PRAGMATICS TEACHING: ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNERS' LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE AMONG SELECTED EAST LONDON DISTRICT SCHOOLS

by

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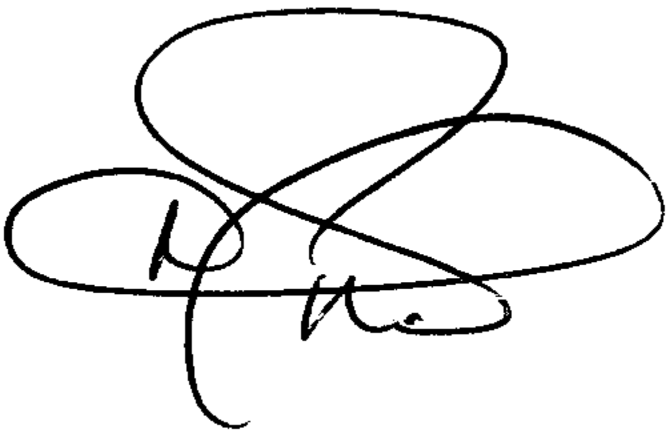
DECLARATION

I, **Ndileka Myoli** student number **8603236** declare that this study titled: **Pragmatics Teaching: On the Development of isiXhosa Home Language Learners' Linguistic Competence among the Selected East London District Schools** is my own work and all the sources that I have used have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



Ndileka Myoli   Date: 30 June 2019

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my beloved children Nangamso and Tamsanqa Myoli for their love, patience, motivation and support.

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ABSTRACT

South Africa was listed amongst the countries with a percentage of students with achievement too low for estimation by “Progress International Results in Reading” in 2011. Meanwhile, there was also an indication that, high school learners in the Eastern Cape Province are highly challenged, as far as their ability to produce speech, as well as the ability to interpret meaning beyond what is literally suggested. Since such difficulties usually pose problems of content understanding, concerned researchers in the field of language took it upon themselves to investigate the underlying cause of the problem, in order to prevent more problems of pragmatics incompetence, such as, problems with social interaction that could retard one’s ability to function independently as an adult.

While many studies have been conducted in the area of Pragmatics language competence, this study found it necessary to contribute around this debate. Since the study was two-fold, isiXhosa Home language learners of Grades 10 to 12 were investigated with an objective to determine the extent of pragmatic incompetence and the Teachers were investigated to determine the effectiveness of their teaching of pragmatics language.

A number of 108 high school isiXhosa learners, of ages of between 16 and 18 years, from East London Directorate, 36 per Grade, from the three selected schools high schools, were sampled, 36 consisting of 18 males and 18 females per grade from each selected high school. 9 isiXhosa Home Language teachers of between the ages of 45 to 54 years were sampled from the selected schools.

This study used an assessment test for the learners and the questionnaire for the teachers, as a means of data collection techniques.

The study applied a high consideration of validity as well as of ethical matters in order to ensure the reliability of results.

The study found that, isiXhosa Home language learners’ levels of pragmatic competence are high and with the appropriate use of good methods of pragmatics language teaching, learners’ pragmatics competence can develop.

This study will be able to encourage syllabus designers to collaborate with subject teachers, beginning right at the inception of the syllabus planning. IsiXhosa language teachers can develop teaching material appropriate for their primary goal, which is the development of pragmatic competence.

Further research is recommended to investigate more around this area of study to a point where isiXhosa Home language can be counted amongst the great and valued languages of South Africa.

AMAGQABANTSHINTSHI

Ngomnyaka wama-2011, ilizwe lomZantsi - Afrika laba lelinye lamazwe afakwe liQumrhu i-“Progress International Results in Reading” kuluhlu lwamazwe anomyinge wepesenti esezantsi kakhulu, kwebinokuqikelelwa, ngenkqubela yabafundi. Kananjalo, kuqapheleke nokuba kwisiXhosa, abafundi bolwimi lokuqala bamabanga aphakamileyo kwingingqi yeMpuma-Koloni, banomceli-mngeni omkhulu, ngakwicala lesakhono sokuthetha ulwimi lwesiXhosa ngokusulungekileyo, kuquka nesokwetyisa nokuphuhlisa intsingiselo engaphaya nefihlakeleyo, kwintetho yemihla ngemihla. Abaphandi beeLwimi baluthathele kubo uxanduva lokuphanda ngokubanzi ngoku, bekuzama ukufikelela kubunzulu bokubangela le ngxaki, ngeenjongo zokuzithintela ukuze zingabi sanda ngakumbi iingxaki zokusetyenziswa gwenxa kolwimi, iingxaki ezinjengokungakwazi ukunxibelelana, ezinokusilimaza kuphele isakhono sokunxibelelana ngokukhululekileyo, nangokuzithemba. Iingxaki ezinjalo zingangunobangela wokulahleka kwentsingiselo ephuhlileyo, nomxholo, kunxibelelwano.

Nakuba sekuphandwe kangako ngentsingiselo efihlakeleyo kuLwimi, nolu uphando lubona kufanelekile ukuba lube negalelo kule ngxoxo.

Ngenxa yokuba olu uphando belumbolo-mbini, njengoko kuphandwe abafundi besiXhosa bolwimi lokuQala bamabanga asusela kweleshumi ukuya kweleshumi elinesibini, kwaze kwaphandwa nooTitshala baloo mabanga, abafundi baphandwe ngeenjongo zokuqonda umgangatho wentswela-lwazi ngokwesakhono sabo solwimi. Oku kwenziwe kugxilwe kwintsingiselo engaphaya okanye efihlakeleyo. OoTitshala bona baphandwe kujoliswe kumgangatho wefuthe lokufundisa kwabo olu lwimi luntsingiselo ifihlakeleyo, kwanegalelo lelo futhe ekuphuculeni isakhono sabafundi kolu lwimi.

Kwavavanywa ikhulu elinesibhozo labafundi bezikolo zamabanga aphakamileyo, ingabezikolo ezithathu ezikhethiweyo, eziphantsi kolawulo lweSebe lezeMfundo kwingingqi yaseMonti. Ibingabafundi abaphakathi kweshumi elinesithandathu neshumi elinesibhozo leminyaka, ingamashumi amathathu anesithandathu kwisikolo ngasinye esikhethiweyo, amakhwenkwe alishumi elinesibhozo, namantomazana akwalelo nani, kwibanga ngalinye. NgakooTitshala, kuvavanywe ithoba leziziphakathi kweminyaka engamashumi amaNe anesiHlanu (45) ukuya kwiminyaka engamashumi maHlanu anesiNe (54), ingooTitshala abafundisa isiXhosa njengolwimi lokuQala kwizikolo ezikhethiweyo.

Izixhobo ezisetyenzisiweyo ukuqokelela ulwazi olukrwada kolu phando, ibe luvavanyo kubafundi kwaza, kwasetyenziswa imibuzo ecwangcisiweyo kooTitshala.

Olu phando luyijonge ngeliso elibanzi nangengqwalasela enzulu indima yobunyani nosulungeko, ngeenjongo zokuqinisekisa ubunyani kwiziphumo zalo.

Olu phando lusifumene sikumgangatho oncomekayo nophakamileyo isakhono sabafundi solwazi ngolwimi oluntsingiselo engaphaya nefihlakeleyo, apha kwingingqi yaseMonti kwaye, xa kungasetyenzisa iindlela eziphucukileyo zokufundisa, singaphuhla ngakumbi isakhono sabafundi ngolu lwazi.

Olu phando luzimisele ukubakhuthaza abaqulunqi boluhlu lwezifundo, ukuze bathi, zisuka nje, basebenzisane nooTitshala kulo msebenzi wokuphuhlisa omakufundwe kulwimi lwesiXhosa. OoTitshala bolwimi lwesiXhosa banakho nokuziqulunqela iindlela ezifanelekileyo nezixhobo zokufundisa ezisemgangathweni, ezifanele ukusetyenziswa, ngeenjongo zokuphuhlisa isakhono solwimi oluntetho intsingiselo ifihlakeleyo.

Kungakuhle xa kunokuqhutyelwa phambili ngophando olunzulu ngalo mba, kude kufilelwe kumgangatho apho isiXhosa, ulwimi lwasekhaya lunokuthi lubalwe phakathi kweelwimi ezibalulekileyo nezixatyisiweyo apha emZantsi-Afrika.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 RATIONALE

People from every nation, worldwide, communicate their thoughts and ideas through a specific language, that is, their language of origin. This is an inborn phenomenon that comes naturally. For language competence to develop, one must be able to hear, see, understand, remember and also have the physical ability to form speech. However, for various reasons, people's levels of communicative skills are not equal. For some, this may be due to a lack of linguistic skills. Hence, some people are known to be vibrant and dynamic speakers, while others are not.

In an endeavour to address the above-mentioned differences in people's speech abilities, various language practitioners from all walks of life have conducted some investigations regarding this matter and still continue to do so. Their efforts with regard to researching the inability to communicate properly have shed some light on the possible reasons for lack of communicative skills, as well as on various ways and means of redressing them. They, however, believe that there is no single factor that appears to be the main reason for the lack of linguistic and communication skills in children's speech. These matters will receive in-depth attention during the course of this study.

Some children do not develop speech as easily as others due to the lack of understanding of the meaning of words and gestures. Some of the language practitioners point to what they call 'interference phenomena' as one of the causes for lack of linguistic skills. According to their explanation, this is where a person who acquires a second language after the first language may be inhibited by the first language and, vice versa (Schmid and Köpke, 2007:1-8). Buckley (1993: 3-9) points to conditions such as Down syndrome as being one of the contributing factors in the impediment of speech, as well as lack of linguistic skills.

This study is an effort to contribute to this debate in order to get to the underlying causes of this phenomenon. Its focus will, therefore, be on pragmatics, a branch of linguistics concerned with knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular language's linguistic resources and of how context influences meanings, with reference to its role in isiXhosa language teaching.

1.2 PRELIMINARY LITERATURE REVIEW

Some children do not develop speech as easily as others due to an inability to make use of words and sentences in actual situations, as well as a lack of understanding of the meaning of words and gestures. This is an example of communicative difficulties experienced by some learners in South African schools. This is, according to the National Literacy Trust (2005), an organisation that, together with the National Association of Head Teachers, who through a joint survey discovered that young children’s speaking and listening skills have deteriorated. This view is also highlighted by the Basic Skills Agency, as cited by National Literacy Trust (2005), that, children’s communication skills have declined (www.literacytrust.org.uk/.../... (Accessed on 06.01.2015).

In the light of all the concerns brought about by the various reports on the status quo of literacy in South Africa, the situation then becomes worrisome due to the knowledge that, problems of lack of such skills as reading and writing often lead to meaning-incomprehension. This situation can also cause problems with social interaction and retard one’s ability to function independently as an adult (http://www.nytimes.com/health/guides/index.html (Accessed on 10.01.2015).

The situation then becomes more worrisome, considering the high rate of lack of literacy skills as portrayed by the various literacy reports on South African Schools, especially following an assertion that pragmatic competence enables one to first comprehend in order to analyse language in a conscious manner (Brown, 2007:524). Obviously, for that to be effective, one must master the use of many pragmatic elements, so as to avoid inaccuracies and misunderstandings during communication.

Rueda (2006:174), citing Bialystok (1993), agrees with Brown’s view when she considers pragmatic competence as encompassing a variety of abilities in the use and interpretation of language in context. What immediately comes to mind is, for instance, the knowledge of making use of figurative speech acts as well as the ability to interpret such speech acts. This view triggers thoughts of, perhaps, finding it easy to use language appropriate to particular members of a social group, who follow general patterns of behaviour expected by the group. The example that comes to mind is of young Xhosa women who, culturally, for the sake of politeness, are expected to use euphemism to refer to certain things. For the same reasons, novices also use their own language that is peculiar to them.

Several principles contribute towards the definition of the nature of pragmatics competence. Some of them are: 1.Variability, the property of communication that defines the range of communicative possibilities among which is formulating communicative choices. 2. Negotiability, the possibility of making choices based on flexible strategies. 3. Adaptability, the ability to modulate and regulate communicative choices in relation to the communicative context. 4. Salience, the degree of awareness reached by communicative choices. 5. Indeterminacy, the possibility to re-negotiate pragmatic choices as the interaction unfolds in order to fulfil communicative intentions and 6.Dynamicity, the development of communicative interaction in time (http://www.grammar.about.com/.../... (Accessed on the 06.01.2015).

Chomsky views pragmatic competence as placing language in the institutional setting of its use relating intentions and purposes to the linguistic means at hand. (http://grammar.about.com/bio/Richard-Nordquist22176.htm (Accessed on the 06.0.2015).

Pragmatic incompetence emanates from the learners' lack of socio-cultural and socio-linguistic abilities, which results in an inability to successfully produce speech acts. Socio-linguistic ability refers to a learner's language ability to select and utilize the correct register and to manipulate the appropriate linguistic forms and structures when realising a speech act. Subsequently, socio-linguistic ability results in pragma-linguistic errors. Such errors occur when a language learner knows which speech act to use and when to use it, but does not know the appropriate vocabulary to form a linguistically acceptable speech act (Cohen, 1998:295).

Cohen (1998:295) acknowledges that socio-cultural ability is a much more complex issue that involves knowledge of the social and cultural norms of the target language. Also important to know, in this regard, is the situation as well as the personal factors that affect the realisation of the speech act. He further asserts that socio-pragmatic mistakes occur when the learner does not know which speech act to use or when to use a speech act appropriately. Of interest to this study will be pragma-linguistic errors that occur when a language learner knows which speech act to use and when to use it but lacks vocabulary to form a linguistically acceptable speech act.

Bardovi-Harlig (2001:13-32) is of the opinion that, to beat pragmatic incompetency, learners need to spend a long time intensively immersed in the target language culture, so as to acquire pragmatic competence. He, however, reciprocates by further stating that first language textbooks have ignored the topic of pragmatics altogether. While criticising textbooks for their failure to include instruction in pragmatics, Vasquez and Russel (2011:1-24), citing Pinto (1998), recommend the internet as an ideal repository for pragmatic focussed material. While the idea, on its own, looks good, one should take cognisance of the fact that multitudes of disadvantaged learners are still struggling to access internet services. Hence Bardovi-Harlig (2001: 13-32) advocates for classroom instruction in as far as speech acts are concerned. He believes that they help learners to acquire pragmatic competence. Examples of speech acts include apologies, requests, compliments and complaints.

Searle (1969:15) maintains that learners must be able to understand the intended meaning communicated by speech acts in order to communicate effectively. Although it is a difficult task, even for highly advanced language learners, they must still be able to produce speech acts using appropriate language and manner according to surrounding social and cultural context.

Teachers should allow learners opportunities to experience more and stimulate the learning environment. Nothing beats the creation of opportunities for talking with others while using language appropriately.

Ishihari and Cohen (2010:296) concur with Searle's idea. They believe in classroom-based assessments which, they assert, informs teachers of learners' level of receptive pragmatic skills and, at the same time, give learners feedback of their understanding of common interpretation of other's speech acts.

Depending on the nature of the communication problem, speech pathologists can develop programmes which can be carried out by teaching staff at school and even parents at home in order to improve the learners' pragmatic competence. (http://www.cyh.com/Subdefault.aspx?p=98 (Accessed on the 13.04.2015).

The education system needs to employ more aggressive policies in order to improve pragmatic competence among language learners and, at the same time, have better proficiency levels. Provided below will be a concise and clear explanation of what has prompted the researcher to take on this investigation.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

There are indications that high school learners around East London are highly challenged, as far as the ability to produce their speech comprehensibly, as well as the ability to construct and interpret meaning beyond what is literally suggested. This, indeed, is a problem because it can retard the development of speech as well as the ability to communicate, due to lack of understanding of the deeper meaning. High school learners get to institutions of higher learning still faced with basic communication barriers. Difficulties of this nature usually lead to failure to interpret beyond what is communicated verbally and non-verbally. Such difficulties also pose problems of content understanding. These tendencies will receive further attention during the course of this study.

Of more concern is the number of reports on the status of literacy in South African schools. It is frustrating to find South Africa in the 2011 "Progress International Results in Reading" listed amongst the countries with a percentage of students with achievement that is too low for estimation. Some of the South African official languages were included in the investigation (Howie, Staden, Tshele, Dowse and Zimmerman: 2011). Nothing good is forthcoming as far as getting a good report on reading and writing skills are concerned. Right from the early learning phase, there is a projection of poor performance with regard to these two most basic skills that are considered central to successful learning. Cohen emphasises the importance of the above-mentioned basic skills when he describes pragmatic ability, as encompassing the four main channels for communication, the receptive ones, listening and reading and the productive ones, which are speaking and writing (http://www.M01_COHE4573_01_SE_C01 (Accessed on 05.11 2017). Therefore, if schools fail to ensure the mastery of reading and writing, learners will find it difficult to produce speech and, as such, communication will rarely develop. This is the direct reason why learners often struggle to communicate appropriately and understand each other well.

In the light of what has transpired above, it has become clear that one should strive for teaching of real-life language use; genuine language use that resembles the way language is used in the real world in order to help learners acquire pragmatic competence.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In its earnest attempt to achieve believable and acceptable results regarding its research problem, this study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What is the extent of pragmatics incompetence amongst high school learners in the East London Area?
2. How do teachers in selected schools deal with the problem of pragmatic incompetence?
3. What alternative strategies do teachers employ to deal with the learners' pragmatic competence?

1.5 AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this investigation is to determine the extent of pragmatic incompetence amongst young isiXhosa Home Language speakers, in order to assist the process of designing of appropriate and effective teaching methods that will contribute towards the alleviation of this communication deficit amongst learners. This is prompted by the realisation of the extent to which high school learners seem to manifest a lack of pragmatic competence, as alluded to in the problem statement above. Consequently, this may lead to misunderstanding and miscommunication, thereby, further compounding the problem by having a negative impact on the learner's level of understanding of content and, by extension, the learners' academic progress.

1.6 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

It is therefore, the intent of this study to:

- To determine the extent of pragmatic incompetence amongst high school learners in East London. The effectiveness of pragmatics teaching practices in improving learners' pragmatics competence. It was also to investigate the magnitude at which the teaching of pragmatics brings about change as a contributing factor to the improvement of learners' pragmatic competence. It was important for this study to find out more about this in order to understand the value that pragmatics teaching brings about with regards to the development of learners' general language-usage skills.

- To find out how teachers in selected schools deal with the problem of pragmatic incompetence and to determine whether the contribution that is made by the current method for the teaching of pragmatics is worthy to be recognised and be considered as an agent of change that will lead towards the acquisition of a more satisfactory level of pragmatic competence. In its quest to determine which factors might be of importance in ensuring effective pragmatics teaching, this research study deems it necessary that this investigation be made.

- To investigate all the fundamental factors that contribute to learners' inability to acquire a satisfactory level of pragmatic competence, including challenges teachers are facing in teaching the pragmatic aspects of the isiXhosa language. This is worth undertaking because, when and if such factors are identified, that would probably lead to some kind of a breakthrough regarding possible solutions to the existing problem of communication difficulties.

- To determine the modalities for alleviating pragmatic incompetence among high school learners in East London. It may be necessary to utilise alternative teaching strategies in order to deal effectively with the problem of pragmatic incompetence amongst the East London high school learners.

1.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

It is the intent of this study to examine and evaluate critically related literature in order to better understand the problem of lack of pragmatic competence among language learners as a way of gaining possible explanations thereof. Whilst doing that, the study will then be undertaken within the framework of recognised theoretical models of pragmatism.

One of the theories this study finds most relevant to build on is the Pragmatic Theory of Meaning. Rydenfelt (2008:1-11) points out that this theory was developed by William James in 1907 and it holds the idea that the meaning of words is determined by the effects and experiences that occur defining those words. James distinguishes two different but interrelated strands of pragmatism: a theory of meaning and a theory of truth. However, Lovejoy (1908:32) interpreted James' idea as confusing two inappropriate criteria of the meaningfulness of propositions. He views the first criterion as being meaningful if it refers to or predicts future experiences, regardless of whether the proposition is believed or not, and, based on that, Lovejoy believes James did not understand what difference it would make to anyone if this notion, rather than that notion, were true. Lovejoy's method of clarifying the meaning of conceptions was simply to trace what he called their respective practical consequences. He further explains that a proposition is meaningful if belief in that proposition results in some experiences on the part of the believer, despite the fact that no predications by way of future experiences can be deduced from its truth.

According to the Pragmatic theory, words should yield observable results, failing which, they are meaningless. If, for example, a person is claiming to trust another person's driving skills, that person should not be hesitant to allow the other person to drive his/her vehicle (http://www.dhthebus.wordpress.com/.../illustra... (Accessed on the 10. 05.2015.

