Inter-categorical range	ezonto (falls between new lexical items and multiple errors)	ezo zinto
	ubuhlezi (falls between vocabulary and spelling)	Ubuhleli

v.

Feedback challenges

The second section of the literature review considers feedback as a viable solution for addressing errors. The studied literature highlights the importance of feedback in teaching and learning across the curriculum. It emphasizes knowledge development as one of the main effects feedback should have on learners and their learning.

During the interviews with teachers, feedback was frequently mentioned as one of the strategies used to address errors. The literature provides examples of different types of feedback, namely corrective, elaborative and verification feedback. The literature on feedback also suggests that feedback efficiency does not occur automatically, but it depends on the feedback type used. The literature on feedback further highlights that there is feedback that is not helpful to learners, as it lacks clarity pertaining to what it is trying to address. This category of feedback is what in the literature is referred to as inadequate feedback since it usually includes making marks on a page, such as underlining, and indicating what is supposedly wrong without clarifying what exactly it is meant to address. Furthermore, the literature suggests the use of inadequate feedback by teachers, wrong choice of feedback type provided by teachers, limited opportunities for students to engage with and act on feedback, as well as learner failure to pay attention to feedback, are contributing factors to feedback inefficiency. One may therefore argue that feedback inefficiency caused by the above-mentioned challenges may have been the cause of some of the errors identified in the data analyzed in this study. For example, in the case of wrong choice of feedback type provided by teachers, it may be said that, because teachers are not sure of which types of feedback to use to address particular types of errors, they choose whatever type they deem to be proper at that particular moment. For example, during data analysis, it was found that there were instances where some teachers gave elaborative feedback at the end of the year; but, as the learners did not get their scripts back, it was too pointless and learners would not have benefited from such feedback. In the following year, they would be in Grade 12, and their Grade 11 scripts deemed outdated. Moreover, in some instances, teachers used corrective feedback to identify exactly what was wrong with the identified error, instead of providing elaborative feedback. Some of the examples appear in Figure 5 and 6.

Figure 5 An example of teacher corrective feedback copied directly from Learner Four's June essay (data)

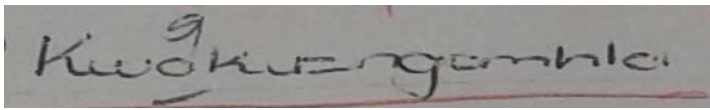
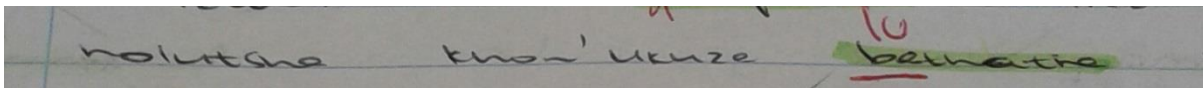


Figure 6 An example of teacher corrective feedback copied directly from Learner Nineteens's December essay (data)



Teachers, in some instances, used inadequate feedback. Such feedback does not seem to be helpful to learners because it lacks clarity with regard to what it intends to address. It may therefore be argued that, because of the inadequacy of the feedback provided, learners failed to pay attention to the errors for which such feedback was intended. Hence, some of the errors in the June data were again found in the December data. Some examples appear in Figure 7 and 8. Other examples of such errors include (1) word division errors found in the written essays of Learners four, Thirteen, Nineteen, and Twenty-five; (2) capitalization errors found in the essay of Learner Four; and (3) spelling errors found in the essay of Learner Thirty. Other factors which may be linked to the use of inadequate feedback by teachers were mentioned in the interviews, and those include large learner numbers in the classrooms, coupled with a lack of individual attention due to high numbers of learners in class. The huge number of scripts to mark and the pressure to finishing marking to meet the marks submission deadlines may cause teachers to provide inadequate feedback

Figure 7 An example of inadequate teacher feedback on word division error, copied directly from Learner Thirty's June essay (data)

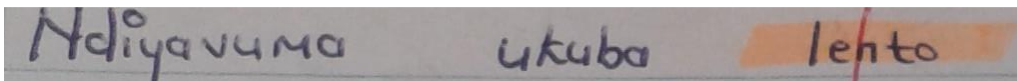
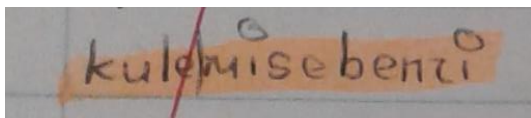


Figure 8

An example of inadequate teacher feedback on word division error, copied directly from Learner Thirty's December essay (data)



In the case of learners' failure to pay attention to feedback, during the interviews it was mentioned that some of the errors which learners make are a result of no written feedback on previously written work by teachers. In the literature, it is also mentioned that students do not always use the feedback they are provided with: they do not usually read it, even though their performance may suggest that they are in urgent need of it. In some instances, when they do read it, they do so without proper comprehension; consequently, they also fail to use it. Furthermore, students have a choice about whether to act on feedback. Their motives to do so, or not to do so, may be an outcome of positive responses, such as deep consideration of the feedback and "reasoned rejection" of it.

Some of the errors identified in the data may be said to prove that they resulted from a learner's failure to pay attention to feedback. For example, there were instances where corrective and inadequate feedback were provided to learners in June pertaining to, for example, their grammar, word division, capitalization and spelling. Regardless of the feedback the learners received in June, however, the same types of errors were found in the December essays. Some examples of these errors are presented in Figures 7, 8, 9 and 11. Apart from a failure to pay attention to feedback, it may also be argued that there were other reasons for learners making the same errors they had made in June, which could include the following: (a) they had limited time to engage with and act on the feedback; or (b) they probably did not understand the feedback provided. This, then, returns to feedback literacy which is discussed in the literature, where it is suggested that learners need to be taught about feedback so that they can understand its importance.

Figure 9 Example of teacher feedback on word division error, copied directly from Learner Twenty-five's June essay (data)

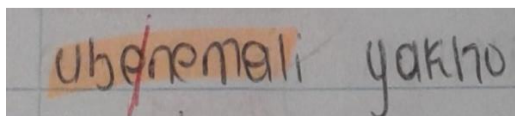


Figure 10 Example of teacher feedback on spelling error, copied directly from Learner Thirty's June essay (data)

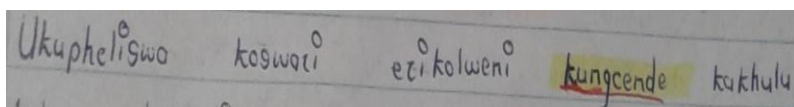


Figure 11 Example of teacher feedback on the same word division error identified in the June essay (text), copied directly from Learner Twenty-five's December essay (data)

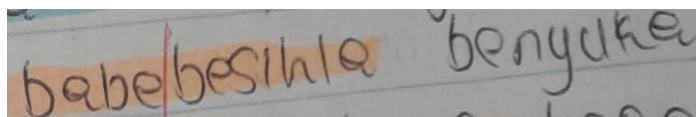
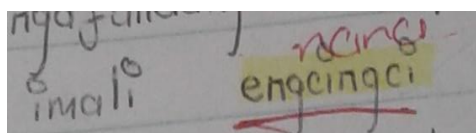


Figure 12 Example of teacher feedback on the same spelling error identified in the June essay (text), copied directly from Learner Thirty's December essay (data)



In addition, the literature also touches on the importance of feedback construction as an important factor in feedback efficiency. It highlights that learner interest in feedback also depends on how the feedback is designed. This connects very well with some points made about feedback: that there are other factors which may affect how a learner engages with feedback, namely motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic) and attitude. Thus, in the end, learners have a choice about whether to act on feedback; and these factors may inform their decision about the feedback they have received.

Furthermore, in terms of the classification of errors by Corder (1973), these learners make pre-systematic, systematic and post-systematic errors. In relation to pre-systematic errors, one may argue that some errors made by these learners are a result of the lack of knowledge

of a specific rule in isiXhosa. For example, grammatical errors (omission of a second vowel that marks the plural form of a word); and word division errors (failure to separate auxiliary verbs from nouns) may be regarded as a lack of knowledge about what rules to apply and how the rules relating to those language components should be applied.

In relation to systematic errors, one may argue that some errors made by these learners are a result of the acquisition of incorrect rules, for example, word division errors (unnecessary division, e.g. 'olu khulu'). Here, Learner 9 incorrectly applied a word division rule for separating a demonstrative pronoun from a noun. This learner did not realize from the onset that this is not a noun phrase (demonstrative and a noun), but an adjective, therefore should be written conjunctively.

In relation to post-systematic errors, one may argue that some errors made by these learners are a result of inconsistent application of the known rule, for example; spelling errors (omission of a semi-vowel, e.g. umntana vs umntwana, endlini vs endlwini) and grammatical errors (omission of the second vowel in a noun which marks the plural, e.g. otsotsi vs ootsotsi, zintoni vs ziintoni). Rules such as these were sometimes applied correctly and sometimes incorrectly by the sampled learners; and sometimes in the same text (June essay) and sometimes in the second text (December essay).

The fact that these learners made these three categories of errors (pre-systematic, systematic and post-systematic) proves that these errors are not only made in second language (L2) learning, as explained by Corder (1973), but are also made in first language (L1) learning, as shown in this study. An observation made from this was that, of the suspected causes of learner language errors mentioned by the teachers and the subject advisers, only a few corresponded with the suspected causes mentioned in the literature. Those include: limited reading; feedback-related factors; attitude; incomplete acquisition; or faulty teaching; as well as other causes which were differently cited by the teachers. In addition to these are the influence of language contact or influence of other languages, as cited by one subject adviser; and the influence of the media, as cited by both groups of interviewees (which is also the only commonly cited possible cause).

5.2.2.2 Impact of errors on teaching and learning, language development and language conservation

The discussion now moves to the impact that the orthographic errors that were identified above have on teaching and learning, language development and language conservation. As mentioned in, Sompong (2013: 110), how learner language errors are perceived by language researchers has changed. Errors have now been identified as an important element which shows how learning is happening, as opposed to the opinions of the early researchers who viewed errors as a deficiency and a danger to the language. A question raised in this research was whether learner language errors should still be viewed as a positive element of language learning in teaching and learning of isiXhosa? If so, to what extent do they continue to be a sign of learning in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa?

The impact of errors on teaching and learning

From the analysis of the texts, which are the main data units of this study, and the interviews conducted, one may argue that errors are more than just important elements in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa. The impact such errors have is concerning. During interviews, the interviewees shared their views on the challenges faced in teaching and learning of isiXhosa and the types of errors made by learners. From the interviews, orthographic errors clearly have a negative impact on teaching and learning. Some interviewees claimed that these errors affect the work schedule in that, before they can continue with the planned lesson for the day, they have to start by correcting the errors learners are making, sometimes not only in their written language, but also in their oral language. In one scenario, a teacher reported that if, for example, she introduces a grammar topic in class and notices that the learners lack knowledge regarding the orthographic rules they ought to know, it is difficult for her to continue with the planned lesson. Instead, she is forced to give instruction on the learners' errors before she can proceed with the planned lesson. Even during the lesson, the teacher spends much time correcting errors made by learners, even in their spoken language, since such errors cannot be ignored. The reason that addressing such errors is a matter of urgency is that learners derive much of their written language skills from their oral language proficiency, so addressing errors should not start with written language, but with spoken language; and, as long as learners' spoken language does not conform to the standard rules of the language, these errors will continue to exist. It was also mentioned by one of the

teacher interviewees that some learners lose interest when they are taught a lesson that has been taught to them before. They do not understand that a lesson is continued to provide increased knowledge on the subject matter, which, in most cases is a lesson related to grammar. Also, sometimes these continual lessons are meant to address the gaps identified by the teacher, usually concerning the errors that they made in writing. This means that teaching and learning of isiXhosa is not happening at the rate it should. Thus, often, because most of their time is spent on correcting learners' errors, teachers teach for assessment instead of teaching to impart knowledge.

A summary of these challenges, as mentioned by the isiXhosa teachers and the subject advisers, is set out in Table 43.

Table 43 Challenges facing isiXhosa teachers mentioned by interviewed teachers

Challenge	Teacher interviewees				
	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1
Use of improper language	√	√	√	√	—
Disdaining the language	—	—	—	—	√
Lack of knowledge of the importance of isiXhosa language	—	√	—	—	—
Failure to respond to feedback	—	√	—	—	—
Large learner numbers in class	—	—	—	√	—
Negative attitude of learners towards the isiXhosa language	√	√	—	—	—
Negative attitude of other teachers towards the isiXhosa language	—	—	—	—	√
Learners' inability to read and understand isiXhosa	√	—	—	—	—
Learners' inability to write grammatically correct isiXhosa	—	—	—	—	√
Learners' lack of /limited knowledge of isiXhosa language	√	—	√	—	√
Learners' lack of understanding of the isiXhosa curriculum or content	—	—	—	√	√

Table 43 shows that, of the five interviewed isiXhosa teachers, four mentioned 'Use of improper language' as one of the challenges they are faced with as teachers of the language (and it was a frequently mentioned challenge). Disdaining the language; a lack of the knowledge importance the importance of the isiXhosa language, failure to respond to feedback, large learner numbers in class, the negative attitude of other teachers towards the isiXhosa language, learners' inability to read and understand isiXhosa, and learners' inability to write grammatically correct isiXhosa were each mentioned once. Negative attitude of learners towards the isiXhosa language and learners' lack of understanding of isiXhosa curriculum or content were each mentioned twice. Learners' lack of or limited knowledge of the isiXhosa language was mentioned by three teachers and was the second most frequently mentioned challenge. From this, it may therefore be argued that the use of incorrect language and learners' lack of, or limited knowledge of isiXhosa language, are the most common challenges facing teachers in teaching and learning of isiXhosa. In addition to these are the challenges schools are faced with in the teaching of isiXhosa mentioned by the interviewed subject advisers. Following is a summary of such challenges.

Table 44 Summary of challenges facing schools in isiXhosa teaching, as mentioned by the interviewed subject advisers

Challenge	Subject adviser interviewee	
	MEED	MSED
Largely, teachers do not use the rubric as an assessment tool; those who do, struggle to use it for marking.	√	√
Learners do not follow all the steps necessary for writing when writing isiXhosa texts.	√	—
Some teachers expect learners to be at the same level of thinking as they are, and to express ideas and opinions similar to theirs.	√	√
Learner use of other languages, such as (isiZulu), when writing in isiXhosa.	—	√
Some learners struggle to spell correctly.	—	√
Schools allocate isiXhosa as a teaching subject to teachers who are not trained to teach the language.	—	√

Schools allocate GET grades to inexperienced teachers, forgetting that a language base is critical in GET grades.	–	√
The Metropole South Education District does not have the curriculum for isiXhosa for Grades 5-7.	–	√
Learners do not have knowledge of the rubric as an assessment tool used to mark their assessment tasks. That affects how they approach their assessment activity as they do not know the learning goals and expected learning outcomes.	–	√

Table 44 shows that the two interviewed subject advisers share only two similar opinions on the challenges faced by schools in the teaching of isiXhosa, namely; poor use of the rubric as a marking tool, and the tendency of teachers of learners' views as independent thinkers expecting them to have views similar views to theirs. The fact that these two interviewed subject advisers only share two similar opinions on the challenges faced by schools in the teaching of isiXhosa may be interpreted as follows:

- These two identified challenges cited by the subject advisers are the most common challenges schools faced with across the districts.
- The most significant difference between the views of the subject advisers implies that schools from different districts are faced with different challenges in the teaching of isiXhosa.

The following were also observed:

- The MEED subject adviser and some teachers share a similar view on the learners' lack of understanding of the isiXhosa curriculum and content (in the skill of writing) as a challenge in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa.
- The MSED subject adviser and some teachers share similar views on these challenges in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa: learners' use of other languages (mixing) when writing; and poor spelling.

Moving on with the discussion, as mentioned in the previous section, the language use of the sampled learners displayed pre-systematic, systematic and post-systematic errors. During the analysis, it was discovered that these three categories of errors were frequently found in June data and the very same type of errors was again found in the December data. Therefore, it may be said that the nature of errors made by these learners communicates faulty learning which, at this point, cannot be linked to any direct cause, as there may be several contributing factors. Errors themselves can also be a contributing factor to such faulty learning, in that learners may feel discouraged by the types of errors they make and believe that they do not have the potential to learn the language, or there is little they can do to develop their language use. Learners may also get tired and bored with hearing about the same messages from the teacher regarding the errors they make, and then decide to ignore any lesson that is meant to address such errors, while continuing with their usual way of using the language.

Taking all these views and observations into account, it may be said that some of the challenges cited by the two groups of interviewees confirm the impact learner language errors have on teaching and learning of isiXhosa. Some of the challenges cited may contribute to the errors made by learners when writing. Moreover, the very same errors made by learners may negatively affect teaching and learning, as the errors may be demotivating to learners, resulting in a negative attitude towards the subject, paying less attention to feedback, and loss of interest in the language (an explanation cited during the interviews). However, with regard to academic excellence, nothing was mentioned by the two groups of interviewees on how the language errors affect the learners' academic performance. Moreover, even during analysis of the learners' texts, it could not be clearly ascertained whether the learners' errors affected their academic performance. Following is a summary of how the learners performed in the Paper Three written essays of June and December, which were the main data units of this study.

Table 45 Summary of learner performance in June and December essays

Learner	Frequency of errors in June	Achieved marks in June out of total of 50	Frequency of errors in December	Achieved marks in December out of total of 50
Four	40	28	70	30
Six	57	34	70	39
Nine	23	40	25	41
Thirteen	78	30	79	33
Fifteen	98	39	74	33
Nineteen	64	45	82	44
Twenty- five	46	40	38	39
Twenty-six	60	37	45	38
Thirty	4	28	4	37

Table 45 shows that the errors made by Learners Four, Six, Nine and Thirteen in their June written essays were of low frequency and they obtained low marks; then the errors they made in the December written essays were of high frequency, yet they still obtained higher marks compared to June. Table 45 also shows that the errors made by learner Fifteen and Twenty-five in their June essays were of high frequency, but they still obtained high marks; and whilst the frequency of errors they made in December had decreased, the marks they obtained also decreased. Conversely, learner Nineteen made errors of low frequency in the June essay and obtained high marks; and, in the December essay, this learner made errors of high frequency and obtained lower marks than in June. Equally, Learner Twenty-six made errors at a high frequency in the June essay and obtained low marks; then, in the December essay, this learner made errors at a low frequency and obtained high marks compared to June. Lastly, Learner Thirty made errors at an equal frequency in both the June and December essays, obtaining low marks in June, yet obtaining high marks in December. An assumption had been that, the higher the frequency of errors made, the lower the marks that would be obtained; and that the lower the frequency of errors made, the higher the marks that would be obtained. However, with these learners, that was not the case. Only

Learner Nineteen and Twenty-six seem to have proven the assumption correct. Thus, these observations, to some extent, may be said to prove that the errors made by these learners do not in a way impact on their excellence in the isiXhosa subject as far as the marks are concerned. It may therefore be assumed that what caused the fluctuation in the marks achieved by these learners is probably how they approached the essay topic, as well the knowledge they had about the essay topic.

Impact of errors on language development

With regard to language development, during the interviews, numerous challenges faced by teachers in the teaching of isiXhosa were mentioned, as summarized in Table 43. They include the following:

- Learners' use of other languages when writing in isiXhosa.
- Some learners are struggling to spell correctly.
- Learners' inability to write properly in isiXhosa.
- Learners' lack creativity and understanding of the language and different contexts it is used for.
- Learners oral register when they write (Lack of knowledge about difference of language in speaking and writing)
- Learners do not proofread their work, and because of that their work is often characterized by poor spelling.
- Learners are challenged when it comes to reading and understanding the language.
- Learners use of unknown language
- Learners have limited knowledge of the language (vocabulary and type of language in terms of formality and informality).

In addition, during data analysis, numerous types of errors were identified, as shown in the tables and figures in the previous sections. The nature and the frequency of these errors, as presented and explained in the previous sections, indicate that these learners are greatly challenged when it comes to writing in isiXhosa. For this reason, they deviated much from the standard rules of the language. Judging from all these points, it is clear that, to a greater

extent, there was no development of the language use of these learners as far as the isiXhosa orthographic rules are concerned. The impact of errors on teaching and learning of isiXhosa may also be connected to a lack of development of the learner language, which may, in the larger context, impact on the entire development on the language.

Impact of errors on language conservation

Regarding the impact of the learner language errors on language conservation, it is clear that, if there is no development in the language use of these learners, conserving the language may be impossible. This returns one to the questions posed earlier: Should learner language errors still be viewed as a positive element of language learning in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa? If so, to what extent do these errors continue to be a sign of learning in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa? Both questions resonate very well with the issue of conservation of the language. During data analysis, unusual types of errors were identified, necessitating the coining of new names for these newly discovered categories of errors. Making such types of errors is associated with insufficient content-language knowledge for these learners, especially for their school grade, and is linked to knowledge gaps in their isiXhosa language competence, as their language usage was not at the expected level. In addition, some errors of the same nature were found in both the June and December data, as shown in the preceding section. This is understood to reflect a lack of development in the learners' language usage. Thus, it cannot be said that the language errors made by these learners are a sign of the system they use to learn isiXhosa, since these errors show that these learners do not have the language knowledge and mastery expected of learners in their grade, as far as the isiXhosa orthography is concerned. The types and nature of errors these learners made may be interpreted as major violations of the isiXhosa orthographic rules; and with such deviations, language conservation seems impossible.

5.2.3 Implications of identified errors and extent to which they can be addressed

This section addresses the third question of this research which intends to discover the implications of these errors and the extent to which they can be addressed. The question is captured as follows:

What are the implications of these errors and to what extent can they be addressed in teaching and learning of isiXhosa?

5.2.3.1 The implications of errors

The errors made by this group of learners suggest some deep underlying problems. For example, all the identified errors, including the newly discovered categories of errors (namely, incomplete words, inter-categorical rage, incorrect words construction, multiple deviations and writing inconsistencies) imply there is an urgent need for attention to be given to the teaching and learning of isiXhosa, especially in basic education. It is strongly believed that, if these errors are not paid the serious attention they deserve, they will remain a threat to the language and its future. The existence of these errors also implies that there are some gaps within the isiXhosa curriculum that need to be closed. Such gaps relate to the alignment of the curriculum with the current isiXhosa orthography and the interventions used to address errors in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa.

5.2.3.2 The extent to which errors can be addressed

During teacher interviews, various strategies were cited as interventions used to address learners' language errors in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa. Such strategies are summarized in Table 46.

Table 46 Summary of strategies used by teachers to address errors

Ways of addressing errors	Teacher interviewee				
	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1
Giving general feedback	√	—	—	√	√
Giving oral feedback	√	√	—	—	√
Giving written feedback	—	√	—	√	√
Identifying incorrect language whilst marking the learner script	√	—	—	—	—
Giving learners informal spelling activities	√	—	—	—	—
Teaching about the importance of orthography	—	√	√	—	—
Promoting the use of isiXhosa at all times	—	—	√	—	—

Giving group work	–	–	–	√	–
Conducting and giving reading activities	√	–	–	√	–
Identifying the most challenging language components and focusing teaching on these	–	–	√	√	–
Explaining to learners the assessment tools used to mark learners' activities	–	–	–	√	–
Using revision	–	–	–	√	–

Table 46 shows that feedback is frequently mentioned as one strategy to address learners' language errors. For example, four teachers, namely Teachers A1, A2, B2 and C1, cited feedback as one of the strategies they use to address learner errors.

The subject advisers cited various ways to address errors which they usually advise isiXhosa teachers to apply. Those strategies are summarized in Table 47.

Table 47 Summary of strategies for addressing errors suggested to teachers within their districts by subject advisers

Strategy	Subject adviser interviewee	
	MEED	MSED
Every day, focus on spelling the challenging sounds for learners.	√	–
Keep a resource file with different written and visual texts.	√	–
Teach the skill of language rules; and grammar should be text-based.	√	√
Practise reading using isiXhosa books and newspapers such as <i>Iso lezwe</i> .	–	√
Teach more reading.	–	√
Use other isiXhosa books in addition to the prescribed ones.	–	√

Encourage learners to make reading a hobby and read isiXhosa written material beyond the school hours.	–	√
Create classroom corners with isiXhosa books for learners to read other books besides the set work books.	–	√
Go the extra mile to provide resources for learners, e.g. buy newspapers.	–	√
Have or start book clubs.	–	√
Request that more isiXhosa books be made available in libraries for learner reading.	–	√
Take class allocation in both GET and FET phases so that learners can close the learning gaps between the two phases.	–	√

Table 47 shows that (except for one strategy) there is no correspondence between the strategies suggested by the two interviewed subject advisers to teachers in their districts to address learners' language errors. Furthermore, the subject adviser from the MEED suggests several more strategies to use than the subject adviser from the MSED.