This study will also be underpinned by the Conversational Implicature theory. This theory was pioneered by Grice in 1961 and is regarded as the most influential contribution to philosophy and linguistics. According to Grice, what a speaker means by an utterance can be divided into what the speaker says and what the speaker, thereby, implicates. To conversationally implicate something in speech, according to

Grice, is to mean something that goes beyond what one is saying. Grice proposes what he calls the cooperative principle as well as the maxims of conversation (Reydenfelt, 2008:1-11). This theory is further developed by Levinson and others working within the Gricean tradition in pragmatics (http://plato.stanford.edu./... (Accessed on the 08.08.2015). It posits that hearers have to keep track, not only of what is said, but also what is not. Here are a few examples of what is stated:

A: I am broke. *Andinamali tu!*

B: I have a few rand in my wallet. *Ndineerandana nje ezimbalwa esipajini.*

Implication: I can offer you some cash to bail you out. *Ndingakunceda ndikuboleke imalana.*

A: Do you want to come around to my place tonight? *Uyafuna ukuza kwam, ngokuhlwa nje?*

B: My husband's mother is visiting this evening. *Siza kutyelelwa ngumazala wam, ngokuhlwa nje.*

Implication: B's response is the declination of A's offer.

The third theory is Politeness theory that was developed in 1978 by researchers, Brown and Levinson. (http://www.degruyter.com (Accessed on 13.04.2015). It holds that people use various politeness strategies to avoid offending others when addressing them. It has to do with positive face, which reflects the desire to have one's self-image approved by others, and negative face, the part of personality that desires not to be imposed upon. According to the *Journal of Politeness Research*, this theory has a solid foundation in the field of communication and, therefore, shall contribute positively to the assimilation of language and politeness (Haugh, 2007:1-20).

When discussing Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies, Goody (1978:74-79) mentions five main types of strategies as being: the bald on-record politeness, negative politeness, positive politeness, withhold politeness and off-record or indirect politeness. He claims that they first appeared in "Questions and Politeness":

Strategies in “Social Interaction”, before being issued in a volume of its own nine years later.

It is of vital importance for this study to evaluate other scholar’s works given the study’s intent to facilitate the learners’ capabilities to find socially approved language for the situations that they encounter. Language skills will enable them to transmit ideas and desires to one another (Owens, 1996:15).

Other language acquisition theories this study will lean upon to achieve its objectives are theories on teaching methods that may be used to improve the learners’ pragmatic skills. They are theories of teaching methods such as; Demonstration, in which learners could be taught an ability to give and respond to compliments, for example, and motivate them to learn pragmatic use of language appropriately formally, informally, politely, convincingly, aggressively and the like, in a given context.

Learners can be made to model speech acts together with interactional practice wherein they can practise with other speakers within the course of conversation (Ishihara and Cohen, 2010:123). Hence, Richards and Renandya’s (2002:19) remark that language teaching can be conceived in many different ways, for example, it is also viewed as an art. Different views of language teaching lead to different views, such as, what essential skills of teaching are to different approaches to the preparation of teachers. Hence, it is vital to highlight the relationship between the theories of teaching and teaching skills.

Value-based approaches are approaches of language teaching, which include team-teaching that is based on a view that teachers work best when they work in collaboration with a peer.

Value-based approaches also include the Humanistic approach, which refers to an approach that emphasises the development of human values, growth in self-awareness, and in the understanding of others, sensitivity of human feelings and emotions and active student involvement in learning and in the way human learning takes place.

Of the Value-based approaches also, is the learner-centred approach curriculum movement. This is a term used to refer to approaches to language teaching which are based on the belief that learners are self-directed, responsible decision-makers. Language programmes and the teachers concerned should, therefore, set out to provide learners with efficient learning strategies that will assist them, not only in identifying their preferred ways of learning, but also to develop skills needed to negotiate the curriculum, to encourage them to set their own objectives, to encourage them to adopt realistic goals and time frames and to develop learners' skills in self-evaluation.

The last of the Value-based approaches is Reflective teaching, an approach to teaching which is based on a belief that teachers can improve their understanding and the quality of their own teaching by reflecting critically on their own teaching experiences in order to improve their classroom practices.

Linked to Value-based approaches are the following essential skills; understanding the values behind the approach, selection of only educational means which conform to those values and to monitor the implementation to ensure that the value system is maintained (Richards and Renandya, 2002:22).

Theory-based approaches are believed to be rationalistic in approach. This suggests that the theory underlying the method is ascertained through the use of rational thought. An example of one of these approaches is Communicative language teaching which arose in the 1960s as a reaction to grammar-based approaches realised in teaching materials, syllabus and teaching method. This approach was an attempt to use the concept of communicative competence and to apply it across all levels of language programme design, including theory and syllabus design and teaching techniques. Good (1973:149) defines syllabus as the overall plan of the content that the school should offer to students as a yardstick for certification. Essential skills linked to this approach are; the understanding of the theory and the principles, selection of syllabi, materials and tasks based on the theory and, lastly, monitoring of teaching to see that it conforms to the theory.

Research into the adequacy of textbooks to teach communicative practices that are reflective of authentic conversation has found that language textbooks rarely include adequate or comprehensible explanations of how conversations work (Richards and Renandya, (2002:22-23).

Due to the above statement, Kolke, (1989:287) proposes that textbook writers for teachers make corresponding changes in approaches to language teaching, since the limitations imposed by textbooks on pragmatically appropriate input hinder the learner from becoming truly proficient in communicating in the target language.

Despite the criticism, textbooks play an important role in language teaching, particularly, in English as a foreign language classroom, where it provides the primary form of linguistic input (Kim and Hall, 2002: 234).

According to Richards and Renandya (2002:20), Awareness- raising approach can be utilised either with an inductive or a deductive approach and the combination of both affords learners an opportunity to analyse examples and that leads to self-discovery.

Apart from emphasising instructional setting, primarily, the importance of classroom and teaching materials such as textbooks, videos, multi-media and so forth, LoCastro, however, also cautions that the same materials may misrepresent the target language culture and its social rules of speaking, resulting in the distortion of those rules, especially, and politeness norms.

Tolisomson (2003:22) reiterates the value of teaching materials in language development and, thereby, suggests the qualities the material should reflect.

1. He believes that materials should reflect the reality of language use.
2. Materials should help learners to develop cultural awareness and sensitivity.
3. They should help learners to learn in ways similar to circumstances in which they will have to use the language.
4. They also help to create readiness to learn.
5. Finally, materials should achieve effective engagement.

Ishihari and Cohen (2010:24) consider it very important for teachers who intend to teach pragmatics to have knowledge of the learners as well as the local curricular and educational context, including culture. As a series of planned learning experiences, curriculum is, therefore everything learners experience in school (http://www.academic.sun.ac.za (Accessed on the 10.09.2015).

1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In order to determine the learners' symptoms of incompetence, as well as determining the teachers' awareness of those assumed symptoms, this research study will employ mainly qualitative measures, except for some simple statistical calculations that will be used to calculate frequency, mean and the percentage of the numerical data. This method is appropriate for this study, for, it affords the researcher the opportunity to understand how people communicate and develop symbolic meaning. Three (3) of some of the East London District high schools, namely, Hlokoma, Mzomhle and Ulwazi have been sampled from a group population of 75 schools with special focus on isiXhosa Home Language. Nine (9) teachers teaching from Grade (10) to (12) were randomly selected, and they were combination of males and females per school. A significant number of (36) learners of each of the above-mentioned grades, males and females, and (12) from each of the above-mentioned schools randomly, formed part of the sample.

Data will be collected by means of questionnaires and learners were tested to examine their level of pragmatic competence. Five (5) test questions with sub-questions will be prepared according to the types of pragmatic errors, speech acts of requesting and complaining, of politeness and of complements and apologies. This study kept record of both the teachers' responses as well as the learners' tests scripts in order to analyse them during the duration of the research.

Data will be checked for its quality and the quality of measurement to ensure reliability of the measurement instrument. It was then organised, coded and classified accordingly in order to make sense thereof. Data was analysed by means of the descriptive technique and was then interpreted by means of the valid theoretical models referred to above in order to draw conclusions. Consistency checks were carried out in order to ensure matters of credibility.

While this researcher will do her utmost best to ensure that things go according to plan as far as the fulfilment of its objectives is concerned, she is, however, mindful of the fact that there may be limiting factors that may be beyond reasonable control.

1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study examined the extent of the importance of the part played by Pragmatics in the isiXhosa language teaching at high school level, the challenges faced by teachers as well as the opportunities available for teaching pragmatics competence. On the basis of this statement, this study is expected to have the following significance:

- Hopefully, this study' findings will be a guide to stake-holders such as curriculum designers. Hopefully, in the process of curriculum design, they will see a need to incorporate as much of the linguistic aspects of isiXhosa that promote the acquisition of pragmatic skills as possible.
- From this study, teachers will learn to develop their own teaching and learning material that promotes pragmatic competence.
- This study hopes to fill the research gap that exists in the teaching and studying of Pragmatics.
- It will, hopefully, make a meaningful contribution to other researchers within the field of pragmatics to look into the field with an open-mind.

1.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This study aims to plan this research project such that it meets ethical acceptability by firstly, seeking the approval of the University's Research Council and of the schools that will form part of the sample.

As the study aims to be as independent and as impartial as possible, it will avoid revealing the full purpose of its investigation right away, to avoid compromising its validity. The study will give appropriate credit for work of other scholars by means of citations to ensure its quality and integrity.

A consent form detailing a description of things such as the procedure of how to go about with the research will be provided. While the participants shall not be told about the true nature of the study, they will nevertheless, be told of what to expect throughout the research process, as well as of what will be expected of them, as participants.

The study will make it known to the participants that participation in the research study is voluntary. Based on that, participants' rights will be highly regarded and as such, the right to withdraw anytime without a need to explain why they are respected without prejudice. Every practicable measure will be taken to ensure their confidentiality and anonymity by coding the data to protect their identity and privacy. Their personal information will be kept confidential. Throughout the research process, steps will be taken to protect and ensure the dignity and the welfare of all the participants of this study. The researcher will be conscious of any potential harm that could be inflicted to the participants. Participants will be furnished with the summary of the outcome of the investigation.

The study was undertaken in accordance with the Ethical Code of the University of Fort Hare.

1.11 DELINEATION AND LIMITATIONS

This study's main focus will be on the investigation of the role of pragmatics in isiXhosa language teaching. While the researcher would have wished to widen her scope of research to include the two other Nguni languages, isiZulu and isiSwati, it has none-the-less, focused on isiXhosa language teaching only. Due to financial constraints, its focus will be only on the high schools from around the East London area, concentrating on learners and teachers for Grades (10), (11) and (12). Only government-run schools will form part of this research project and therefore, private schools will not considered for investigation for usually, such schools learn isiXhosa First Additional Language.

In the light of all the above listed limiting factors, this study deems it necessary to submit here and now that its conclusions might not be definitive but, suggestive.

1.12 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

This part of the chapter offers a comprehensive outline of all the key elements for each section of this research work. It therefore, serves as a precursor of what is still to come.

Chapter 1: Introduction

The introductory part includes such elements as the rationale, the purpose and focus of the study, the problem statement, which describes the problem to be studied, as well as the research questions which indicate the direction this study will take. It also states the significance of the study and how it will contribute to the professional knowledge and practice, literature review, methodological approach, instruments and methods of data collection, assumptions as well as delineations and limitations were all dealt with here.

Chapter 2: Theoretical framework

This chapter will attempt to situate this study in the context of previous research and scholarly works pertaining to its research problem and will, therefore, be undertaken within the framework of recognised theoretical models of pragmatism. Some of the pragmatic theories this study will be built on, therefore, are; 1.The pragmatic theory of meaning which holds the idea that the meaning of words are determined by the effects of experiences that occur defining those words. 2. The theory of conversational implicature, which holds a view that speakers in conversation intend with every utterance to further the conversation in some way. Conversational implicatures are the centrepiece of the theory. 3. Politeness theory, a theory based on the concept that people have a social self-image that they consciously project and try to protect.

In addition, this study will also be underpinned by theories of teaching methods such as; Value-based approaches, Theory-based approaches, Demonstration and Textbook approach.

Chapter 3: Investigation into the level of pragmatic competence of the target group

Chapter Three will investigate the extent of FET Phase (Grades 10, 11 and 12) learners' pragmatic incompetence, if any, and, at the same time, striving for establishing teachers' capabilities for developing learners' pragmatic competence. Focus will be on the learners' level of pragmatic awareness. This chapter therefore, will discuss and justify the methodology and the research design that will be employed in this study. It encompasses the structure of investigation, the instruments that will be used in the entire data collection process, as well as, the method of data analysis.

Chapter 4: Investigation into the current teaching strategies

This chapter will provide a clear report of the study's findings through explanatory text that highlights some significant aspects thereof, accompanied by tables and figures. This part also offers foreshadowing as to the intent and of what will transpire of the following chapters.

Chapter 5: Interpretation of the findings

Logical and consistent argument based on the research findings will be constructed. The findings of the study will be interpreted with a view to examine whether the literature corresponds, contradicts or deepens the interpretations or not.

Also, in the process of interpretation, the study will analyse the findings with an objective to find patterns and themes as well as ambiguities and inconsistencies, checking for matters of trustworthiness, respectively. This chapter will also discuss the study's limitations, as well as, how the findings would be applied to other related settings.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

This chapter will summarise all the discussions that took place in the respective chapters. Literature will be reviewed to provide a strong theoretical basis and justify this by conceptualising gaps and explaining how this work will contribute to existing knowledge. The main findings will be presented and interpreted and, based on the results the study, will then make recommendations that will provide specific action regarding future research into the problems of pragmatic incompetence amongst learners.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Central and most fundamental to this study is the determination of the role of pragmatics in isiXhosa language teaching, relative to the extent of the level of pragmatic incompetence among FET Phase learners. In order to determine the extent of the stated pragmatic incompetence amongst isiXhosa Home language learners, the study identified and selected Hlokoma, Mzomhle and Ulwazi High schools to carry out the investigation regarding the above-mentioned problem. While the study used questionnaires as a tool for data collection from (9) isiXhosa Home Language teachers across the FET Phase, a test was administered to (36) isiXhosa Home Language learners per school, across Grades (10) to (12) to examine their level of incompetence. This researcher made sure that matters of reliability and validity are taken into consideration before proceeding to analyse its data.

In order to accomplish what is stated here above, a wide range of related literature is reviewed to better understand the above-stated assumption. The study therefore, considers it proper to get other scholars' views about the nature of pragmatics in order to discuss the theories underpinning this research study at length.

A number of theories are found to have relevance and as being of vital importance to this study; hence, they will be reviewed in order to establish facts and reach conclusions for this work. Such theories are: the pragmatic theory of meaning, the theory of Conversational implicature and, specifically, the generalised implicatures and the politeness theory. In conjunction with the mentioned theories will be approaches of language teaching and learning such as Value-based approaches, Theory-based approaches, and Textbook and Demonstration methods.

Speech acts are acts of communication and to communicate is to express a certain attitude (Bach and Harnish, 1979:15). It is for this reason that learners should be made aware that in communication the type of speech act being performed corresponds to the type of attitude being expressed.

2.2 LINGUISTICS

As a scientific study of language, there are three aspects to linguistics, namely, language form, language in context, and language meaning. Language in context is how context affects meaning. On the other hand, language meaning deals with how languages encode relations between entities, properties and other aspects of the world to convey, process and assign meaning, as well as, to manage and resolve ambiguity. It analyses human language as a system for relating sound, including signs (in sign language) and meaning. Linguistics also includes non-formal approaches to the study of other aspects of human language such as social, cultural, historical and political factors (Van der Auwera, 2010:67).

As it can be inferred from the above explanations of this concept, linguistics is concerned with all aspects of language: how speech sounds are produced, how they are combined, how words are formed, how children acquire language, how it is used in society and how it is changed according to societal situations (http://www.wits.ac.za/sllm... (Accessed on the 25.10.2015).

The creative aspect of human language is what makes it distinct from animal language. This is according to Fromkin and Rodman (1997:5), who have taken note of the fact that words in languages are finite, while sentences are in fact, infinite. While the state of sentences remains as claimed by these linguists, language rules called grammar play a vital role in maintaining grammatical correctness of the sentences within their state of infinity.

Some of the language rules include phonetics; acoustics which has to do with the physical properties of sounds, for instance, sound /s/ is called voiceless simply because there is no vibration of the vocal folds (cords), while the sound /z/ is considered to be voiced because the vocal folds do vibrate (Flanagan, 1972:22).

The articulatory, which deals with how the vocal tract produces sounds, for instance, while vowels [i] and [u] are considered to be high vowels for the fact that they are articulated with the tongue raised to constrict the vocal tract, they are, however, different in the sense that for [i], the constriction is formed by advancing the front of the tongue towards the alveolar ridge, while for [u] the back of the tongue is raised and approaches the rear of the palate (Langacker, 1973:148).

The auditory has to do with the way listeners perceive sounds, as in the case of fricatives which are produced from an excitation of the vocal tract. This phenomenon occurs as a result of the turbulent air flow at the point of constriction, thereby producing fricatives such as the dental [ŏ]and [θ], the labio-dental [v] and [f], the alveolar [z] and [s], the palatal [ʃ] and [ʒ]and the glottal [h] (Flanagan, 1972:18).

Elsewhere, Fromkin and Rodman (1997:9) perceive phonology as being about the sound system. Take, for instance, the contrasting sounds [t] in the word ‘time’ and [d] in the word ‘dime’. They are identical except for the first sounds and therefore, they are classified as phonemes because they are distinctive sounds. Another example is one of phonological rules, such as when vowels become nasalised before nasal consonants, for example, in the word ‘harmony’.

Morphology refers to the structure of words, for example, through the use of various morphemes, words can be prefixed, as in the word ‘<u>re</u>make’, suffixed, as is the word ‘examin<u>er</u>’, circumfixed, as in the word ‘<u>ge</u>speel<u>d</u>’ (Afrikaans participle) and can be infixed, as in the word, ‘mother-<u>in</u>-law’. Syntax, on the other hand, deals with the combination of words into sentences and then analyses them according to their affixes and the words that follow or precede them. For an example, transitive verbs take a direct object - ‘I bought a dress’, while intransitive verbs take an indirect object and usually need a preposition before the noun, here is an example: ‘he was sitting on the couch’. Semantics is about the ways in which sounds and meaning are related, while lexicon refers to the sound units that are related to specific meanings.

Fromkin and Rodman further mention two types of grammars, descriptive grammar which represents the unconscious knowledge of a language and the prescriptive grammar, of which they say does not teach the rules of a language but, rather describes the rules that are already known. Contrary to what they say, they also claim that the prescriptive grammars dictate what a speaker’s grammar should be.

Allan and Jaszczolt (2012:24) are of the view that all linguistic expressions require both a grammatical account and a pragmatic account. Making a distinction between the two has to be within the realisation that grammar minimally analyses conventional codes, whereby specific linguistic expressions are associated with their semantic interpretations and/or use conditions that one complies with. These conditions are rationally derivable when one takes into consideration the linguistic meaning, relevant contextual assumptions and some cognitive principles. Meanwhile, pragmatics complements grammar in that it is responsible for speaker-intended meanings.

Based on the discussion above, it, therefore, transpires that knowing a language encompasses the entire system termed language competence and, therefore, knowing a language is not enough, one has to be able to speak it and that is language performance, which to a certain extent is fundamental to this study.

Based on the above discussion, the focus of my study will, therefore, be on pragmatics, as part of semantics.

2.3 THEORY OF PRAGMATICS

A theory is a set of assumptions, propositions, or accepted facts that attempts to provide a plausible or rational explanation of causal relationships among a group of observed phenomena (www.businessdictionary.com/definition/.... (Accessed on 24.02.2016).

On the basis of the above, this study finds it proper to briefly define what a theoretical model is in order to gain clarity on the process of applying related terminology. Schatz, Cohn and Nicholson (2014:12) view a theoretical model to be a theory designed to explain an entire situation or behaviour with the idea that it would eventually, be able to predict that behaviour. It is the intention of this study to employ a theoretical framework as its guide as it determines what things it will measure and the statistical relationships it will look for (https://www.//books.google.co.za/books?isbn=1495120953 (Accessed on 22/03/2019).

In view of the above, this study intends to employ a couple of related ideas in order to provide guidance to this research project. Simultaneously, this study sees it necessary to attempt to briefly comment on the nature of what is called pragmatic theory, in order to give light with regard to this particular research work.

Pragmatic theory is one of the three theories of meaning, namely; 1.The denotational, which characterises the meaning of an expression, in terms of notions, reference and truth. 2. The conceptionalist theory, which identifies the meaning of an expression with the concepts or ideas associated with the expression, that is, with a mental representation of the content of that expression, often making use of decomposition of word meaning. The meaning of an expression is, therefore, related to its use. This kind of meaning is categorised under the foundational theory of meaning that attempts to explain something about an object, giving the symbols that particular language the meanings that they bear (Speaks, 2015:3).

Pragmatic theory is often named, the meaning in-use, after Wittgenstein. It is a characteristic of those theories in which speech acts play a central role. Wittgenstein views meaning in a natural language as, primarily, a question of how the speaker uses words within the language to express intention. He believes that the meaning should be derived from the relations between words, concepts and things in the real world, because words and linguistic signs have a representational or symbolic function. They are about something that goes beyond the physical shape. This symbolic function relies on the intention of the speaker and, therefore, communication becomes successful only to the extent that the hearer gets the same idea that the speaker intends the hearer to get (Filip (2008:26-30). (www.amazon.com/Introduction-natural- (Accessed on 26.02.2016).

Elaborating on the work of Paul Grice, Kripte (1940:39) perceives a distinction between the speaker's meaning and semantic meaning. The speaker's meaning is what the speaker intends to refer to when saying something, while the semantic meaning is what the utterance means. He further highlights the fact that sometimes the words do not actually express what the speaker intends them to, and, in that case, the meaning of the expression becomes ambiguous. Grice understands meaning to be of two kinds; the natural and the non-natural. Natural meaning has to do with the intentions of the speaker in communicating something to the hearer.

Grice's theory of communication and meaning is criticised by Ganker (2003:240-299) for its excessive focus on the efforts of the listener in order to discover the speaker's intentions. Ganker feels that, that is not required for theory and, therefore, it is not adequate.

An early 20th century Pragmatist, Pierce, S.C favours an idea that the meaning or understanding of a sentence is determined by the consequences of its application (Speaker, 2015:9).

Many literary works by various linguists have delved deep into the subject of pragmatics and each has made a considerable contribution towards the process of unfolding this phenomenon.

Lo Castro (2012:38) points out that pragmatics takes an inherently functional perspective on language by asking, first, how a speaker realises an intended meaning through linguistic and non-linguistic resources available to both the speaker and the listener. It is, therefore, its duty to first ask what the function is, for example, to make a compliment, to express sadness, and so forth and, how, then, is it carried out with language.

Birner (2012:22) indicates that the term pragmatics was coined in the 1930s by Morris, W.C. He then went on to write and defend his philosophical perspective known as neo-pragmatism before it was developed as a principle of inquiry and account of meaning by C. S. Peirce in the 1970s.

Morris' desire to unify logical positivism with behavioural empiricism and pragmatism led to his development of a behavioural theory of signs, semiotics. The coming together of the three perspectives resulted in his claim that symbols have three types of relations, to objects, to persons and to other symbols. He later called these relations semantics, syntactics and pragmatics. His semiotic approach is concerned with a dyadic explanation of the tri-relationship between syntactics, semantics and pragmatics. Peirce, however, disagrees with Morris' theory and believes that, for any statement to be meaningful, it must have relevance (http://books.googleco.za/books (Accessed on the 23.08.2015). Morris' conceptualisation of pragmatics is, therefore, considered very broad; hence, philosophers, such as Rudolf Carnap, became influential in narrowing its scope down. Consequently, Levinson (1983:3) is of the view that Carnap's definition of pragmatics led to the adoption of its restricted scope by other scholars. His definition of pragmatics focuses on the user of the language and, thereby, failing to invoke the effects on the larger social and cultural context in which language is used (Allan and Jaszczolt, 2012:498).

While the term pragmatics has been around for such a long time, what counts as semantic and what counts as pragmatics is still a matter of a debate among linguists. This creates a sense of relatedness between the two, since both deal with meaning. There is also an intuitive sense in which the two are distinct. A word could bear a literal meaning, as opposed to what it could be used to convey in a certain context. Semantics could be viewed as being truth-conditional and context-independent and pragmatics as non-truth-conditional and context-dependent. Birner believes that upon trying to disentangle the two, the more things get more difficult. Birner (2013:1), therefore, views pragmatics as a study of language use in context and that context brings additional meaning to the literal meaning. The meaning of a very simple statement depends on who says it, who they are speaking to, as well as where the speakers are (Thomas, 1995:1-27).

Context plays a central role in argument reconstruction and is also integral to the process of argument evaluation. People arguing routinely leave premises implicit in argumentation in the expectation that these can be reconstructed on the basis of argumentative context (Cummings, 2005:4). Many parameters that are crucial to the very interpretation of utterances are contributed by the context of utterance (Kadmon, 2001:8). All of the above linguists mutually agree that the additional meaning is an intended and or inferred meaning of utterance.

While pragmatics is viewed by many as a way to convey the meaning through communication, that meaning includes verbal as well as non-verbal elements. The same meaning varies according to the context, to the relationship between the communicators as well as many other factors. Pragmatics, therefore, looks beyond the literal meaning of an utterance and considers how meaning is constructed as well as focusing on implied meanings. It considers language as an instrument of interaction, what people mean when they use language and how they communicate and understand each other. The context of the interaction and everyday experiences allow people to construct and interpret layers of meaning beyond what is literally suggested (Deda, 2013:63).

Deda's assertion confirms what Finch (2000:167) believes that pragmatics is about focussing on what is explicitly stated and how one interprets utterances in situational contexts. In other words, the concern is not so much on the sense of what is communicated but rather the manner and style of an utterance. Instead, pragmatics is needed if one wants a fuller, deeper and more reasonable account of human language behaviour.

Being the social language that it is claimed to be, pragmatics, according to ASHA (American Speech Hearing Language Association), involves three major communication skills that are mentioned below:

1. Using the language for different purposes such as greetings, requesting, promising, demanding and informing.
2. Changing language according to situational requisites such as talking differently to a baby, than to an adult and speaking differently on a playground than in a classroom.
3. Following rules for conversations, such as taking turns in conversation, introducing topics for conversation, staying on topic, rephrasing when misunderstood, how to use facial expressions and eye contact, and the rest. ASHA highlights the necessary communication skills for practical situations, for example, in literary criticism as well as the ability to identify presuppositions and implications from another's speech (www.asha.org/public/speech/...Pragmatic... (Accessed on 08.01.2015).

The above argument leads to the reviewing of the various theories of pragmatics that are relevant to this study.

2.3.1 Pragmatic theory of meaning

Meaning in linguistics is what the sender expresses or conveys in his message to the receiver and what, in turn, the receiver infers from the current context. There may be ambiguity that might lead to confusion, since the current context may lead to different interpretations. Take for an example, a situation where the sender may be physically absent, such as will be in the case where the receiver is the writer and the sender is a writer. Linguistic context is the understanding of the meaning without relying on intent and assumption (Jaszcolt, 2016:11)

To Lo Castro (2012:39) the meanings that concern pragmatics are essentially, derived from contextual features. Contextual meaning is also called utterance meaning. Here, the speaker's intended meaning in the context of situation is the focus.

A pragmatic theory of meaning appeals to the Pragmatic Maxim. Hence Pierce takes pragmatic meaning as a rule of logic embodied in the Pragmatic Maxim; that is, becoming reflectively clear about the contents of concepts and hypothesis. James views the meaning of a concept as the sum total of its implications for possible observations and actions (www.helsinki.fi/...Relevance%20theory-... (Accessed on 02.08.2015).

According to the philosophers Aristotle, Augustine, and Aquinas, meaning is a relationship between two sorts of things, signs and the kinds of things they mean (intend, express or signify). One term in the relationship of meaning necessarily causes something else to come to the mind. In other words, a sign is defined as an entity that indicates another entity to some agent for some purpose. As Augustine states, a sign is something that shows itself to the senses and something other than itself to the mind (www.plato.stanford.edu/entries/meaning (Accessed on 08.08.2015). This work will focus on the things that are always necessarily meaningful, such as words, sentences and other nonverbal symbols.

2.3.2 Acquisition of pragmatic competence

Pragmatic competence is one of the major components of communicative competence (Susikaran, 2013:5). It involves knowledge of conditions and manner of appropriate use in conformity with various purposes. Appropriateness of use is expressed in terms of the relations between intentions and purposes, and between linguistic means of certain forms and meanings within linguistic institutional settings (Kasher, 1991: 46).

Based on the above assertion, it is, therefore, not surprising that the communicative approaches to language advocate for a need to know more about the appropriate ways in which language can be used in social context, than the need to know about the systems of the language (www.the-criterion.com (Accessed on16/01/2016).

Kasher's view is shared by de Aquino (2011: 151) who points to two ways of teaching language, namely; having meaning as the focus of the teaching and having form as the focus in the language classroom. She explains the value of the communicative approach, which, she claims, provides learners with the negotiation of meaning while they communicate to accomplish the task. Learners use language freely without bothering themselves about form, which comes naturally. It is along these lines that de Aquino believes learners should be given tasks that encourage the practice of samples of language they are exposed to.

There is also a belief that the classroom does not normally provide adequate context for learners to pick up pragmatic information incidentally. In other words, using the language appropriately depends on taking into account a number of contextual variables, such as the social identities of and social relationships between speakers. This is to imply that, the typical language classroom may not provide language learners with adequate opportunities to observe how things are done with words in the target language in the wider variety of situations and settings the learners are likely to encounter outside of the classroom. There is a need to become aware of the pragmatic features of language, which will not only make one's communicative ability become more purposeful and meaningful, but also help in the effective instruction of second language. Hence, it is deemed necessary to develop pragmatic competence in practicing teachers (Susikaran, 2013:6).

However, developing pragmatic awareness in the classroom is necessary in order to provide learners with samples of original language in real situations, especially to show pragmatic features that are culturally determined; for instance, giving examples of how people from a particular culture behave in specific situations. In return, learners can have an idea of what is expected of them in a similar context.

Awareness presents teaching activities that focus on raising learners' awareness of pragmatic differences between languages. The sections following Awareness offer production activities. The activities that focus on production are organized by the area of pragmatics that they address: conversational management, conversational openings and closings, requests, and daily life. Conversational Management includes activities that address the mechanics of conversation, such as turn taking, active listening, relevant short responses, and using hesitation markers. Conversational openings and closings deal with the boundaries of conversations: how to begin and end conversations both in person and on the telephone. Requests deal with the specific speech act of asking someone to do something. Finally, assorted speech acts present a variety of speech acts, including complaining during service encounters, turning down invitations, complimenting, and responding to compliments. It is also advised that teachers should find activities that are appropriate for their students. The index is organized around major features such as level of learners, type of activities, content of activities, computer use, and non-verbal communication (Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor, 2003:9).

Richard, Platt and Webber, as cited in Nunan (1993:6) assert that a task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as a successful completion of a task. The use of a variety of different tasks in language teaching makes language teaching more communicative. It provides a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language. A communicative task involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing and interacting in the target language, while their attention is mainly focussed on meaning rather than form. Hence, Nunan suggests that, a task has a sense of completeness, being able to be outstanding as a communicative act. The reason behind the suggestion is that tasks are designed to imitate real-world activities and, therefore, learners are expected to act as language users as they accomplish them. He therefore, recommends real-world tasks that happen in real-world situations, things that speakers have to do in their daily lives. This is meant to give the learners an idea of what happens in everyday conversations in order to prepare them for that.

Susikaran (2013:7) claims that lack of pragmatic competence is likely to lead the language user to commit errors and, thus, to have negative judgments about other’s personality. She feels that there should be ways to develop competence as well as the role of the teacher and, of course, the nature of the classroom dynamics that should prevail in order to facilitate the acquisition of pragmatic competence by learners. Matters of curriculum development should also feature in the process of developing pragmatic competence.

Susikaran is of the view that language teachers have to be good communicators since they are expected to always convey meaning in a coherent and cohesive manner. This implies the choice of language in terms of vocabulary and structure appropriate to the context. The need to be communicatively competent on the part of the teacher gets further strengthened for the agent he/she is, the catalyst to the language used by the student. Language teachers, thus, need to have instruction about pragmatics so that they can develop awareness and a well-informed professional knowledge-base about it. That is when they will be able to consider a learner-centred and need-based kind of a syllabus.

According to Kecskes (2015:422), the acquisition of language and the acquisition of social and cultural competence are not developmentally independent processes, nor is one process a developmental prerequisite of the other. Rather, the two processes are intertwined from the moment the human enters the society (http://dx.doi.org/.1080/14790718.202015.10710180 (Accessed on 05.07.2015).

Lo Castro (2012:235) points out that, pragmatic competence for language learners has proven to have importance, even beyond acquiring high linguistic proficiency in learner's mother-tongue. It allows learners to use language appropriately in concrete situations, utter relevant arguments, act properly and be considered competent communicators (Kecskes, 2015:3). Learning of the social rules of speaking, therefore, amongst other things, may serve to smooth entry into public address events and other occasions. This may also make learners aware of the need to use socially appropriate language in their own language's cultural environment. Many work environments require even first language speakers to be trained in speaking skills that are needed for particular job categories such as, for example, learning how to make customers feel welcome up to as far as taking care of their emotional needs (Lo Castro, 2012:236). Thus, the development of pragmatic competence is of vital importance for developing language proficiency.

In the process of developing pragmatic competence, one should take cognisance of some of the problems that learners struggle with within the course of language learning. Pragmatic transfer, which is two types, namely, the pragmalinguistic and the sociopragmatic transfers, are some of such problems (Lo Castro 2012: 237).

Pragmalinguistic transfer occurs when second language learners use strategies of their first language to perform a linguistic function which is performed differently in the target language. An example of that will be to say, 'I apologise' or 'forgive me' instead of saying, 'I am sorry.' This is a direct transfer from the speaker's first language. This process may sometimes appear successful once the patterns for a specific communicative situation are the same in both languages. However, some patterns and aspects of communication are culturally determined and, as a result, the transfer trends cause a breakdown in communication. Sociopragmatic transfer, on the other hand, occurs from applying the socio-cultural norms of the first language to the second language. Some of the examples of such a situation are, for example, referring to a teacher as 'Miss' or 'Sir' and, asking someone you have just met how much he earns. For a native language speaker, this would be viewed as offensive while it would not be considered inappropriate in some languages and cultures (http://corkenglishcoll... (Accessed on 06.02.2016).

Pragmatically incompetent learners would develop from saying, for example, 'give me your pen, please'. This is not considered rude but, impolite due to being merely pragmatically incompetent. Through the teacher's use of most conventionalised strategy, the student would develop such that the same request would sound more polite when it is phrased as, 'Could I have your pen, please?"

Since pragmalinguistics is about resources for conveying communicative acts and interpersonal meanings, they include pragmatic strategies such as directedness and indirectedness, as well as routines. For example, communicative acts such as, 'I am sorry, I am devastated. Can you possible forgive me?' Here, one could pick up different attitudes. It means therefore that, there are two ways in which pragmatics can be taught, through direct and indirect instruction. In a natural environment, indirect instruction seems to be efficient once the learner is exposed to the culture and the language outside of the classroom (Thomas, 1983:10).

It is in light of the above that language teaching should emphasise pragmatic focus in order to develop learners' metapragmatic consciousness, than metalinguistic awareness. Teachers need to know what pragmatic aspects can be taught and which instructional approaches may be most effective to develop pragmatic fluency. For instance, learner-centred activities give learners opportunities to practise conversational management as well as performing a larger role in communicative acts and interact with other learners in completing a task. Teacher intervention in this respect is vital in order to facilitate and make learners aware of what they already know and to encourage them to use their transferable first language pragmatic knowledge.

A pragmalinguistic task, therefore, focuses on the strategies and linguistic means by which thinking is accomplished. This entails the kind of formulae used, as well as the kind of additional means of expressing appreciation that are employed. This extends to the means of expressing pleasure about the giver's thoughtfulness or the gift (www.nflrc.hawaii.edu/networks/NW06/- (Accessed on 16.01.2016).

Leech (1983:10) views sociopragmatics as the social interface of pragmatics since it is about social perceptions underlying the participant's interpretation and performance of communicative action. Here, one could pick up social power, rights and obligations, as well as the degree of imposition.

Kasper and Rose (2002:20) refute Susikaran's idea where earlier on she does not believe that the classroom can provide adequate context for learners to pick up pragmatic information incidentally. They are, therefore, of the opinion that pragmatic competence should be explicitly taught. Their argument is based on the research premise that pragmatics acquisition, where it has not been the focus of classroom activities, results in unsuccessful outcomes.

Kasper and Rose's view is shared by Lo Castro who does not believe that mere exposure is sufficient. He holds the view that children do not typically learn pragmatics of their mother-tongue without adult intervention. For instance, emphasising the role of a care giver intervention from the early stages of development, Kasper and Rose realise that, for children to learn to say, 'thank you', they need an adult in their immediate environment to instruct them about that phrase and its context of use. (www.nflrc.hawaii.edu/network/NW06/ (Accessed on 16.01.2015). Kasper's (1997:1) statement seems to be contrary to their previous statement in Kasper and Rose (2002), when she claims that pragmatic competence is not teachable. The reason behind this view is that competence is a type of knowledge that learners possess, develop, acquire, use or lose. She, therefore, believes the best thing to do is to arrange learning opportunities in such a way that they benefit the development of pragmatic competence. Hence, the social use of language to convey interactional meanings requires a degree of focus of form and context.

Lo Castro (2012:241) recommends that actual lessons should consist of explicit teaching of formulaic routines, conversational strategies and speech acts through observing and participating in classroom interaction patterns, including, non-verbal behaviour that accompanies the spoken language. For example, body posture is an inherent feature of some native language speakers which signal attention and respect. He suggests role-plays and mini dramas that allow learners to use a wide range of pragmatic roles and sociolinguistic abilities. He points out that, learning and teaching materials such as textbooks, videos, multimedia and so forth, are other sources of input in the learning environment. Lo Castro, however, cautions that the same materials may misrepresent the target language culture and its social rules of speaking, particularly, politeness norms.

Reiterating Lo Castro's view, Tolimson (2003:22) suggests certain qualities that teaching materials should reflect, some qualities such as; Reality of language use, wherein the materials would help the learner to develop cultural awareness and sensitivity. It should help the learners to learn in ways similar to circumstances in which they will have to use the language. It should help create readiness to learn and, finally, it should achieve effective engagement.

Lessons in language classrooms should, therefore, teach learners how to carry out speech acts where they can easily bring in personal experiences and make connections with the real world of conversational interactions. Hence, Schmidt (1993:26) emphasises the need for attention to linguistic forms for learning to occur.

Cohen and Ishihara (2010:201) do not believe it is easy to learn pragmatic language use. They give a whole range of reasons such as, for example, different cultural norms of appropriateness, generational, regional, ethnic, and individual variation, grammatical and lexical complexity and subtleties (hard to grasp) of nuances (subtle shade of meaning) and non-verbal behaviour.

Cohen and Ishihara come up with a number of frameworks such as noticing hypothesis, awareness hypothesis and attention hypothesis that facilitate understanding of how language learning works. Noticing hypothesis helps us explain an important cognitive learning of one’s pragmatic language and suggests how teachers can assist in the process (Cohen and Ishihara, 2010:101).

Attention and awareness can be viewed as inseparable. On the other hand, attention can be viewed as a variety of mechanisms or subsystems that control access to awareness. It is also limited and selective in nature, managing access to consciousness, and leading to the control of action and learning. Pragmatic information must be consciously attended to for the learning of pragmatics to take place. When the pragmatic information is noticed, whether attended to deliberately or unintentionally, the input has the potential to become intake and may be stored in long-term memory (Cohen and Ishihara, 2010:101).

Koproski, as cited by de Acquino (2011:150), agrees with Cohen and Ishihari, Lo Castro as well as with Tolimson, when he proposes what he perceives as important to be included and be present in a textbook to be the items that the learners are likely to encounter in real-life, meaning, outside of the classroom.

In view of the above, the development of pragmatic competence requires the effort of language professionals and course-book writers to focus on the aspect of language in the course of planning a syllabus. First and foremost, priority should be given to production of language other than the reproduction of grammar structures (de Acquino, 2011:151).

2.3.3 Approaches to meaning

Cummings views (2005:40) meaning as being a three-part approach, the referential meaning, psychologistic meaning and social meaning. These approaches cannot exist in isolation as they are interrelated. *Referential approach to* meaning: Cummings further claims that symbols in language are referential. Referential meaning explains the aboutness of language, that is, how language could be about entities and state of affairs in the external world. This is what Searle (1983:1-25) terms the extension, for example, ‘a dog is an animal.’ What is referred to by the sentence is an animal.

Tarski and Davidson cited by Cummings (2005:51) hold the idea that a referential approach to meaning concerns the capacity of sentences to describe states of affairs in the world. Sentences have a feature of a particular world in which there are objects and people. ‘John is in the park,’ John exists in a particular world. There is also a state of affairs in the particular world; the object is the relation between symbols.

Referential meaning, therefore, must include some account of the conditions that must hold. These conditions are called truth conditions and they form the basis of truth conditional theory of meaning. For example, sentences such as; Grass is green. Sugar is sweet. Both sentences are individually true. The situation is such that a true truth condition is connected to a false sentence because, the grass is just green and not because sugar is sweet. The meaning is brought out by the logic of the connectives and the truth values of the propositions. The proposition needs to be true.