Following are the observations gathered from the Tables 46 and 47:

- Some of the measures to address errors in language mentioned by the teachers and the subject advisers correspond with some of the measures suggested in the literature. One example of those is exposing students to plenty of informal writing activities in class.
- Very few of the strategies suggested by the subject advisers are actually used by teachers, and then only a few of them, namely: focusing on spelling of the challenging sounds to learners every day; practising reading using isiXhosa books and newspapers; and teaching more reading.
- None of the subject advisers mentioned the use of feedback in the strategies they advised teachers to use in addressing errors, even though it is recommended as a usable strategy in the literature. Even without the mention by the subject advisers, some teachers mentioned it as one of the strategies they use in addressing errors.
- One of the most important strategies to use to address learner language errors is peer assessment which is suggested by Beach and Bridwell (1984), who reason that this

strategy is important to give learners the opportunity to critique one another's writing, and eventually learn to assess their own writing. However, no interviewee in either the teacher or subject adviser groups mentioned this strategy as a strategy for addressing errors.

Moving on, the use of teachers' feedback and all the other mentioned strategies did not seem to be effective in that, as mentioned earlier, the learners' text (data) reflected the following:

- The occurrence of some errors of a similar nature in both June and December data.
- A lack of understanding of most orthographic rules, including:
- Poor spelling, use of punctuation marks and grammar
- Poor application of word division rules.
- Poor language use.
- A lack of understanding of the requirements of the assessment tool used to assess their work (written essays).
- Minimal editing.

The occurrence of the above could mean one thing only: that some of these strategies, including feedback provided by the teachers, did not help, possibly due to lack of attention from the learners' side, or factors relating to inefficiency of the applied strategies. In addition, an observation made by the researcher is that there are no specific guidelines for teachers on how to address learner language errors in the teaching of isiXhosa. Teachers simply seemed to use what they considered effective to address these errors; and, even in the same school, there seemed to be no uniform approach to addressing learners' language errors. For instance, two teachers in each school taught Grade 11 but used different strategies to address learner errors, e.g. teachers A1 & 2 and B1 & 2. Despite all the observations made by the researcher regarding the strategies used by teachers in addressing errors, when asked about the extent to which these errors could be addressed, most interviewed teachers confidently reported an improvement of about 60% to 80%, maintaining that there were higher chances of the learner language errors being addressed before learners proceeded to Grade 12, as shown in Table 48.

Table 48 Summary of teachers' views on possibility of addressing learner errors prior to Grade 12

Teacher interviewee	View		
	Highly possible	Possible	Less possible
A1		Roughly 60% chance of correction; only 40% of errors may still be made in Grade 12	
A2	100%, 80% of errors are eventually corrected		
B1			Minimal chance for these errors to be corrected; only 70% of learners able to correct their errors
B2	Errors addressed to a larger extent; at 100% rate.		
C1	The work of a substantial number of learners reflects high levels of error persistence. Roughly 70% of these errors are ultimately corrected.		

Table 48 shows that Teacher A1 reported that it is only possible to address 60% of learners' language errors before they progress to Grade 12. Conversely, Teachers A2, B2 and C1 reported a substantial improvement in learners' language use and a high possibility of addressing learners' language errors by more than 60% before they progressed to Grade 12. Only Teacher B1 reported little improvement in learners' language use and seemed to contradict herself in reasoning that "Only 70% of these learners are able to write coherently using acceptable language rules when writing, and there will always be those who pass because of how the rubric is designed". Once again, Teachers B1 and B2 have different insights regarding the improvement of learner language use, with Teacher B2 maintaining

that errors are correctable to a higher extent, whilst Teacher B1 reports the opposite. Correspondingly, the report given by the subject advisers on the possibility of errors being addressed before the learners progress to Grade 12 was positive. What follows is a summary of the views of the subject advisers on the possibility of learner errors being addressed before the learners progress to Grade 12.

Table 49 Summary of subject advisers' views on possibility of addressing learners' errors prior to Grade 12

Subject adviser interviewee	View	
	Highly possible	Possible
MEED	With 80% chance at provincial level	
MSED		If isiXhosa is allocated to teachers who qualify to teach the language.

Table 49 shows that the subject adviser from the MEED reported a high possibility of learner language errors being addressed before the learners progressed to Grade 12. On the other end of the scale, the subject adviser from the MSED showed some uncertainty on this issue, as she posed a condition for the possibility: she seems to be reiterating her view that allocation of the isiXhosa subject to unqualified teachers is a cause of learners' language errors. It may therefore be said that these subject advisers have different views on the issue of the possibility of learner language errors being addressed prior to progressing to grade 12. Furthermore, what most teachers and the subject adviser from MEED reported is not what the data reflects. As Figures 8, 11 and 12 show, the December data reflects similarities in some of the errors found in the June data which are figure 7, 9 and 10. Furthermore, the data of five of the nine learners sampled here, namely Learners Four, Six, Nine, Thirteen and Nineteen, show that more errors were made in December. Conversely, the data of Learner Fifteen, Twenty-five and Twenty-six show that fewer errors were made in December than in June. The data of Learner Thirty show no difference in the number of errors made in June and December.

With all these observations, it could not be determined whether errors have negative or positive impact on learner academic success as the analysis shows diverse results.

5.3 FINDINGS

This section presents a summary of the observations and answers to the three questions of this research as presented at the beginning of this study. These observations and answers were revealed by the data obtained during the course of this research.

Analysis of written texts and oral representations (essays and interviews) was conducted to discover the types of language errors made by learners when writing isiXhosa academic texts, the possible causes of these errors and the impact of these errors on teaching and learning, language development and language conservation. Analysis was also intended to uncover the implications of such errors for isiXhosa teaching and learning and the extent to which the errors could be addressed in teaching and learning of isiXhosa. It was necessary for both groups of teachers and subject advisers to be interviewed in this study since they are involved in the delivery of isiXhosa curriculum, and so would have the knowledge and understanding of the language errors that are made by learners of isiXhosa L1.

During the initial stages of this research, approximately eight language categories were identified which were to form part of the categories under investigation, namely categories of probable language errors. Thus, they were foreseen and identified as analytical components for the enquiry into errors and included: grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, vocabulary, capitalization, syntax and semantics. The written essays from the June and December isiXhosa Paper Three examination of 2017 were analysed. Each text was examined word by word, then sentence by sentence, to determine and categorize errors according to the types of errors. In addition, to glean insights of the interviewees regarding the errors that usually exist in learners' texts, the researcher asked interviewees a number of questions pertaining to the errors they usually find in learners' written texts. Thus, five isiXhosa L1 teachers from three different schools; and two isiXhosa subject advisers from two Western Cape Education districts were interviewed.

As the textual analysis proceeded, new types of errors were identified; and those types of errors were considered anomalies since they fall outside of the usual scope of language categories and they were also not anticipated. These anomalies resulted in the coining of

new categories of errors to create a better understanding of the emerging themes and to lend meaning to such errors. These newly coined language error categories include the following: new lexical items, incomplete words, incorrect word construction, inter-categorical range, multiple deviations and writing inconsistencies. These unusual error categories, together with the usual ones, totalled 14 error types identified in this research. After presenting the examples of these learner errors, the researcher followed by giving corrections to such errors and determined the frequency of each error type. Lastly, the researcher counted the types of errors and total errors made by each participant. Moreover, during the textual analysis and interviews, new information and insights pertaining to the three questions of this study were discovered, leading to the realization of the objectives of this study. Ultimately, findings were drawn based on the entire data analysis and are presented under sub-headings of the main research questions as follows:

5.3.1 What are the orthographic errors occurring in the writing of isiXhosa?

This first question interrogates the types of orthographic errors occurring in the written texts of isiXhosa L1 learners as the group on which this study focuses. The analysis and the discussion in the previous sections show the types of errors made by the sampled group of learners in this study and the frequency at which each type of error was mentioned during the interviews. Therefore, in response to the first question, it has been found that the sampled learners made numerous types of errors which include these categories: grammar, spelling, word division, punctuation, vocabulary, capitalization, syntax and semantics. These learners also made other errors which are unusual and not as easy to explain as they fall within newly coined categories, namely: new lexical items; incomplete words; incorrect word construction; inter-categorical range; multiple deviations; and writing inconsistencies. However, not all the error types identified from the data were made by all learners. This means that the types of errors vary from learner to learner, and the frequency of errors made also vary.

There is no difference in the types of errors made by learners from different schools. These learners make pre-systematic errors, systematic errors and post-systematic errors, as classified by Corder (1973) as errors commonly made in second language learning. This, therefore, reveals that these types of errors not only exist in second language learning but in first language learning as well. Some global errors made by some of these learners hinder

message comprehension; and some do not. Thus, it is concluded that the seriousness of global errors varies, and so global errors may not be considered to have the same effect on the sentence and even on the message comprehension. They should therefore be categorized according to their seriousness. Various types of errors cited by the interviewees as the ones commonly found in the learners' language mostly fit the classification specified in the literature as they seem to range from local to global categories. Some types of errors mentioned in the literature were not mentioned during the interviews; and some were mentioned less frequently, even though they were perceived during data analysis of the learner texts.

The subject advisers and teachers shared somewhat different opinions regarding the types of errors that are commonly made by learners when writing in isiXhosa.

5.3.2 What are the possible causes and impact of these errors on teaching and learning, language development and language conservation?

The second question interrogates the possible causes and impact of these errors on teaching and learning, language development and language conservation. With regard to the possible causes of learner language errors in this study, the isiXhosa teachers and subject advisers outlined a number of possible causes of errors, some of which correspond with the ones suggested in the literature, whilst some not mentioned in the literature are newly discovered. The interviewed teachers hold differing views on the possible causes of learner language errors. The subject advisers are on different levels of understanding on this issue, and their views also contrast with those reported by the teachers. Amongst all other mentioned causes of learners' language errors, limited reading was frequently reported and so it seems to be a major possible cause.

Insufficient teaching and the limited time to teach the language use and rules were cited as possible causes of learners' language errors. This seems to link with the time on task expectation imposed by the curriculum. This seems to exert time limits on contact time with learners and increases work pressure on teachers. This view is drawn both from the interviews and the literature and seems to confirm that the manner in which the curriculum is designed contributes to the gaps observed in teaching and learning, not only in isiXhosa but in other subjects as well. Large class sizes are also considered a possible cause of

learners' language errors as this limits a teacher's attention on individual learners. Further findings were that teachers and subject advisers hold differing views about the possible causes of errors. The possible causes of errors include newly discovered causes not mentioned in the literature. Such causes include these: limited use of the language (isiXhosa); lack of respect for the language; disdaining (looking down on) the language; lack of teacher attention due to overcrowding; lack of learner interest; inefficient curriculum design; learner absent-mindedness; learner laziness; non-preparation for examinations; and a poor – or the lack of – an isiXhosa language base.

During analysis of learners' texts and identification of learner errors, the researcher found that no exact causes could be linked to the existence of the errors. Possible causes could be drawn from the interviews and through linking the insights drawn from the literature and the nature of the actual errors identified during data analysis. It is thus concluded that various factors might have caused some of the identified errors: incomplete acquisition; the education system; faulty teaching; social interaction with speakers of other languages; and factors relating to teacher feedback (such as inadequate feedback, wrong choice of feedback type, limited opportunities for students to engage and act on feedback, and learners' failure to pay attention to feedback). However, through textual analysis of essays, the researcher also found that a lack of orthographic knowledge, limited reading, linguistic change, interference of other languages and code switching, the influence of the media, social interactions, and language change are possible causes which could be linked to language errors made by the sampled group of learners. Furthermore, the analysis has also revealed that the pre-systematic, systematic and post-systematic errors made by these learners, as classified by Corder (1973), are caused by: a lack of knowledge of specific rules in isiXhosa (pre-systematic errors); the acquisition of an incorrect rule (systematic errors); and inconsistent application of the known rule (post-systematic errors). During the interviews, the researcher also found that, of the suspected causes of learner language errors mentioned by the teachers and the subject advisers, only a few correspond with the suspected causes mentioned in the literature and those include three: limited reading; feedback-related factors; attitude; incomplete acquisition of the language; faulty teaching; and other causes which were differently cited by the teachers. In addition to these are language contact or influence of other languages, as cited by one subject adviser; and the

influence of the media which was cited by both groups of interviewees (and which is the only commonly cited possible cause).

Moving on, with regard to the impact of the identified learner language errors on teaching and learning, as well as language development and language conservation, through the interviews, the researcher has found that these errors are not appreciated in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa because, instead of showing how learners are learning, they are an indication of deterioration of the language. After having examined specifically the impact of the identified errors on teaching and learning through analysis of learners' texts and interview transcripts, the researcher has found that the impact of such errors has become a concern. During the interviews, when the interviewees were sharing their views on the challenges faced in teaching and learning of isiXhosa and the types of errors made by learners, the researcher has found that learner language errors have a negative impact on teaching and learning. These errors affect the work schedule of teachers by setting them back as they cannot start their planned lessons without correcting the errors in not only learners' written language but their oral language as well. In addition, the researcher has discovered that such errors also affect the time allocated for the planned lessons. A further finding was that teachers consider it extremely important to address these errors in both spoken and written learner language as they believe ignoring them will only result in their persistence. Another finding on the impact of the identified learner language errors on teaching and learning is that some learners lose interest when the teachers teach them something that they have taught them before. They lose interest because they fail to understand that the lesson is being repeated to provide more knowledge on the subject matter and to address the gaps identified by the teacher pertaining to the learners' errors in writing. A conclusion drawn from all these points is that teaching and learning of isiXhosa is not happening at the rate at which it is supposed to happen: teachers frequently have to teach to assess, instead of teaching to impart knowledge. The researcher has also found that the teaching of isiXhosa in schools is not only affected by the challenge of learner language errors but other challenges which might be contributing to the persistence of these errors. Regarding academic excellence, during the analysis of the learners' texts, it could not be clearly determined whether the errors made by learners affected their academic performance. With regard to the impact of errors on language development, through the nature and the frequency of these errors identified during the textual analysis, it was

noticeable that these learners are struggling greatly to write in isiXhosa. They deviated noticeably from the standard rules of the language; and clearly, to a great extent, these errors have a negative impact on the development of the language use of these learners as far as the isiXhosa orthographic rules are concerned. Regarding the impact of the learner language errors on language conservation, the researcher found that, because of the lack of development of the language use of these learners, conserving the language may be impossible. The unusual types of errors identified during data analysis and the nature of such errors are a true reflection of this finding.

5.3.3 What are the linguistic implications of these errors and to what extent can they be addressed in teaching and learning of isiXhosa?

The third question interrogates the implications of these errors and the extent to which they can be addressed in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa. With regard to the implications, the researcher has found that the errors made by the learners in this study are an indication of serious problems in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa which require urgent attention. Further to this, the isiXhosa curriculum has some gaps which pose a threat to the language and its future, with such gaps relating to the alignment of the curriculum with the current isiXhosa orthography and the interventions used to address errors in the teaching of isiXhosa.

Regarding the extent to which errors can be addressed in teaching and learning of isiXhosa, during the interviews the researcher has found that there is no uniformity in terms of the strategies used in addressing learner language errors in the teaching of isiXhosa. Further to this, some of the strategies used in addressing learner language errors correspond with the approaches suggested in the literature. The few strategies suggested by the subject advisers for teachers to use in addressing learner language errors are actually used by few of the teachers. A further finding was that, even though the literature suggests the use of feedback strategies as a way of addressing learner language errors, none of the subject advisers suggested these for teachers to use. However, some of the teachers use feedback as one of the strategies for addressing errors. Further to this, researchers such as Beach and Bridwell (1984) suggest peer assessment as one of the most important approaches in addressing errors but none of the interviewed groups suggested it as an approach used. During the learners' texts analysis, the researcher has found that some of the strategies

used by teachers in addressing learner language errors, including feedback, did not help as these learners repeated the same kinds of most errors and at a high frequency. Further to this, there are no specific guidelines for teachers on how to address learner language errors in the teaching of isiXhosa, as teachers simply seem to use what they consider effective to address these errors. During the interviews, the researcher also found that both teachers and subject advisers hold different views on the extent to which these errors can be addressed. Most of the interviewees confidently reported an improvement of about 60% to 80%, maintaining that there are high chances of the learners' language errors being addressed before learners proceed to Grade 12, whilst the data analysis generated different revelations. Further to this, no connection could be made between errors and academic success as it could not be determined whether errors have a negative or positive impact on learner academic success, since the analysis showed various results.

5.4 CONCLUSION

So far in this chapter, the researcher has attempted to present the findings of the entire study based on the three questions which are introduced early in this study. These findings were drawn from the observations and answers revealed by the data obtained during the course of this research, which included interviews and the learners' written texts. With regard to the first question which interrogates the types of orthographic errors occurring in the written texts of isiXhosa L1 learners, it may be said that the findings provided answers to the question which revealed new insights into the types of errors occurring in the writings of the group of interest in this study. On the second and third question, it may be said that the findings, to a certain extent, provided answers and some clues that provide ideas for future research. The second question interrogates the possible causes and impact of these errors on teaching and learning, language development and language conservation, whilst the third question interrogates the implications of these errors and the extent to which they can be addressed in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa. The identified gaps for future research will be outlined in Chapter 6. It may therefore be concluded that this chapter has succeeded at providing answers to the three main questions of this study. Thus, it could be said that the three main objectives of this study were, to a great, extent achieved.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This concluding chapter addresses the following: (1) it recalls the rationale, the context of the study and why the context makes the study potentially significant; and states the objectives of the study; (2) it reflects on the theoretical framing and the methodology; (3) it presents: (a) the major findings of the study and conclusions, (b) the recommendations; and, finally, (4) it recalls the limitations of the study and gives some directions for further research.

6.2 RATIONALE AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

As may be recalled from Chapter 1, this study investigates the orthographic errors that exist in the isiXhosa writings of a sample of Grade 11 L1 learners in the Western Cape. After 1994, it was considered necessary for all languages to have rights and to be protected. Protecting languages meant that rules safeguarding them are established and applied to realise this objective. The South African Parliament established the Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB) to oversee the use of all 11 official languages of the Republic of South Africa. PanSALB then published Norms and Rules to guarantee that the establishment of the National Language Bodies as agencies of language development, with specific emphasis on the standardization and recognition of the entire African language community. This was PanSALB's initial step, amongst others, towards realizing its objectives. IsiXhosa as one of the official languages of the Republic of South Africa, also received the honour of being protected by the Norms and Rules of PanSALB through standardization. In practice, anyone who writes isiXhosa is expected to follow the standardized form of the language, as stipulated in the isiXhosa orthography. Thus, "If one does not adhere to the standardized guidelines for the language, one would be said to be ungrammatical" (Musehane & Mathabi 2016: 226). It is therefore argued that any errors made in any of the features of orthography outlined in the definitions of orthography (spelling, word division, punctuation, words and grammatical forms, etc.) would amount to a violation of the language orthography. There are numerous definitions attached to the

concept of orthography, and these definitions share somewhat similar elements and so they relate to one important thought: 'written prescribed rules of a language'.

As noted earlier, the learners' language in schools is not immune to orthographic errors. These errors exist in teaching and learning in schools, especially in the areas of writing and presenting skills; and they are not just evident, they present as a language shortcoming. Such errors include but are not limited to grammar, spelling, punctuation, vocabulary, syntax, and semantic errors. The causes of errors in language learning vary. It was therefore necessary to conduct a study of this nature to investigate issues pertaining to the types, causes and possibilities of addressing these errors in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa.

The context of this study is significant, in that schools are the best places to learn and master the language, as far as the orthographic rules are concerned. According to the literature reviewed in this study, improving one's speaking and listening competence is easier than reading and writing because, while the former two involve improving a natural ability, the latter two have to be taught. Once acquired, all these competences have to be refined, but reading and writing skills can only be learnt through formal training. These two skills (reading and writing) are basically the skills through which linguistic competence is often measured. In the researcher's view, conserving the language and maintaining its standard depends on refining these skills. This is another reason that a study of this nature is important. This study, therefore, aimed mainly at examining the orthographic errors that emanated from the texts of Grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners in the Western Cape, specifically to achieve the following objectives:

1. To identify orthographic errors found in these essays.
2. To identify the possible causes and impact of these errors on teaching and learning, language development and language conservation.
3. To identify the implications of these errors and the extent to which they can be addressed in teaching and learning of isiXhosa.

As mentioned earlier, this study is built on the theory of Communicative Competence (CC) which explains the determinants of communicative competence. Error Analysis (EA) is also used as an analytical theory and it explains what constitutes an error and ways to determine if a construction is erroneous. It also provides a procedure for the error analysis. These theories (CC and EA) and the nature of their study laid the foundation for the research methods applied in this study, namely the qualitative and quantitative approaches, with a qualitative approach being the predominant one.

6.3 CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions drawn were based on the data analysis, findings and discussion presented in this study. The achievement of the research objectives is attained through a review of these conclusions, together with the findings. In the process, answers are found to the three research questions of this study, namely:

- What are the orthographic errors occurring in the writing of isiXhosa?
- What are the possible causes and impact of these errors on teaching and learning, language development and language conservation?
- What are the linguistic implications of these errors and to what extent can they be addressed in teaching and learning of isiXhosa?

With regard to the first question, the fact that learners are taught using the same curriculum (CAPS) and by the same teacher does not guarantee that they will make the same types of errors. The results of this study have revealed that the sampled learners of isiXhosa L1 make different types of errors when they write in isiXhosa, even though they are in the same province, school and even in the same class group.

The types of errors made by these learners include spelling, word division, punctuation, vocabulary, capitalization, syntax, semantics, new lexical items, incomplete words, incorrect word construction, inter-categorical range, multiple deviations and writing inconsistencies.

Learners grasp the language differently because they have different learning capabilities and use language differently. Thus, not all the types of errors identified from the data were made by all learners; and the types of errors vary from learner to learner. The discovered errors are made to varied degrees, which means that the knowledge of how to apply the

language rules varies from learner to learner. Learners from different schools use a similar application of the language rules when writing texts; and their ability to use the language is almost the same regarding the application of the rules of orthography. Thus, despite being from different schools, they still make similar types of errors. Pre-systematic errors, systematic errors and post-systematic errors, classified by Corder (1973) as errors commonly made in second language learning, are also made by isiXhosa L1 learners. This therefore proves that these types of errors not only exist in second language learning but in first language learning as well. It is thus clear that the challenges surrounding second language learning may be similar to those surrounding first language learning; and this means that there might be some similarities in how L1 and L2 are learnt. Some of the global errors made by some of these learners are a hindrance to message comprehension; some are not. Therefore, the degree of seriousness of global errors varies, and so global errors may not be considered to have the same effect on a sentence and even on comprehension of a message. However, all the identified errors are probably not made intentionally. Teachers and subject advisers are well-versed in the various types of errors that are commonly made by learners. Their knowledge of these types of errors corresponds with the classification specified in the literature, as far as the local and global errors categories are concerned. This proves that these two groups are well-versed in the orthographic errors that exist in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa L1, even though they have slightly differing opinions about such errors. The basis of the differing opinions on the orthographic errors that exist in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa L1 is not yet known. Perhaps these differing opinions could result from a lack of a standardized effective system of addressing such errors in isiXhosa curriculum. This means that, teachers may have to be assisted by setting out a fixed set of guidelines of the effective strategies to use to address orthographic errors in the isiXhosa curriculum; strategies that will be used by all teachers who are involved in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa.

With regard to the second question, the researcher attempted to find the causes of errors through examining the written essays of the learners. It was not foreseen that it would not be easy to determine the causes of learner language errors without finding out directly from the learners who made those errors. The interviewed groups (teachers and subject advisers) outlined possible causes of errors, some of which correspond with the ones suggested in the literature, whilst some do not. There were also newly discovered possible causes. This

implies that research on causes of learner language errors will remain an ongoing task as long as these errors exist. This is confirmed by the fact that even the language specialists (teachers and subject advisers) who work with isiXhosa and who try to make learners aware of these errors hold differing views on the possible causes of the errors. When textual analysis has been the only way to determine the causes of learner language errors, conclusions about the possible causes have to be drawn through the nature and frequency of the errors found in the data. Therefore, the nature of some of the errors made by these learners makes it difficult to determine their causes and that left some gaps as far as the question of the causes of errors in this study is concerned. In spite of that, several possible causes were found, with limited reading considered the most likely cause of learner language errors, amongst all mentioned possible causes. Most of the errors made by these learners seem to result from a lack of orthographic knowledge, blamed on limited reading. Other causes which could have contributed to the errors, as revealed by the results of this study, include the following:

- The education system
- The very large class sizes in terms of learner numbers
- Lack of attention paid by the teacher owing to overcrowding of classrooms
- Inefficient curriculum design
- The limited time to teach the skill of language use and rules
- Faulty teaching
- Shallow teaching
- Incomplete acquisition
- Factors relating to feedback (inadequate feedback provided by teachers to learners; wrong choice of feedback type provided by teachers; limited opportunities for students to engage with and act on feedback; and learners' failure to pay attention to feedback).
- Poor or lack of language base.
- Non-preparation for exams by learners
- Learner absent-mindedness
- Learner laziness
- Lack of respect for the language

- Attitude related causes (Disdain for the language, lack of respect for the language, and lack of learner interest in the language)
- Lack of learner interest in the language
- Limited use of the language (isiXhosa)
- Social interactions
- Interference of other languages and code switching
- Linguistic change or language change
- The influence of the media

The errors identified through data analysis cannot be attributed to dialects and attitude, even though these are also considered possible causes of learner language errors. Some errors can be linked to attitude, including errors attributed to too little reading and a lack of orthographic knowledge. In addition, the researcher considers lack of respect for the language, disdaining the language, and a lack of learner interest in the language as related causes, reflecting an attitude towards the language.

A link between shallow teaching, the limited time to teach the language use and rules, and the time on task expectation imposed by the curriculum have been observed. They are all considered relevant as possible causes of errors emanating from a poorly designed curriculum. The time on task expectation by the curriculum is blamed for the gaps existing in the language use of these learners. The view is that the curriculum exerts time limits and pressure on teachers, seemingly causing them to be unable to address these errors successfully. This is one of the corresponding views of the interviewed groups with the literature. The raised issue of time limits and pressure exerted by the curriculum on teachers then leads to the conclusion that the way the curriculum is designed contributes to the gaps observed in teaching and learning, and not only in isiXhosa, but in other subjects as well.

The learners' language errors are not considered a representation of the system learners use to learn in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa because of the negative impact they seem to have on learning and on isiXhosa language. This impact includes possible deterioration of the language which is considered the worst. The learners' language errors are not just despised by the people involved in isiXhosa teaching and learning such as teachers and subject advisers but they have become a major concern, since there are other

pre-existing challenges that also make teaching and learning of isiXhosa difficult. When these challenges and errors are combined, they amount to a concerning threat to the language and its future.

Learners' errors affect the work schedule of teachers by setting them back; and that may be leading to shallow teaching because of the pressure the teachers have to complete the curriculum. However, the teacher does not intend to leave these gaps: they know the importance of addressing these errors in both spoken and written learner language, as they understand that ignoring them will only result in their persistence. Moreover, these errors have a cumulative negative effect on the teaching and learning of isiXhosa in that teaching and learning of isiXhosa is not happening at the rate at which it should. Because so much of their teaching time is spent on correcting learners' errors, teachers are found to be teaching for assessment instead of teaching to impart knowledge.

As serious as the effect that errors seem to have on the teaching and learning of isiXhosa, they do not seem to have any noticeably negative impact on the learners' academic excellence. The expectation was that, the more errors the learners make, the lower the marks they will get; however, the analysis, to a greater extent, has revealed the opposite. This strongly implies that something is not happening the way it should.

Learners' language errors also have a marked negative impact on language development. This is proven by the nature and the frequency with which these errors are made by the learners. It is undoubtedly so that these learners are greatly challenged when it comes to writing in isiXhosa, as they deviate distinctly from the orthographic rules of isiXhosa language. In addition, the lack of development of the language use of these learners, which is clearly indicated by the nature of the errors they make, indicates that conserving the language may be impossible unless something is done to address and prevent such errors.

It is now clear that the learners' language errors identified in this study have major implications for the isiXhosa language. Such implications include the serious problems in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa which need to be addressed with maximum urgency. As mentioned earlier, there are some gaps in the isiXhosa curriculum relating to the

alignment of the curriculum with the current isiXhosa orthography and the interventions used to address errors in the teaching of isiXhosa. Once again, these gaps are a serious concern since the language and its future seem to be threatened.

At this stage, addressing the learners' language errors is the main strategy that can be used to preserve the isiXhosa language and to ease the fears of language deterioration. The extent to which errors can be addressed in teaching and learning of isiXhosa seems to be a controversial issue. The teachers and subject advisers were quite confident that from 60% to 80% of learners' language errors could be addressed before these learners progress to Grade 12. However, analysis of texts revealed the opposite of this. Clearly, the teachers and subject advisers are not well informed on this issue.

As revealed by the data analysis, there is no uniformity in terms of the strategies used to address learner language errors in the teaching of isiXhosa. However, some strategies reportedly used by the teachers are in line with the strategies suggested in the literature. Nevertheless, not all teachers use the strategies suggested by the subject advisers to address learner language errors.

The use of feedback in addressing learner errors is one of the strategies widely suggested in the literature. However, none of the subject advisers suggested it as a strategy for teachers to use. However, some of the teachers use feedback as a strategy for addressing learner errors.

Peer assessment is also one of the most important strategies suggested in the literature to address these errors. However, none of the teachers or subject advisers considered it as a usable approach.

The high frequency rate and the nature of errors made by learners may be a result of insufficient strategies used by teachers in addressing such errors, including ineffective use of feedback. Further to this, there are no specific guidelines given to teachers on how to address learner language errors in the teaching of isiXhosa. Teachers simply seem to use what they consider effective to address these errors. This is probably why potential strategies such as feedback are not effective in addressing the learners' errors.

Lastly, the mark adjustment policies and circulars, such as the National Assessment Circular no. 3 of 2015 (RSA DBE 2015) which stipulates the mark adjustment criteria for the Senior Phase (Grades 7-9) and which has been applied since 2015, might have contributed to the errors made by these learners. The reason for this suspicion is that learners might have been progressed, even though they had not met sufficient requirements of the isiXhosa curriculum regarding the orthographic rules. Such knowledge gaps have manifested in the form of the errors identified in this study.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Three research questions were posed at the beginning of this chapter to clarify the objectives this study aimed to achieve. The literature reviewed during the course of this study gave deep insights into the issues relating to orthography and errors which form the bases of this study. The analysis and the discussions in the previous sections inform the recommendations which are to be made here.

The first question interrogates the types of orthographic errors occurring in the written texts of isiXhosa L1 learners as the group of interest in this study. In response to this question, it was found that the sampled learners made numerous types of errors which included unusual errors, even though not all the types identified from the data were made by all learners. Although the sampled learners are from different schools, the types and the nature of errors they made is similar. The errors identified were not fully aligned with the types that teachers and subject advisers considered were the error types made by learners. Based on these findings, it is recommended that:

- All the people involved in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa in schools (learners, teachers and subject advisers) learn more about the importance of the orthography of isiXhosa so as to be aware when deviations are being made from the specified components of the language. These parties need to learn more about errors so that they can fully understand the importance of avoiding making them, especially in teaching and learning of isiXhosa.
- More attention should be given to errors in the teaching of isiXhosa to ensure that the manner in which the language is used meets the standards of the language. This will help to maintain the value of, and to show respect for, the language.

The second question interrogates the possible causes and impact of these errors on teaching and learning, language development and language conservation. In response to this question, it was found that there are various causes of learner language errors, and that the teachers and subject advisers have differing views on this issue. However, limited reading seems to be top of the list of these causes. The education system and the manner in which the curriculum is designed are also causes. Apart from these, there are other challenges faced in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa, including the allocation of isiXhosa as a teaching subject to teachers who are not trained to teach the language in schools; and also the allocation of isiXhosa teaching to inexperienced teachers in the GET grades. These issues consequently compromise the language base, as these teachers lack the methodology and the necessary experience for teaching isiXhosa; and eventually these teachers seem to contribute to the making of these errors. These errors do not merely exist, they have a negative impact on teaching and learning of isiXhosa. Even though the impact of these errors on academic excellence is not fully clear, it is without doubt that they have a negative impact on learner language development and language conservation as the language of the learners seems to deteriorate. Based on these points, further recommendations are made, including the following:

- The National Department of Education should revise the mark adjustment policies and design the circulars in a way that does not compromise the quality of education pertaining to the teaching and learning of isiXhosa. This includes allowing opportunities for schools to scrutinize the readiness of learners prior to their consideration for progression and promotion. Schools have full details and are the best place to determine learner readiness to progress to the next grade. This will prevent progression of learners who are already failing in their current grades and save them from progressing to higher grades with the underlying motive of simply helping them reach Grade 12 (this seems to promote the practice of pushing learners out of the system).
- The National Department of Education should have policies which stipulate the criteria for the appointment of isiXhosa teachers; and a constant monitoring of these policies should occur to ensure that they serve the purpose for which they are meant. These measures will ensure that teachers who are appointed to teach isiXhosa are suitably qualified to do so, and to ensure their competency to teach the subject. This will assist in minimizing the factors that contribute to learners' orthographic errors.

- The National Department of Education should also review the time allocated to isiXhosa. This should be done to make reading a basic part of the curriculum. For example, reading should be a compulsory introductory part of a lesson on a daily basis. This will afford teachers more time to attend to learner errors and so help in familiarizing learners with the writing rules and conventions of the language, since such skills are also assessed through writing. Enhanced reading skills will assist to enhance writing skills because these skills complement each other.
- The Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB) should work closely with the National Department of Education in designing the isiXhosa curriculum and set out fixed guidelines to promote alignment with the orthography to ensure uniformity on how isiXhosa is used in the curriculum.
- With regard to the causes of errors, teachers should pay specific attention to the vocabulary used by learners, whether in spoken or written language. This will afford teachers an opportunity to correct and develop learners' vocabulary. Eventually, this will assist in minimizing errors caused by interference of other languages and code switching.
- Learners should ensure that they listen to the isiXhosa news programmes more frequently. This will afford them an opportunity to learn about the correct forms of the standard language since news broadcasters are generally considered to adhere to the standard rules of the language because of the proper editorial processes which other media programmes may lack.
- Even though this study could not prove dialects to be the cause of learner language errors, it is, however, also recommended that teachers should promote the use of dialects in the classroom. This will create an opportunity for learners to learn the standard alternatives of such dialects. Consequently, this will develop the learners' language and lessen the possibilities for dialects being the cause of errors in a learner's language.

The third question interrogates the implications of these errors and the extent to which they can be addressed in teaching and learning of isiXhosa. The researcher has found that the errors made by learners have numerous implications which include the growing problems in teaching and learning of isiXhosa. These identified problems require urgent attention before they get out of hand. Other implications include a lack of appropriate and fixed interventions

to address errors in the teaching of isiXhosa, and a weighty challenge for learners to write competently in isiXhosa. Learners are not accustomed to peer assessment; and they possibly do not realise that they are making errors when writing, so they are, to a great extent, unable to identify such errors. Such errors may worsen in terms of their nature and frequency. Because of the current promotion practices in that learners proceed to Grade 12 and beyond with such errors in their language use, the chances of these errors being addressed successfully are almost non-existent. However, it is not clear whether these errors have a negative or positive impact on learners' academic success because the analysis shows indeterminate results.

Based on the findings in response to all three research questions, it is further recommended that:

- The National Department of Education should review its assessment policies to ensure that they place feedback at the forefront as a core component of teaching and learning for the betterment of teaching and learning, not only of isiXhosa and other indigenous languages, but of other subjects as well. Prioritizing feedback as a core component of teaching and learning will promote academic success and excellence, as well as maintain a good standard of the language as far as isiXhosa teaching and learning is concerned. The reviewed assessment policies should draw clear guidelines on which types of feedback and criteria to use in language teaching and learning, especially in teaching indigenous languages at Home Language (HL) or First Language (L1) level. This will ensure that feedback serves the purpose for which it is intended.
- The isiXhosa curriculum set out a fixed set of guidelines on what strategies to use to address learners' language errors; and also emphasise collaborative efforts between teachers and learners in feedback construction to ensure that all parties take ownership of feedback strategies used in teaching and learning of isiXhosa. Teachers ensure that the feedback they provide to learners is timely, comprehensible and realistic for learners to use and to make revisions. They should constantly assess and revise their feedback strategies and types to ensure relevance and efficiency. They should also give attention to errors identified from learner texts and address them properly to minimise the possibility of errors compromising the language standard which may finally lead to language deterioration.

- Learners be taught about the importance of feedback so that they can understand, appreciate and value it. They should also be encouraged to engage thoroughly with feedback to facilitate their learning improvement and academic success. They should be familiarized with peer assessment and feedback whilst teachers facilitate the process, to promote self-learning and enhance learner ability to self-correct language errors. They should also be helped to correct text errors before they submit their texts to the teacher as per the CAPS prescriptions. Evidence of learner's editing can help a researcher analyse errors in texts and discern whether a learner has made a mistake or an error. Learners therefore should be encouraged to write short paragraphs as informal tasks (those can be in the form of writing lessons). They should also be urged to read more isiXhosa material beyond school hours; and also be educated about the importance of isiXhosa and its maintenance in our communities and in the country.
- Spelling tests and lessons be conducted regularly in the isiXhosa classrooms in both the GET and FET phases.
- IsiXhosa spelling, reading and writing competitions be introduced in schools as a form of extrinsic motivation to encourage learners to be passionate about the language and value it.
- Systemic tests on isiXhosa be introduced. This will place more value on isiXhosa, and learners will see that no subject is better than another.
- IsiXhosa be treated equally with other languages by involving technology in its teaching and learning. This could be done by integration of technology, such as tablets and cell phones in teaching and learning of isiXhosa, and by loading the prescribed books on these devices to arouse learners' interest in, and passion for, the language.
- IsiXhosa content be minimised and some elements of OBE, such as more informal activities prior to formal assessment and the teaching of syntax, be integrated back into the curriculum. In this way, teachers will not teach for assessment but for knowledge construction.
- Teachers be creative, as far as creating relevant teaching tools such as videos and pictures, and use those in their lessons to make isiXhosa an interesting subject for learners. They can also integrate other subjects in teaching and learning of isiXhosa to show learners that the language is not taught in isolation from other school subjects.

- Administration work for teachers be reduced because it interferes with the time that should be used for teaching all the language skills, instead of which teachers end up teaching to assess.
- Assessment tasks also be reduced to provide more time for teaching. This will lessen the pressure to meet marks submission deadlines which teachers are currently enduring, and which also affects how they structure assessment feedback for learners.
- Learner ratio be reviewed to reduce class numbers so that teachers can give individual attention to all learners. This will eventually assist teachers to know the individual needs of their learners as far as the orthography of isiXhosa is concerned.
- Language teachers organise campaigns and events to promote isiXhosa language so that it gains the same respect and level of development which other languages have managed to acquire.
- Academics in the language disciplines motivate and conscientize learners in schools about the benefits and importance of isiXhosa language. This will help make learners aware and knowledgeable about existing careers around the language. Being well-versed about the existing careers in isiXhosa eventually will enhance their interest in learning the language, knowing that it would not be a waste of their time and that they can secure jobs related to the language in the future.

6.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY; AND SOME DIRECTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the data collection part of this research became a daunting challenge due to various factors which included the following:

- Rejection by some principals of the researcher's request for the schools to participate in the study. Moreover, there was a lack of positive responses to my request to set up appointments to meet with them as the first line of contact to gain access to their schools.
- I experienced reluctance from some teachers, and some completely refused to be part of the study.
- Some teachers were simply not keen to avail the researcher of the learners' written essays when requested to do so; and some completely failed to make these essays available until the data collection period was over.

These setbacks were major because some schools which were initially identified as research sites had to be removed from the participating schools list. The researcher then had to find other substitute schools within the same districts. The researcher was also set back by the data collection period which took longer than the time allocated, as per the work schedule. Eventually, because of the non-cooperation described, the researcher had incomplete data sources, affecting both the written essays and interviews. Thus, the researcher eventually had to remove one school from the participants list due to unavailability of the December data; and ultimately, it was a challenge having only one teacher interview in one of the three remaining schools.

Another limitation to note is that, because the data used in this study is for the year 2017, the analysis was done using the orthography which was current at the time of the commencement of the research. The previous recent review of the orthography was done later in 2017 and launched in 2019). As a result, some of the corrections made may be based, or are based, on the previous orthography (the one which was applicable when the data were generated, and which coincided with the research commencement). For that reason, others who use this research are advised to familiarize themselves with the current orthography so that they are fully knowledgeable about what has changed. In addition, for practical reasons, and considering the volume of the thesis, the researcher could not analyse the entire data set collected from the three schools. Therefore, the researcher had to select six learners' texts from each school: three from the June data and three from the December data. Overall, a maximum of 18 essays could be analysed in this study.

Pertaining to the directions for future research, gaps were observed and those pertain to teacher contribution to learners' language errors, dialects and attitude as causes of these errors, as well the impact of learners' language errors on academic excellence. Clear answers to these are important, as they will provide more insight into the issues relating to learners' language errors which may make it possible to find more effective ways of addressing these errors without exploring many irrelevant avenues.

6.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided a conclusion to the study, including several recommendations and an overview of limitations of the study. It has also given some directions for future

research that stem from the gaps and findings of this study. Thus, a general conclusion could be reached that the three research objectives were achieved to a greater extent because the types of errors made by learners when they write in isiXhosa were revealed. In addition, the study was able to reveal some of the causes of these errors. Lastly, the impact of such errors on teaching and learning of isiXhosa, as well the possibilities of addressing these errors prior to the learners progressing to Grade 12, was included. On the issues where clear answers could not be found, gaps were identified for possible future research.

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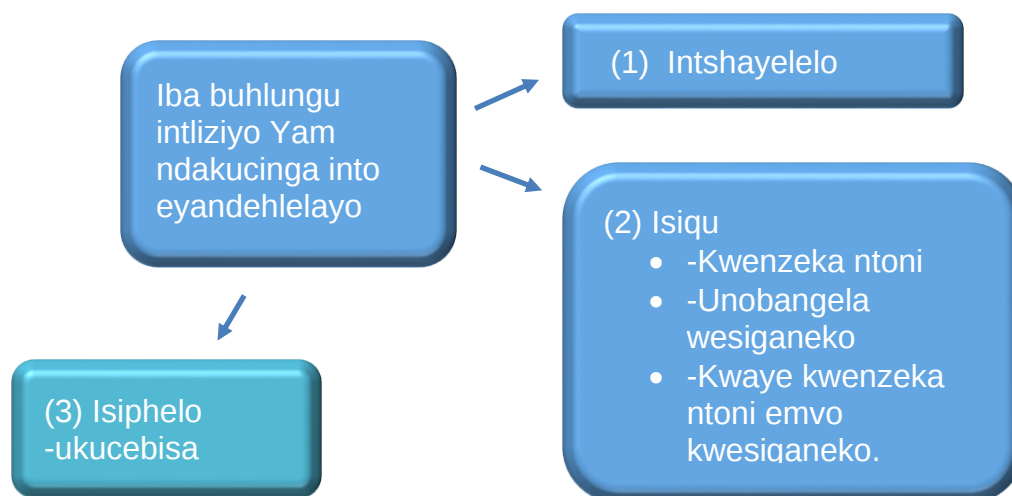
APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: LEARNERS' TYPED TRANSCRIPTS OF WRITTEN TEXTS

June data

SCHOOL A

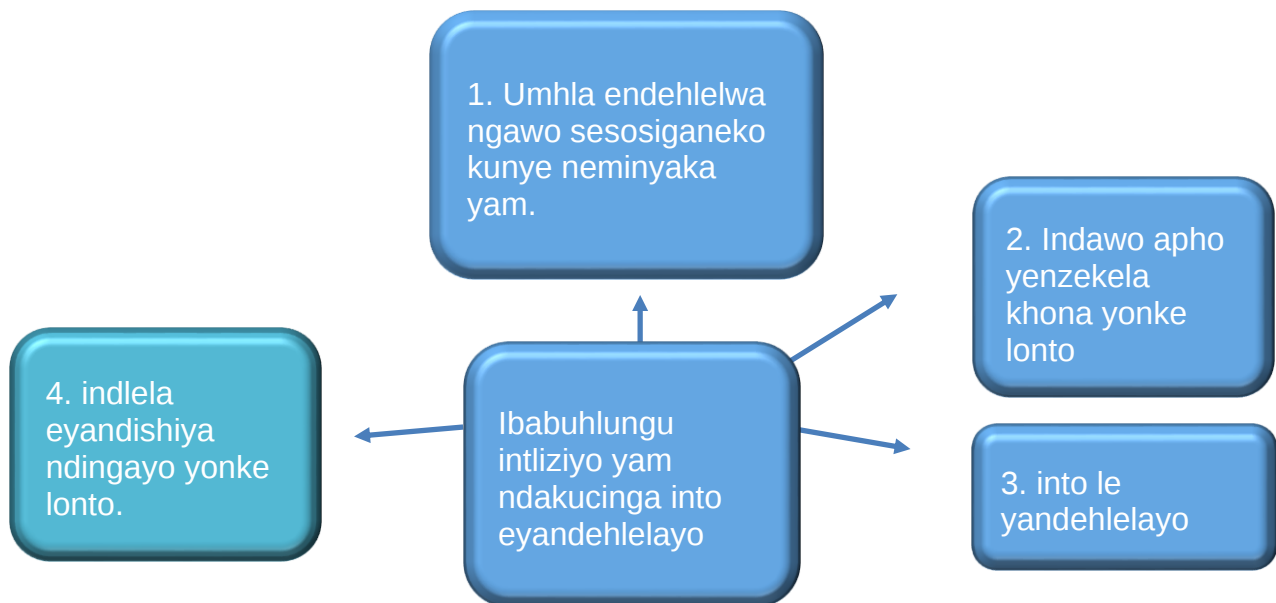
LEARNER FOUR



1. Apha kwesi Sincoko Sam ndizakuthetha ngento ethile eyathi yandehlela ethi ndakuyicinga yenze intliziyo yam ibe buhlungu. ndizakuthi ndithethe ngaphantsi Kwezi ngongoma Zilandelayo (1) Kwenzeka ntoni, (2) Unobangela wesiganeko, (3) ndinike nesiphelo ndicebise malunga nalento yenzeka kum.
2. Kwenzeka ntoni? Kwaku ngomhla wama-23 Tshazimpuni ngowama 2015 ndandizihleleli kwikhaya lam ndizibukelele Umabonakude ngentsimbi yesine emini ndizihleleli ndodwa ndabe ndingaluvalanga Ucango ndathi exesheni ndikwelinye igumbi ndabona ngomntu sele engena emnyango ogqiba waluvala wangena ndathi ndiphuma ndizama UkuyoJonga ba ngubani lowo ndathi g ntle ngomfana omdala endikhomba ngebhozo esithi mandithule ba ndike nje ndavula Umlomo Uzandibula lela apha ndabe ndikhala wasondela wandivala Umlomo wahomba wandisa Kwigumbi laba- Zali bam lokulala. wafika pha wandidlwengula lomfana lowo.