Cummings (2005:51) criticises Davidson, citing the fact that, by using truth sentences in a metalanguage to arrive at an account of truth, and ultimately of meaning in an object language, he simply replaces the problem of what an object language means with the problem of what a metalanguage means.

The aboutness feature of language is integral to the notion of meaning employed in artificial intelligence. Levesque (1986:92) equates the content of a knowledge base with the aboutness when he states that the content of the knowledge base is what it tells us about the world. Knowledge in artificial intelligence is a form of representation for which content is established through reference to an external world. Knowledge representation is one aspect of a wider language-oriented approach in Artificial Intelligence. He cites the two main properties of knowledge base whose form is vivid as following;

1. A one to one correspondence between a certain class of symbols in the knowledge base and the objects of interest in the world.
2. For every single relationship of interest in the world there will be a type of connection among symbols in the knowledge base, such that the relationship holds among a group of objects in the world if, and only if, the appropriate connection exists among the corresponding symbols in the knowledge base.

According to this approach, thought and language are similar in essential respects. Psychologists and linguists who study language acquisition in children believe that a large part of the vocabulary and semantic development that occurs in children can be explained by the learning by children, of referents and extensions of terms in language. For instance, the situation like when a child uses the word ‘daddy’ to refer to a particular individual and also encouraging children to learn referential links. That could be done by simultaneously naming and pointing to the objects and people within a child’s observable environment. Referential meaning can also account for the early semantic errors that children make. Such mistakes, to name but a few, are, overextensions, that is an error whereby a child uses the word ‘daddy’ to refer to all male adults. For under-extensions, for example, when a child uses the word ‘shoes’ to refer to his shoes alone, a child comes to associate sentences with particular situations. On the basis of situations, a child can work out the reference of words within the sentence. A child can then be able to establish the truth conditions of the sentences from which the reference of other words can be obtained (Cummings, 2005:52).

Referential meaning is dependent to psychologistic meaning. This is demonstrated when an appeal was made to a speaker’ mental representation in order to disambiguate the word ‘park’.

A psychologistic approach to meaning: is a necessary component in the understanding of meaning (on its own terms). Theorists such as Chomsky and Fodor believe that there is a necessary representational component to the concept meaning - the view of the mind. Fodor (1975:66) cautions that one cannot talk about referential meaning in the absence of some prior notion of representational meaning. The aspects of the mind that enable humans to acquire computational aspects of language (the syntactic, phonological and semantic rules of the language) are part of a further component of the mind called conceptual system that contains the knowledge and belief about the world. Chomsky (1980:47) is of the opinion that the mind is organised into distinct cognitive faculties with their specific structures and principles.

For a representation to be responsive to logical processing, all that is necessary is for it to be well formed; whereas, to be capable of being true or false, it must also be semantically complete. It means, therefore, that it must represent a state of affairs in a possible or actual world, whose existence would make it true (Cummings, 2005:59).

As the question of dependency amongst these approaches of meaning has been mentioned previously, the psychologistic meaning is also dependent on referential meaning, for instance, when the word ‘park’ has been disambiguated and there is a determinate mental representation associated with the sentence, ‘John is in the park.’, there is a very clear sense in which one will still not know what the sentence means if some referential account of that mental representation cannot be given (Cummings, 2005:43).

Further, Cummings is of the opinion that psychologistic meaning must also depend on social or pragmatic meaning. In addition to representing the semantic meaning of a sentence, a mental representation must also encode how the speaker of that sentence intends it to be used on a particular occasion. In the case of a sentence, ‘John is in the park’, the use of this sentence to inform and/ or to warn becomes the basis of distinct mental representation of this sentence. The word ‘park’ has a referent to the fact that, John is a violent person; hence this sentence could be used as a warning. The same sentence could be used to inform who John is and why it is important to communicate that he is in the park. Such thoughts constitute mental representations (http://www.cambridge.org./.../language-and-... (Accessed on 09.04.2016).

Social approach to meaning: refers to the use of language to establish and regulate social relations as well as maintaining social roles. This is what Lyons (1981:76) describes as social communication. Mwihaki (2004:133) believes that the notion of social communication emphasises experience of social fellowship and the participation in social linguistic rituals. According to Mwihaki, in social communication, the verbal interaction has little information value but plays an essential role in the facilitation of social discourse. For this reason, social meaning is communicated through ritualistic use of language as found in greetings, ‘Hello, how are you?’ Apologies, ‘I am afraid I shall not be able to attend.’ blessings, ‘Have a wonderful day!’ or condolences, ‘Sorry for your loss’. It is, therefore, worth noting that the essential function of social meaning lies in the emotive purpose of the utterance.

As reflected above, social theories of meaning are speech acts theory, implicature, and so forth.

Intentionality: The task of the listener in any context of speech use is to figure out the speaker's intended meaning; therefore, intentionality is of essence to assigning meaning in context (Lo Castro, 2012:21). A speaker has something to say that the he assumes has some value to the listener; whether it is transfer information, acknowledgement of the co-presence of a fellow human being as in, 'hello, how are you doing?' or an assertion of power over someone, for example, 'you need to clean the house before the visitors arrive.'

Force: refers to a speaker's communicative intentions. It involves the speech acts which are used by the speaker to enact an intended meaning. Figuring out the speaker's intended meaning entails assigning the most likely force for the situation. If, for example, a person is approached by a traffic officer while heading for his car in the parking bay and asks him whether that was his car, he can discern from the tone of his voice that the officer asks him because he wants to reprimand him. He can understand the meaning of each and every word of what the traffic officer says without being able to work out the full force of the traffic officer's words. In this case, words perform his intended meaning.

Based on the above claim, intention, therefore, is the meaning achieved by the words in the utterance. For instance, 'a dog is an animal'. Intention is whatever defines dogs.

Indexicality: refers to the potential meanings that are implicitly attached to a word. If for example, a woman calls from an eatery called Wimpy and says to her husband, 'I am here now.' They must have agreed before on the place and time for the husband to understand the, 'here' and the 'now'. An Indexical is a prototypical signal to create reference between the speaker and the listener (Lo Castro, 2012:22). Therefore, referring expressions such as deictic markers are used as links between a speaker's talk and a listener and the surrounding world.

2.3.4 Theory of Conversational Implicature

Borg (2009: 69), citing Grice, indicates that two very different elements combine to make up the total signification of an utterance. Grice's fundamental divide came between what is said, that is the literal, semantic content for sentences and what is implicated, which is taken to line up with pragmatic meaning. 'What is said (by a sentence)' is a technical term for Grice and is usually held to be determined by the syntactic constituents of that sentence, together with the processes of disambiguation (not having double meaning) and reference determination for context-sensitive expressions. Summarily, therefore, conversational implicature can be discussed as being about and what is meant, what is said, what is implicated, as being non-conventional, but, conversational and, lastly, being general and particular (http://www.sfu.ca/~ /hedberg/implicature.pdf (Accessed on 22.04.2016).

Implicature is an alternative to 'implication' which has additional meanings in logic and in informal language. This term refers to what is suggested in an utterance, even though neither expressed nor strictly implied by the utterance, for example; 'Lindy got a job and finished her degree.' This suggests that Lindy first got employed before she graduated. This sentence would still be strictly true if Lindy had graduated before she got the job (http://plato.stanford.edu/... (Accessed on 18.04.2016).

Pynn (2011:1) clarifies implicatures under 'what is said vs. what is meant'. Things the speaker means but does not say, for example, A: 'I'm out of petrol.' B: 'There's a garage around the corner.' Cummings (2005:9) points out that it is not enough that the speaker intends to cause through his or her use of an utterance a certain effect in the listener, rather, this effect is only properly achieved when the intention to produce it is recognised by the listener. This means that A must be able to infer B's response as an indication that he/she is not prepared to help in any way.

Grice identifies three different types of implicatures: conversational, Scalar and Conventional or non-conversational.

For purposes of this research, it is conversational implicatures which will be of special interest to this study. This matter will receive further attention in the section below.

2.3.5 The nature of conversational implicature

This occurs when the speaker deliberately flouts the general truth to convey an additional meaning that is not expressed literally. Sometimes, while the speaker does not want to be ambiguous, he also does not want to give false information by giving a specific answer in spite of his uncertainty (Borg, 2009:1). She further describes Conversational implicatures in general as those propositions which a hearer is required to assume in order to preserve her view of the speaker as a cooperative partner in communication. A conversational implicature is generated by general rules of conversation, as applied to a particular conversational circumstance (Pynn, 2011: 1).

Conversational implicatures are things that a hearer can work out from the way something was said, rather than from what was said. For example, if someone asks; "Could you close the door?" the hearer does not usually answer 'yes', instead he performs the non-linguistic act of closing the door. Although the speaker used a form of words that are conventionally a question, the hearer can infer that he is actually making a request (http://plato.stanford.edu/archives /spr2014/entries /grice/>. (Accessed on 19.04. 2016).

On the basis of the above, it can, therefore, be said that, to some degree, conversations are usually cooperative enterprises. They are principles of rational behaviour that dictate to the participants in a conversation to cooperate in order to achieve the goal of their conversation. In that process, they follow four guidelines, that is; the conversational maxims (Grice, 1989:26).

Cummings (2005:10) believes that, for Grice, cooperation is a regulative principle of rationality in general and conversational rationality in particular. It shapes the structure of people's contributions to conversation and how they go about interpreting others' contributions. Cummings argues that Grice's cooperative principle does not state exactly what is required of a conversational contribution;. Instead, Grice defines this principle through a series of maxims.

Kadmon (2001:5) proposes that many implications are derived by the hearer on the basis of the conversational maxims. Cummings (2005:11) claims that they specify what participants have to do in order to converse in a maximally efficient rational, cooperative way. They should speak sincerely, relevantly and clearly, while providing sufficient information.

Levinson (1983:101-102) presents these maxims as;

1. The maxim of quality, where he cautions that the speaker should try and make his/her contribution one that is true and;

    (a) not say what he/she believes to be false.

    (b) not say that for which one lacks adequate evidence.

2. The maxim of quantity which include two junctions being;

    (a) Make your contribution as informative as is required.

    (b) Make it no more informative than is required.

3. The maxim of relevance; which requires that one to make his contributions relevant.
4. The maxim of manner; that requires one to be; perspicuous, and specifically: avoid obscurity (not clearly expressed/easily understood/unexplained), avoid ambiguity, be brief and be orderly.

Potts' (2012:1) view is that, people's utterances do not satisfy all of the above demands all the time, due to the fact that speakers may opt out of one or more maxims. Speakers might encounter a hopeless clash between two or more maxims or they might blatantly fail to fulfil one or more maxims.

Borg (2009:1-21) perceives that conversational maxims often come into conflict with each other. For instance, one party to the conversation may be caught between saying something less informative than is desired and, therefore, violating quantity. A person may be saying something for which there is insufficient evidence and thereby violating quality. An example of Borg' assertion regarding the above-stated nature of conversational maxims is evident in the following conversation:

A: I'm running out of cash.

B: There's a bank down around the corner on Main Street.

In this situation, B's response does not logically imply that the bank is open. However, the remark is irrelevant unless the bank is open. A can deduce from the combination of manner and quality that B believes that he has good evidence that the bank is open. Thus, B's utterance conversationally implicates that the bank is open.

Lo Castro (2012:50-51) somehow disagrees with some of Grice's meaning of terms, particularly, regarding the maxims. This he does, citing a plight of speakers who do not share the same cultural background and, who may have a very different view of how relevance, quantity, quality and manner maxims are enacted in conversational interactions. He further questions the role of maxims as guides of interpretation of the speaker's meaning, citing the fact that, activities such as media interviews have their own norms that influence the processing of pragmatic meaning.

Lo Castro (2012:52) agrees with Weizman and Blum-Kulka (1996) regarding the suspension of maxims in certain contexts or settings. For instance, in an effort to elicit an answer to a question, a newscaster interviewing a politician may not hesitate to pursue an interviewee in a hard-hitting manner. Such directness would not be tolerated in many other contexts.

In the light of the above discussion, it can be perceived that, in a conversation, people are able to deduce more meaning, beyond the literal meaning.

2.3.6 Qualities of the conversational implicature

According to Cummings (2005:14), Grice's implicatures can be distinguished on the basis of the following properties; cancellability, detatchability, calculability and conventionality. Keane (2009:1) identifies two additional qualities, namely, reinforceability and universality. Here below each property will be briefly discussed in no particular order.

1. Cancellability:

One of the distinctive qualities of conversational implicatures is that they can be cancelled, explicitly or contextually (www.sfu.cab/˷hedberg/Implicature.pdf

23/04/2016). Conversational implicature can be cancelled by the addition of information. The following example is indicative thereof:

A: Are you coming to church tonight?

B: My parents are visiting this evening, but I'll call in later on.

The first part of B's response sets up the response that B will not be coming to the church. However, that implicature is cancelled by the second part of B's response. (http://plato.stanford.edu/archives/spr2014/entries/grice/ (Accessed on 19.04.2016).

Potts (2012:10) perceives that the cancelability property is used to cover three distinct situations, namely,

a. Direct cancellation, in which the speaker utters lexical content that entails the negation of the implicature.
b. Suspension, in which the speaker utters lexical content that indicates that he is not committed to the implicature or its negation. For example, "Some, maybe, all of the students will receive Bursary this year."
c. Lack of contextual support, wherein the context is one in which an expected implicature does not arise. For instance, typically ordering but, not for stative predications (www.web.stanford.edu/...linguist236/implicatu... (Accessed on 15.08.2015).

2. Non-detachability:

Since conversational implicatures emanate from the semantic content of utterances, they, therefore, do not change the implicature if synonyms are used. For example;

Tammy is meeting a woman this evening.

Tammy is meeting an adult female person this evening.

Tammy is meeting an adult female human being this evening.

What all of the three utterances imply, is that, the woman that Tammy is meeting is neither his wife nor his girlfriend and, the implicature is not affected by the change of linguistic form in these utterances (Cummings, 2005:14).

3. Calculability

Levinson (2000:3) calls calculability:

> the more or less transparent derivation of
> the inference from the premises that include
> the assumption of rational conversation activity.

If a meaning is present, but it cannot be derived from the maxims, then that has to be attributed to either the contextual entailment, conventional implicature, and so forth.

There may be various ways of calculating an implicature, which is why they often possess indeterminacy. Some implicatures can only be arrived at through a process of reasoning or calculation. In order to derive such implicatures from a speaker's utterance, a listener must inter-relate contextual factors with maxims and principles of conversation in a complex reasoning process (Cummings, 2005:16).

4. Non-conventionality:

The implicature is not carried by what is said, but rather, partly, by the speaker or utterance (http://www.home.uchicago.edu/.../2009%20quals.../ (Accessed on 22.04. 2016).

Potts (2012:9), citing Lewis (1969), asserts that, in the case of non-conventionality, a meaning is conventional when it is the result of arbitrariness of the signs such as lexical items, constructions, and so forth. He, however, believes that, that is just another perspective on calculability, whereby the inferences should derive not only from lexical or constructional idiosyncrasies, but rather, from pragmatic interaction.

5. Reinforceability:

Keane (2009:3) states that implications can be reinforced by being made explicit, without there being too much redundancy. Take the following utterance for example,

'The weather isn't cold outside. It is implied here that water is warm. In a reinforced statement this utterance could become; 'the weather isn't cold outside, it's warm.'

6. Universality:

Keane also states that, conversational implicatures are usually universal across all languages. Consider the following utterances;

'Some of us take our tea with milk.'

Using the quantifier 'some' rather than 'all' implies that the speaker does not mean all of them take their tea with milk.

What follows below here is a discussion that will throw more light on the two distinguished conversational implicatures, namely, generalised and particularised.

2.3.7 Generalised versus particularised conversational implicatures

Generalised implicatures and particularised implicatures are conversational implicatures. Both kinds of implicatures carry features that are as much distinct as well as common to each other. This work will, therefore, attempt to discuss the shared as well as distinctive characteristics between the two kinds of implicatures.

Particularised implicatures are nonce (for the time being) inferences which are context-sensitive, driven by close consideration of a particular speaker's aim and intentions (http://www.-ol.sil.org/ling... (Accessed on 26.04. 2016). Context enables speakers to communicate their intention to flout the quality maxim and in so doing, communicate a meaning that is ironic, metaphorical and so forth (Cummings, 2005:14).They, therefore, are derivable only in specific contexts. Thus they depend on particular utterances; features of the context. The following examples are indicative of the above statement; 'Tammy's car broke down.' This proposition conveys nothing about where Tammy's was going when the car broke down. The implicature in this case, therefore, depends on the context. Consider also the following utterance, to this effect;

A: What on earth has happened to the roast?

B: The dog is looking very happy.

In this case, A will only derive implicature, namely that; ‘the dog ate the roast beef,’ from B’s statement. A believes that B is observing the maxim of relation in the specific context of A’s question (Levinson, 1983:126).

On the other hand, according to Grice, as cited by Levinson (1983:126), a generalised conversation implicature is inferable without reference to a special context. The following utterances are an attempt to indicate that; ‘Peggy is meeting a man.’ The implication here is that the man she is meeting is not her/Peggy’s man. The implication is as a result of the use of the indefinite article, ‘a’ and, as such; the referent of the noun that is modified is not closely associated with any person that is closely identifiable (Cummings, 2005:14). They are typically associated with the proposition expressed, for example, ‘The manager thinks there is a meeting tonight.’ The implicature in this utterance is that the manager does not know for sure that there is a meeting tonight (https://msu.edu/course/... (Accessed on 26.04.2016).

According to Borg (2009:16), generalised conversational implicatures cannot constitute semantic content since they require information beyond the strictly semantic to recover. Implicatures of this nature do not seem to constitute full-blown pragmatic content, since they do not rely on access to the current speaker’s state of mind. They, however, can be recovered due to exposure to past conversational exchange. That could also be as a result of a purely reckoned syntax-driven reasoning process. These implicatures are formally derived and they are mechanical and habitual. The way people’s minds work regarding these implicatures explains why people find it so easy to hear what is really a difference in a speaker’s meaning, as a difference in sentence meaning. Borg disputes the fact that generalised implicatures contribute to the recovery of the semantic content, citing the fact that such a process counterfeits a place within a reckoned language faculty which does not have access to such contextual information.

Carston (1988:12), citing Levinson, points out the following three components of the theory of generalised conversational implicature: the inferential principles, the resolution schemes and a system of logical rules. He goes on to emphasise two properties that generalised implicatures have which, he believes, must be reflected in the logic involved in deriving them. Carston makes reference to default inferences, asserting that they arise, unless they are blocked by something. Secondly, they are cancellable, a characteristic shared by implicatures irrespective of being generalised or particularised. He further suggests that the logic employed regarding the property of cancellability must be non-monotonic and must therefore, allow for the possibility of additions to a set of premises leading to the dropping of conclusions generated by the un-augmented set of premises. An example of Carston's assertion is portrayed in the comparative utterances below:

A: 'All children are manipulative.'

Implicature: Thembi is a child

Conclusive implicature: Thembi is manipulative.

B: 'Thembi has spent some of her money. '

Implicature: Thembi has not spent all her money.

Utterance A is a typical example of a deductive inference, whereby no matter the additions to the given inference, the set of conclusions can only increase and, therefore, makes it monotonic. In B, on the other hand, the addition of a premise can lead to the dropping of the conclusion. For Levinson (1989:466), the inference in B falls into the category of non-monotonic default inferences.

Carston (1988:16) cites some problems regarding the default logic approach. He believes that the problems referred to arise precisely because the rules associate generalised implicature with particular lexical items when, what they really depend on, in many instances, is whole sentences. Hirschberg (1985:43-45) blames Grice's original characterisation of generalised implicature for the problems regarding the default logic approach. She rejects any derivation of implicatures by default logic, asserting that there is no principled basis upon which to assign defaults.

Levinson (1995:92-94) asserts that generalised conversational implicature is driven by a set of principles guiding the right expression to suggest specific interpretations. It offers a systematic account of why, for example, saying, ‘see you on Thursday,’ when tomorrow is Thursday would suggest not seeing you tomorrow. These implicatures are so common that they go through by default and require some special context for them to be cancelled. For example; ‘some, in fact all, of the guests are already leaving.’ This utterance attaches, quite generally, to the use of a scalar term like ‘some’, although they are pragmatically strengthened, the reading may be cancelled in a particular context.

Levinson, as cited by Green (2000:461-2) cautions that to account for generalised conversational implicature, it is necessary to distinguish a new utterance–type meaning from sentence meaning and speaker meaning. The reason behind that is to capture the suggestions that the use of an expression of a certain type generally or normally carries by default.