3. Unobangela wesiganeko? Unobangela Kungo Kuba ndandingawuvalanga Ucango kodwa ndiyayazi Ukuba Zimbi izinto ezezela ekuhlaleni ingako thina lutsha olunga mantombazana ngoba Siye Sidlwengulwe ogqiba Sibulalwe. Kwaye nabazali bam baye bandishiya ndedwa beyazi Ukuba kubi apha ekuhlaleni.
4. Kwaye kwenzeka ntoni emva kwesiganeko? wayenza yonke lonto lomfana ogqiba waphuma ebaleka wathi xa ephuma wahlangana nabazali bam egeyithini Utata wam wambamba ndabe nam ndisithi gqi ndilila ndathi mbambe tata Uzenaye lomfana Ugqibo ndidlwengula ngoku apha endlini yho u tata wam wambethela oko kuba enomsindo ovuthayo waze yena Umama wam ekhala wabe ebiza abahlali kwabe sekutsalelwa Umnxeba amapolisa kwakunye nemoto yezigulano I ambulance , babe abahlali kwaku nye notata wam bebetha lomfana undidlwengulileyo . athi gqi amapolisa Sele begqibile umbetha lomfana lowo egcwele Ugazi elila ecela amaXolo afika abuza amapolisa ndabe ndibachazele wathathwa Kelo mfana wangena emotwini yamapolisa, waye wagwetywa iminyaka eyi 20 years entolongweni mna ndahamba ndayohlolwa esibhedlela Kwafumani sekisa Ukuba akandi limezanga Kwoye andina Sifo andosulele ngaso.
5. Ndicebisa Ukuba abazali babo hoye abantwana babo abanga Mantombazana ngoba into ezezela Kubo Zibuhlungu Kwaye Zimbi baye bafumane into yoku dlwengulwa ogqiba babulalwe, ayivumelekanga into yokushiya Umntwana oyintombazana yedwa ingakumbi osele emncane [amagama ewonke 342].

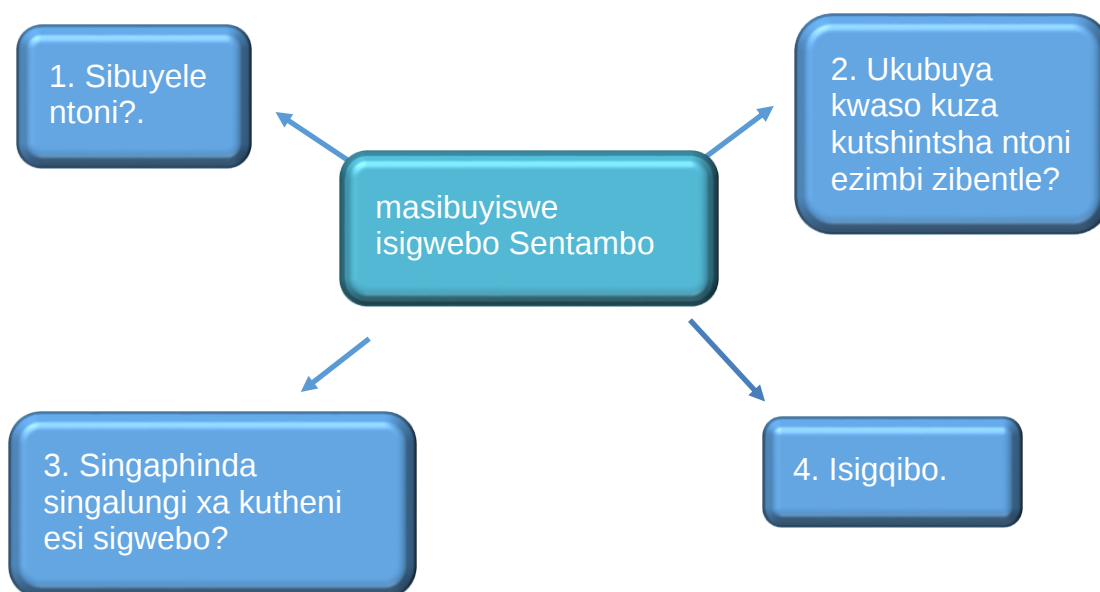
LEARNER SIX



1. Ngonyaka ka 2009-09-05 ndandigqiba iminyaka eli-10 ndizelwe. Lo nto ithetha ukuba yayilusuku lam lokuzalwa ngalomhla. Ngalomini ndandenzelwe imbiyozo ekhaya kuselwa umdiliya omfaxangiweyo ngabadala, kutyiwa izimuncumuncu ngabantanga kunye nam. Kwakungu wele wele nje kujayivwa konwatyawe kusiya le nale.
2. Kwasuka kwatsho izithonga zompu le kwacima nomculo yazizikhalo nje kusilwa otsotsi. Babeleqana bedubulana abanye babalekela ekhaya badubula kandi bachane oyena mhlobo kazi wam osenyongeni ngembumbulu emqolo. Umama wam zange avume ndiyokubona umhlobo wam wandivalela kwigumbi lokuphekela ndedwa. Ndahlala kwelo gumbi ndilila ndathi xa ndiyokuzithathela amanzi etafileni kwabakanti ndigile iketile enamanzi ashushu andithi yaka apha engalweni.
3. Ndasothula entloko isikhalo ndandinga yazi noba ndithini, umalume kazi wam wangena embonzelekile. Wathi xa efika endibona wothula esakhe isikhalo kwangena nabanye abantu. Umama wam wafika wandikhulula impahla endandizinxibile wandigalela amanzi abandayo. Ngalolonke eloxesha kusalindwe inqwelo yezigulana eyayizazokuthatha umhlobo wam. Kwimpahla endandizinxibile kwashiyekele inyama yam.

4. Umhlobo kazi kamama wam waye wayokufuna imoto ezakubhatalwa ukuze ithathe mna nosima umhlobo wam isise esibhedlele kuba inqwelo yezigulana yayicotha kakhulu ukufika ekhaya. Umama womhlobo wam wayengekho ngalolonke elixesha kwenzeka yonke lento, wayephangele. Yaye yakhawuleza ke lo moto yayiyofunwa ngumhlobo kamama endleleni eya esibhedlele sisihama nomama wam nomhlobo wakhe. ~~Wa~~ Umama waye watsalela ~~wa~~ umama kasima umxeba emxelela ngesehlo esehlileyo endlili.
5. Ukufika kwethu esibhedlele siye safakwa kumagumbi ahlukeneyo mna ndahlanjwa kwelam igumbi ndafakwa amayeza ndabhandeshwa. Umhlobo wam wahlala into engange veki ezimbini esibhedlele wabuya ehamba ngesitulo. Ndaye ndamana ndisiya e kumaziko ezempilo kemnake ndade ndagqiba ukupholisa ndaphinda ndaphila.
6. Umhlobo wam yena usahamba ngesitulo nanamhlanje. Ndiye ndithi ndokuzijonga apha engalweni kulandawo ndandi- ~~the~~ tshe kuyo ndive kabuhlungu kakhulu ndicinge nango sima umhlobo wam. [368]

LEARNER NINE



1. Kwisincoko sam ndiza kuthetha ngesihloko esithi masibuyiselwe isigwebo sentambo, ndithethela phantsi ngwezi ngongoma zilandelayo: Sibuyiselwe ntoni?, Ukubuya kwaso kuza kutshintsha ntoni ezimbi zibezintle?, Singaphinda Singalungi xa kutheni esi sigwebo sentambo?, kunye nesigqibo.
2. Ilizwe lethu lise lajika lagcwala iindlavini mva nje. Mva nje asisoyiki zilwanyana nazithunzela koko soyika abantu aba bafana nathi ngokudalwa nguThixo. Yintoni unobangela walomkhwa? URhulumente wehlise umxakatho ekugwebeni iintswelaboya. Xa bekukho isigwebo sentambo umntu ebezokucinga kabini ngaphambi kokuba abulale usana alufunxe igazi. Sakumana ukuthi kuyagwetywa emhlabeni nguThixo kanti abenzi bobubi baboba bengagwetywa ngezenzo zabo. Masibuyiswe isigwebo sentambo khonukuze ilizwe lilawuleke njengakuqala. Kuse kwalula ukubulala abantu okweembovane ngenxa yokungagwetywa kabantu eMzantsi Afrika. URhulumente makancede abuyise isigwebo sentambo kuba kuyonakala elizweni lethu.
3. Xa sinokubuya isigwebo sentambo phantse wonke ubani ebezokuwumamela umthetho kuba woyika ukuxhonywa. Bekungenokubanjwa umntu ngenxa yokubulala, avalelwe iminyaka aze athi akuphuma aphinde abulale. Loo nto ithetha ukuthini ngesi sigwebo skuvallelwa ejele? Ithetha ukuba nokuba bangavalelwa abazisoli kwaye abasiva sibuhlungu isigwebo sokuvallelwa, basiva besekhayeni kumnandi, loo nto ibangele ukuba kube lula ukuba baphinde bophule umthetho kwakhona. Kanti ukuba bekukho isigwebo sentambo, bekuzothi emva kokuba kuxhonywe ezinye ezintswelaboya abanye ebebecinga ukumosha bebezoku balekela kude nolwaphulo-mthetho. Belizokwehla inani labantu abadlwengulayo yonke imihla, belizokwehla inani labantu ababulalanayo, abantu athengisa iziyobisi ezingekho semthethweni ndibala ntoni na. Lilonke eli lizwe lakuthi ukuze libuyele esimeni esiqhelweni kubuye isigwebo sentambo.
4. Nangona esi sigwebo sentambo singenza utshintsho olu khulu eMzantsi Afrika apha, kodwa ngamanye amaxesha sikwanobungozi. Kaloku kwamanye amaxesha amapolisa ayayenza into yokubamba umntu ongenatyala abe phofu wona ecinga ukuba unetyala, xa ngaba lo mntu bemgweba, bamvalele mhlawumbi, uyakwazi ukuphinda avulelwe xa kuthe kwafunyaniswa ukuba akanatyala. Masithi kengoku lo mntu ebegwetywe isigwebo sentambo, ebezokusweleka kwaye afele izono zomnye umntu, kwaye umntu xa eswelekile akaphinde avuke. Ibe buhlungu ke loo nto kwabo bamzalayo nakwabo

bazalwa nguye. Kodwa ke singayilungisa naleyo into. Amapolisa kunga nyanzeleka ukuba xa ebambe umntu, enze uphando oluphangaleleyo, angoneliswa nje bubungqina obuphambi kwabo, enze uphando kuba aqeshelwe loo nto kakade. Aze emva kokuba eqinisekile ngophando kube ngona agwetywayo umntu lowo.

5. Lilonke ke uRhulumente makasibuyise esi sigwebo sentambo, ayikho enye indlela, xa umntu engeva ngokuxelelwa makabulawe kuba uyingozi kwabanye abantu. Kaloku kwa uba ubulale loo nto ithetha ukuba isazela sakho sifile, awusengomntu ke ngoku, usisilwanyana. Bangaphela abantu sibe sisithi sithembe ijele, hayi noko liyohlulakala nalo ngoku. [Amagama: 373]

SCHOOL B

LEARNER THIRTEEN



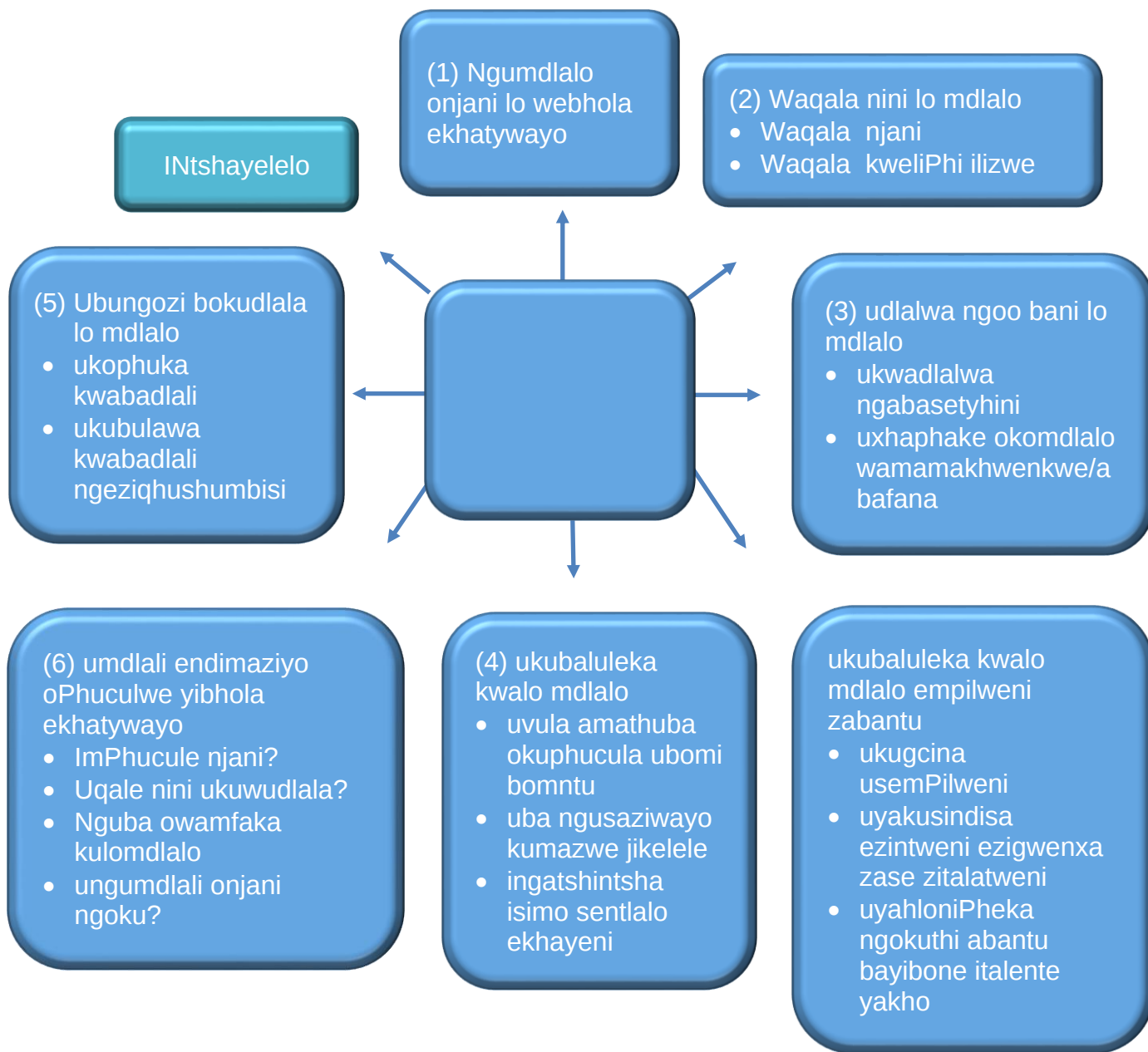
1. Izinto ezibalulekileyo ezinokwenziwa ngumfundi webanga le -12 ukuze aphumelele emagqabini kufuneka iincwadi, uzifunde kakhulu uzive ayazi ukuba zithetha nganto, ulwazi alufuma nayo, akwazi ukulusebenzisa kwizifundo zakhe
2. Ukunzimisela kakhulu kwizifundo zakho kuba khona umvuzo omhle ngokuba xa upasa ibanga le -12 nga emagqabini uyakwazi ukufumana umsebenzi Ophakamileyo ozakwenza uphile ubomi obubhahlileyo, uzimele xa ufuna into uyazithengela awusokolisani nabazali
3. Ukubuzwa kumisi xa ungacacelwanga kuyancenda kokulo ngokuba uzam xeleda lendawo ungayi vanga ukucacisele akubonise ukuba yenziwa njani kuyoba nzima ukuba

ungaphinde uyilibale nolonto yokubuza iyancenda ngokuba ukhula nayo eklasini awushiyeki ngokuba into xa ungayazi uyayibuza ungavele uhlale phantsi uthule

4. Abenaba ukuba naba hlobo ofunda nabo ngepela veki kuyancenda ngokuba abanye abantwana babanendloni ukubuza into komisi okanye eklasini kubalula xa ubuza kumhlobo wakho ngokuba uzaku cacisela ngehdlela ayanziyo ukuba uzamva, akazuku ngenzela okanye ahlekise ngawe
5. Ukuzimisela kumsebenzi wasekhaya wasesikolweni kuyanceda kakhulu ngokuba uyazijonga ukuba xa uhleli wedwa uyamva ukuba umisi ebesithini ukhe wenze umsebenzi uyazinceda ngokuba xa uvula incwadi ukhe ufunde kukho into uzayibamba noba awuyi bambanga yokhe kodwa ikhona into oyifundileyo
6. Ukusebenza ngokunzi misela kunomvuzo akekho umntu onofumana inda into angayisebenzi langa yilonto nasesikolweni funeka uzimisele kakhulu xa ufunda ibanga 12 ukuze ubumelele kakuhle kodwa nokuphumelela into ikuwe ngokusebenza ngokuzimisela kwizifundo zakho
7. Ukubaluleka ngoku Phumelela emagqabini ibanga le- 12 lonto yenza ubomi bubelula kancinci ngokuba uzokhe uphole kancinci ngokuba umsebenzi ungakwazi ukumfumana uku ukuhambisa ixesha kunyaka ozayo uyofunda kwiyunivesithi, u urhulumente uyakwanzi ukubhatalela xa upase kakuhle

LEARNER FIFTEEN

Ibhola ekhatywayo ngumdlalo owaziwayo kumazwe Jikelele kwaye unike umdla kwabantu abaninzi



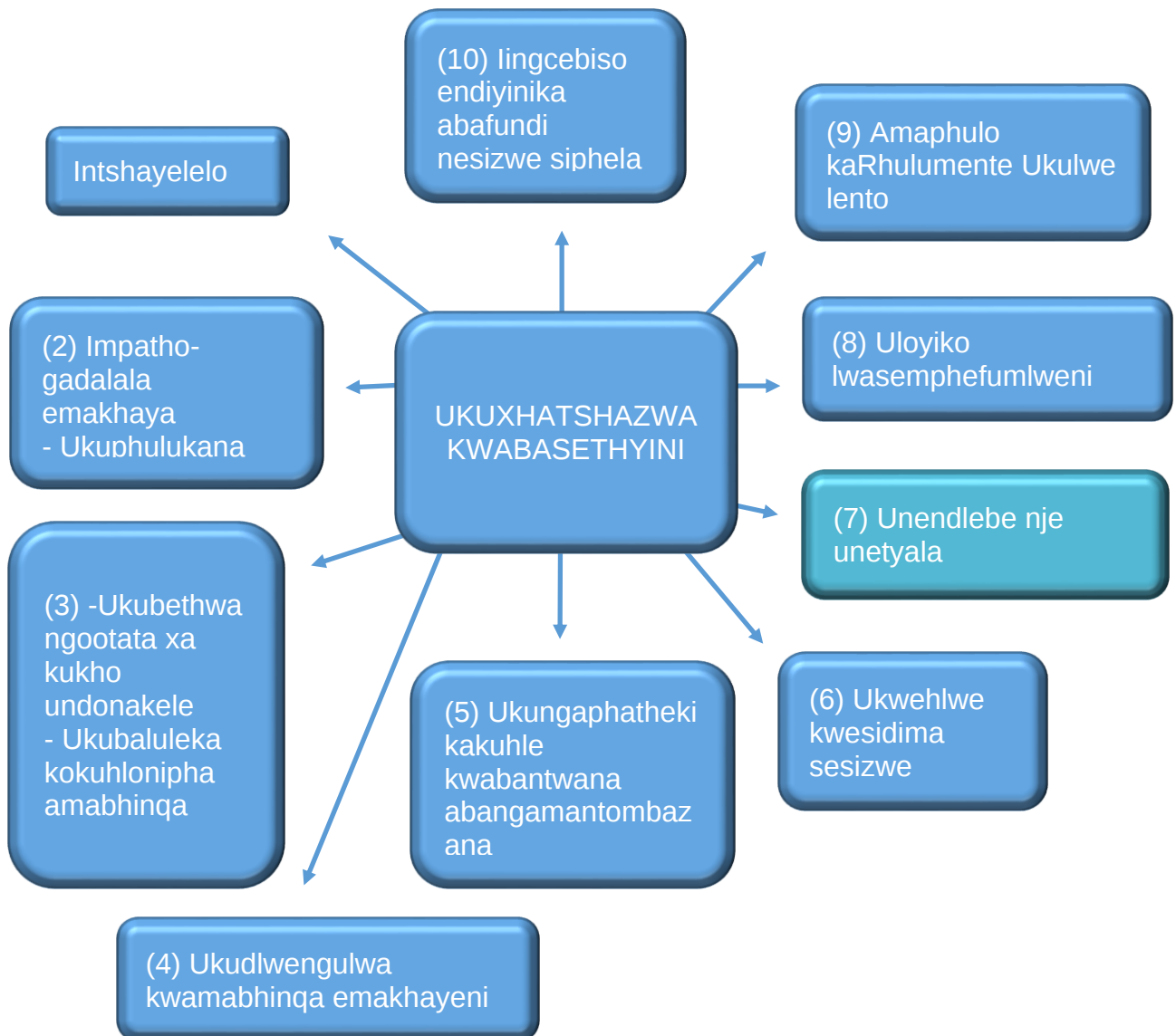
1. Ukuqala komdlalo webhola ekhatywayo ibikuku qala ukudibansa amazwe amaninzi ngendlela ehloniPhekileyo kwaye enolonwabo Phakathi.
2. Umdlalo webhola ekhatywayo ngumdlalo othi wakhe ubuhlobo nabantu obunga basizi. Ibhola ekhatywayo ngumdlalo okwafana ne sikolo, kungo kuba uye uyu qale

usemncinane kwaye uwufundiswa ngumntu owaye wudlala mandulo onamava. Umdlalo webhola ekhatywayo ngumdlalo onemithetho nje nge sikolo, umz. kufuneka ninxibe ngoku fanayo xa nidlala lo mdlalo, kufuneka nilandele umthetho ka Sompempe lo uphethe umdlalo odlala indima enjengenqununu yesikolo

3. Lo mdlalo webhola ekhatywayo waqala ngowe-1830 kwilizwe lase Brazil. Lo mdlalo waqalwa nje ngomdlalo wabantwana bezidlale esitalatweni bewudla la ngee ngxowa zama orenji ezinamaphePha Phakathi. Omnye umfana owaye Sebenza nje ngo titshala owaye dlula ngemoto wabona abantwana be wudlala. Lo titshala wamisa imoto waba bukela aba bantwan kwaye wanomdla woku wazi lomdlalo. Waya kuwu buzo kwaba bantwana waza waya kufundisa abantwana kwisikolo awayefunisa kuso.
4. Abantwana beso sikolo bawuthanda lo mdlalo bewufundiswa ngu titshala wabo. Utitshala owaye saziwa ngelika Pelinho waxelela omnye umhlobo wakhe owaye yititshala ngalo mdlalo waba nomdla umhlobo wakhe waza wacela ukuwubona. UPelinho wahamba naye umhlobo wakhe ngemini elandelayo baya kwesa sitalato wayewubone kuso lo mdlalo. Umhlobo wakhe waba nomdla naye badibanisa intloko, baza negcinga zokuba bafundise ezikolweni abafundisa kuzo baze bazidlalise kunye. Zahamba ngendlela ezongcinga zabo yada yangumdlalo ophucukileyo.
5. Lo mdlalo udlalwa nangu bani na ofuna ukuwudlala kuba awuna mthetho othi makudlale obani. Lo mdlalo uxhaphake kakhulu njengo mdlalo wabafana/amakhwenkwe. Ibhola ekhatywayo iye yadlalwa nanga base tyhini/amantombazana kule mihla siPHila kuyo. Le yabafana ibhola ekhatywa ixatyiswe kakhulu ukodlula le yamantombazana. Into eyenza loo nto kungo kuba waqalwa ngamakhwenkwe lo mdlalo kwaza kwabonwa mva ukuba mawenziwe/mawudlalwe nangamantombazana.
6. Lo mdlalo webhola ekhatywayo ubalulekile ebomini bomntu. Ibhola ekhatywa ibaluleke ngokuba uye uhlale usempilweni ngokuthi uzivoca-voce mihla le. Uye ube luncedo kulutsha ngokuthi lwenze ulutsha lube nento yokwenza elokishini endaweni yokuba bahlale ezikoneni. Lo mdlalo ukwa sindisa ulutsha ukuba lu PhePhe kwizinto ezi gwenxa zase lokishini umzekelo: ukutshaya iziyobisi, umlo wamaqela amakhwenkwe, ukuselwa kotwala lulutsha.