Levinson, as cited above by Green, views generalised implicatures as cancellable inferences triggered by the speaker’s choice of utterance form and lexical terms due to the three heuristics that are mutually assumed by the speaker and the hearer. These heuristics can be related to Grice’s maxims and they are as follows; the Quantity (Q) heuristic which says; what isn’t said is not the case. The following utterance is an example of the (Q) heuristic; ‘There is a blue pyramid on the red cube.’ Here are the inferences triggered by this heuristic:

‘There is not a cone on the red cube.’

‘There is not a red pyramid on the red cube.’

The second heuristic is the Informativeness (I) Heuristic which says, what is simply described is stereotypically exemplified, for example, consider this assertion;

‘The blue pyramid is on the red cube.’ This heuristic triggers the following inferences:

The pyramid is a stereotypical one.’

‘The pyramid is directly supported by a cube.’

‘There is not a red pyramid on the red cube.’

The third heuristic is called the Markedness (M) heuristic which says, what is said in an abnormal way is not normal, or a marked message. Note the following assertion:

‘The blue cuboid block is supported by the red cube.’

The inferences triggered are as follows:

‘The blue block is not strictly, a cube.’

‘The blue block is not directly supported by the red cube’ (Green, 2000:462).

Carston criticises Grice’s characterisation of the generalised implicature, citing the fact that, if they were to be entirely literally applied, many of the metaphorical and hyperbolic utterances would fall into the class of generalised implicatures. Carston bases his argument on Grice’s (1975:53) example of an utterance that is as follows: ‘You are the cream in my coffee.’

In terms of implicature, the above metaphor translates as follows; ‘You are my pride and joy.’ Carston (1995:17) views this utterance as lacking particular contextual assumptions against which to interpret it. Grice, himself, confirms that the utterance given above as an example involves numerous imperfections, such that he perceives its literal meaning will be rejected as the intended interpretation and the supposed implicature derived quite generally across context. Carston maintains that, despite the generalised cases’ fairly general occurrence across contexts, they would have been particularised implicatures arising from the flouting of one of the manner maxims of Grice’s original systematic plan.

Green (2000:462) argues against the idea that the output of semantics is the input of pragmatics. Instead, Green argues for a more complex relationship in which generalised conversational implicature can play a role in truth conditions. According to Green, after sentence meaning has been determined by the semantic process, another process which yields a speaker meaning is responsible for deriving other inferences such as particularised conversational implicatures.

Grice, as cited by Carston (1988:172), gives two examples of generalised conversational implicatures, logic and conversation. According to Carston, Levinson's theory of generalised implicature differs from Grice's in that it employs a single pragmatic principle and makes no comparative distinction between generalised and particularised implicatures. Carston claims that Levinson's theory does not employ a system of default inference rules to generate implicatures. It, however, makes a principled distinction between explicit content, that is, what is said, and implicature.

Levinson (1989:67) favours the two distinct theories, one for the generalised cases and one for the particularised cases. Hirschberg (1985:42), on the other hand, rejects it, calling it 'an artefact of the inventiveness of analysis or lack thereof.' Hirschberg claims that, while the generalised implicatures are more context-independent than particularised implicatures, they, however, are still context-dependent.

Carston (2016:16) views the distinction between the generalised and the particularised implicatures as being treated as fundamental by Levinson and others. For him, an attempt to treat one class of conversational implicature as default inferences has not only failed but also casts serious doubt on the distinction between the generalised and the particularised implicatures (http://www.ucl.ac.uk/pals/... (Accessed on 22.04.2016).

Carston (1988:18) favours the relevance-based approach, citing the fact that it is more adequate for accounting for the examples of inferences called generalised implicatures. He believes that the relevance-based approach stands a better chance of providing a sound explanation of utterance interpretation, since it is grounded on a theory of how people process and represent information in general.

Particularised conversational implicatures are intimately bound up with specific contexts. For example, consider this sentence; 'Some but not all delegates will attend at 8:30 am.' It is common knowledge amongst the parties that, not every delegate will attend every talk. The speaker, therefore, implies that they could start the conference at 8:30 am.

Cummings (2005:15) criticises this theory, claiming that it does not acknowledge talk where the participants are clearly in conflict. He is of the opinion that implicatures arise only when hearers believe that the speaker wishes to convey additional information. Cummings further argues that if a speaker is lying and the hearer does not know that, the hearer will not derive an implicature from the quality maxim and, therefore, the quality maxim is violated. Once the speaker opts out of maxims, implications get blocked from arising. That is evident in the example of this utterance:

A: Sir, how much do you earn a month?'

B. I'm afraid that information is confidential

Particularised implicatures are non-detachable due to their dependence on the propositional content and context of utterances. Take, for instance, the following intended irony, 'What a clever child!' which, in terms of implicature, is also suggestive of certain attributes of the child.

The following section of this work will discuss politeness, as one of the pragmatic theories.

2.3.8 Pragmatic theory of Politeness

2.3.8.1 Discussion on politeness theory

Politeness is a non-conversational maxim that guides people in conversations. Grice believes these maxims are not related to the purposes of rational communication in the way that the maxims in the categories of quantity, quality, relation and manner are (www.michaeljohnsonphilosophy.com/.../... (Accessed on 03.05.2016). Lo Castro (2012:136), on the other hand, describes politeness as being one of the human behaviours that is likely to be noticed in interactions. It manifests as polite or impolite in a person's language as well as in non-verbal actions. For instance, if an individual cuts into a line ahead of others, whether, for example, it is at the bank or at the airport, the behaviour is regarded as rude and impolite. Human beings, therefore, cannot avoid communicating meanings about themselves and how they want to be perceived, as they engage in displaying politeness.

Lo Castro (2012:137) criticises Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness on the basis that it fails to consider non-linguistic behaviours, such as shaking hands or bowing upon greeting another person, as resources to enact politeness. He, however, believes that politeness theory attempts to explain the linguistic resources that are used to soften or mitigate a request.

Gumperz (1982:106) proffers that it is important to study politeness in language in order to enhance the general understanding of social order and human cooperation within society. In the same breath, Goldsmith (2006:232) praises politeness theory for being a unique area of study within the communication field as well as for being applicable and helpful in guiding individuals in ways to improve speech and actions. Goldsmith highlights two qualities that stand out, good heuristic value and broad scope.

According to Kitamura (2000:2), a theory of politeness was pioneered by Brown and Levinson in 1978. Their theory concerns the nature of politeness and the manner in which it functions in interaction. It is also about politeness strategies. One of the premises on which they base their theory, is viewing human beings as rational, motivated to achieve mutual benefit to both the speaker and the addressee in interactions. The benefit involves the concept of 'face', a technical or scientific term to denote the self-image that all human beings wish to maintain. Mills (2003:6) refers to the same concept of politeness as a battery of social skills whose goal is to ensure that everyone feels affirmed in a social interaction.

Face comprises affective and social aspects such as honesty, being-well behaved and being a member of valued social groups in the community. An individual expects others to recognise and acknowledge his face needs through various verbal behaviours (Lo Castro, 2012:139).

Brown and Levinson introduce a concept of 'face' in order to describe politeness in a broad sense. The very concept of face was originally introduced by Erving Goffman in the 1960's, although Goffman, as cited by Fauziati, acknowledges that it originated from Chinese culture. Brown and Levinson (1987) further make mention of two types of 'face' that is utilised during interaction, namely; 'positive face' and 'negative face'.

They define ‘positive face’ as the positive and consistent image people have of themselves and their desire for approval, that desire to be appreciated and liked, involved and included in the category of being the ‘right’ kind of a person (Fauziati, 2014:13).

Brown and Levinson’s theory of face only takes into account the personal and individual scope of face. They further assert that face can be a group-based phenomenon, and apply to any group that a person is a member of. That group can be family, ethnic group or nationality. Self-representation is, therefore, three dimensional; 1.The personal self, which refers to the individual level. 2. The relational self, which refers to the interpersonal level and, 3.The collective which refers to the group level (Fauziati, 2014:14). Brown and Levinson (1978), as quoted by Fauziati (2014:14), believe that it is safer to assume that the hearer prefers his peace and self-determination more than he prefers one’s expression of regard, unless he is certain to the contrary. Fauziati (2014:14) is of the opinion that Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory assumes that negative politeness is the universally preferred approach to framework.

Wagner (2016:2) begs to differ with Brown and Levinson’s view regarding ‘face‘ and negative politeness and, therefore, does not support it as a valid assumption, the reason she gives being that many societies do not value negative politeness over positive politeness. For that matter, they may even have an overriding preference for avoidance-based, off-record verbal behaviour or other means of addressing ‘face’. Instead, Wagner is of the opinion that a better understanding of apologies will result from analysing the apology event as it is performed in its natural, immediate context. Wagner is of the view that such an approach encourages a deeper contemplation of many important dynamic contextual factors excluded from Brown and Levinson’s model. In that regard, Wagner mentions, for example, the interactional goal of apologising, the level of responsibility the speaker feels for the infraction and the level and type of redress the speaker feels the addressee can reasonably expect (https://web.uri.edu/iaics/.../02-Lisa-C.-Wagner.p... (Accessed on 05.05.2016).

‘Negative face’ wants to involve the wish to have freedom and remain undisturbed, not imposed upon, in one’s actions (Lo Castro, 2012:138). Positive politeness is expressed by satisfying ‘positive’ appreciation of the interlocutor’s self-image. Negative politeness, on the other hand, can be expressed in two ways, firstly, by saving the interlocutor’s face negatively or positively. Secondly, by mitigating face threatening acts such as advice-giving disapproval or by satisfying negative face by indicating respect for the addressee’s right not to be imposed upon.

Politeness theory can be viewed as using communicative strategies to create and to maintain social harmony. This can be done in the following ways; by being contextually appropriate, by following social and cultural norms, by being socially positive by addressing face needs (https://www.slideshare.net/.../branches-of... (Accessed on 06.05.2016). Fauziati (2014:13), citing Watts (2003), reiterates the above perception when he mentions that, in social relations, people use linguistic strategies to maintain or promote harmonious relations. Amongst the rules of pragmatic competence, he highlights the “be polite rule”, the “I don’t impose rule”, the “give option rule” and, lastly, the “make the addressee feel good rule”, by being friendly. While these rules are in place, still there are times when people use linguistic strategies to attack ‘face’ (Culpeper, 2005:38).

Speech acts are threatening in that they do not support the face wants of the speaker and those of the addressee. Brown and Levinson (1978:65-67) define the threatening acts according to; 1. Whose face is being threatened? Is it the speaker’s or the addressee’s? 2. Which type of face is being threatened? Is it the positive or the negative face?

According to Brown and Levinson (1987:59), speech acts may threaten the face-needs of the speaker, the addressee or both. For example, a subordinate having to ask her boss to sign an insurance claim, something her boss forgot to do. Her perceived lower status, gender and, possibly, age, are social factors that may result in the doctor’s feeling imposed on. He may consider his public self-image threatened by being reminded of something he had not done by a subordinate. The subordinate has to use linguistic resources to mitigate the face threat. The following utterance is an example of a situation like that; ‘I know you are very busy, and I am sorry to have to bother you, but could I get your signature... right here?’ In this situation, the boss does not offer any excuse. The subordinate apologises, ‘I am sorry’ implying that it is not her own will, but, some external force that is causing her to interrupt him, ‘sorry to have to bother you.’ She asks for permission, ‘could I get your signature’, indicating that the boss has an option, that is, the boss could refuse her request. To indicate to her boss that he does not have to do any extra work to comply with her request, her final phrase is; ‘right here’ suggesting that she is standing, pen in hand, ready to give it to the boss, and pointing with the other hand to the exact line on which her boss needs to write his signature (Lo Castro, 2012:138).

Lo Castro (2012:139) views mitigation as a salient feature of talk while Brown and Levinson’s model attempts to account for this aspect when they theorise that conversational partners are likely to enact Face threatening acts according to the following set of choices:

1. Do the act on record, baldly, for example, ‘you can’t smoke here.’
2. Do not act with redressive action, for example, ‘would you mind not smoking here?
3. Do not act off record, for example, A-speaking to B about C, the smoker, ‘I wonder if there is a smoking section’ (saying loudly so that C can overhear.)
4. Do not do the act. For example, A and B do not say anything but just move away from the range of the smoke (Brown and Levinson, 1987:60).

Lo Castro (2012:139) does not perceive any effort to soften the act to save the face of the addressee. To support his view thereof, consider the following example:

Portraying first, positive politeness and, secondly, negative politeness;
Positive politeness: A speaking to C- A: ‘You know, they do not have a section for smokers over here.’
Negative politeness: A: Would you mind our asking you not to smoke in the non-smoking section?’
With positive politeness, the speaker appears to be friendly and helpful. Apparently, negative politeness does not mean that the speaker is impolite; rather, it reflects a greater degree of social distance between the speaker's wishes to disturb the addressee as little as possible.

Lo Castro (2012:141) challenges Brown and Levinson's argument that speakers make decisions on how to enact Face threatening acts by considering the following three variables:

1. The social distance between the speaker and the addressee.
2. The power difference between the speaker and the addressee.
3. The weight of imposition.

Lo Castro further perceives that Brown and Levinson's model proposes one way to account for the relationship among the three features of an interaction. His (Lo Castro)'s view is based on the fact that social distance and power differences, arguably, work together. An addressee who has high social status and a high degree of social distance from the speaker is likely to be perceived as having greater power.

Kitamura (2000:2) criticises Brown and Levinson's list of politeness strategies for just covering a very limited type of interaction. He further claims that the examples they give consist mainly of single utterances, which either have or presuppose clear communicative goals, such as asking to borrow a book or giving advice. Brown and Levinson tend to ignore the fact that most single utterances are just component parts of a larger exchange between two or more interactants. They pay no attention to phenomena which occur across the entire conversation, such as the overall sequence of utterances. Brown and Levinson also ignore any interaction, such as simply enjoying a casual conversation that does not involve a predetermined goal (www.als.asn.au/proceedings/...kitamura (Accessed on 04.05.2016).

2.3.8.2 Politeness cross-cultural differences

The term cross-cultural in this instance refers to any communication between two people who, in any particular area, do not share a common linguistic or cultural background. In different cultures different pragmatic ground rules may be referred to invoked and relative values, such as politeness, and may be ranked in a different order by different cultures. Cross-culturally, two things may occur which appear to involve a fundamental conflict of values, but, in fact, stem from socio-pragmatic mismatches. For instance, in the Ukraine, it may happen that a guest is invited as many as seven times to take more food, whereas in the United Kingdom it would be unusual to do that more than twice. For Ukrainians, the generosity maxim systematically overrides the quantity maxim; while, for the British, it does not. Hence, the British may feel that their host behaves impolitely by imposing on them. Pragmatic failure is an important source of cross-cultural communication breakdown (http://www.JThomas-1983-rodas5.us.es (Accessed on 21.05.2016).

It is in the light of the above that Lo Castro (2012:142-143) points out that Brown and Levinson's three variables of social distance, power, or weight of the imposition, are not interpreted equally across cultural and ethnic boundaries, for example, borrowing money from a close friend or family member may weigh more heavily than the same speech event in Mexico. According to Hinkel (1994:73), thanking may be performed in every day transactions such as supermarkets, post offices, without much thought in United States. Yet, considered culturally, the same action may threaten the face wants of a person who has a higher social status, relative to the person thanked. Apologising can also be a problem in some cultures where high status individuals do not normally apologise to others of lower status. If they do, they would be humbling themselves. Compliments tend to be avoided in Asian cultures where an addressee will be silent or refuse the compliment from, for instance, a friendly American who uses a compliment as a conversational opener.

Brown and Levinson's approach to politeness cannot explain all aspects due to different cultural beliefs and practices (Matsumoto, 1988: 37). Asian researchers such as Matsumoto highlight the collectivist culture as a feature of subordination of the individual to the group. Their view regarding culture would be, individuals primarily derive their identities and behaviours from norms of groups. They, therefore, refute the view of human actors as individuals. Socio-cultural decisions about levels of politeness in Asian languages and cultures are made on the basis of expectations of group membership. Lo Castro (2012:144) views Brown and Levinson's theory as lacking explanatory strength for cultures that do not prioritise the needs of individuals. Their theory is also further criticised for depicting politeness as if it were a static, predictable human behaviour always carried out to fit the situation in a determined manner.

Ide (1989), as cited by Lo Castro (2012:145), argues that politeness in Japan is based on discernment, instead of volition, as Brown and Levinson have previously claimed. Ide (1989: 244) defines discernment as the tendency of the Japanese to follow the generally socially-agreed–upon rules, rather than to use language creatively, dependent on situated features. Okamoto (1999:63) disagrees with Ide's (2005) point of view on the basis that any claim that Japanese politeness is always enacted according to social norms is an empirical question, rather than an assumption based on static, stereotyped views of Japanese culture.

Several studies, amongst them Matsumoto's (1988) and Ide's (1989), argue that brown and Levinson's theory of politeness is constructed on the basis of European Anglo-Saxon culture. They claim that it does not leave any room for variability among individual cultures. They further claim that Brown and Levinson cannot adequately explain Japanese use of honorifics. Matsumoto bases his argument on the unique nature of the Japanese language system (Fukada and Asato, 2004:1997). It is for that reason that Ide (1989), as cited by Fukada and Asato (2004:1998), proposes another kind of politeness that he calls discernment politeness.

2.3.9 Impoliteness

There is no agreement on how to define impoliteness (Lo Castro 2012:145). Bousfield and Locher (2008:3), however, suggest a summary definition. They perceive impoliteness as a behaviour that is face-aggravating in a particular context. Examples of such behaviour include, among others, for example, (a) spilling coffee on another customer at a café and not fail to apologise. (b) Inviting a colleague for lunch in the presence of another who is not invited. (c) Not holding a door for someone who, with her hands occupied, is following right behind you. Culperper (1996:23) agrees with Bousfield and Locher in their perception of impoliteness, for, he defines it as engaging in an aggressive face to cause social distraction. This can be done by;

a. The speaker intentionally attack face.
b. The listener perceives face attack and,

c. Both of the above.

There are two ways to conceptualise politeness. Watts (2003) and Locher (2004), as cited by Lo Castro (2012:147), label the first as politeness 1 or first order politeness. That is what is termed the folk linguistic notion that includes etiquettes. They view politeness as incorporating a prescriptive view of language use, where value judgements inform reactions to polite or impolite behaviours. The second one is labelled politeness 2 or second-order politeness and involves the theoretical concepts such as those found in Brown and Levinson' model. Watts believes that, in order to build a solid comprehensive theory of politeness, researchers need, first of all, to study what happens in everyday interactions to learn not only how politeness is done, but also how participants react to and interpret it. Words are not inherently polite. Take, for example, this utterance; 'I would like tea, please.' Watts perceives that the word 'please' does not always make the speaker's utterance 'polite' but, that, it can signal displeasure if, for example, a person yells loudly; "would you, please, turn down the music!"

Politeness and impoliteness can be used to characterise the surplus behaviour of social actors. Persons engaging in conversation may engage in marked behaviour in interactional contexts whereby they do more than what is necessary, producing polite language use or do less than expected. That results in the attitudinal label of their being impolite (Locher and Watts, 2005:122).

Lo Castro (2012:149) gives examples that testify to the fact that the assessment of what is polite and what is impolite is tricky. For instance, thanking someone for bringing a cup of coffee in some families is expected, while in others such an action could be regarded as excessive behaviour, and the person who brings tea would be viewed as polite. Various reactions to the thanking will differ according to the norms of each family. For example, the response from the person thanked could range from, 'you are welcome', 'no problem', 'next time, get your own', or else, he or she would say nothing.

While the politeness strategy is utilised to support face, which can avoid conflict, impoliteness strategies are used to attack 'face', which causes social disharmony.

Culpeper (1996: 349) refers impoliteness to communicative strategies used to attack face and, thereby, creating social disruption. The term rudeness is often used as a synonym of impoliteness. In an effort to define impoliteness, Beebe (1995:159) describes rudeness as a face threatening act, such as intonation which violates a socially sanctioned norm of interaction of the social context in which it occurs.

Impoliteness comes about when the speaker communicates face–attack intentionally. It also comes about when the hearer perceives or and constructs behaviour as intentionally face-attacking or a combination of both (Culpeper, 2005:38).

Goffman, cited by Fauziati (2014:13), likens people's 'face' to a persona which people represent in a conversation. He further claims that people's 'face' changes from situation to situation. In one situation a person might want to present the face of a good friend, whilst in another he may want to appear as a knowledgeable person (https://publikasii/miah.ums.id./.../2... (Accessed on 21.03.2016).

Being the parasite of politeness theory that impoliteness is claimed to be, impoliteness strategies are the opposite of politeness strategies, relative to face. Impoliteness constitutes the communication of intentionally gratuitous and conflictive verbal face threatening acts which are purposefully delivered. They are not mitigated, in contexts where mitigation is required and with deliberate aggression, with the face threat maximised in some way to heighten the face damage inflicted.