7. Xa uphumelele ebholeni ekhatywayo uye ube ngu Saziwayo ohloniphekileyo emazweni jikelele. Umdlalo wale bhola ikhatywayo unga landelela ekubeni utshintshe isimo sentlalo ekhayeni ibengcono. Ibhola ekhatywayo iye ikubonise amazwe kwaye iya kwazi uku kukhupha elokishi okanye elizweni lakho uyokuhlala kwelinye ilizwe phesheya. Abanye abadlali baye babenalo ithamisanqa athengwe liqela lakwelinye ilizwe ngesi thonga kazi Semali
8. Umdlali endimaziyo owaphuculwa yibhola ekhatywayo ngu mdlali owaziwa ngelika Lionel Messi. Lo mdlali waye ngumntwana ongena khaya ehlala esitalatweni waza wacholwa ngu Diago Maradono owaye hlala kwilizwe lase Argentina. U Lionel Messi waye khubazekile enemilenze engalinganiyo waza wenzwa uqhaqho kulo mlenze wakhe. Emva kweminyaka emibini u Messi wafakwa kwiqela lase SPain elaziwa ngokuba yi Barcelona. Wadlala ene minyaka eli- 13 ngoku uneminyaka engama- 29 kwaye ngumdlali onemali owaziwayo kuwo onke amazwe
9. ~~Ukuba~~ Ubungozi balo mdlalo kukuba abadlali baye bophuke emdlalweni engophulwa nge bomu, loo nto iye ibangele ukuba umdlali angaze aphinde akwazi ukubuyela emdlaleni. Kwa wanye amazwe abadlali baye ba bulawe ngabalandeli ngokuthi kujulwe iziqhushumbisi ebaleni kudlalwa. Elona lizwe laziwa nga loo mkhuba mbi yi (Egypt). Abanye abadlali baye bavaleke isifuba ngenxa yokudinwa ebaleni lokudlalela.

LEARNER NINETEEN



UKUXHATSHAZWA KWABASETHYINI

1. Kazi iyoza nkomoni na? Mihla ndizipheka ndizophula ndizibuza lo mbuzo unga ukrazula intliziyo yam, udala iingxangxasi zeenyembesi emehlweni am. Ukubona ilizwe lakowethu ma Afrika amahle, xa sishiya ngasemva intetho ethi “Wathinta abafazi, wathinta imbokodo”. Impatho gadala ngoku sele iyinto eqhelekileyo ingakumbi apha kuthi sizwe sase Afrika.

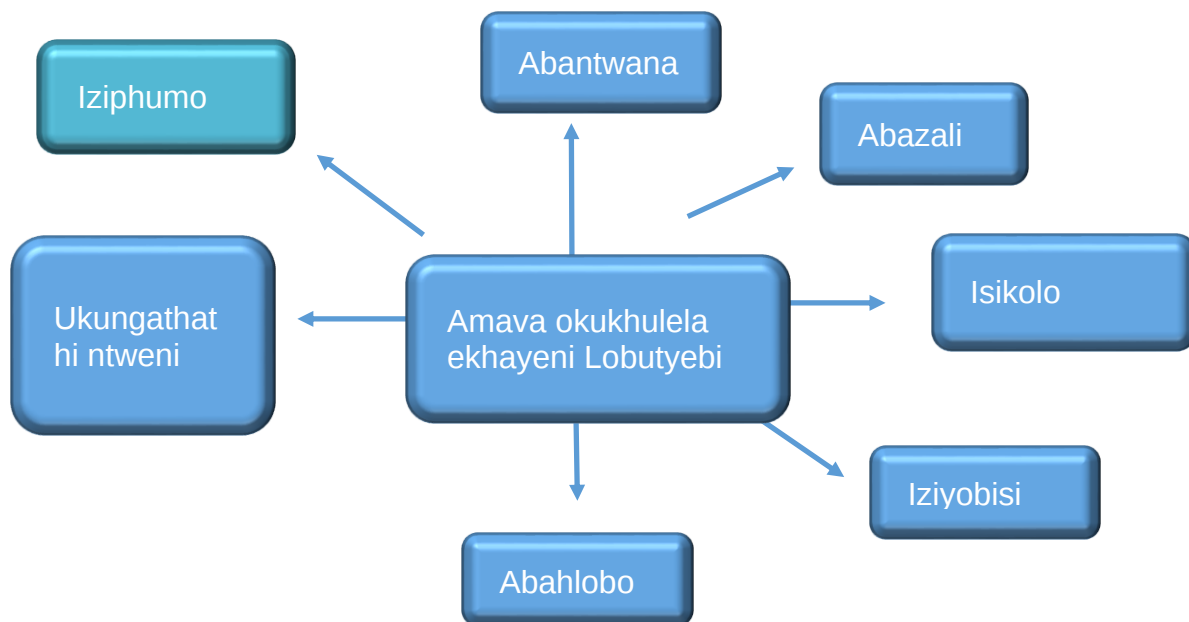
2. Kaloku amakhosa athi “amabhinqa akukuma komzi”, kubekho uthando ikhaya lifudumale. Kwenziwa njani ke oko xa amabhinqa ephethwe gadalala. Emakhayeni ethu alusekho uxolo kuba kaloku amabhinqa aphila phantsi kweemeko ezingaginyisi mathe noko. Ingaba imbangela yoku sisini samabhinqa okanye kukuba abantu bezizijama nkungwini bengabuqondi ubungozi boku. Kazi iyoza nkomoni na?
3. Emakhayeni ethu oomama bethu bayabethwa ngootata bethu ,ingekuba kukho undonakele qha ikukuqina enyaleni. Impatho gadalala ngakumabhinqa leyo into iphuhlisa ubuyatha. Abanye babethelwa ukutsiba amafu. Kaloku mawethu abasemzini bathi “ukuthetha sisixhobo sokoyisa yonke ingxabano” , ngoko ke kumele Ukuba amabhinqa ahlonitshwe, kwaye axatyiswe. Umgaqo siseko weli uyibeke yacaca ukuba wonke ubani unelungelo lofumana isidima. Kwakhona emakhayeni ethu abase Tyhini bayadlwengulwa nto leyo ephuhlise ipatho gadalala. Phofu ke bedlwengulwa zizihlobo kwa ezi zabo. Yayaphi no iqhayiya ngamabhinqa? Mihla le siva isiganeko apho amabhinqa ashiyeka engamakhoba kodwa kungabikho ubulungisa.
4. Nabantwana abangamantombaza abaphethekanga kakuhle kwaphela. Umzekelo, kukho inqaku lephepha-ndaba ebeliphume kweziveki ziphelileyo elibonisa abantwana ekusetyenzwa ngabo, kushishinwa ngenjongo yongcamla ubutyebi. Abo bantwana bebenyanzeliswa ukuba balale nabani na onoko ukukhupha ixabiso elifunwayo.
5. Isidima somzantsi Afrika uphela sirhuqeka edakeni kaloku amakhosa athi “Umntu ngumntu ngabantu”, kodwa indlela le amabhinqa apheke ngayo indibangela amasikizi. Amanye amabhinqa aye aphaatheke kakubi ngokwa semphefumleni ngenxa yemeko ezahlukeneyo nto leyo ebangela uninzi lushiyeke luno cinezelelo lwengqondo.
6. Mawethu sibonile ngamehlo, sivile ngendlebe, unendlebe nje unetyala! Siluvile ukhwelo kungani singasabeli nje. Nasemisebenzini ikho lenyewe yokuxhaphaza abase Tyhini. Mihla le siva kusithiwa kukho amabhinqa abhubhileyo emveni kokuba eye ahlukumezeka. Iphi inkathalo ngeli xesha? Ukuxhatshazwa kwabe Tyini ndiyakukhalimela ndithi makuphele.
7. Kuyilemihla amabhinqa sele ehamba ezitalatweni anoloyiko kuba awazi okokuba kuzakwenzeka ntoni na. Ngoku sele bengamakhobo empatho-gadalala. Lo nto

isibekaphi isizwe sakowethu? Nasezikolweni imbala ikho lenyewe. Umzekelo ukukho abafundi abangamantombazana kwidyunivesithi yaseRhawutini ababethelwa ingcwaba zizinqanda-mathe zabo.

8. Akukho zinzame angazenzanga urhulumente ukuhlangabezana nalengxaki. kukho iinkqubo namaphulo amaninzi athathiweyo kodwa abantu basaqine enyaleni, ukuzekelisa oku amaphulo afana ne “16 DAYS OF ACTIVISM”, apho urhulumente ebejongane nokufundisa abantu ngokubaluleka.
9. Lilonke ndibongoza ndisithi “IMPATHO-GADALALA” ayisisombululo sendlela umntu aziva ngayo yena. Impatho-gadalala sisixhobo samagwala, kwaye lenyewe ibuhlungu kakhulu, kwaye iziphumo zayo ziyingozi. Amangesi athi xa ethetha “A real man don’t rape”. Ukuvala lento ihlisa isidima selizwe lethu. UBUMBANO NGAMANDLA MAWETHU!

SCHOOL C

LEARNER TWENTY-FIVE

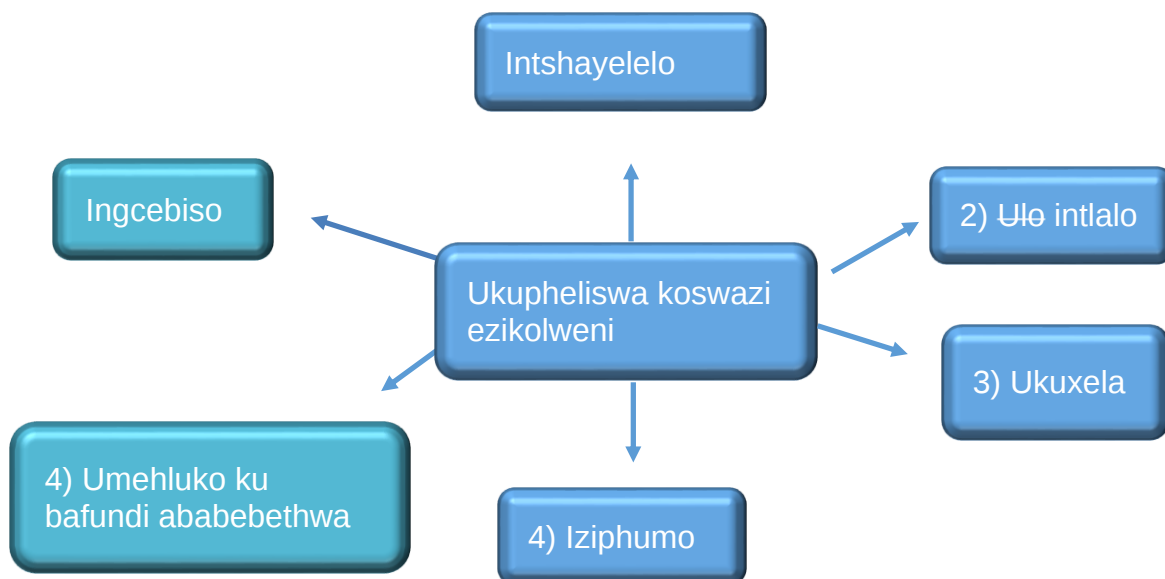


1. Ukukhulela kwikhaya elinobutyebi liye libamoshe abantwana kuba umtwana uye akhule efumana yonke into ayifunayo nto leyo iye ibangele ukuba bangakhathali kwezinye izinto.
2. Ulutsha luye k lwenze izinto ezingalunga nga ngenxa yobutyebi bamakhaya abo kwaye baye bathathe izigqibo ezingalunganga. Abanye babo baye bayeke isikolo kuba umntu uvele angayiboni into ayifundelayo kukho imali kowabo. Baye balibale ukuba xa ufunda we nzela wena uzamela wena ikamva elingcono ubenemali yakho ungaxhomekeki mntwini ukwazi ukuzimela.
3. Abanye babo baye balibale ukuba imali ekhoyo kokwenu ayiyoyabo yeyabazali babo kuba ngabo abayisebenzeleyo. Okunye ngenye imini abazubakho ebomini bakho kufuneke uzihoye ngokwakho kuba bangashiya naninina. Yiyo lonto kufuneka ufunde ukuze ukwazi ukuzihoya naxabengasekho.
4. Baye bayeke isikolo umntu atye imali yaba zali bakhe. Xa abazali sebengasekho babe bem shiye nemali ayitye ngendlela engalunganga nabahlobo ayinxile athenge

nempahla ezibi zayo angalungiseleli ingomso. Uye aphele umntu sengenanto nabahlobo bangabikho kwaphela imali usheke ungenabani uwedwa.

5. Umntu uye aphele setshaya iziyobisi abemdakana. Abangamadoda bona baye baphe berobha beqhekeza imizi batshaye iziyobisi. Ukanti amantombazana baye baphele sebethengisa ngemzimba balale namadoda abangawaziyo bosuleleke kwizifo. Umntwana ophuma kwikhaya elingathathi ntweni uye abenomehluko kuba uyayazi ukuba ukuze kulunge ekhaya kufuneka ndifundile.
6. Okanye uyayazi ukuba bazali bakhe bazama ko nke ukuze afunde alala etyile kwaye abene ndawo yokuhlala. Akafani nophuma kutyewe kowabo kuba yena uyayazi ukuba yonke into ayifunayo uyayifumana nto leyo ibangela angakhathali. Kwaye uye anga hoyi nesikolo kuba uyayazi ukuba yonke into iza lula kuye. Nto leyo ibangela ukuba aphelele kwizinto ezingalunganga
7. Umntu uye acinge amazwi abazali sebenga sekho xa emane esithi funde kuba ngomso ndingangabikho. Umntu kubekho athi nokuba ndandifundile kuba ngekungenje kodwa naba zali bayabamosha abantwa ngokubenzela yonke. Kuba abantwana baye banga khathaleli kuba bayayazi ukuba yonke into into abayifunayo bayayifumana.
8. Ingcebiso zam kulutsha zezokuba bafunde ukuze Sikwazi ukuzimela Singahoyi ubutyebi babazali kuba ayibobethu.

LEARNER TWENTY-SIX

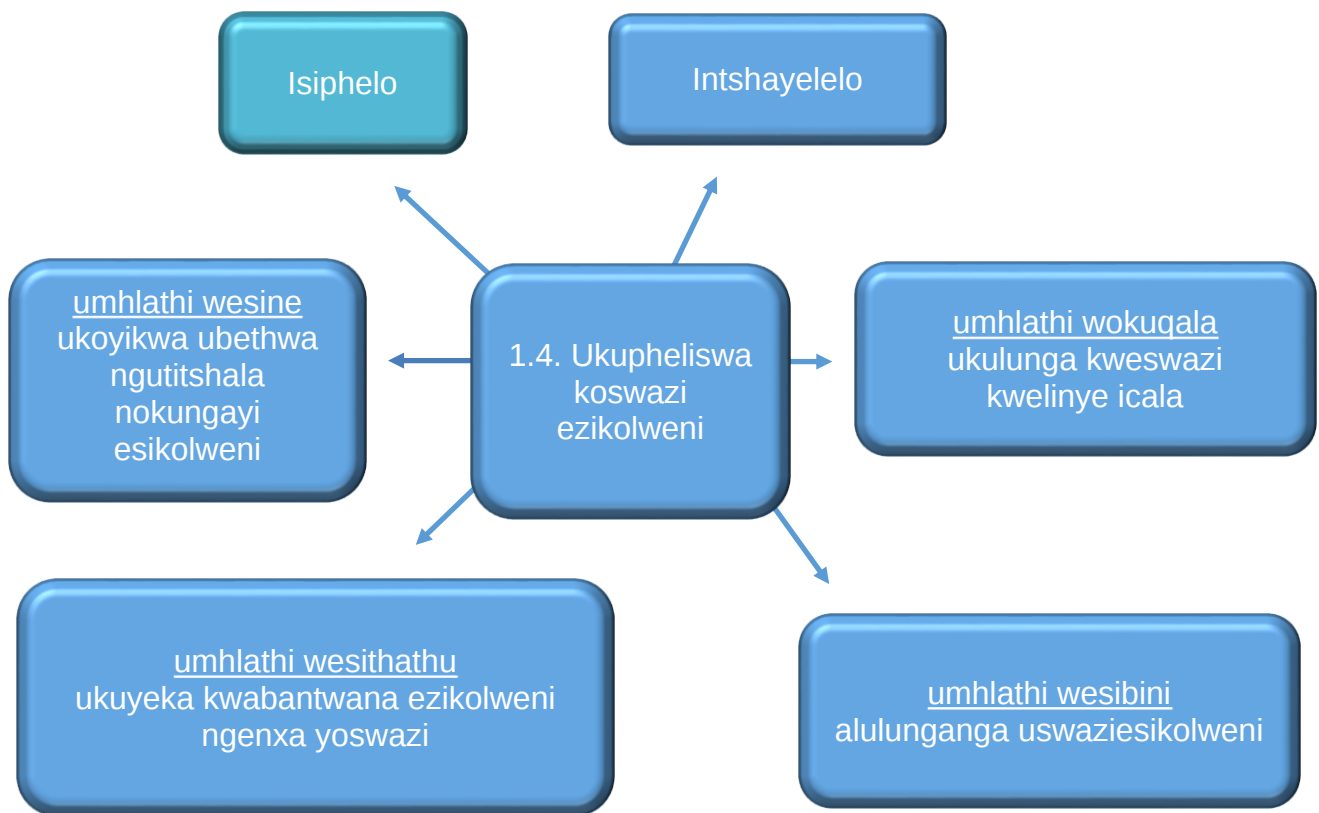


1. Ndizakuthi ndizathuze malunga nokuphela kweSizwe ezikolweni kunye nezinto ezithe zenzeka ekubeni uswazi luyekisiwe nangela xesha belungeka yekiswa uswazi ezikolweni.
2. Sukela ngalawini uswazi lwaluyekiswa ezikolweni zange iphinde intlalo ibentle phakathi ko titshala kunye nabafundi kwaye zange kuphinda kubekho mntu ofuna ukumamela omnye abafundi baye balibala ukuba ootitshala babo badala kunabo balibala ukuba yintoni ebangela baye ezikolweni. Kanti into abayiyelayo yimfundo apho umntu azothi aphumelele abomini akwazi uku tshintsha imeko kwikhaya lakhe.
3. Abafundi bayonwabela kakhulu lento yokuyekiswa koswazi ezikolweni ngoba bavela bayekelela abafuna kumamela abayenza nemisebenzi yabo yesikolo. Umntu afune ukulandelelwa ayinge nguyeyedwa umntu ofundiswayo nditsho mna kwavele kwangaba ne mbeko le ebafundini baphendula ngendlela abafunangayo kotitshala babo kuba beyazi abazubethwa.
4. Umfundi othe wabethwa ngutitshala esikolweni ngelixa layekiswayo uswazi ezikolweni uvele axele kwamasebe ezemfundo kunye nakumasebe amalungelo abantwana balibale ukuba kuncedwa yena kufunwa aqeqesheke kwaye abangumntu ebantwini naye atshintshe ubomi babazali babo. Ekubeni bexelile akuzubakudala lo titshala okanye lo titshalakazi uzakuphelelwa ngumsebenzi kuba kusithiwa uswazi

lwayekiswa akuvumelekanga ibekuyabethwa ezikolweni kodwa umntu ebenceda ebefuna umfundi aphumelele.

5. Abafundi abaninzi bayamitha bayatshaya iziyobisi ezikolweni ngoba kaloku abazukufuna ukuxelelwa bacetyiswe babethwe ngotishala babo sele bezenzela into abayifunayo ezikolweni. Abafani nabafundi belaxesha lakudala kubabona abelaxesha babeyazi into abayifunayo babefuna impumelelo befuna imbeko nangoku baphumelela.
6. Ibangela ilizwe litshabalale lento yokungabethwa ezikolweni. Ngoba abafundi abapasi baphindaphinda amabanga iminyaka emininzi umntu ade abone ukuba makayeke ukufunda umntu angaboni ukuba uzakuphelelaphi aphelele kwantshabalalo azisole babe nabazalibakhe babemcengile ukuba makanyamezele esikolweni athi akwaba kube sele kukwabekile kwaye elithi uzenzile akakhalelwa linyanisile.
7. Ingcebiso zam zezokuba uswazi ~~w~~ malubuyiswe mhlawumbi ungakhona umehluko ngoba ilizwe liyaphela sakuthi sivuka emaqandeni sele singenazo nenkokheli ezi zangomso kunga bikho nogqirha aba kufuneka basincede xa sigula.[290] Amagama

LEARNER THIRTY



1. Ukupheliswa koswazi ezikolweni yinto elungileyo kakhulu kwaye yenza abantwana besikolo bafunde bengenaxhala lokubethwa ngutitshala babo ezikolweni.
2. Ndiyavuma ukuba lento yoswazi kwelinye icala ilungile kuba abanye abantwana abawenzi umsebenzi wesikolo ngenxa yalento uswazi luphelisiwe ezikolweni lento bayenziswa kuba uswazi lungavumelekanga ezikolweni abanye babo abahloniphi notitshala babo ngenxa kungasabethwa ezikolweni umntwana ayenze into engalunganga azazi ukuba akazubethwa ngutitshala wakhe.
3. Kwelinye icala uswazi alulunganga kwaye lunengxabaniso nxabano, utitshala uzobetha umntana esikolweni umntana ahambe ayoxelela kumzali wakhe libe iswazi lilimaze umntana iphele bengxabana utitshala nomzali walomntwana bethukana ngezithuko ezinkulu phambi kwabantwana besikolo.

4. Umntwana wesikolo makangabethwa ezikolweni makangugqe okanye ahlambe iklassi xa enze into engalunganga eklassini yakhe okanye ephazamise utitshala wakhe. Soze aphinde angeze uzasifunda isifundo le yobethwa ayilunganga futhi abantwana abaninzi bayasiyeka isikolo kuba bayaloyika iswazi isininzi sabo sesa ngaba sePramarie abantwana abasiyekileyo isikolo kwaye oluswazi lonakalisa amaphupho lwabantwana abaninzi.
5. Umntwana naxa engawenzanga umsebenzi wesikolo ewulibele uvele abenengxala kuba uvele acinge ukuba uzobethwa ngutitshala wakhe aphele engafuni ukuya esikolweni ngoba woyikwa ubethwa aphoswe kukufunda kuba akazanga esikolweni aphele esemva ezifundweni zakhe.
6. Ukupheliswa koswazi ezikolweni kungcende kakhulu kuba abafundi baya ezikolweni bengenagxala lokubethwa ngotitshala baba bafunda ngolonwabo abafundi iphelile into yexhala ngoku.
7. Ukupheliswa koswazi ezikolweni yinto elungileyo kakhulu kwaye yenza abantwana besikolo bafunde bengena xhala lokubethwa ngotitshala babo ezikolweni.
8. Ndiyavuma ukuba lento yoswazi kwelinye icala ilungile kuba abanye abantwana abawenzi umsebenzi wesikolo ngenxa yalento uswazi luyekisiwe ezikolweni lento bayenziswa kuba lungavumelekanga ezikolweni abanye babo abahloniphi notitshala babo ngenxa kungasabethwa ezikolweni umntwana ayenze into engalunganga azazi ukuba akazubethwa ngutitshala wakhe.
9. Kwelinye icala uswazi alulunganga kwaye lunengxabaniso utitshala uzobetha umntwana esikolweni umntwana ahambe ayoxelela umzali wakhe libe iswazi lilimaze umntwana iphele bengxabana umzali kunye notitshala bethukana ngezithuko ezinkulu phambi kwabantwana besikolo.
10. Umntwana wesikolo makangabethwa ezikolweni makangugqe okanye ahlambe iklassi xa enze into.

APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTIONS

An interview between the researcher and isiXhosa educator (Teacher 1 at School A)

Researcher: Now then Miss, we must be ready to begin the interview. The first question, when did you begin teaching Xhosa?

Teacher 1 A: I began as from January 2018.

Researcher: Which is last year, this means that you have only a year experience; the second question has already been answered that you were trained under curriculum called CAPS. Okay then, do you teach other grades rather than grade 11 in Xhosa?

Teacher 1 A: Yes, it is grade 10.

Researcher: This means that you teach grades 10 and 11.

Teacher 1 A: Yes.

Researcher: Okay, and this question is not relevant to your situation as you are not familiar with curriculums before the CAPS such as OBE and NCS.

But if you have any knowledge about them, you can answer the question.

I trust that you taught under one of them.

Do you have any knowledge about how they differ into CAPS?