In the light of the above, Culpeper (1998:86) believes that the key difference between politeness and impoliteness, is a matter of intention to support face (politeness) or to attack face (impoliteness).

Culpeper classifies five (5) super-strategies of impoliteness as including:

a. Bald on record which is an unmitigated intentional face attack;
b. Positive impoliteness which is about attacking the positive face need but, not showing that you value someone. Examples for positive impoliteness include criticism, insults, disagreement, and so forth.

c. Negative impoliteness is attacking the negative face need by imposing on someone. Examples for this type of impoliteness include giving orders, making threats as well as requests.
d. Off-record uses indirect offences such as sarcasm.
e. Withhold fails to be polite when it is expected.

The above-mentioned super strategies are different from Brown and Levinson’s Bald on record in that, theirs is a polite strategy in fairly specific circumstances, for example, when the threat to the hearer’s face is minimal, as in the following instance, ‘Do sit down,’ compared to when the speaker is much more powerful than the hearer, as in the following example, ‘Stop complaining’, as in the case of the parent commanding a child. Although the face is at stake in all these cases, the attack of the face of the hearer is not intentional (Fauziati, 2014:14). The mentioned super strategies are determined by contextual factors such as power relations between speaker and listener, social distance between speaker and listener as well as by how great the threat of the face-attack act is.

In positive politeness, strategies are used to harm the addressee’s positive ‘face’ wants, by:

- Snubbing and ignoring.
- Excluding the other from an activity.
- Disassociating from the other.
- Being disinterested, unconcerned and unsympathetic.
- Use of inappropriate identity markers such as, for instance, use of surname and title when a close relationship pertains, or using a nickname when a distant relationship pertains.
- Use of secretive language-using a code known to others in the group, but not to the target.
- Use of taboo words such as abusive or profane language.
- Seeking disagreement, for instance, by selecting a sensitive topic to make the other feel uncomfortable (Culpeper, 1996:357).

In negative impoliteness, strategies are used to harm the addressee's negative 'face' wants by, for example,

- Frightening, orders, request,
- Condescend, scorn or ridicule by, for example, not treating the other seriously, by emphasising one's relative power, by belittling the other using utterances such as, 'you are hopeless,' 'you are pathetic' and so forth.
- Invading the other's space by, for instance, asking for or speaking about the information that is much more intimate, given the relationship.
- Explicitly associating the other with a negative aspect by personalising, for example, as follows; 'you can't do anything right'.
- Putting the other's indebtedness on record, with a negative aspect (Culpeper, 1996:358).

Fauziati (2014:16), citing Culpeper, *et al.* (2003) and Bousfield (2008), proposes two ways to encounter impoliteness. That is, either to respond or not to respond. In response to impoliteness, one can accept the impoliteness and submit thus, putting the situation to an end. The other way is that one may encounter impoliteness in a defensive or offensive way. The defensive way is when using defence strategies in one's defence of 'face'. The defensive strategies include direct contradiction, insincere agreement, opting out of record and ignoring the attack. In response to impoliteness acts, therefore, one can either evaluate the acts as impolite or not evaluate them as such. One can respond to them or not respond to them, at all. One can either counter or accept them or, can respond defensively or offensively (Fauziati, 2014:18)

In light of the above discussion, it has become clear that politeness, as one of the leading linguistic forms, plays a vital role in an individual's everyday speech.

2.4 THEORIES OF PRAGMATICS TEACHING

2.4.1 Introduction

The aim of this part of study is to review some of the theories of teaching methods in the history of language teaching; framing recent approaches to language teaching against the background of a general historical overview which evolves from the Grammar-Translation Method to the post-communicative period.

Teaching methods are comprised of the principles used for instruction to be implemented in order for teachers to achieve the desired learning in learners. Klapper (2001:17), citing Gebhard *et al*. (1990), argue the fact that there is no convincing evidence from pedagogic research, including research into second language instruction, that there is any universally or ‘best’ way to teach. Although, clearly, particular approaches are likely to prove more effective in certain situations, blanket prescription is difficult to support theoretically. The art of teaching does not lie in accessing a checklist of skills, but rather in knowing which approach to adopt with different students, in different curricular circumstances or in different cultural settings.

It is for that same cause that Davies (1997:77) cautions that teaching methods should be designed such that they are not only appropriate and efficient, but have to be relevant to the learners’ characteristics and to the type of learning it is supposed to bring out. He further suggests that the design and selection of teaching methods must not only take into account the nature of the subject matter, but also of how learners learn. Education is expected to be more responsive to learners’ needs and to be more concerned about how well learners are prepared to assume future societal roles. It has to be about making the environment more interactive, about integrating technology into learning experience and, over and above, it has to be about collaborative learning strategies when appropriate.

While the teacher is an authority figure in the learning and teaching environment, both teacher and learners play an equally active role in the learning process. The teacher takes on the primary role to coach and facilitate student’s learning and the overall comprehension of material. Learning is measured through both formal and informal forms of assessment, including group projects, learners’ portfolios and class participation. Teaching and assessment are connected, since learning is continuously measured during teacher instruction (http://wwwteach.com./what/tea... (Accessed on 28.05.02016).

In order to achieve its objectives, this study seeks to discuss quite a few of the teaching approaches together with some teaching methods underpinned herein namely; Demonstration, Value-based approaches, Theory-based approaches, Textbook method and awareness-raising.

2.4.2 Demonstration

Teaching methods comprise of the principles and methods used for instruction to be implemented in order for the teachers to achieve the desired learning goals. Hence, they should be designed such that they are not only appropriate and efficient, but have to be in relation with the characteristics of the learner as well as the type of learning they are supposed to bring about (http://www.gmu.edu/reso... (Accessed on 28.05.2016). David (1997:51) suggests that the design and selection of teaching methods must take into account, not only the subject matter, but also of how learners learn. David further believes that since education is expected to be more concerned about how well learners are prepared to assume future societal roles, it, therefore, has to be about making the learning environment more interactive, about integrating technology into the learning experience and about collaborative learning strategies when appropriate.

Demonstration is a traditionally essential teaching approach in supporting the learning of a skill in any level or grade and is the most supportive of all the teaching approaches (Mooney, 1990:91). It is sometimes referred to as the demonstration-performance method of instruction. It is typically used to introduce a new skill to a whole group, but it can apply, and should apply, to individuals and groups or a small group, whenever more support is needed for their learning (Alborough, 2000:1).

According to Admedemola (2016:139), this method may be very effective when properly selected and effectively used. He further asserts that demonstrations are mostly likely to be successful when teaching manipulative and operative skills, in developing understanding and in showing how to carry out new practices, as well as in securing the acceptance of new and improved ways of doing things (www.clt.astate.edu/...admedemo1a.pdf (Accessed on 28.05.2016). Demonstration may include the use of space, such as where people stand in a line or non-verbal gestures that accompany certain types of talk, such as, shaking hands during greetings or introductions (https://americanenglish.state.gov/files/ae/resourcefiles/ intro.pdf (Accessed on 06.01.2015)

In the application of the demonstration method, one should demonstrate, step-by-step, the procedures in a job task, using the exact physical procedures, if possible. While demonstrating, the teacher should explain the reason for and the significance of each step. The demonstration step gives the learners the opportunity to see and hear the details related to the skill being taught. Those details include the necessary background knowledge, the steps or procedure, and the safety precautions. The repetition step helps the average and slow learners and gives the learners, in general, an additional opportunity to see and hear the skill being taught. The performance step gives every learner an opportunity to become proficient. In short, this method is recommended because it leaves nothing to chance. For convenience, the techniques for imparting skills are presented in steps, rather than activities. When setting up an instructional plan, the teacher does not have to follow these steps in the sequence presented; instead, he may choose the steps in the sequence best suited to the needs of the learners. Although one will always include a demonstration step and a performance step, one must use judgment in selecting techniques to make the various steps effective.

A good classroom demonstration should capture the learners' interests from the start, with an appropriate introduction to the topic, reference to the intended learning outcome and some exploratory questions to establish their current knowledge and understanding. In the process of the demonstration, there should be an explanation of what is being done, as it performed neatly and systematically. Also that, action is intended to provide a good example to the learners for when they later carry out the activity themselves (www.open.edu/.../mod/.../view.php?id(Accessed on 28.05.2016). There are two general kinds of demonstration: the method demonstrations, which show how to do something, and results demonstrations, which can usually be completed in a relatively short time and are inexpensive to present. They are generally used separately and with quite different subjects, but they may, in some cases, be combined. The method demonstrations involve the materials used in what is taught, to show what is done and how it is done, and to explain each step as it is taken. On the other hand, results demonstrations are intended to show, by example, the results of some practice by means of evidence that can be seen, heard or felt (http://navy.advancement...(Accessed on 27.05.2016).

Farooq (2013:2) mentions some advantages as well as disadvantages of the Demonstration method. Its advantages are as follows:

1. The method shows by example the practical application of knowledge and it helps in involving various senses to make learning permanent (Farooq, 2013:3).
2. The demonstrative method is objective and concrete. Demonstrations present the subject matter in a way that can be easily understood. They make clear what might otherwise be vague and meaningless.
3. Even when the teacher's behaviour is autocratic, he invites the cooperation of pupils in the teaching and learning process.
4. Demonstrations attract and hold attention. This method therefore, develops interest in the learners and motivates them for their active participation.
5. It helps in achieving psycho-motor objectives (www.clt.astate.edu/...admedemo1a.pdf. (Accessed on 28.05. 2016).

Since there are two sides to everything, while the demonstration method has all of these mentioned advantages, it also has its disadvantages. Here are some of them;

a) The demonstration method is restricted to only certain kinds of situations. Also, considerable skill is required to give a good demonstration and sometimes it is not easy to find a good demonstration (www.clt.astate.edu/...admedemo1a.pdf (Accessed on 28.05.2016).
b) Demonstrations may require a large amount of preliminary preparation. The result-type of demonstration may take considerable time and be rather expensive.
c) Due to poor economic conditions of the Government schools, there is a scarcity of audio-visual aids and equipment, and the teachers are not so creative to produce handmade models for demonstration (Farooq, 2013:1).

d) There is a general lack of sincerity and lack of diligence among teachers who wish to complete the syllabus at the earliest, without putting in sincere effort.

Considering the above disadvantages of the demonstration method, Farooq (2013:2) proposes the following suggestions:

a) The teacher should be a sincere, diligent and a skilled person.
b) The teacher himself/herself should prepare models for demonstrations and encourage the learners as well.
c) A demonstration should be followed by discussion and
d) The teacher must have the ability to use the audio-visual aids with expertise.

Farooq further provides some principles that may be followed regarding the application of the demonstration method and they are, namely; learning by doing maxims, skills can be developed by limitation and, lastly, the perception helps in imitation.

2.4.3 Value–based approaches

The Value-based approach is about developing a teaching model from the values one holds about teachers, learners, classrooms, and the role of education in society (Richards and Renandya, 2002:20). For instance, a setting is value-based when it underpins all its practices and routines on a set of universal positive human values, such as respect, tolerance and peace. That means, all school policies are cross-referenced against the values of the society (http://www.valuebased... (Accessed on 05.06.2016). Certain ways of going about teaching and learning are, then, seen to be educationally justifiable and should, therefore, form the basis of teaching practice. This leads to certain approaches to teaching being viewed as politically justifiable, and, therefore, good and others are seen as not morally, ethically or politically supportable and, therefore, seen as being bad (Richards and Renandya, 2002:21).

These approaches, amongst other things, advocate for school-based curriculum development that essentially appeals to educational value systems. This includes lessons, activities and assemblies that support the learning about values. This also includes planned experiential activities that enable the children to develop an ethical vocabulary based on the values words, which build ethical intelligence. It also involves the way that teachers use the values vocabulary to reinforce learning, for instance, utterances of encouragement when learners have executed any activity well; 'well done Bongi and Cebo for showing so much cooperation when you worked together (http://www.valuesbased... (Accessed on 05.06.2016).

Some of the examples of value-based approaches in language include team teaching, humanistic approaches, the learner-centred curriculum movement and reflective teaching. Team teaching refers to the view that teachers work best when they work in collaboration with a peer, while the interaction is beneficial to both teachers and learners (Richards, 1981:15). Humanistic approaches to language teaching refer to approaches that emphasise the development of human values, growth in self-awareness and in the understanding of others. That also includes active student involvement in learning and in the way human learning takes place. Community language learning is sometimes cited as an example of a humanistic approach.

The learner centred curriculum is one of a number of terms used to refer to approaches to language teaching that are based on the belief that learners are self-directed, responsible decision-makers. Learners learn in diverse ways and are seen to have different needs and interests. Consequently, language programmes and the teachers who work in them should, therefore, provide learners with efficient learning strategies. In that way, they will be assisting learners to identify their own preferred ways of learning. This in turn results in the development of skills needed to negotiate the curriculum, to encourage learners to set their own objectives, to encourage them to adopt realistic goals and time-frames and, finally, to develop learners' skills in self-evaluation (https://www.researchgate.net/...2651995... (Accessed on 09.10. 2015).

Reflective teaching is an approach to teaching that is based on the assumption that teachers can improve their understanding of teaching and the quality of their own teaching by reflecting critically on their own teaching experiences. Activities that seek to develop a reflective approach to teaching aim to develop the skills of considering the teaching process thoughtfully, analytically and objectively in order to improve classroom practices. This comes about through using procedures which require teachers to collect information on their teaching practices by means of video recordings. It also comes about by examining their own values and assumptions about teaching by means of peer group discussion or observation of videos.

Regarding the reflective theory, Richards (2015:42) proposes skills essential for teaching as being;

1. The understanding of values behind the approach.
2. The selection of only those educational means which conform to the values.
3. The monitoring of the implementation process to ensure that the value system is maintained.

2.4.4 Theory-based approach

The understanding underlying many teaching methods can be characterised as theory-based or naturalistic in approach. That is suggestive of the fact that the theory underlying the method is ascertained through the use of a rational thought. This, therefore, means that systematic and principled thinking is used to support the method rather than it being based on experimentation. These conceptions of teaching defend themselves through logical argumentation, rather than drawing results from classroom results. Communicative language teaching is one of the examples of theory-based approaches.

According to Richards, as cited by Cummings (2005:42), communicative language teaching arose as a reaction to grammar-based approaches to teaching, realised in teaching materials, syllabi and teaching methods in the 1960s. This approach was first proposed in the 1970s. Since its inception, it has served as a major source of influence on language teaching practice world-wide. It was often described as a principled approach. The goal of the communicative approach is the teaching of communicative competence. Communicative competence includes:

1. Knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes and, functions.
2. Knowing how to vary the use of language according to the setting and according to the audience, whether it is proper to use formal or informal

speech, up to written communication.

3. Knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts, such as, conversations, interviews, and so on.
4. Knowing how to maintain communication, irrespective of having limitations in knowing one's language.

The aim of the communicative approach was also to apply it across all levels of language programmes design, from theory to syllabus design and to teaching techniques. Those advocating for it never produced any evidence to demonstrate that learning is more successful if communicative teaching methods and materials were adopted. Communicative competence was considered enough to justify the approach (Richards, 2006:7).

Today language learning is viewed from a different perspective than before when, primarily, the views of language learning were focussed on the mastery of the grammatical competence. It is now seen as resulting from processes such as an interaction between the learner and users of the language. It is also seen as a collaborative creation of meaning, as creating meaningful and purposeful interaction through language, negotiation of meaning as the learner and his interlocutor arrive at an understanding. Savignon (2013:4) criticises negotiation of meaning for lack of accuracy, citing the fact that it does not provide a universal scale for assessment of individual learners.

Language learning is also seen as learning through attending to the feedback, as learners get into the process of using language. Respectively, the communicative approach is about paying attention to the language one hears. It is also about trying to incorporate new forms of language into one's developing communicative competence. Lastly, it is viewed as being about trying out and experimenting with different ways of saying things.

The most essential skill for teaching is, firstly, to understand the theory and its principles. Secondly, to select syllabi, materials and tasks based on the theory. Thirdly, to monitor one's teaching to see that it conforms to the theory (Cummings 2005:44). It is in that regard that Klapper (2001:17) points out that the art of teaching does not lie in accessing a checklist of skills, but rather in knowing which approach to adopt with different learners in different cultural settings.

2.4.5 The communicative language teaching approach

Activities are based on cooperative learning, rather than on individualistic learning. Learners have to participate in classroom activities and have to engage in pair work tasks, rather than relying on the teacher for a model. They have to take a greater degree of responsibility for their own learning. On the other hand, teachers have to assume the role of a facilitator and monitor. Richards (2006:8) is of the opinion that teachers should no longer have to be models for correct speech and writing and carry the responsibility of making learners produce plenty of error-free sentences. Instead, they have to develop a different view of a learner's error and, his role in facilitating language.

Savignon (2013:3) does not fully agree with Richards regarding learners working in groups and giving group tasks. She cites the fact that class work in groups have been found to be helpful as a way of increasing the opportunity and motivation for communication. Savignon, therefore, does not believe that classroom work in groups should be considered an essential feature as it may well be inappropriate in some contexts.

The communicative language teaching approach has moved away from traditional lessons formats, where focus was on mastery of grammar and practice through controlled activities, such as memorisation of dialogues and drills. This approach has moved towards the use of role plays and, project work. Grammar-based methodologies such as p. p. p cycle (presentation-practice-and production) have given way to functional and skills based teaching. Accuracy activities such as drill and grammar practice have been replaced by fluency activities based on interactive small group work. As a result, a "fluency first" pedagogy emerged. Through its emergence, learners' grammar needs are determined on the basis of performance of fluency tasks, rather than being predetermined by a grammatical syllabus (Brumfit, 1984:57).

In an attempt to develop the learners' communicative ability, Brock and Nagasaka (2005:17-26) recommend that teachers adopt a concept in a form of an acronym which they call S.U.R.E. This acronym is meant to guide teachers to help the learners to see language in context, to raise consciousness of the role of appropriate language-use and explain the function that pragmatic language plays in specific communicative events, to review and experience pragmatics in the classroom. A good example for this is in the teaching of requests. For instance, a teacher may first ask the learners what common requests they make in the classroom. The teacher may then elicit the language of requests from the learners and then introduce the politeness continuum using a table. Below are examples of such requests:

Indirect: My pencil is broken.
Direct: Lend me a pencil
Polite: Could I borrow your pencil, please? / Do you mind lending me a pencil?
Familiar: It would be terrific if I could borrow your pencil.
Once the teacher has explained and illustrated the politeness continuum, the teacher can then let the learners make requests of each other using an activity sheet similar to the one below:

1. Polite: Ask a classmate to lend you a calculator. Measure this paper and write the width together with the classmate's name here______________________________.

2. Familiar: Ask a classmate to lend you a calculator. Write his name here________________________________

3. Indirect: Ask a classmate to lend you his pencil. Write his name here________________________________

4. Polite: Ask a classmate to sign his name here____________________________

The teacher should then discuss appropriateness and conduct the politeness act during a review, at the conclusion of this activity, in order to make sure that learners are indeed more aware of the role of pragmatics when making requests.

Teachers can develop activities through which learners can use their language in context, where they choose how they interact, based on their understanding of the situation suggested by the activity.

Olshtain and Cohen (1991:22) suggest role plays, drama and mini-dialogues in which learners have a choice of what to say. They believe that such an action provides learners with opportunities to practice and develop a wide range of pragmatic abilities. Below are examples of such dialogues:

A: ‘I really like your shirt.’
B: This old thing? It’s about to tear apart.’
A: ‘Wow! What a great car!’
B: ‘Yeah, I love it even if I did pay too much for it.’

Following these activities, the teacher should instruct the learners to partner up in order to develop two mini dialogues that contain a compliment followed by a response. The teacher should also encourage role play so as to adjust what they say, based on the relationship with their interlocutor. The role plays can be performed for the whole class in order for learners to observe how the language and communicative strategies that are used are affected by the relationship people have with the person with whom they are interacting. Olshtain and Cohen also suggest that teachers should review, reinforce and recycle the lessons previously taught. They further highlight the importance of using the target language for classroom management, citing that doing so provides an opportunity for learners to review how target language is used in the context for real communicative purposes. Using the target language for classroom management takes the language out of it all-too-common role as an abstract lifeless linguistic system to study, and places it in the role of a real-life, breathing communication system. The other means of teaching language in the classroom is for teachers to use video programmes, films and even television shows. They can provide an excellent resource for experiencing and analysing language use in specific contexts.

2.4.6 Textbook approach

Textbooks are key components in most language programmes. In some situations, they serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom. They may provide the basis for the content of the lessons, the balance of skills taught and the kinds of language practice the students take part in. In other situations, the textbook may serve primarily to supplement the teachers' instruction (Shankulie, 2012:6).