Teacher 1A: I was trained under CAPS, and NCS focussed on bringing knowledge to the pupils whereas CAPS focussed on sharpening the mind. In CAPS, before one begins a lesson, usually asked some questions to test the previous knowledge. When you continue a lesson one have to ask some questions to test the attention of the child. The other questions after the lesson as well to test the understand ability of the child. You asked whether he did understand the lesson of the day. NCS focussed on passing the knowledge to the child then test the child whether she had understood the information or not.

Researcher: The following question, are there any challenges as the Xhosa teacher in the classroom? If any, name them, or summarise some few aspects.

Teacher A1: There are so many challenges of which I will explain the few. Our children had that element of undermining Xhosa, I do not know whether this is caused by where the only lesson being spoken and taught in Xhosa.

The teacher has to instil some sense of interest to the children and they do not know how to read Xhosa despite as their home language.

If you are offering them a classwork, you must be able to read and explain the question for them to understand. I have that passion in my class to read and explain for them.

It became worse when they write exams, some of the questions they do not understand. It is easy for them to say, “I had answered the question”, which they did not understand. Another factor is the technology and the social media. The way they communicate in the social network is the way they speak and read Xhosa. They develop some funny terms such as “uveske”. These are some of the challenges we experienced in the classroom. Yes, there are so many challenges, just to mention the few: the children they do not consider the Xhosa language very seriously not sure whether just because is the only one being taught in Xhosa. For example, they usually mix Xhosa and English when they speak.

Researcher: Okay then, you said, they are unable to read and again you have to explain what you have read for them or in other words you are trying to say the other challenge they unable to understand what you are reading?

Teacher A1: To understand is the big problem, when you asked them question you must use the same words you were explaining in class. They cannot figure out that different words can be the same meaning. For instance, in the analysis of the Xhosa poem, they cannot understand, “the feeling” of the poetry can be the same as his “mood” when writing the poem (The difference between “the mood” and “the feeling” of the poetry).

Researcher: Okay then, the CAPS focussed on writing and transferring of skills. This includes the writing the poem stanza and essays, are there any mistakes or errors when you checked their writings (works), if any, what kind of errors?

Teacher A1: It is very difficult for them to master the sentence construction, although I usually focussed on that at the beginning of the year. They construct long sentences which usually lost their meaning. In other instances, one sentence has got different meanings. The spelling error and untidy work is an another problem although we usually advised them to do the first draft before they can resume with their essay writing. This could be a problem when they wrote exams as the time will be limited.

They also loose the theme when writing their essays.

Researcher: Alright, if I understood you correctly, you highlighted mostly ‘the loss of theme, lack of proper sentence construction, spelling errors’. Can you be able to predict the source of these problems?

Teacher A1: I usually blame the social media, not sure, may be just because when I was doing grade 11, I did not have any cell phone, those were the hard times of our days. They find it more difficult now when it comes to write the formal language (Xhosa). Another factor, they communicate in Xhosa during the Xhosa classes only, other classes or subjects, the medium of instruction would be the English.

Researcher: By the way you blame the social media, as you found that informal language they used in social media, continued to use it through classrooms or school premises. This means that they do not differentiate between the standard (formal) language the informal language they used to communicate outside the school premises. Again, you mentioned the fact that Xhosa is taught as a subject only, they do not try to teach themselves or empowering themselves in Xhosa outside the school premises. They only learn about Xhosa in the Xhosa classes, I understand.

Which steps you usually undertook as a teacher to rectify the problems you raised, so that the learners could understand their pitfalls in learning this language?

For instance, maybe on how to give a report and to make some mitigation and many more; what are your endeavours?

Teacher A1: There is common strategy where you mark in red their mistakes the letter or their essays for them to do corrections. Also when you meet him/her, you give back the red script to show him his mistakes. I do not think is wise this thing of reporting after the child has written an essay and marking again, as I like to read, I encouraged my class to do that, to learn how to read and write Xhosa, there is no other way, not only learn to the other Xhosa authors. So I like to read for them in the class and allow them as well to read. So this a way to familiarise them with sentences in the book and poem structure rather than to use that way was taught by that particular teacher long time ago, to learn other ways from other authors. When I got time, do other simple additional tasks like how to correctly spell a particular word.

Researcher: In other words, you specify on spelling and encourage them to always do these simple tasks. Again, you encouraged them to read Xhosa material to be familiar with the correct way of writing Xhosa, that was wonderful indeed. Was there any improvement you observed after you have served them with a report, you had encouraged them to read regularly, and after you had pointed out the importance of spelling correctly, is there any improvement the way they write?

Teacher A1: It shows an impact to some of them, others they forgot what they had been told. For instance, they will have a tendency of writing something else instead of the one they had been told. In other words, they repeat the same mistakes. Nevertheless, they improved a bit by bit.

Researcher: Alright, in your estimation, how many chances or opportunities for them to improve on these mistakes you had alluded, just before they reached grade 12?

Teacher A1: We can guess up to 60% instances but not all of them will show this improvement, in a way, our efforts bear fruit.

Researcher: Alright, this means that they can continue to do these mistakes (about 40%) from grade 11 to grade 12? As the Xhosa teacher, what is your advice pertaining to the changes in the Xhosa curriculum in order to instil changes on the Xhosa teaching methods?

Teacher A1: The Xhosa language must be equal to the other subjects, be elevated to their favourite communication technology, such as cell phones. They must be able to listen to the Xhosa voice note. The Xhosa must not only be the communication tool in the Xhosa classroom or a communication tool used by the Xhosa teacher as well. Maybe in one lesson you can forward them the voice note to listen to the action. They will understand that isiXhosa is not something to be presented by the isiXhosa teacher alone, being spoken elsewhere as well. Again, Poetry completion among classes can be arranged as well to encourage interest in Xhosa. Although they got interest in other subjects, their pass rate is not too high, as they always aware that they will learn some new things. It will be wise for us as well to improve our lessons in Xhosa, and include some new innovations such as analysing with them an extract from their most favourite subjects such as physical science or mathematics, to broaden up their minds.

Researcher: This means that it can be wise to use examples of technology in teaching Xhosa to attract their interest more in Xhosa. When they observed that this Xhosa is being taught by means of technology, they will learn to respect it as one of the important subjects. I can understand now.

An interview between the researcher and isiXhosa educator (Teacher 2 at School A)

Researcher: Alright, teacher, a very warm welcome at this stage of this interview during this afternoon. I would like to begin this by the first question, when did resume as Xhosa teacher in the school?

Teacher A2: Okay, thanks Ms Titi for the welcome, I resumed teaching in 1998.

Researcher: Alright, by the time you were at the teacher training college, you acquired training under which curriculum?

Teacher A2: It was Nated 550.

Researcher: Was that being the name of the curriculum?

Teacher A2: Yes, it was Nated 550.

Researcher: Are there any other grades you taught rather than this grade 11?

Teacher A2: I taught as well grades 10 and 12.

Researcher: As curriculum changes as time changes, for example there was OBE, NCS and the current one. Can you elaborate which one of these, you have experienced?

Teacher A2: I experienced all of them, dear.

Researcher: You mean you taught under all of them?

Teacher A2: Yes, I have a vast experience.

Researcher: Okay, a very wonderful experience indeed. When we compare the curriculum you acquired training as the Xhosa teacher, with the present one (CAPS), can you elaborate the difference between these two curriculums?

Teacher A2: That Nated curriculum was a teacher based, no SBA mark (the child just suddenly appeared to write exams despite poor class attendance). The paper was either standard (300) or higher (400) grade. They were required to write for June and final exams,

no March and September exams. This means that there was no much work load, doing our marking as teachers only twice a year.

Researcher: Okay, when you say there was no SBA mark, you mean the children were able to write exams without having any basics marks such as classwork and test done during the course of the year?

Teacher A2: Yes, children wrote exams without any initial marks in their pockets.

Researcher: As according to the curriculum, in teaching on how to write in Xhosa; are there any challenges you had encountered in the classroom when teaching Xhosa? If the answer is yes, please, specify.

Teacher A2: Secondly, they think some of the aspect in Xhosa are meaningless in the job market such as the aspect of grammar- specifically in nouns. The children they just write Xhosa without any curtesy, they do not proofread their work, as they do so many spelling errors. They believed that everything in the job market is being done in English, not aware that they can have a bright future in learning Xhosa.

Researcher: I am pleased with the aspects you specify, particularly the spelling problem. Some of the important aspects in CAPS are how to write properly, specifically on paragraphs and essays. You had already mentioned the problem of spelling, are there any other problems you encountered in the classroom in teaching Xhosa?

Teacher A2: Okay, they commit errors in word division (not aware when to separate words or when to unite them). They do not care to do some corrections (they repeat the same mistake the teacher corrected it before).

Researcher: Can you guess why they commit these errors, besides the aspect not caring about Xhosa you had already mentioned? Are these errors being caused by not having any interest in Xhosa? Or else, which other aspects?

Teacher A2: Some of them they did not acquire Xhosa at an early stage. For instance, those who were attending those schools where Xhosa not available as the subject, being transferred here when not coping on those schools (where Xhosa not available). Others they began in grade 10 in learning Xhosa. All in all, they don't have the base of Xhosa, instead, the other language.

Researcher: Is this problem of lacking the base of Xhosa can lead them of having to project the knowledge they acquired in another language into Xhosa, without being aware of that?

Teacher A2: No, they do not use the other language at all, most other children we usually enrol, began on grade 8. Other children came from our neighbouring African countries, spoke different language. It is better when we enrolled children from Durban kwaZulu Natal. So since the other language partly similar with Xhosa, things became easier.

Researcher: Alright, you had already mentioned the actions you took to make sure that the children do considered their mistakes, seriously. For instance, you mentioned that although you correct the child's particular error but came back with the same error. Which other ways you do, to make sure that they realised the seriousness of these errors in acquiring this language?

Teacher A2: If we do a task as according to the class rapper hand book, we firstly correct the errors all together, demonstrated in the black board, then I do one on one consultations to correct the errors again. Ultimately, I usually noticed the same mistakes when they wrote another exam.

Researcher: Is that mean you do a report back about their work?

Teacher A2: Yes, they do get the feedback about their performance.

Researcher: And their errors?

Teacher A2: Yes, their errors are included, I usually pointed out that, "this word is written conjunctively and this one should be written disjunctively (separately), and that one would have been written separately as the demonstrative".

Researcher: Do you notice any difference after you had pointed out their errors? I heard the fact that when you rectify an error they repeat the same error when they performed another task. Actually, do they rectify some of these errors in the next task?

Teacher A2: Sometimes, others they improved due to the revision (specifically on spelling) they did when preparing for exams. Another problem they spent more time in their phones; those like reading their Xhosa books, likely to improve. The language used in the phone is an informal one not the formal one needed when writing Xhosa. They do not have time to read Xhosa language even the newspapers. In order for them to understand, the teacher must read for them in the class.

Researcher: Are there any ways or chances of these grade 11 children writing problems to improve before they can proceed to the next grade? How can you predict the score, preferable 100%?

Teacher A2: I can predict the chances of improvement up to 80%, besides those had bad hand writing where the teacher needs more concentration in reading their scripts.

Researcher: Is that mean the chances of improvement before they can proceed to grade 12, are very high?

Teacher A2: Yes, the chances are very high, especially, to those very serious about their work.

Researcher: As the Xhosa teacher how can you advise to be improved in the curriculum in order to change the ways of learning Xhosa at schools?

Teacher A2: I guess, may be if the Xhosa books be downloaded in their favourable phone (tablet), that way Xhosa will be easy to be accessible. May be there will be improvement and the change attitude towards Xhosa.

Secondly, they supposed to be given a chance, all of them in class to read Xhosa before the lessons begin, just for five minutes. They must get used in reading every day, even if the number is few (3 children) in order to improve their reading skills. Another problem, our classes are over-crowded, became impossible to have proper access to each child.

Researcher: Alright, this means that you mean that the capacity of number of children per class must be reduced, if that is possible, in order the teacher to have proper access to each child?

Teacher A2: Yes, definitely.

Researcher: Alright, thank very much, teacher with your time, highly appreciated.

An interview between the researcher and isiXhosa educator (Teacher 1 at School B)

Researcher: Alright, Miss, the first question to resume our interview, when did you begin working as the Xhosa teacher?

Teacher B1: I began in 2003.

Researcher: Okay, this means that you had 10 years' experience as the Xhosa teacher.

Teacher B1: Yes, I have 16 years' experience.

Researcher: Okay, under which curriculum you had acquired training?

Teacher B1: I acquired training in Xhosa although I did training in English for one year.

Researcher: Alright, the curriculum was NCS or OBE at that time?

Teacher B1: It was OBE.

Researcher: Was OBE not NCS?

Teacher B1: M-m! M-m!

Researcher: Alright! Are there any other grades you teach rather than grade 11?

Teacher B1: Yes, I began with them from the beginning to upper level. But in Xhosa it is only this year where I teach grade 11.

Researcher: You mean it is this only where teach grade 11 but in other years you were teaching other grades as well?

Teacher B1: Yes, mostly, it was grade 8 and 9. I am always there on GET.

Researcher: Okay, as curriculum changes over time, for instance, there were Outcomes Base Education (OBE), National Curriculum Statement (NCS) and the present one called CAPS. Which of these curriculum you had experienced?

Teacher B1: I have taught under all three of them.

Researcher: You mean you have experienced all of them?

Teacher B1: Yes, I came under OBE, then NCS emerged, finally the present one called CAPS.

Researcher: This means that you have experienced all of them?

Teacher B1: Yes, absolutely.

Researcher: Alright, when you compare these two curriculum (this one by the time you were hired which is OBE) and the CAPS, specifically to the writing skill in the entire Xhosa, what could be the difference?

Teacher B1: I think, CAPS has the best skill of reading and writing, unlike the OBE which specify on speaking or discussions. This means that the child dedicated his time in reading and writing such as poems and writing essays. The lesson they learnt it in class, they wrote it as well, immediately.

Researcher: Okay, in other words, you mean the CAPS when you compare it with OBE, is the best curriculum to empower children in terms of reading skill?

Teacher B1: Yes, it is empowering specifically to the writing skill as the children per quarter are required do some essays and summaries. Although then, comparing only to these two curriculum, if we were specifying to the other old curriculums in our times, be narrifying something else. The writing is an effective method in language teaching. In other subjects, they only specify on writing assignment, but here in Xhosa, we always practice writing as a priority, in acquiring the skill.

Researcher: Okay, when you examine the CAPS theme, comparing it with the OBE, what could be your final analysis?

Teacher B1: Okay, although my focus was always on GET as I mentioned it earlier, in CAPS, there are few instances to remind them about their work, they took full responsibility about that particular lesson in class. A simple lesson or task or a summary of something will be repeated by writing it again. The time is not spent too much in teaching, the child must be allowed to write it again to demonstrate her understanding.

Researcher: Okay, this means that the CAPS focussed to the children instead of the teacher unlike the OBE where its main focus on the teacher, the children just accept what the teacher says! Are the any challenges in your class as the Xhosa teacher? If, yes, please specify.

Teacher B1: The challenges are that the children like to write the way they speak. This affects morphology (word formation) or word division when they write.

They write very carelessly, forgot about the structuring of the sentences correctly, without full stops or commas. When they wrote a paragraph, the full stop will be only at the end of that particular paragraph. It means that they write the same as singing, they do not follow the writing rules of grammar. One will find that they will repeat the same errors when doing corrections.

Researcher: Okay, it means that they cannot differentiate between talking and writing?

Teacher B1: Yes, they do not know the difference. For instance, is easy for them to point out the pronoun during the lesson but when they write they cannot distinguish these aspects. They are unable to distinguish parts of speech in their sentences. It is very difficult for them to move away from this habit.

Researcher: Okay, I understand, you have already answered the next question now by which you pointed out their errors when they write essays, by mentioning the word division problem as the challenge. Were there any other problems when you evaluate their work?

Teacher B1: Yes, the children make the language to be difficult, but not. When we read an extract or a novel, we usually interpreted new words and give proper meanings.

But when it comes to writing essays, they do something else, they lack the skill of writing, and they cannot do the choice of words with proper meanings. They write the way they speak. Secondly, as they continued writing, one will notice the lacking of the basics of grammar. So they write capital letters inconsistency such as write capital letters in the middle of the sentence. Another thing which cause a great disturbance is the social media, they are used in that language, end up lacking the proper Xhosa terminology to use.

Researcher: If I understand you very well, you have eluded the problem of word division, terminology, semantic and the choice of words pertaining to that particular topic. Okay, let's proceed to the next question, when you evaluated their essays, had pointed out these errors, can you guess the causes of these errors? I understand you had already pointed out the negative influence of media in their writings of Xhosa. Besides social media, any other influence of these errors?

Teacher B1: Another point, today's children took things for granted, as they are unable to speak proper Xhosa, they do not think necessity to practice on how to write properly. They got a surprise when they have to do that particular task or work or writing exams. They realised their problem too late! They think they are better than others when they are here at

High School. For instance, one will never see any child here volunteered to do a particular task, they think they are grown up to do that. Another third problem, I think, is the superiority or inferiority complex. They feel ashamed of having vast knowledge or speaking Xhosa. They think Xhosa is for the poor people from the rural areas, as they do not want to be associated with that. They do not know the importance of their mother tongue. This lack of confidence in his mother tongue has an impact in his understanding and the executing of further tasks in class.

Researcher: Which steps do you usually follow to make sure that these mistakes are rectified when you evaluate their tasks in class?

Teacher B1: I usually advised them to communicate among themselves using Xhosa, even in social media platforms. Secondly, they must always communicate in Xhosa during the Xhosa class. We also keep a close eye to word division in grammar classes. For instance, we usually pointed out to how to use pronouns and proper meanings of figurative speech during grammar classes. We also clarify this point when they write essays. We also usually perform with them small tasks showing punctuation problems, helping unpacking these through examples such as bad written extract, that needs to be corrected in class.

Researcher: Okay, I understand, you do some contingency measures to overcome the problem. Is there any improvement in their work, when you evaluated them and pointed out their errors? Was there any improvement specifically the way they write as you had already pointed out the problem?

Teacher B1: When we refer to essays, there shall be a small improvement as they concentrate on getting to know the gist of the heading (they are offered to write on). When they know the heading, they forgot everything which was pointed out as important to note when they write. The child will boost with vast number of pages although the work is poor. One will notice few improvements in the second quarter. There will be also no improvement in quarter three as predicted.

Researcher: This means that the children focussed on the subject matter when they write, instead of focussing on the rules of writing Xhosa?

Teacher B1: Yes, when we prepared them to read the book, we did it in order to be ready for the exams. Unfortunately, they will be just taken by the amusement of the story. By the

time we interpreted the meaning of the words, supposed that they learn how to write these words.

Researcher: Based on these errors you alluded, can you estimate the percentage (by 100%) on how much chances of improvement before they can proceed to the next class (grade 12)? You mentioned earlier, the little improvement in the errors during class evaluation, would be also little improvement as well when they proceed to the next class?

Teacher B1: There is also an isiXhosa idiom [equivalent to the English, called familiarity builds contempt]. They will bring these problems to the next level. There will be few chances of improvement as there will be those who will be promoted just for the sake of being promoted. To be specific to your question, I can estimate the percentage of improvement to be 70%.

Researcher: As the Xhosa teacher how can you advise the improvement in the curriculum in order to change the ways of learning Xhosa at schools?

Teacher B1: I am not sure whether I will narrate too much in this regard. I used to narrate about my background when I was young during my class. I came here in Cape Town with my parent from Eastern Cape, when I was still at primary school. I used to stay here one moment then move again to Eastern Cape, as I am not sure how I received my education. When I finally began my schooling, I used to catch cold easily, shivering in class. The teacher usually advised me to stay at her home. I was wondering how come I learnt on how to write. We used to go alone to schools. My parent was illiterate but knows how to clean and cook for us. In my experience, I can propose in order to improve the learning on how to write and evaluation of Xhosa, to resume the old method whereby the focus would be on how to write. That method is not viable whereby one or two people will be allowed to read for others in class due to the time constraints, supposed to be every child to get an opportunity to read and grasp the language in a proper manner. In our time, one was not allowed to proceed to the next page where you find difficulties in the first page during reading in class. Therefore, that thing of focussing on initial stage of reading and then followed by on how to write, was a success indeed.

Researcher: Okay, you mean you would like, the focus to be the importance of reading as a priority such short stories, novels and many more?

Teacher B1: Yes, during the Xhosa lesson, the focus must be the reading before proceeding to next stage of writing where everybody will get an opportunity to enhance the writing skill. That method could be fruitful, as today's curriculum, one usually noticed the capabilities or weaknesses of the child during evaluation.

Researcher: I understand you very well. The most important thing in your analysis, the child must first learn on how to read as this will influence his/her writing capabilities.

Thank you very much.

Teacher B1: I also thank you.

An interview between the researcher and isiXhosa educator (Teacher 2 at School B)

Researcher: Miss, in my understanding you have the vast experience as a teacher, when did you begin teaching Xhosa?

Teacher B2: I began teaching from 1993.

Researcher: It has been the vast experience indeed, under which curriculum you resumed training as the teacher?

Teacher B2: I resumed training as the teacher under OBE.

Researcher: As the grade 11 teacher, are there any other grades you teach?

Teacher B2: Yes, this current year, I teach Xhosa on grades 9 and 12.

Researcher: This means therefore, you had experienced the OBE, the NCS and the present CAPS? It wouldn't necessary to ask you the next question as you had already experienced all these three curriculums.

Teacher B2: Yes, I experienced all of them although I was trained under OBE and currently busy with NCS.

Researcher: Alright, when you compare these two curriculum (the OBE which you acquired training) and the CAPS, specifically to the entire Xhosa language and entire Xhosa curriculum, what could be the difference?

Teacher B2: Which is the better one?

Researcher: When you compare them, what could be the difference?

Teacher B2: What can I say is that the CAPS emanated from the OBE. For instance, we normally find some aspects from OBE also appear in CAPS. The best thing in CAPS is that the huge responsibility no longer under the hands of the teachers, as used to be, during the OBE. For instance, during evaluation we used something called their own assessments. Again, their tasks in grade 12 had been decreased from 14 into 12. Although the workload has been eased up a bit, there still a great responsibility to be done by children and parents. The CAPS has been far ahead as compared with OBE. In OBE we had a plenty of time to focus on the child, unlike today.

Secondly, the sad thing about CAPS, needed children who are always active, sharp minds and fast learners. For instance, the slow learners are being left behind, resulting to poor results. The teachers are forced to finish the job/task per cycle within an hour or two instead of 4 hours in order to complete the curriculum.

The children especially those who are low learners, find themselves under pressure. Developed another character such as dogging the classes, ending up being drop outs from school. Sometimes teachers find themselves in an awkward position, where they have to teach a particular task for a week, a task supposed to be taught within a day.

Researcher: As the Xhosa teacher, are the any challenges in your classroom?

Teacher B2: Yes, so many challenges. Firstly, our classes are over-crowded. For instance, in grade 11 classes ranges 47 – 47 numbers of children per class. Also, in grade 12 classes the numbers are very high. Only in the grade 9 class where the number of children is 40. Commonly, the children numbers per class ranges from 45 to 58. It becomes difficult for a teacher to focus on the individual child, they are being grouped which is not viable strategy. Secondly, as a result of CAPS, children faced a challenge in reading. For instance, if you instruct a child to read in class, he/she prefers to read the one we teach in class instead of the other prescribed texts such as novels and etc. It does not help whatever the child referred to the library to read the book, will be back without finishing that particular task. May be you want to familiarised them with that part of literature, you will find that they will be unable to read. Another thing, they do not take the teacher very seriously when instructed to read a particular task loudly. They are ashamed to raise their voices when reading. They do not understand the proper way of grasping the reading and pronunciation skills. As the teacher you have to be patience in correcting these aspects even in grades 11 and 12. This means

that these aspects need to be addressed at an earlier stage such primary level. Another negative influence will be the technology. For instance, they wrote words, the way they write in their cell phones. This does not help whatever the child would be referred to the library to read the book, will be back without being finish that particular task. They are tuned in technology all the time, wrote wrongly, shorter versions of words.

Researcher: You have already highlighted some of the problems experienced in class especially the shortened version of words. Are there any problems when you evaluate the way they write paragraphs and essays in class, as the CAPS focussed on writing and presentation?

Teacher B2: They also have the challenge in pronunciation, word division (separation of words) and spelling, infect, failing to adhere to the Xhosa orthography (writing rules).

Researcher: Okay, you had already mentioned the impact of technology on these challenges. Can you be able to predict any other causes of these challenges already mentioned?

Teacher B2: Another influence on these challenges is the lack of focus on literature at schools. For instance, the whole period (for time table) in class, used to be dedicated for teaching literature. Secondly, children do not like the oral lessons. The oral will be an answer in acquiring linguistic skills such as pronunciation, reading and etc.

Researcher: As their Xhosa teacher, what steps you followed to make sure that these challenges are being realised by children, specifically, the way they wrote the language?

Teacher B2: They usually practised pronunciation and reading skills by reading orally their class essays or paragraphs in order, among each other. Secondly, I conduct the follow-up lesson where I specifically focus on those problematic areas to enhance their understanding.

Researcher: Is that mean, you usually prepare a report back, concerning to their problematic areas?

Teacher B2: Yes, firstly, I provide them individual feedback about all the problems in their essays. Secondly, I chose one particular paragraph done by one particular child where all the errors were rectified, to be demonstrated in front of the whole class. I separated them into small groups in order to enhance the realisation of the errors by each child. In my demonstration, I used one paragraph done by a particular child with some errors the same

paragraph but corrected. I showed them the tool I used in the assessment of their tasks. Secondly, I demonstrate another paragraph with errors and gave them an opportunity to point out themselves some errors in that particular paragraph. This way, are able to realise their shortfall to the subject matter.

Finally, we focussed on the subject matter. We demonstrated the same paragraphs and the same strategy but focussing on the theme of each paragraph or essay to enhance their understanding of the subject matter.

Researcher: Okay, I understand.

Teacher B2: After I had enhanced their understanding of the theme, I moved to oral, enhanced on how to brain storm around that particular theme.

Researcher: After you have done all these endeavours you had mentioned above, do you usually observed any improvement in their next performance?

Teacher B2: Yes, but not usually occurred immediately, it took a bit of a time in drilling them until you get good results. Eventually, my class became more vibrant than ever.

Researcher: This means that by the time they are promoted to the next grade 12, there will be much great improvement?

Teacher B2: Yes, there will be much great improvement indeed.

This means that in order for them to be improved, the drilling must begin from the lower up to the upper grades. For instance, I drilled them from grade 9 up to grade 12 where they usually excelled. In my Fezeka school, I am pleased to equivocally state that we did have an excellent grade 12 results, as compared to the entire metro in our region.

Researcher: This means that you can be able to estimate, almost by 100 % improvement in these errors before they can proceed to the next level (grade 12)?

Teacher B2: Yes, we drilled them from grades 8 to 9 (with poor performance) and improve with 80% until into grade 12 with 100% improvement. These good results are being confirmed by their performance during the cluster public speaking competition, we usually held among schools in the area. In this competition, one of my students excelled the whole Western Cape Province in speaking Xhosa language so eloquently. This student used to have a passion in Xhosa idioms, and I used to correct him accordingly, especially the idiom refers to the greetings specifically to prominent people such as the Kings or State authorities.

The English equivalent, “your majesty and your royal highnesses”. With his character of eloquently playing with words (uttering Xhosa idioms), became the role model of the school.

Researcher: In other words, you mean that these errors you usually correct from grade 11, when they reached grade 12, improved by almost 100%? This means that they reached grade 12 without any language common errors?

Teacher B2: Yes, I can equivocally agree on that.

Researcher: You earlier mentioned one of the shortfalls in the CAPS curriculum where the pile of work needed to be done in a specific short period! As the Xhosa teacher how can you advised which changes in the curriculum needed to be done in order to improve the teaching methods for our Xhosa language at schools?

Teacher B2: About our language?

Researcher: Which tips can you advise us to be done?

Teacher B2: We can go back to our old OBE method. The OBE used to open so many opportunities for children. Yes, so many opportunities even in CAPS although is more contextualise with a pile of complex work to be completed in a short period. The content should be limited and focus mostly the practical. For instance, we could assess the children when they are doing their class works and essay writing, not to wait to be assessed when they write class tests or exams. The assessment must begin during their earliest stage when they had learnt on how to write words correctly.

We should be able to detect their writing problems during class works. Our mistake, usually piled them with huge amount of work, or rush them to complete the syllabus to be ready for the exams. The children enjoyed when we pile them with the content but at the end they are not ready for the second level where they have to demonstrate their skills in writing and even during the examinations (assessments). Will find that they usually stuck to this pillar and end up being drop-outs from schools.

Researcher: Thank you very much Miss.

An interview between the researcher and isiXhosa educator (Teacher C1)

Researcher: A very warm welcome to this today's interview. The first question, when did you resume, working as the Xhosa teacher?

Teacher C1: I must also thank you for doing an interview with me, Miss Titi. I began as the teacher in 2016.

Researcher: This means that this is your 3rd year teaching Xhosa? Is that mean also you have been trained under CAPS curriculum?

Teacher C1: Yes, of course?

Researcher: Okay, I did not want to assume that you were trained under CAPS although it could be that you acquired training long time ago under different curriculum but took time to get employment. Okay, are there any other grades you taught in Xhosa, rather than grade 11?

Teacher C1: I once thought grade 10, but now I teach grade 11.

Researcher: This year, your focus is on grade 11! Okay, due to curriculum changes, probably, you can find some difficulties to find some differences between the previous curriculums. But ultimately, if by any chance, can be able to detect some differences between the previous curriculums and the CAPS, can you be able to clarify, if any?

Teacher C1: This present curriculum (CAPS) has too much work load. The NCS curriculum focussed on skills development for children but failed to present a viable strategy for that development. So, in my opinion, it could be better for these curriculum (NCS or OBE) to give teachers more time to explore or enhance these skills to children. Currently, the focus is on the task performance, without any care on the development of this particular skill. Apparently, the only focus is just to complete the curriculum, without any curtesy on the children skills development.

Researcher: In other words, it does not help to rush to finish the unpolished job, this curriculum left the children with so many vacuums?

Teacher C1: Yes, of course.

Researcher: The following question now will not be applicable, as you were trained and presently teaching under the CAPS curriculum.

But as you had already mentioned that the difference in these curriculum is the vast amount of work to be done by teachers and children during the specific little amount of time, and this causes the teachers to rush to finish the curriculum. Are there any other aspects where the CAPS differ to the other curriculums you had experienced during your High school years as the student?

Teacher C1: There is a bit an element of offering some skills to children but the time not enough. In other instance you will find that, the whole week being allocated in teaching on how to read and doing observation. This means that there will be not time for other aspects such as reading and presentation. In other instances, the teacher spent more time in essay writing composed of so many levels like first and second drafts, checking errors and etc. This becoming boring to children. The teacher ends up doing one essay and mind map which is not clear to children. The time is limited for the other crucial aspect of language. For instance, in grade 11 there is no much curtesy for the importance of skill in language acquisition (the rules of writing Xhosa), just supplemented to other lessons such as on how to read and observation and other instances, on how to write and doing presentation. In this case now, the children usually failed the question 5 in paper 1 due to limited time for teaching that important skill of applying the language in a proper manner. In other instance, the listening skill is being offered only a period of an hour. No time catered for the oral lesson. It means that the skills are available but the time not available to acquire those skills.

Researcher: As the Xhosa teacher, you have already mentioned some of the challenges you experienced in the classroom.

For instance, you mentioned the instances where they get bored when one lesson (essay writing) is being repeated. The children do not understand that a particular skill is being enhanced when it is repeated. Despite this lack of interest in children, what are the other challenges you have experienced in your classroom?

Teacher C1: The children at this level, Miss Titi, they do not take Xhosa very seriously, they focussed on other subjects. They think learning Xhosa is a waste of time, they cannot go further into University level. The teacher had to remind them about the golden rules, such as in order to be accepted or to proceed to grade 12, they must obtain above codes 3 or 4

during examinations. That is the only way to bring their attention back. Nevertheless, the majority of children lack the interest in Xhosa.

Our colleagues (other teachers) as well they influenced the negative attitude towards Xhosa. For instance, if one teacher of another subject found a child busy with Xhosa at a particular time, usually encouraged his/her subject to be given a priority.

We have to take more time to bring back the attention of children towards Xhosa. We had tried to show them they can go further with their career in Xhosa such as became prominent book writers in poetry, novelist, journalist and prominent Xhosa teachers.

Researcher: As we had already mentioned earlier that the CAPS focussed mainly on writing and presentation, specifically on paragraphs and essays. Are there any challenges you might observe when you assess their work in the classroom? If yes, please specify.

Teacher C1: They are so many, my sister. Firstly, the children like to mix Xhosa and English. For instance, in other instances, when they write, put the English word in brackets, if not having any clue of the isiXhosa word. They do not know how to write proper Xhosa, write an unknown language but if you asked them to read it, can read it eloquently. Even in grade 11, they cannot write properly, especially the capital letters. They are lazy to write, especially when it needs their work to be submitted to the educator. Their work is not properly coordinated and usually failed to follow instructions accordingly. For instance, their work in paper 3, usually separated into sections A and B. Now then, in section B they have to choose two paragraphs. I usually advised in section A to choose the familiar topic and where they were capable to write something. The tricky thing, it is not obvious that something you like, therefore you can prove some capabilities on that. They mistakenly jumped to choose their favourite topics then stuck on the way. For instance, once they chose their favourite topic with two paragraphs, needed for them to brain storm different information in these different paragraphs. Each paragraph must have its own theme. They usually failed to do that and repeat the same information in all the paragraphs, just in order to fill-up the needed number of words. They usually lose 25 marks because of this bad habit, as they usually write about one paragraph only. They are supposed to explain their essay as below: for instance, if the topic is about “water”, the child must explain the uses of water at home, cooking (in the first paragraph), then the following paragraph will be the use of water at schools and etc. They are lazy to write and critically thinking. For I instructed to write about “public violence or riots” in their area, they will have nothing to write about especially if the “riots” did not happen in

their area, although they know it was once happened in other areas. They couldn't not realise that every topic is about what happened in our surrounding areas. For instance, they are usually advised to arrange their paragraphs in numbers (1-6) as according to a particular theme. They mix several themes in one paragraph. For instance, if the topic is about "education", they will talk about "teachers" and "children" in one paragraph. They will fail to separate their themes accordingly.

Researcher: If I am understanding you very well, you pointed out the problems of understanding the language rules such as inappropriate capital letters, terminology challenge, repetition of ideas. These are the only challenges I can remember at the moment, probably the record player can remind me when re-playing. As you have already pointed out these challenges, can you be able to predict their causes? For instance, you have already mentioned one cause, their incapability in thinking where they repeat information. Which are other causes of these challenges you had already highlighted above?

Teacher C1: Firstly, Miss Titi, as they lacked thinking capability, they are also lazy in writing long essays such as approximately 340 words.

Secondly, they do not consider paper 3 as important. If the exam is about paper 3, they do not bother to practise notes and classwork or prepare for that particular exam. They are ignoring the paper which counts huge marks in the exams. It became easy for them to commit the same errors they did in their class works, when writing exams.

They do not consider as the paper to get prepare with, before the exams began, although the educator warned them a day or two days before the exams.

Researcher: Okay, maybe, what are the steps you usually follow to correct these errors when they write essays to show them the dangers of improperly usage of language? For example, I understand you have mentioned that you usually pointed out and correct their errors when writing their essays in class. What are the measures you undertook to avoid these errors to happen in future?

Teacher C1: I do not want to tell you lies, meaning that, "I have done this and this, although I did nothing. As Xhosa educators now we are also caught up by this myth that the children do not like Xhosa. We usually naively think that whatever you correct them, it wouldn't help them at the end or they will not take note of these corrections. But I usually highlight their errors in their script after writing exams.

Researcher: So, you mean that the steps you followed, you present them with the feedback?

Teacher C1: Yes, I summed up their problems and present or demonstrate in class through the black board. For instance, I usually pick up one example and in front of them (in class), pointing out that, “so and so mistakenly did this and that, instead of doing this and that”. I will not utter the name of that particular child who has done the mistake, she/he will know herself as I had already marked the corrections from the script. Probably by doing those measures, the children will be able to realise their shortfalls when they write paper 3 again (during next exams).

Researcher: Okay, I understand, you presented them with feedback and correct their errors through demonstration in class in the black board, pointed out that, “they were supposed to do this and that instead of doing this and that”. Are there any improvements after you have done these mitigation measures?

Teacher C1: Sometimes, there will be some improvements. I usually do a particular way of testing their shortfalls. I just randomly picked up a particular essay to be done without notifying them with some precautions, before the June exams resumed. At this stage they are still fresh from the lower grade (10). During the assessment of their essays, I usually notice the problems arrangement of the themes in their essays (as they do not rhyme well). The incidents they don't follow each other properly. For instance, in a “wedding” topic one child will narrate the “exchanging of vows” then in the next paragraph will be about the “wedding preparations”. Once I had picked the problem, I immediately, selectively put my focus on, to make sure that this particular problem being realised by children. By the time they wrote paper 2 during June exams, this weakness became the thing of the past (the improvement is being observed).

Researcher: Okay, this means that they also improved in those aspects you highlighted earlier such as on how to write capital letters.

Teacher C1: But there are those children who cannot improve specifically those inherited it from grade 8. For instance, I usually tried several strategies, personally held a private talk with a particular child, showing him the proper way to write capital letters. When that child returned to her desk, will repeat the same mistake! I usually warned them to rectify these mistakes while still early as this will have a negative impact on the next level (grade 12). It

very difficult to suddenly change the bad behaviour, specifically to someone already grown up as an adult.

Researcher: Okay, in other words, sometimes these errors are able to be rectified and on the other hand, unable? Based on these errors you alluded, can you estimate the percentage (by 100%) on how much chances of improvement, specifically for those potential children before they can proceed to the next class (grade 12)?

Teacher C1: The improvement can range up to 70%. To be truthful, most of them they can realised their shortfalls in order to achieve better next time, especially when you demonstrated their scrip in front of them. They believed on something which is visible to them. Others emerged from the difficult circumstances in understanding or in acquiring the writing skill. In certain instances, the child can understand the question but unable to write it. The educator has to demonstrate or narrate certain letters of alphabet (i, m, b) to help that child in spelling that particular answer. It means that the educators must be able to revive the spelling lesson even in grade 11. In most cases children last did the spelling lessons from grades 8 and 9. In this case, the child became able to improve up to grade 12. The educators naively focussed (ignoring the spelling lessons in grade 11) only to those specifics – usually challenging during exams. The spelling lesson if ignored, impacted negatively the writing capabilities of children.

Researcher: This means that the spelling errors are among the problems you usually correct when assessing their work! Okay, then, as the Xhosa teacher, what are proposals in the development of Xhosa curriculum in order to improve the teaching methods at schools.

Teacher C1: Yhooo! hey! Mh! (In deep thinking)

Researcher: The question is not challenging much for you because you have been observing the behaviour of these children and have knowledge about the present curriculum. So what do you think to be done in order to improve the present status quo?

Teacher C1: May be our teaching methods can be improved if we can demonstrate our lessons through visual pictures. For instance, if the lesson is about essays, the visual pictures pertained to that particular essay will attract the interest of children.

In words other words, our lessons must be conducted, using today's technology such as showing them a certain video script and then asked them to write an essay pertained to that video which was shown to them.

Researcher: When you think as Xhosa teacher, which instruments can be used? You have mentioned the usage of video in demonstrating the visual lesson, any other instruments?

Teacher C1: It must be visual chats. For instance, in paper 3, section A, the children need to write about 8 themes for that particular essay. It could be wise if this can be demonstrated to them through the flow chat. In that way, able to draw up the picture on what needed to be done.

They are also able to draw up the mind map, pertaining to that big picture demonstrated/shown in the chat.

Researcher: Okay, without being interrupted your input. You mean that the teachers must develop their creativity. They must bring flow chats as one of the instruments to be used in the classrooms. This could be done without asking any help from the government. The teachers must develop themselves creative tools to be used in their classrooms. I am not sure whether there are any other tools?

Teacher C1: Okay, I am just still thinking.

Researcher: Okay, you are welcome to take your time. Actually, we want to know how can we help you as educators or shape the curriculum in order to bring value to the children. What can improve the educators, particularly to the teaching methods. Ultimately, we can champion this change without excluding the children as they are also an important element in bringing up the value to this education system. You have already mentioned (in your answers) that together as educators, children we can assist to achieve the intended goal. By the way, if nothing else, we can close the chapter at the moment. Thank you very much.

An interview between the researcher and isiXhosa subject advisor at Metropole South Education District (MSED)

Researcher: A very warm welcome, Madam to this interview.

My first question, did you initially resume work as Xhosa teacher before becoming the Xhosa subject adviser?

Subject advisor MSED: Yes, I worked 20 years as the Xhosa teacher (from 1991 until June 2018).

Researcher: It means that you worked for almost 18 years?

Subject advisor MSED: It's more than 18. No, it's more than 18 years.

Researcher: Okay, in my mind, you worked as the teacher as from 2001 (wrong calculations).

Subject advisor MSED: No, it was from 1991.

Researcher: Okay, Madam. Under which curriculum your lessons based and which subjects you taught during your era?

Subject advisor MSED: I began teaching at Junior Secondary School grades 8, 9, 10, under former Ciskei Department of Education in the Eastern Cape.

Researcher: Do you remember the curriculum, was not Nated?

Subject advisor MSED: Oh! No, I cannot remember.

Researcher: Are there any language problems you experienced in your children as Xhosa teacher, specifically on how they wrote?

Subject advisor MSED: There were no much problems at Eastern Cape, especially in speaking the language. For instance, they knew how to relate a particular speech with that particular word. There were minor problems, such as incorrect spelling.

Researcher: When they wrote?

Subject advisor MSED: Yes, I was with them in Eastern as from 1991 to 1993. Then as from 1994 I moved to the Western Cape.

Researcher: Did you continue here as the teacher?

Subject advisor MSED: Yes, I began a new school at Philippi where we were doing a platoon system. We usually began our classes from 12:00 to 17:00. In 1996 we had our own independent school.

Researcher: This is very interesting now, you came with your experience from Eastern Cape to Western Cape. When you were at Eastern Cape, you have experienced some few spelling errors from children, then came to Western Cape; were there any problems especially the way they write?

Subject advisor MSED: By that time, there was no difference as that school initial formed by children who were originally coming from the Eastern Cape.

Researcher: As curriculum changes over time such as previously experienced the Outcomes Based Education, National Curriculum Statement and the present one called, CAPS. Which one you have experienced as the Xhosa language adviser?

Subject advisor MSED: Can you refresh my memory, what is OBE?

Researcher: I am asking you as the Xhosa subject adviser.

Subject advisor MSED: As the subject adviser. No, I am working under CAPS here.

Researcher: You began at CAPS?

Subject advisor MSED: Yes, of course.

Researcher: When you compare the initial curriculum within the Department of Education, with this present curriculum (CAPS), what could be the difference?

Subject advisor MSED: Firstly, the difference in this present curriculum is the huge amount of work to be done by educators. For instance, under CAPS, the educators had to do so many tasks and administration work which normally became a burden to them.

Researcher: Is there any difference you observed, in terms of its (curriculum) theme?

Subject advisor MSED: The CAPS is more empowering to children. Although this CAPS have more focus on children, it does not cater enough time for the huge job to be able to be completed accordingly. Each topic for that particular task has its own time frame. In most instances the educator found it more difficult to make the dead line to complete that particular task. The CAPS on the other hand exact more pressure for this deadline to be met. I also

usually find in other instances that one particular educator focussed on one particular skill when assessing the work as the subject adviser, instead of focussing to several skills.

Researcher: Okay, the CAPS focussed on writing and assessment. This includes the writing of paragraphs and essays. As the Xhosa language adviser, when you visited schools, assessing the children's work (specifically the essays), were there any problems in your observation? If yes, please explain.

Subject advisor MSED: Yes, there was a difference. Firstly, I found that the teacher did not use a certain marking format called rubric when allocating marks for children. The rubric is the lesson on its own, it must be taught to the child, as the child needed to be aware of what is expected of him when writing these essays. The teacher marked the child unfairly. For instance, if the child had certain word division and inappropriate capital letters in his writing, no marks will be allocated to that particular child. The missing link here, that the educator needed to consider the sense of that particular essay, allocate some marks for that particular task and some marks for that particular child. In most instances you find that the educator did not understand the rubric when marking, focussed on errors done by children. Another thing is that the teachers wanted the children to utter the educator's views, how do the children know the teacher's views? These are the problems we usually encounter when assessing children at schools.

Researcher: Okay, this question above is specifically directed to children problems pertained to the way they write, what problems you usually observed when moderating their scripts?

Subject advisor MSED: Firstly, the children usually broke the rules of writing the capital letters as they were not aware of any principle to follow. They also showed no principle on separation and connecting of some words and spelling errors as well. For instance, they usually not aware that the nouns, pronouns had to be written separately from the other words. There were also problems of paragraphing as well. They did not know when to separate a paragraph from another paragraph. For instance, you will find that one paragraph is bigger than another or the information that supposed not to be separated from another paragraph (just separate for the sake of separation or child forgot to do that).

Researcher: The children did not know how to separate the paragraphs?

Subject advisor MSED: Yes, they do not know how to separate paragraphs, as the one usually had to follow a particular plan to do that successfully.

For instance, when the child follows a particular plan supposed to know what to follow from each paragraph in the body of that particular essay.

Researcher: In your conversations with some educators, you usually work with, what are the challenges they usually pointed out, especially, the way the children write?

Subject advisor MSED: The main problematic area they usually pointed out is media such as the television where the Zulu language is considered as the priority. Our Xhosa children spoke Zulu better than their mother tongue. They mistakenly wrote the way they communicate on social networks such as Facebook and WhatsApp messaging.

Another negative influence is Umhlobo wenene FM. They listened in that morning talk show where they usually utter informal Xhosa. Children they just apply what they heard from the Radio, as authentic. For instance, they picked up the wrong pairing of adverbial words describing a drunkard person as wet; instead of using that particular word to the actual wet person (“wayeshushu tixi”) which is incorrect, instead of “wayemanzi tixi” meaning that he was wet over than necessary.

Researcher: Yes, they do not use the verbs together with adverbial words, correctly (certain figure of speech usually describes how that particular event or situation occurs). Okay, when you do an analysis of these results as the language advisers, what could be the cause of these language errors, specifically improper usage of capital letters, improper separation of figures of speech and incorrect spelling? These are the errors which you had been pointed them out.

Subject advisor MSED: Another cause is the negative township behaviour (township lingo). For instance, we stay on townships where no standard Xhosa is being used. Again, the television had a negative influence the way they spoke Xhosa. For instance, at television the presenters usually did conversations in a casual manner and failed to adopt proper Xhosa terminology.

Researcher: How can you advise the educators to do in order to correct these problems to realise their negative impact on the use of language?

Subject advisor MSED: I usually advised the educators to encourage children to read Xhosa literature and Xhosa newspaper Isolezwe.

Researcher: I beg your pardon, Madam, you mean the teachers must advise the children?

Subject advisor MSED: Oh! This must begin in their classrooms. They must encourage reading in class and the teachers themselves must be able to read, as it will be easy for children to follow the same. The teachers must be able to read the literature in order to lead by example. For instance, it becomes easy for the teachers when teaching in class a particular novel where they are familiar with it. The teachers must be able to buy Isolezwe and use some extract during their lessons in the class. Lastly, the educators must also initiate book clubs among children where they encourage book readings. Each club will compete among each other on how books each one had read in that particular period.

Researcher: Okay, then, what could be the benefits of this reading you had mentioned it, convincingly?

Subject advisor MSED: This process is extending their horizon and became familiar with proper Xhosa spelling.

Researcher: Okay, but you earlier mentioned a certain study corner to be established, can you elaborate further on that?

Subject advisor MSED: The educator must identify a certain corner with a small desk and some books. Any child finished first in writing a particular task, he/she must go to that corner to read.

Researcher: Instead of making noise, disturbing other children?

Subject advisor MSED: Yes, he must do something productive and the educator must monitor this process accordingly. The child must be able to explain to others what he had read. If the child has developed an interest on a particular book, by the end of that particular class period, he will borrow that book from the educator.

The educator must keep the records such as the duration of that particular book borrowed and etc. The teachers must encourage libraries to intensify the usage of Xhosa books. They

must also extend this aspect to the publishers as well as some of them usually ignored the Xhosa material.