Allwright (1981), as cited by Reyandra and Richards (2002:80), points out two key positions with regard to the role of textbooks in the classroom. The first one is the deficiency view, where textbooks are seen to be compensating for the teachers' deficiencies. Textbooks do this by ensuring that the syllabus is covered, using well thought out exercises. The assumption here is that teachers do not need published materials as good teachers always know what materials to use with a given class. And over and above, teachers are able to create such materials. This view causes them to have mixed feelings concerning commercial materials. The second view is the difference view, which sees materials as carriers of decisions best made by someone other than the teacher because of the differences in expertise.

Allwright, however, asserts that materials may contribute to both goals and content, while they cannot determine either. What is learnt and learnable is the product of the interaction between learners, teachers and the materials at their disposal. It is in light of the above that Stodolsky (1989:176) believes that mistrust of the textbooks may be exaggerated. Stodolsky bases this belief on the fact that teachers are autonomous regarding textbook use. It is likely, therefore, that only a minority of them really follow the text in the–page-by-page manner suggested in literature. Appropriate textbooks may actually assist inexperienced teachers to come to terms with content and ways of dealing with different learners. It is for that reason that there is a need for more research into the dynamics of textbook use (Reyandra and Richards, 2002:82), citing Nemser (1988).

Several teachers argue for the use of published educational materials on the basis that materials are better and cheaper in terms of cost and effort and that which teachers can produce consistently in the time available to them (Mc Donough and Shaw, 1993:64).

Apparently, Reyandra and Richards support Allwright's view when they confirm that commercial materials incapacitate teachers and rob them of their capacity to think professionally and respond to their learners' needs. To them these materials are misleading in that the contrived (artificial) language they contain has little to do with reality. On the other hand, Reyandra and Richards perceive the role of these materials as potential and positive in that they can, for example, be a useful form of professional development for teachers. These materials can also foster autonomous learning strategies in students. The issue should not be so much whether teachers should use commercially prepared materials such as textbooks, but rather what form these should take so that the outcomes are positive for both the teachers and the learners.

Hutchinson and Torres (1994: 316) believe that textbooks reduce the teacher's role to one of managing and overseeing pre-planned events. They cite an event where a claim once emerged on the internet from one participant in a discussion about textbooks. That participant viewed textbooks as being for poor teachers, those without imagination.

Reyandra and Richards (2002:82) criticise published materials like textbooks, citing the fact that they make decisions that could be made by teachers or students. Nun (1981), as cited by Reyandra and Richards, is not happy either with the fact that textbooks fail to present appropriate and realistic language models. Textbooks fail to address discourse competence (Kaplan and Knutson (1993) cited by Reyandra and Richards, 2002:82).

Hutchinson and Torres (1994: 320) do not completely condemn the use of textbooks when they view it as a possible agent for change. They believe that, firstly, a textbook needs to be a vehicle for teacher and learner training. The textbook should also include appropriate learning-how-to-learn suggestions. Secondly, the textbook must provide support and help with classroom management, thus freeing the teacher to cope with new content and procedures. Thirdly, the textbook will become an agent for change, if it provides the teacher with a clear picture of what the change will look like and, clear practical guidance on how to implement it in the classroom.

Stodosky's study on the use of textbooks has proven that teachers frequently make instruction more teacher-centred. They eliminate group projects and the use of exploratory, hands-on activities, as well as those that focus on higher order mental processes. Stodolsky fears that textbook writers' aims may be overridden by the teachers' implementation skills (Stodolsky, 1989:178).

Reyandra and Richards (2002:83-84) are of the view that a textbook's role as a structuring tool is often overlooked. They believe that textbooks survive and prosper primarily because they are a most convenient means of providing the structure that the teaching and learning system requires, change, in particular. Textbooks do not drive the teaching process but, they do provide the structure and predictability that is necessary to make the event socially tolerable to the participants. A textbook, therefore, serves as a useful plan of what is intended and expected. It allows the participants to see where a lesson fits into the wider context of the language programme.

This significant action becomes important when it allows for:

1) Negotiation, which means that textbooks can actually contribute by providing something to negotiate about. This can include teacher and learner roles, as well as content and learning strategies.
2) Accountability, the textbook shows everyone concerned what is being done in the closed ephemeral world of the classroom.
3) Orientation, meaning that teachers and learners need to know what is happening elsewhere, what standards are expected and how much work should be covered.

The point here is not about whether teachers should or should not use the textbook, but what form materials of that nature should take, if they are to contribute positively to teaching and learning.

Citing Nemser (1985), Reyandra and Richards (2002:82) caution language teachers to use textbooks only as a resource. They claim that a textbook is an undesirable way of teaching. Teaching materials are not neutral and so, they will have a role to play in deciding what is learnt. Educational material writers should, therefore, be familiar with the learning and teaching styles and contexts of those likely to use their materials.

2.4.7 The role of textbooks in pragmatics teaching

It has been established through recent studies that textbooks contain little explicit information about pragmatics. For instance, how difference in relative social status influences the level of politeness in language. There are few discussions, for example, on the intended meaning as opposed to the literal meaning, on politeness, appropriateness and what could constitute appropriate usage. The range and number of speech acts contained in textbooks is fairly limited. Their treatment is largely unsatisfactorily, with little contextual information and explicit attention to issues related to pragmatics (Cohen and Ishihari, 2010:148).

Textbook dialogues may, at times, sound awkward. Dialogues of that nature are inauthentic, in the sense that they do not represent spontaneous pragmatics used in natural conversation. Instead, they may reflect idealised examples of common pragmatic routines.

The pragmatic content in textbooks is found to be limited in terms of the amount of information on pragmatics, the range of situations, as well as the speech act expression included. The information included does not appear to be learner-friendly, nor does it seem to trigger any noticing of the relationship between the linguistic forms used and the content in which these forms appear. In other cases, with textbooks utilising a functional syllabus, a list of formulaic expressions may be provided but little information is found in textbooks. The problem here is lack of knowledge on how to use them, in what situation they are appropriate, and to whom the expression can be addressed. Textbook coverage on requests is always associated with the grammatical structures and modals such as ‘could’, ‘would’ and ‘may.’ An example of that could be seen in the following utterance, ‘Could I please, have a glass of water?' Textbooks tend to neglect the presentation of modifiers that would normally occur, either before or after the request utterance. They also tend to misrepresent naturally occurring greetings and they are insufficient for developing learners' pragmatic ability (Cohen and Ishihari, 2010:149).

It has been found that there is a mismatch between textbook representations of speech acts and their spontaneous realisation. Most textbooks focus only on direct complaints as expression of negative evaluation and dissatisfaction about someone in their presence. They sometimes do a disservice, as they fail to teach the positive rapport-building function of complaining, with regard to the teaching of direct and indirect complaints.

Lo Castro (2012:246) is of the view that textbooks and other kinds of material may misrepresent the target language culture and its social rules of speaking. They are often not based on naturally occurring language research on everyday talk. This may result in the distortion of the rules of speaking and, in particular, politeness norms. Textbooks should be accessible to learners. Accessibility means that the lessons and practice sessions are connected to learners' daily lives in and outside of the classroom.

Finally, Cohen and Ishihari (2010:150) suggest that language teachers should not rely necessarily on the commercially marketed learner textbooks alone. They are advised to use their discretion in their efforts to select materials that mirror a range of pragmatic uses to a reasonable degree. They should supplement and replace the existing materials with more authentic and varied examples when necessary.

2.5 FIRST LANGUAGE PRAGMATICS TEACHING VERSUS SECOND LANGUAGE PRAGMATICS TEACHING

The teaching of pragmatics is necessary whether it be to first Language learners or to Second Language Learners. This is important since pragmatic language learners alike, have to know how words and utterances can be assigned specific meanings in context and function, as per the intention (De la O Hernandez-Lopez, 2014:13). While pragmatics language learners may have knowledge of the meaning of lexical items and how to use them figuratively, they should also have functional knowledge, which is knowledge of how to relate utterances to the speaker's intentions and sociolinguistic knowledge (Celce-Murcia, *et. al*., 1995:9). It is for that reason it is deemed necessary for First and Second language teaching that, it should include all the pragmatic factors that affect interaction, in order to obtain satisfactory results when learners use language in real contexts (Kasper, *et. al.* 2001:234).

Celce-Murcia *et al.* (1995:9) are of the view that, pragmatic language teaching should be more comprehensive by including amongst other things:

1. The teaching of the mastery of the linguistic code of language that is being taught, and is called grammatical competence.
2. Knowing the sociocultural rules of the use of the First and or Second language
3. Being able to produce unified written or spoken texts in terms of cohesion and coherence.
4. The ability to command certain verbal and non-verbal devices, in order to compensate for possible communication breakdowns, as well as, to enhance communication.

2.5.1 First Language pragmatics teaching

Kasper (1997:1) believes that pragmatic language learners possess the competence and that competence can be developed, acquired, used or it can be lost. For that reason, pragmatics language teaching is about encouraging first language learners to realise that their language also has "secret rules" that they have to learn and observe, for successful communication (http://www.03-41-3-h (Accessed on 12. 01.2017).

While first language learners are expected to demonstrate a high level of competency as native speakers of the language, they, however, show some significant difference in the execution and comprehension of quite a number of pragmatic aspects of their language. Learners may, therefore, be native speakers of a particular language and still lack the social rules to be followed when talking to others. Amongst other factors, this could be due to exposure to various languages through various kinds of media. It is for this reason that, the instruction is deemed important, since, without it, differences show up in the target language of learners, regardless of their language background or proficiency. Hence, a learner of high grammatical proficiency, for instance, will not necessarily, show equivalent pragmatic development (Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor, 2003:38).

Since pragmatic competence is concerned with the ability to bridge the gap between the sentence-meaning and the speaker-meaning, in order to interpret the indirectly expressed communicative intention, language learners, whether they are native or non-native speakers, need to be taught inferencing (Jung, 2002:4). Amongst other things, First Language pragmatics teaching should strive to raise the learners' awareness of a set of rational and universal principles and they have to be taught on how to observe such principles that are needed for successful communication which are cooperative principles. By so doing, the learners shall learn to draw correct inferences (Carrell, 1984:1).

First Language pragmatics teaching aims at developing pragmatics competence by using competence development strategies in the form of language socialisation. For instance, metaphoric intelligence seems to contribute to the development of communicative strategies and, the study of metaphors can help to understand extensive meanings in other languages. That could develop strategic skills in communication (De la O Hernandez-Lopez, 2014:19). Teaching should encourage learners to acquire sociocultural knowledge by participating in language-mediated daily interactions which transmit important sociocultural values. For example, teaching learners the appropriate behaviour governing an immediate social interaction. This can be done by providing metapragmatic information on the social norms that are shared by the members of the society. Learners can, therefore, be taught to be competent members of society by metapragmatic instruction (Yung, 2002:12).

2.5.2 Second Language pragmatics teaching

For Second Language teaching, the role of the teacher is that of a mediator of the socialisation process. That could be ascribed to the fact that, Second Language learners place importance on grammatical development and have problems with sociocultural implicature (www.academia.edu>pragmaticsinlanguage_in_language... (Accessed on 06.01. 2018).

Rose (2005:388) believes that, for Second Language teaching, aspects of pragmatics such as cognitive aspects should be highly considered since such aspects may help on how pragmatics is internalised or influences Second Language comprehension performance. Teaching should also, emphasise more on how the formal structure of the Second Language is controlled in order for the learners to be able to produce or recognise grammatically correct sentences and be able to organise them in texts (de la O Hernandez-Lopez, 2014:). According to Rose (2005:389), matters to be taken into account in order to deal with pragmatic aspects of Second Language are, amongst other things, methodological matters associated with the use of new technologies.

While the primary goal of teaching pragmatics is to raise learners' pragmatic awareness and also, to give them choices about their interactions, the goal of instruction in pragmatics is to help learners to become familiar with the range of pragmatic devices and practices in the target language. Subsequently, with such instruction, learners can maintain their own cultural identities and participate more fully in target language communication with more control over both intended force and the outcome of their contribution (http://www.03-41-3-h (Accessed on 12. 01.2017).

2.5.3 Similarities between First Language and Second Language teaching

Teaching and learning must include all the pragmatic factors that affect interaction, in order to obtain satisfactory results when learners use language in real contexts.

In both the First language and Second Language teaching, cultural and contextual aspects of the language should not be ignored. This refers to cognitive aspects that may help understand how pragmatics is internalised or influences learners' second language's comprehension and performance and, amongst other things, methodological matters such as, the use of new technologies to deal with pragmatic aspects.

First Language and Second Language teaching have a common aim, to code meaning in order to use language to express or to accomplish a certain function such as, for example, requesting something. The aim is also, to use language in order to create and maintain social relations. Pragmatics teaching should concern itself with teaching awareness of the differences in the linguistic forms that the first language and the second language use in realising pragmatic strategies (Jung, 2002:3).

In order to develop pragmatics competence, learners have to be taught the ability to interpret figurative language. That should be done taking into consideration the fact that, interpretation differs from culture to culture, irrespective of the equity of the learners' language norms of conversation. For instance, First Language learners may be informative whilst the Second Language learners may be less informative even when they have access to the necessary information. Tasks to develop metaphoric language, for instance, could be in daily language mediated interactions that transmit important sociocultural values to the learners. Some tasks should aim at socialising the learners into becoming competent conversation partners. They could be taught how to appropriately convey their feelings as well as, to recognise other's feelings since being sensitive to the needs of others has a direct impact on social relationships (Jung, 2002:12).

For both first and second language teaching, communicative approach serves the objective of developing learners' pragmatic competence well. It encourages teaching without published textbooks since it focuses on conversational communication among learners and the teacher (Medding, 2004:1). Teaching should be conversation driven and grammar should be the natural part of the lesson. Teaching should be done using only the resources that teachers and students bring to the classroom. According to Thornbury 2000), teaching should react to opportunities for language learning (https://auckland.r.l.talis.com>items (Accessed on 18.12.2018).

2.5.4 Differences between First Language teaching and Second Language teaching

One of the differences between First Language and Second Language teaching is in the pragmatic production and perception in the target language. This happens if the Second Language learners do not receive instruction in pragmatics teaching. Taguchi (2018:23) commends instruction and the pivotal role it plays in pragmatic development. In his attempt to emphasise the importance of instruction in pragmatics teaching, Taguchi further explains the effectiveness of explicit instruction, especially when it involves direct metapragmatic information and production practice of pragmatic forms. Meanwhile, implicit instruction can be effective if instruction tasks promote noticing of pragmatic features. Some of those pragmatic features are, for example, having learners respond to input or compare examples to induce the rules behind those examples.

Both First Language and Second Language learners may have access to the same speech acts and realisations strategies but, they can differ in the strategies that they choose. Second language learners have to be aware of second language sociocultural constraints on speech acts in order to be pragmatically competent (Jung, 2002:2).

Regarding the teaching of functional discourse, with Second Language learners, teaching, amongst other things, should raise learners' ability to determine whether it is acceptable to perform a particular speech act at all, in a given situation. If it is acceptable, it should raise the learners' ability to select the semantic formula that would be appropriate in the realisation of the given speech ability. Therefore, a choice of appropriate pragmatic strategies is vital for speech act ability Cohen, 1996:254).

Unlike in First Language teaching, Second Language pragmatic development should take into account both the intra-learner, psychological and the inter-learner, sociocultural aspects of learning. This is due to the unresolved conflict between the Second Language norms of speaking and the learners' needs and beliefs about the ways of being in the world and hence Jung, (2002:1) proposes that pragmatic teaching should focus on intercultural competence involving the learner's continuous identity and attitude formation rather than the acquisition of prescribed behavioural rules of speaking.

For First Language teaching, learner-centred discourse provides learners with more opportunities for negotiation of the classroom for behaviour than a teacher-centred discourse does (Jung, 2002:11). Teacher-Fronted Routine is a suitable teaching strategy for second language teaching since it provides the learners with the opportunity to practice through the teacher's scaffolding and, thus promotes development. Activities such as teacher-fronted discussions, cooperative grouping and role-plays are suitable for Second Language teaching. Additional to that, teacher's directives and informative instruction are necessary to which the learners can react to, in order to show their understanding of the teacher's teaching. Consequently, feedback should be provided by the teacher in order to display attitude, comments or evaluation in the light of pedagogical goals (Jung 2002:11).

For First Language learners, being taught the ability to interpret figurative speech alone is not enough. Teaching should strive to develop learners' metaphoric language. It should also enhance the inferencing skill intensively, since they are native speakers of the language. Additional to the kinds of tasks that may consequently, enhance the learners' levels of competence in social conversations and those that may assert them enough to be able to convey their feelings appropriately, being sensitive to others' needs, First Language teaching should amongst other things, include demonstration which is very ideal for non-verbal communication. Learners could demonstrate, for example, displeasure, disagreement, and agreement by shaking the head (Jung, 2002:4).

First Language teaching activities should, amongst other things, include instructions and tasks for developing metaphoric language (Jung, 2002:19). In isiXhosa Home language, an instruction could include the demonstration of the use of antithesis combined with non-verbal communication. In carrying out such an instruction, learners could role-play. For example, when the mother-in-law gossips about her lazy daughter-in-law in her presence, she can say, "ukhuthele ke khona ukoti wam" (my daughter-in-law is a hard-worker) and that, while every gesture she makes indicates that, she actually means that her “umakoti” (daughter-in-law) is a very lazy person.

During role-play, learners could be encouraged to use metaphoric language in the form of euphemism. Speech utterances that would otherwise sound like this, “utata ubuye enxilile phezolo” (Yesterday my father came back home drunk) could be expressed in a softer tone to sound like this, “utata ubuye emnandana phezolo.” Bardovi-Harlig, et al (2003:6) suggests that lessons should make use of original or genuine language samples for authenticity. For example, the use of extracts from isiXhosa literature in preparation for lessons on interpretation activities, in an isiXhosa Home language class. The reason behind this is to give learners something to build on. For debates, for instance, teaching should emphasise the development of conversational management techniques, for conversational openings and the closing of deals within the boundaries of the conversation (Bardovi-Harlig, *et al.* 2003:8).

2.6 CONCLUSION

In an endeavour to achieve its objectives, a wide range of literature was reviewed in this chapter. The purpose of the review was to find out what the existing literature is saying concerning this study’s problem regarding learners’ lack of pragmatic competency, relative to the pragmatics teaching on the development of their linguistic competence. This has significance because different researchers have different views on the causes of learners’ pragmatic incompetency and this study will take those different views into consideration in order to better understand the problem in question.

Linguistics is viewed as a scientific study of language with three aspects to it; the form, the meaning and the context. It is, therefore, a study of knowledge systems on how, for example, the knowledge system is structured, on how it is acquired, how it is used in the production and comprehension of messages and how it changes over time. Amongst the number of linguistic subfields of the part of language that is concerned with the structure of language, is pragmatics.

Some researchers view pragmatics as a branch of linguistics concerned with the use of language in social contexts and the ways in which people produce and comprehend meanings through language. To them, pragmatics is about focussing on what is explicitly stated and how one interprets utterances in situational contexts. This focus is needed if one wants a fuller, deeper and more reasonable account of human language behaviour.

The development of pragmatic competence requires, amongst other things, the effort of language professionals and course-book writers to focus on this aspect of language learning when planning a syllabus. Priority should be given to the production of language other than to the reproduction of grammar structures.

Some recommend two ways of teaching language, namely; having meaning as the focus of the teaching and having form as the focus in the language classroom. The communicative approach is preferred, as it provides learners with the negotiation of meaning while they communicate to accomplish the task. Giving learners more tasks that encourage practice of samples of language they are exposed to is highly recommended. The development of pragmatic awareness in the classroom is viewed to be necessary, as it provides learners with samples of original language in real situations. In that way, learners can have an idea of what is expected of them in particular contexts.

Some view meaning in a natural language, as being a question of how the speaker uses words within the language to express intention. Certain scholars perceive a distinction between the speaker's meaning and semantic meaning, the speaker's meaning being what the speaker intends to refer to when saying something, while the semantic meaning is what the utterance means. Sometimes the words do not actually express what the speaker intends them to, and, in that case, the meaning of the expression becomes ambiguous.

The referential meaning, the psychological meaning and the social meaning are what make meaning to become a three-part approach. These approaches are interrelated and, therefore, cannot exist in isolation. Conversational implicature can be discussed as being about what is meant, what is said, what is implicated, as being non-conventional, but conversational and, lastly, being general and particular.

Conversations are usually cooperative enterprises. They are principles of rational behaviour that dictate to the participants in a conversation to cooperate in order to achieve the goal of their conversation. In that process, they follow four guidelines, namely; the conversational maxims. Conversational maxims often come into conflict. For instance, one party to the conversation may be caught between saying something less informative than is desired and, therefore, violating quantity. Some researchers question the role of maxims as guides of interpretation of speaker meaning, due to the fact that activities such as media interviews have their own norms that influence the processing of pragmatic meaning.