Researcher: Based on these errors you alluded, can you estimate the percentage (by 100%) on how much chances of improvement before they can proceed to the next class (grade 12)?

Subject advisor MSED: Children needed to be familiarised with reading from the earliest grades, such as from grades 8, 9 and 10. The educator will observe some changes when they reached grade 10.

Then the educators must continue to take precautions from grades 10 and 11. There will be some drastically changes when they reached grade 12. Ultimately, they will be able to correct each other's mistakes.

Researcher: Okay, but my point I am trying to raise or to be clarified, as these errors being vastly noticed as from grade 11, how can you estimate the chances of being rectified before or as they reached grade 12?

Subject advisor MSED: To get to the truth, Miss, in our schools at grades 8 and 9, new teachers without class management skills, are being assigned. Secondly, unqualified teachers are being assigned as long they knew how to speak Xhosa. If this bad habit can be stopped at schools, children's performance can be improved. The educators must have experienced in dealing with these children in various phases such the senior classes in GET and the FET phases. In that way, the educator will develop up that passion of grilling these children until reached the threshold, grade 11.

Researcher: In other words, you mean that if they do not change the incorrect allocation of teachers per class (proper class management) and placement of qualified Xhosa educators, there will be no improvement in children's performance?

Subject advisor MSED: The problems will remain until they reached grade 12. Another important thing to be notified, the huge gap in children's mind as from grades 5 - 8. For instance, from grades 5, 6 and 7, the focus was on English as Xhosa done without any concern as no subject advisers allocated for these grades. This adds to a problem of allocating new unqualified teachers in grade 8. There is a huge gap to be closed as they reached grade 8, need experienced qualified teachers. It could be difficult for those new teachers from the college to identify these gaps as they had not yet confident with the CAPS

curriculum and class management. Those unqualified teachers will be just being excited of having a new job as they will do whatever they like, their job without being assessed.

Researcher: Okay, when you do your analysis on grade 12 assessment, what are the main problems particularly the way they write?

Subject advisor MSED: The children usually performed very well in paper 3 such as on how to write essays and letters. Paper 1 and 2 are the most difficult part for them. For instance, they usually struggled to perform in literature such as book or poem analysis. They also struggled on grammar. They cannot distinguish between a noun and the pronoun as well as the other grammatical aspects.

Researcher: Ultimately, you mean when you assessed the children's results, you usually observed grammatical problems, specifically from grade 12. Are there any other problems?

Subject advisor MSED: The literature analysis in paper 2 such as the poems, it became a challenge to children.

Researcher: As the isiXhosa subject adviser, what can you advise to be done to improve the curriculum in order to improve the teaching methods as well from schools?

You have already mentioned other aspects earlier on what should be done to improve the situation, I would like you to elaborate a bit further on this regard.

Subject advisor MSED: Firstly, the administration tasks performed by teachers must be limited. There are so many tasks including the administration work to be performed by children being under the guidance of the educators. Most of the time is being spent on task performance. For instance, the educator in his plan as according to the CAPS supposed to teach this week the literature, how to write paragraphs, essays and etc. If the educator knows that the following week would be to focus on how to write a letter, he will prepare to teach that letter. In this way, the educator ended up in teaching the tasks, ignoring the CAPS programme which inclusive of every other teaching aspect.

Therefore, the educators must dedicate their time on teaching instead of tasks performance. This means that the tasks should be limited in the curriculum in order to improve the situation. The teaching is better than task performance.

Researcher: Thank you very much for your time.

An interview between the researcher and isiXhosa subject advisor Metropole East Education District (MEED)

Researcher: Okay, I understand, before you became the Xhosa subject adviser, had you been the Xhosa teacher?

Subject advisor MEED: Yes, of course.

Researcher: How long had you been the Xhosa teacher before being the Xhosa language adviser?

Subject advisor MEED: I began as from 1987. This means that is about 24 years being the teacher before I became the Xhosa language adviser.

Researcher: It has been a tremendous experience indeed!

Subject advisor MEED: Yes, indeed.

Researcher: During the years when you were the teacher, what grades and under which curriculum under your guidance?

Subject advisor MEED: I began with National Curriculum Statement, the OBE and the present CAPS. In other words, I experienced them all!

Researcher: That is wonderful indeed. Is there any language related problems pertaining to children, you might remember when you were the teacher, specifically the way they write?

Subject advisor MEED: During the National Curriculum Statement, the emphasis was on principles and rules of the Xhosa language of which were very challenging on children.

For instance, the children's grammatical challenges were as follow: improper spelling; improper sentence structure (incorrect syntax) and etc. These were the main focus areas during the assessment of children. No rubric being considered when marking their scripts. We were just using our impression when marking their creative writings.

Researcher: Okay, as curriculum changes overtime such as OBE, the National Curriculum Statement and the present one (the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement). Fortunately, you are familiar with all of them as according to your experience as the teacher. As the Xhosa language adviser, which one of them you had worked under?

Subject advisor MEED: I began working under CAPS.

Researcher: Okay, you mean, you began working as Xhosa language adviser under CAPS? When compare these curriculums such as the OBE, the CAPS and the present National Curriculum Policy Statement, what could be the difference, firstly on the teaching method? What could be the difference the way they were designed by specific areas of focus, probably these areas are no longer appearing in the present curriculum?

Subject advisor MEED: The main area I like on CAPS, focussed on skills development unlike the earlier one, which focussed on the speaking of the language. The previous one did not cater what they should do when they enter the job market. Presently, they are aware that they must learn the language how to speak, then to write and how to read. Other skills I like mostly, public speaking and listening which were ignored by previous curriculums. Other thing, this CAPS focussed on child performance rather than the content. For instance, when the educator presented them to analyse a particular literature, they knew it is not about that content of that book per se, the main focus to acquire analytical skills.

Researcher: Is that mean the child aware that certain different skill, somehow get connected to each other?

Subject advisor MEED: Yes, the child knows that he must end up being have acquired a particular skill. In my class, I usually narrate an example of a learner driver where after he had passed the lessons will realise whether he had acquired a skill or not after being able to drive and obey the traffic rules. The children must be aware that after they reached school must be able to be competent in public speaking, in listening and in doing multi-tasks. These skills are the demand in the higher level (university/college) such as writing, listening and note taking during lectures.

Researcher: I understand, but CAPS also focussed on how to write and presentation including the writing of paragraphs and essays, as you had alluded earlier. As the Xhosa language adviser, are there any challenges you experienced when visiting the schools, specifically in accessing the children's essays? If yes, please specify.

Subject advisor MEED: Okay, there are no any unrealistic problems per se. The children usually tried to show their creative writing and thinking skills. The absolute truth, relies among the educators. Firstly, as creative writing is not easy to teach and this has been realised when doing the marking. The educators usually failed to apply the rubric system accordingly when marking children script. For instance, one will find that the child had

applied his mind accordingly, when writing that particular essay, but the educator will want the child to focus on the educator's view, of which that very impossible. In this case, the child unfairly loose the marks. When children are being taught to focus on mind mapping then follow all the processes such doing the first draft and edit it, and ultimately do the final draft. Most children they follow these steps accordingly, when doing their essays hence they deserved to be offered some marks as according to rubric. Other children usually being lazy to *follow these steps, accordingly, but did absolutely very well.*

Researcher: All in all, you mean there are no errors the children they usually did when performing their tasks?

Subject advisor MEED: They usually did some spelling errors but usually on point in terms of the content. Most importantly, the child must be on point, in terms of the theme of that particular essay, listen to their view point and forget about any other errors they might appear.

Researcher: You mean, we must focus on the theme and not on the writing problems?

Subject advisor MEED: Yes, most of the marks are being allocated on the theme the children had focussed.

Researcher: When you had discussed this with educators, which problems they reveal?

Subject advisor MEED: The educators usually complained about the spelling errors. Then, I usually advised them to focus on spelling when they teach, identify the problematic words such as clicks and sounds. They must list those clicks problematic words on the wall chart to be visible to children all the time. I usually recommend this method to grade 12 class. They are very skilful, in terms of sharing their view points.

Researcher: Using the language inappropriately?

Subject advisor MEED: Yes, of course.

Researcher: When you analysed the children's results as the Xhosa language advisers; how can you deduce the causes of these problems you have just eluded?

Subject advisor MEED: The problem began when the children reached the Further Education and Training phase (FET), probably from grades 8 and 9. The educators usually

thought that all is well with children but the problem not yet over. That is where we missed the point, were supposed to focus on these problems in great detail.

Researcher: Because they were supposed to have been taught as from the lower grades?

Subject advisor MEED: Yes, as according to CAPS, the children were supposed to had been grilled against these problems as from grades 8 and 9. In grade 10 the educator is supposed to had just polished up the problems but the CAPS usually failed to cater for the situation as according to the present time-table of that particular period. No time to focus to those children who needed an extra care (covering up). For instance, we only focussed on how to write, to read, to speak, presentation and appropriate use of a language, no time for any other aspect.

Researcher: This means that we spent time only on the appropriate use of language skills. Okay, what was your usual advice to the educators in trying to rectify the problem? As you had mentioned that when they observed their lack in that particular click spelling, immediately in class they must be hands on! So then, that was your first advice to the educators in order the children to realise the importance of these aspects in the use of language. All in all, you advised them to focus on the importance of these sounds and clicks as well as spelling instead of focussing mainly on the appropriate use of grammar, prose readings and paragraph or essay writing as other educators did. You advised them to mainly focus on spelling and other problematic clicks (sounds).

Subject advisor MEED: Yes, very true indeed, that was what we usually encouraged them (educators) to do, as the language does not come from vacuum, based on context. Everything about language emanates from a certain theme.

So, I encouraged the educators to be always having a particular resource file which include certain texts from various sources. In other words, the educator must be able to research. It means that the educator must be always equipped in that particular topic to deal with in class. For instance, if a teacher is going to teach about literature (a particular novel called Buzani kubawo by G.B Sinxo), the class must pause a moment and refer them to a particular paragraph and pointed out on how the writer uses a certain figure of speech to emphasise a particular point, or refer them to a different script, as the educator you had previously prepared for that. The educator must always get prepared in time, not refer to a particular magazine, while busy on during class sessions. A teacher must be always being vigilant in

his literature class. For instance, during literature reading class sessions, the educators must encourage the children to pause a bit, to note the adjectives, adverbs and nouns in that particular text or paragraph. The teacher must be able to be inclusive, such as including every important aspect pertaining to language in one particular lesson.

Researcher: As you had already mentioned that these problems emanated from grades 10 and 11 and emphasis must be done from FET phase (such grades 10, 11 and 12 to rectify these problems. Now therefore, based on these errors you alluded, can you estimate the percentage (by 100%) on how much chances of improvement before they can proceed to the next class (grade 12)?

Subject advisor MEED: There are so many opportunities for these problems to be rectified but on the other hand, there are so many challenges/obstacles surrounded our language. Firstly, the foreign children came in our classes having no background of Xhosa as their, mother tongue, aggravated our problems.

Secondly, there were those children who had done English as their home language, but on the way found some difficulties, and ultimately resorted to Xhosa as their home language. They had begun with Xhosa at grade 10 without any Xhosa background.

But anyway, the educators did their best to close this gap; the average improvement will be about 80% especially to those children began with Xhosa during the foundation level.

Researcher: My previous question referred to problems you usually experienced during your conversation with educators. What common problems you usually experienced when doing conversations with other Xhosa language advisers from other districts?

Subject advisor MEED: They usually did not know how to plan their work (mind mapping). For instance, they just did careless mistakes, as they aware that they are supposed to do it, as they write it for the sake of writing it, (they don't follow their themes when writing the body of the essays). For instance, they are not aware that each paragraph must have each theme. One will find out the mixing of themes or repetitions. These are the general problems we usually discussed.

Researcher: As you had already mentioned the spelling problems, are there any other orthographic principles (rules of grammar) you usually observed in your discussions?

Subject advisor MEED: Yes, that is usually experienced by all of us, that's why I did not mention it earlier.

Researcher: For instance, one will find out that spelling and inappropriate separation of words became an area of complaint by all Xhosa language advisers.

Subject advisor MEED: Yes, very true of course.

Researcher: Probably, it could be the problems of punctuation marks, word division (inappropriate separation of words) and inappropriate writing of capital letters.

Subject advisor MEED: Proper punctuation and appropriate writing of capital letters not a problem as such. For instance, they knew where to place comma or full stop when constructing the sentences. It is very rare to notice children when they wrote, construct long sentence structure with no end (a sentence equal to a paragraph)

Researcher: One will find their terminology not in order...?

Subject advisor MEED: Yes, it is one of their weakest link as well, especially in that category of children I mentioned it earlier. For instance, they used most of the borrowed terms when constructing their sentences. These are the common problems we usually experienced.

Researcher: Okay, as Xhosa language adviser, what changes can you advise to be done to improve the Xhosa curriculum to also improve the teaching methods at schools, in order for these writing problems to be addressed?

Subject advisor MEED: Firstly, the children needed to be taught the importance of their mother tongue. For instance, the children needed to be aware that in order to easily understood other subjects or other languages, they must have the appropriate foundation of their mother tongue (isiXhosa). Firstly, the educators must bring back that dignity of Xhosa language in order for the children to get interested. Secondly, the children needed to be aware of the career open opportunities when one pursuing the Xhosa language.

Researcher: Is that not caused, maybe, by the career choices?

Subject advisor MEED: They thought may be Xhosa had nothing to do with their career choices. The people like you, who received the tertiary education can be a great help to provide the career guidance to children with regard to Xhosa language. This information is very important for them while's still here at school, for instance organising a school career awareness day, focussing on Xhosa language. In this way, that myth of that English language as the only channel for success will be over. The educators must be encouraged

to continue with these campaigns at schools such as organising one of the famous event of one the legend Xhosa literature writer SEK Mqhayi (uMqhayi day). The educators must organise some activities to be done by children during the Heritage day. We do not cater enough time for these activities to happen where the children would be involved. One will also find that once the children exposed on these activities, usually showed the wonderful interests.

Researcher: Okay, Madam, that is very wonderful, this interview will be of great help towards my research. I thank you very much.

APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Questions for the interviews with teachers



University of Fort Hare
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IMIBUZO YODLIWANO-NDLEBE NOOTITSHALA BOLWIMI ISIXHOSA (ISIXHOSA TEACHERS' INTERVIEW QUESTIONS)

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1. Ingaba uqale nini ukusebenza nje ngomfundisi-ntsapho wesiXhosa?
(When did you start working as an isiXhosa teacher?)
2. Waqeqeshwa phantsi kweyiphi ikharityhulam?
(Under which curriculum were you trained as a teacher?)
3. Ingaba unawo amanye amabanga owafundisayo ngaphandle kweli leshumi elinanye?
(Do you teach any other grades except for grade eleven?)
4. Njengoko iikharityhulam zihamba-hamba zitshintshe, umzekelo ikhe yakhona i-Outcomes Based Education (OBE), iNational Curriculum Statement (NCS) kunye

nale sikuyo ngoku iCurriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), ingaba zeziphi okhe wafundisa phantsi kwazo?

(As the curriculums change overtime, for example there was Outcomes Based Education (OBE), National Curriculum Statement (NCS) and currently the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), which ones have you taught during their times?)

5. Xa uthlekisa ikharithulam owaqeqeshwa phantsi kwayo njengomfundisi-ntsapho, ungathi ngowuphi umahluko phakathi kwayo nale yeCAPS?

(When you compare the curriculum under which you were trained as a teacher and the CAPS, how would you say they differ?)

6. Njengomfundisi-ntsapho wesiXhosa, ikhona imiceli-mngeni othi uhlangane nayo kwigumbi lokufundisa xa ufundisa. Ingaba yeyiphi? Khawusithele gqaba-gqaba ngayo?

(As an isiXhosa teacher, are there any challenges you experience in class when you teach, and what nature of challenges are those?)

7. I-CAPS ikwagxininisa kubhalo nokunikezela, oko ke kuquka ubhalo lwemihlathana nezincoko. Ingaba zikhona iziphene othi udibane nazo xa uhlola le misebenzi yabo? Ukuba zikhona hlobo luni lweziphene?

(The CAPS also emphasises on writing and that includes short transactions and essays. Are there any errors that you normally discover when marking such texts? If there are, what is the nature of such errors?)

8. Ingaba uye ukwazi ukuqikelela ukuba oku kwenziwa kwezi ziphene kubangelwa yintoni?

(Have you been able to identify the causes of such errors?)

9. Manyathelo mani othi uwathathe njengotitshala ukuzama ukulungisa ezi ziphene khona ukuze abafundi babe nako ukuziqwalasela nokuqonda ubuzaza bazo kwindlela abasebenzisa ngayo ulwimi olu? Umzekelo ukunika ingxelo nokwenza ungenelelo.

(What measures have you taken as a teacher to address such errors so as to make the learners fully aware of the impact such errors have on how they use the language, for instance giving feedback and intervention?)

10. Ingaba uba khona umahluko othi uwubone kubhalo lwabo emva kokuba uthe wayinika ingxelo malunga neengxaki othe wahlangana nazo logama uhlola imisebenzi yabo, nasemva kokuba ulwenzile ungenelelo ukuzama ukulungisa ezi ziphene?

(Is there any noticeable difference on how the learners use the language after you have given them feedback and done some intervention to correct the errors you have detected?)

11. Ungathi mangakanani amathuba okuba ezi ziphene zibe kanti ziyalungiseka ngaphambili kokuba abafundi babe kanti badlulela kwibakala leshumi elinesibini ngokweepesenti ezingama-100%?

(On a scale of 100%, what are the chances of getting these errors corrected before these learners progress to grade-12?)

12. Njengomfundisi-ntsapho ofundisa isiXhosa, ungacebisa ukuba kwenziwe ntoni ukuphucula ikharithulam yesiXhosa ukuze kubekho utshintsho kwindlela yokuhlola nokufundwa kwesiXhosa ezikolweni?

(As an isiXhosa teacher, what would you recommend as a way of improving the teaching and learning of isiXhosa in schools?)

Questions for the interviews the Subject Advisers



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

IMIBUZO YODLIWANO-NDLEBE NABACEBISI BESIFUNDO SOLWIMI ISIXHOSA (ISIXHOSA SUBJECT ADVISERS' INTERVIEW QUESTIONS)

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1. Ngokuqinisekileyo ukhe wasebenza njengomfundisi-ntsapho wesiXhosa ngaphambili kokuba ube nguMcebisi-ngesifundo sesiXhosa. Ingaba wasebenza ixesha elingakanani nje ngomfundisi-ntsapho wesiXhosa?
(Surely you have had worked as an isiXhosa teacher before you started working as a Subject Advisor. How long have you worked as an isiXhosa teacher?)
2. Wawufundise phantsi kweyiphi ikharityhulam kwaye ufundisa awaphi amabanga?
(Under which curriculum have you taught and which grades?)
3. Ingaba zikhona iingxaki zolwimi ozikhumbulayo owawuziqaphela kwindlela abafundi ababesebenzisa ngayo ulwimi xa bebhala?
(Are there any language challenges you can recall that you identified on how the learners were using isiXhosa when writing?)

4. Njengoko iikharithulam zihamba-hamba zitshintshe, umzekelo sikhe sanayo i-Outcomes Based Education (OBE) iNational Curriculum Statement (NCS) kunye nale sikuyo ngoku iCurriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), ingaba zeziphi okhe wasebenza phantsi kwazo njengoMcebisi ngesifundo sesiXhosa?
(As the curriculums change overtime, for example there was Outcomes Based Education (OBE), National Curriculum Statement (NCS) and currently the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), during which ones have you worked as a subject advisor?)
5. Xa uthlekisa iikharithulam owawuqeshwe phantsi kwayo ukuqala kwakho ukuphangela kwezemfundo kolu lwimi lwesiXhosa, ungathi ngowuphi umahluko phakathi kwayo nale yeCAPS?
(When you compare the curriculum under which you were first employed in education in isiXhosa and the CAPS, how would you say they differ?)
6. I-CAPS ikwagxininisa kubhalo nokunikezela, oko ke kuquka ubhalo lwemihlathana nezincoko. NjengoMcebisi ngesifundo sesiXhosa, ikhona imiceli-mngeni othi uhlangane nayo xa undwendwele izikolo kunye neziphene othi uziqaphele xa usenza ucweyo lwezincoko zabafundi. Ingaba zeziphi? Khawusithele gqaba-gqaba ngayo.
(The CAPS also emphasises on writing and that includes short transactions and essays. As a Subject Advisor are there any challenges that you discover when you are visiting schools and the language errors that you identify when you moderate the learner's essays? If there are, what is the nature of such errors?)
7. Ingaba xa udlana iindlebe nabefundisi-ntsapho osebenza kunye nabo baye bakhale ngeyiphi imiceli-mngeni?
When you have some discussions with the teachers that you work with, what challenges do they normally report about?
8. Xa nihlalutya iziphumo njengaBacebisi-ngolwimi lwesiXhosa niye nikwazi ukuqikelela ukuba oku kwenziwa kwezi ziphene kubangelwa yintoni?
When you are doing the results analysis as Subject Advisers, are you able to make an approximation of the causes of such errors?

9. Ngcebiso zini othi uzinike ootitshala osebenza nabo ukuzama ukulungisa ezi ziphene khona ukuze abafundi babe nako ukuziqwalasela nokuqonda ubuzaza bazo kwindlela abasebenzisa ngayo ulwimi olu?
What advices do you normally give to the teachers in order for learners to identify, correct and possibly understand the impact of such errors on their language use?
10. Ungathi mangakanani amathuba okuba ezi ziphene zibe kanti ziyalungiseka ngaphambili kokuba abafundi babe kanti badlulela kwibakala leshumi elinesibini ngokweepesenti ezingama-100%?
On a scale of 100%, what are the chances of getting these errors corrected before these learners progress to grade-12?
11. Xa nihlalutya iziphumo zebakala leshumi elinesibini, ingaba zeziphi iziphene ezithi zifumaneke phantse kubhalo lwabafundi bonke nezibonakala zitshotsha entla?
When you are doing the results analysis of the grade-12 results, what common language errors do you find in almost all the students' scripts, essays to be specific that you could say they are dominant?
12. NjengoMcebisi ngesifundo sesiXhosa, ungacebisa ukuba kwenziwe ntoni ukuphucula ikharithulam yesiXhosa ukuze kubekho utshintsho kwindlela yokuhlola nokufundwa kwesiXhosa ezikolweni?
(As an isiXhosa Subject Advisor, what would you recommend as a way of improving the teaching and learning of isiXhosa in schools?)

REFERENCE: 20170607 –1807

ENQUIRIES: Dr A T Wyngaard

Ms Nonzolo Titi
54 Mvumvu Street
Extension 4
Mfuleni
7100

Dear Ms Nonzolo Titi

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: ORTHOGRAPHIC ERRORS IN ISIXHOSA TEXTS: A CASE OF GRADE 11 ISIXHOSA L1 LEARNERS IN THE WESTERN CAPE

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Educators' programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The Study is to be conducted from **24 July 2017 till 27 September 2019**
6. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
7. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A.T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number?
8. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
9. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
10. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
11. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

**The Director: Research Services
Western Cape Education Department
Private Bag X9114
CAPE TOWN
8000**

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.

Signed: Dr Audrey T Wyngaard

Directorate: Research

DATE: 05 April 2019



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE
REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Certificate Reference Number: RAL011STIT01

Project title: **Orthographic errors in isiXhosa texts: A case of grade 11 isiXhosa L1 learners in the Western Cape.**

Nature of Project: Doctor of Literature and Philosophy: African Languages

Principal Researcher: Nonzolo Titi

Supervisor: Prof M. Ralarala

Co-supervisor: N/A

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above. This certificate is valid for a year from the date of approval; thereafter, the Principal investigator/s will be expected to apply for renewal.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document;

- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research.

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

Special conditions: *Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:*

Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of Department of Health Charter of Ethics in Health Research Principles, Processes and Structures; DOH 2015, signed by the Minister of Health in March 2015. This certificate is granted in terms of the provisions of the above-mentioned document.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
 - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected;
 - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented;
 - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require;
 - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to.
- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
- In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office.

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely



22/11/2018

Professor Pumla Dineo Gqola
Dean of Research

12 November 2018