Two distinct theories are favoured, one for the generalised cases and one for the particularised cases. Some theorists, on the other hand, reject it, calling it ‘an artefact of the inventiveness of analysis or lack thereof.’ They believe that while the generalised implicatures are more context-independent than particularised implicatures, they, however, are still context-dependent.

One of the studies that have had profound effects on the study of pragmatics is politeness. Politeness theory was developed in 1978 and is based on the concept that people have a social self-image that they consciously project and try to protect. This sense of self-image is referred to as “face.” Politeness can either be positive or negative face. Others criticise the notion of negative politeness for being too simplistic and individualistic. Instead, they prefer alternative theories of negative politeness that put labels on how exactly impolite speech causes offence, for example, by using a taboo word, by classifying the hearer as belonging to a stigmatized group or not belonging to the in-group, and so forth. Alongside the politeness theory there is also impoliteness. Some see it as being repeated bullying situations expressed through language.

Also discussed in this chapter, are theories of teaching methods that carry principles used for instructions to be implemented in order for teachers to achieve the desired learning. Some of those teaching methods, for example, are the demonstration method, which is sometimes referred to as the demonstration-performance method of instruction. It is a perfect method to be used for the introduction of a new skill to a group. It can apply to individuals, as well as to small groups, whenever more support is needed for learning. An approach that is value-based is one that encourages that all school policies are cross-referenced against the values of the society. With Theory-based approaches, the theory underlying the method is ascertained through the use of rational thought.

While textbooks have, for the most part, been criticised, amongst other things, for not giving learners tools to recognise and analyse language in a variety of contexts, they are, however, considered to be the most important tool used in the classroom.

Based on the review of the literature, it is clear that there is a gap in the knowledge that is the subject of this study which has not been studied.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of Chapter Three is to explain the research strategies used to address issues raised in Chapter Two and, in particular, to address the questions that were raised in Chapter One. Its focus, therefore, is on the tools and the procedures that were used in investigating the effects of pragmatics teaching on the development of learners' linguistic competence. The methods employed are presented and their use justified. It is in the interest of this study to employ both qualitative as well as quantitative paradigms in order to achieve its desired objective. Over and above, this study used the above-mentioned paradigms as they are naturally designed to yield the kind of results that are explicitly and statistically indicative of the true reflection of things, relevant to the learners' pragmatic competency. In short, it is of vital importance to employ a paradigm of this nature, so that every stakeholder within the education sector can work collectively to ensure the reinforcement of pragmatic competence.

While it has been previously emphasised that this study was more of a qualitative nature and yet, quantitative in approach, the quantitative feature became instrumental at the sampling stage. This stage is the one that details the number of participants, and the number of representatives per gender as well as the number of items prepared for questionnaires, and so forth.

Apart from the discussion of the appropriateness of the research design, the study presented the population and sampling procedures as well as data collection, analysis and interpretation methods. Details of adherence to ethical considerations, the quality assurance measures used and the limitations of the study were also provided.

3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGMS

It is of vital importance when carrying out research to understand the researcher's philosophy. The term research philosophy relates to the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007:107). It is the aim of this research to develop knowledge concerning the debate around the matter of learner competency in correlation with the effectiveness of pragmatics teaching within the field of linguistics.

Mertens (2005:2) views the research paradigm as an inquiry whereby data is collected, analysed and interpreted in a certain way in an effort to understand, describe, predict and control educational or psychological phenomena or to empower individuals in such contexts.

Without nominating a specific paradigm as the first step for a research, there is no basis for subsequent choices regarding methodology, methods, and so on. Paradigms influence the way knowledge is studied and interpreted (Borgdan and Biklen, 1998:22). Hence, this study briefly discusses the selection of a paradigm alongside research design.

Guba and Lincoln (1994:105) define paradigms as the basic belief system or world view that guides the investigation, not only in choices of method, but also in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways. During the past century, different paradigms have emerged due to the remarkable growth in social sciences research (Dash, 2005:1). Amongst others, are the main philosophical perspectives to the verification of theoretical propositions, namely, positivism, realism, pragmatism and interpretivist or naturalistic inquiry (Saunders, *et al.*, 2007:108). Healy and Perry (2000:118) agree with Guba and Lincoln (1994:105) in their claim that, each paradigm has its own methodology: methodological trustworthiness, analytical generalisation and construct validity, ontology: ontological appropriateness and contingent validity, and epistemology: the multiple perceptions of participants and of peer researchers, and uses specific research strategies and data analysis techniques.

Kuhn (1962), as cited by Dash (2005:1), is known for creating the term “paradigm”. He characterises a paradigm as an integrated cluster of substantive concepts, variables and problems attached with corresponding methodological approaches and tools. Saunders *et al.* (2007:128) mention three major ways of thinking about research philosophies; Ontology, epistemology and axiology. Guba (1990), as cited by Patel (2015:2), adds that paradigms can be characterised through their ontology which questions what reality is, epistemology, which questions how people get to know about something and the methodology, which is about how to go about finding it out. Axiology is a branch of philosophy that studies judgements about value. The role that the researcher’s values play in all stages of the research process is of great importance if he/she wishes his/her research results to be credible. Guba further claims that ontology and epistemology create a holistic view of how knowledge is viewed and how we can see ourselves in relation to this knowledge, as well as the methodological strategies we use to discover or uncover it. He further argues that awareness of philosophical assumptions increases the quality of research and can contribute to the creativity of the researcher.

Mertens (2005:7) recommends the essentiality for a researcher to choose a paradigm that suits the purpose of the research being undertaken. Hence, this study is underpinned on the Interpretivist-contructivist paradigm, firstly, for being the basis for educational and psychological evaluation. Secondly, the researcher relied on participants’ views of the situation being studied and recognised the impact of the research in terms of their own background and experiences (Creswell, 2003: 8). The participants had their opinions and feelings about pragmatics teaching, since the Interpretivist-constructivist approach to research has the intention of understanding the world of human experience (Cohen and Manion, 1994:36). Remeyi, Money and Swartz (2005:104) share the same opinion with Martens (2005:12) in their view of reality as a socially constructed phenomenon, whereby the subjective observer is part of what is observed.

Interpretivism advocates that it is necessary for the researcher to understand the differences between humans in their role as social actors. Therefore, people interpret their everyday social roles in accordance with the meaning they give to those roles.

Furthermore, people interpret others' social roles in accordance with own their set of meanings (Saunders, *et al*., 2007:116). Hence, this study should try to understand what is happening in the teaching and learning of pragmatic language, and view each situation in its totality.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is an overall strategy in which the researcher chooses to integrate the different components of the study in a coherent and logical manner. The reasoning behind that is to ensure the effective address of the research problem. A research design constitutes a detailed plan for the collection, measurement and the analysis of data (De Vaus, 2001:6).

Yin (1989), cited by De Vaus (2001:9), is of the opinion that a research design deals with a logical problem and not a logistical one and should, therefore, be treated as a logical structure of enquiry. It focuses on the logic of the research, as to what evidence is required to address the question adequately. Research design forms a sequence that connects the empirical data to a study's original research questions and to the conclusion thereof. It reflects the purpose of inquiry that can be characterised as one or more of the following: exploration, description, prediction, evaluation and history. It also focuses on the end product, in terms of what kind of study is being planned and what kind of results are aimed at, for example, comparative, interpretative or exploratory study, inductive and deductive, and so forth (Van Wyk, 2016:3). Summarily, it can be said that research design defines the study type. All research is interpretive; it is guided by the researcher's set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied (Denzin and Lincoln 2008: 22).

The central role of the research design is to minimise the chance of drawing incorrect causal deductions from data. When designing research, it is essential that the type of evidence required to answer the research questions in a convincing manner is identified. That means that, research needs to be structured in such a way that the evidence also bears on alternative explanations. It also needs to enable the researcher to identify which of the competing explanations is most compelling empirically (www.nyu.edu/classes/.../005847ch.1.pdf (Accessed on 12.12.2016).

The research design's logical plan makes it possible for the researchers to navigate their way from the beginning of their study up to the end, when they present their findings and make recommendations thereof. This study used a test as a data collection instrument, in order to determine the extent of learners' pragmatic awareness. Likewise, questionnaires were used to find out the extent of teachers' effectiveness of their pragmatics teaching to develop learners' linguistic competence. The reason, therefore, is to ensure that the evidence obtained enables the researcher to effectively address the research problem logically and as unambiguously as possible.

3.3.1 Mixed Methods

This study considered it to be of vital importance to use the mixed method approaches of both qualitative and quantitative research. This was done to enhance the study's research design of choice as well as to better understand the concept being explored. Another reason for mixing both kinds of data within this study was due to the fact that neither the quantitative nor the qualitative methods are sufficient by themselves to capture the trends and the details of a situation (Ivankova, Creswell and Stick, 2006:3). Over and above, this enabled the researcher to present a holistic picture of the study at hand.

Mixed methods approach is the general term for when both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures are used in a research design. Citing the "Journal of Mixed Methods" (2006), Cameron (2011:96) takes this argument a step further when he defines mixed methods as research in which the investigator collects, analyses, mixes, and draws conclusions from both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or programme of inquiry. Meanwhile, Bazeley (2004:4) citing Caracelli and Greene (1997) are of the view that mixing may be nothing more than a side-by-side or sequential use of different methods or a full integration of different methods in a single analysis. They actively encourage the mixing of designs with an initiation intent, believing that, analysis and theorising involve acts of interpretation and that renders all investigation as theory laden. Saunders *et al*. 2007:152) echo the viewpoint of the above researchers when they believe that the mixed method research approach uses quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures, either parallel or sequential.

According to Rossman and Wilson (1985:647), corroboration, expansion or initiation may be the only purposes necessitating mixed methods. They argue against the mixing of paradigms for designs with triangulation or complementary purposes. They further explain initiation as being either in the form of iterative, nested, holistic or transformative design. For Caracelli and Greene (1997), as quoted by Bazeley (2004:5), initiation requires an integration of methods in contrast to the simpler designs typically used for corroboration or expansion. It is in that regard that Patton (1989:181) views both quantitative and qualitative methods as having become both methodologically flexible and appropriate.

Kelle and Erzberger (2004:172) argue against the integration of qualitative and quantitative methods, citing the fact that they frequently attempt to formulate methodological rules for methodological integration, without formulating a relation to any theoretical ideas about the nature of the subject area under investigation. In support of the above argument, Flick (2002:261) views an attempt at integration as problematic, as it is restricted to the level of research design. Meanwhile Creswell, Fetters and Ivankova (2004:7) view mixed methods research as more than simply collecting both qualitative and quantitative data, which implies that data is integrated, related, or mixed at some stage of the research process.

Citing Teddlie and Tashakkori (2010), Cameron (2011:96) perceives the methodology of mixed methods as the broad enquiry logic that guides the selection of specific methods, which is informed by conceptual positions, common to mixed methods practitioners. Although mixed method research uses both quantitative and qualitative world views at the research methods stage, quantitative data is analysed quantitatively and qualitative data is analysed qualitatively. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone
(Creswell and Plano Clark (2007: 5).

Hence, this study has taken upon itself to heed to Bergman's (2008:87) suggestion by opting to take the best of qualitative and quantitative methods and combine them. The aim of using the mixed method research for this study is to utilise qualitative and quantitative methods' different strengths in order to understand the research problem more fully than it is possible through the use of either method alone.

Mixed methods were used, specifically, for their nature of providing the best opportunity to address the questions set and other secondary aspects of the research problem. They, therefore, provide greater breadth of perspectives around a certain issue. Combining approaches helps overcome the deficiencies that occur in each of these methods. The other reason for which mixed methods were used is to ensure that there are no gaps to the data collected (https://www.edu.au/.../research/...usin (Accessed on 04. 02.2017).

While quantitative data is numerical in form, qualitative data is presented descriptively, based upon the teachers' responses on the questionnaires. For this investigation, the researcher relied on qualitative data collection methods and analysis and on mixed methods. The researcher utilised quantitative data in a way which supports or expands upon qualitative data and, effectively, deepens the description. This study deemed it necessary to use the mixed method approach for it guides the direction of the collection and analysis of data as well as the mixture of qualitative and quantitative in a single study.

Because there is no necessary congruence between the different dimensions of the quantitative and qualitative methods, the terms themselves are most useful for giving a sense of overall direction in a study (Bazeley, 2002:2-4). Bazeley further predicts that, when methods are mixed without careful consideration of the particular assumptions or rules and expectations regarding their conduct, corruption of those methods can occur such that results obtained by them become subject to question.

Good mixed methods research requires a proper working knowledge of the multiple methods being used, their assumptions, analysis, procedures and tools, and an ability to understand and interpret results derived from those different methods (Bazeley, 2002:8).

Here below, follows a brief discussion of each component of the mixed method approach, based on their reliability in previous studies as well as their relevance to this particular study.

3.3.2 Qualitative Approach as a Component of the Mixed Method

Qualitative research is a method of inquiry employed in many different academic disciplines, including in the social sciences. It is of great value to sociological studies that can shed light on the intricacies in the functionality of society and human interaction. It is also the method of choice when the research question requires an understanding of processes, events and relationships in the context of the social and cultural situation (www.oxfordjournals.org/.../ce_ch14.pdf (Accessed on 11.02.2017). It is empirical research where the data is not in the form of numbers (Punch, 1998:4).

Qualitative research is multi-method in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach in its subject matter and this means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or to interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings that people bring to them (http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/.../researchprocess/... (Accessed on 25.02.2017).

Accordingly, qualitative researchers deploy a wide range of interconnected methods hoping to get a better understanding of the subject matter at hand (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994:2). It is in this regard that De Vos (2002:360) concurs with Hughes (2014) when she believes that qualitative methodology is dialectic and interpretive and that, during the interaction between the researcher and the research participants, the participants' world is discovered and interpreted by means of qualitative method. It identifies the characteristics and the significance of human experiences as described by participants and interpreted by the researcher at various levels of abstractions. In qualitative research, the researcher's interpretations are *inter-subjective*; that is, given the researcher's frame of reference, another person can come to similar interpretations. It can, therefore, be claimed to be a study of a phenomenon (Bazeley, 2002:44).

Some researchers view the qualitative approach as a general way of thinking about conducting qualitative research. It describes, either explicitly or implicitly, the purpose of the qualitative research, the role of the researcher, the stages of research, and the method of data analysis. Its purpose is to form new ideas in order to generate new theories. It is not generalisable as opposed to experimental studies (https://www.socialresearchmethods.net/.../ (Accessed on 25.02.2017).

Qualitative data can usually be coded quantitatively and many supposed purely quantitative surveys use Likert-scale measures that involve participants who make qualitative judgements. The main difference that Trochim (2006:1) perceives between the two methods is that qualitative researchers are far more concerned about the context of the phenomena being studied, while quantitative researchers look for the ability to generalise(https://www.socialresearchmethods.net/.../ (Accessed on 25.02.2017).

The researcher used a variety of tools and techniques, including a survey, tests and questionnaires, in order to develop a deep understanding of the nature of teachers' pragmatics teaching as well as of the level of learners' pragmatic competence. Accordingly, the researcher undertook the study to be open to new perceptions that were formed from information received during the research process in order to facilitate better understanding of the field of study. The researcher sought to make connections between events, perceptions and actions so that her analyses are holistic and contextual. Meanwhile, this study also used the key principles of research design, such as linking the research questions to the methodological approaches, considering issues of analysis and data collection as integrated and being clear about the purposes of the research.

For this study in particular, research was conducted in a flexible and contextual way. Hence, decisions were made on the basis of the research design, and in terms of the changing contexts and situations in which the research took place. One of the strengths of a qualitative approach is that this flexibility can enhance the research and lead to unanticipated, but significant issues (http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/.../ (Accessed on 25.02. 2017).

There are four main approaches to conduct qualitative research, and they are: Grounded theory, phenomenology, ethnography, as well as field research. I have to state that, out of these four approaches, focus will be on the first two. Each of these approaches will now be discussed in the paragraphs that follow.

Grounded theory is a widely used qualitative methodology, especially, as a means to inductively separate clinical matters of importance by creating meaning about those matters. This it does through the analysis and modelling of theory. Blumer (1937), as cited by Whitehead, is one of the many researchers who associate grounded theory with the notion of symbolic interactionism, a term he coined in 1937.

According to Whitehead, grounded theory aligns an interactionist approach alongside naturalistic inquiry to develop theory. Whitehead further states that it is where individuals are known to share culturally oriented understanding of their world, wherein understanding is shaped by similar beliefs, values and attitudes and then, determine how individuals behave according to how they interpret the world around them. One of the primary perspectives on which grounded theory can be conducted is objectivism and constructivism (https://www.researchgat (Accessed on 18.02.2017).

Phenomenology is designed to discover and unearth previously unnoticed or overlooked matters, while it explores the experience and meaning of phenomena. It provides rich descriptions that help with understanding and, as a result, researchers may better understand the possibilities embedded in the experience of phenomena. Phenomenology, therefore, is of vital importance in developing ‘pathic’ understanding (https://www.researchgat... (Accessed on 18.02.2017).

According to Khan, Aftab and Fakhruddin (2015:376), phenomenology refers to a person’s perception of the meaning of an event, as opposed to the event as it exists externally to the person. For these researchers, the focus of phenomenological inquiry is how people experience the phenomena and how they describe those experiences. The process of phenomenology, therefore, does not break down the experience that is studied. Instead, it provides descriptions that are rich and full and interpretations that exactly describe what it means to be a person in their particular world. James points out that, of the many phenomenological approaches, the top three are descriptive, interpretive/ hermeneutic and interpretive. What is important is, which approach the researcher takes, depending on his/her research questions (https://www.researchgat... (Accessed on 18.02.2017).

Qualitative research has restrictions that may have an impact on the research design. However, such restrictions may prove to be strengths, in an event where the researcher may be comfortable with a small-scale research.

In a small-scale evaluation, the researcher is able to develop a close relationship with the participants and work can be negotiated throughout the project with ease. Some of the restrictions highlighted by Robson (2000:3) are as follows:

- Restricted in funding and resources;
- Restricted to one locality rather than being regional or national;
- Restricted in scope to one or, at the most, two sites and programmes;
- Restricted in time, to less than six months and
- Restricted in personnel, to one evaluator or a small team.

For this research project, the investigation was restricted to the Mdantsane area of the East London District Schools and that worked well for the researcher as this study area provided the researcher with all the data that she needed for her investigation.

3.3.3 Quantitative Approach as a Component of the Mixed Method

Quantitative research is grounded on the positivist paradigm and consists of the studies in which the data concerned can be analysed in terms of numbers. Nevertheless, as pointed out above, research can also be qualitative, that is, it can describe events, persons and so forth, scientifically without the use of numerical data (Borg, Gall and Gall, 2003:142). According to these theorists, quantitative researchers attempt to be objective. They wish to develop an understanding of the world as it is out there, independent of their personal bias, values and idiosyncratic notions. It is for that reason that they strive to personally detach themselves from the subjects they study, so that their observations are as objective as possible (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004:14). Based on the statement above, it is clear that standards of validity and reliability are important in quantitative research (Creswell, 2003: 8).

One of the strategies of inquiry associated with quantitative research is survey. According to Babbie (1990), as quoted by Creswell (2003:14), surveys include cross-sectional and longitudinal studies, using questionnaires or structured interviews for data collection, with the intent of generalizing from a sample to a population.

Quantitative approach often reduces and restructures a complex problem to a limited number of variables. It focuses on describing a phenomenon across a larger number of participants, thereby providing the possibility of summarising characteristics across groups or relationships. It surveys a large number of individuals and applies statistical techniques to recognise overall patterns in the relations of processes. Of importance, it is also relatively easy to survey people a number of times. Consequently, that allows a conclusion that, for example, a certain feature influences certain outcomes (http://chronicle.umbment... (Accessed on 04.03.2017).

In an effort to search for truth, quantitative research can be administered by the researcher, it can be self-administered one to one, or in a group, and so forth. While employing predetermined instrument-based questions, Maree (2007:11) asserts that the quantitative researcher asks specific, narrow research questions or formulates hypotheses about the variables that can be observed or measured. The sample size is randomly selected from the larger population to enable the generalisation of results to this study's population. Quantitative research is based more directly on its original plans and its results are more readily analysed and interpreted (Hughes, 2014:3).

3.3.4 How Qualitative and Quantitative paradigms were mixed in this study

According to Terrell (2012:260), a multi-method approach depends upon four factors:

1. The theoretical perspective, which is explicit and based firmly on a theory, and which means implicit, that is, it is based indirectly on a theory.
2. The priority of strategy which is equal, qualitative and quantitative.

3. The sequence of data collection implementation is qualitative and quantitative with no sequence.

4. The point at which the data is integrated is at data collection, data analysis, data interpretation and with some combination of all of them.

Creswell (2003:12) is of the opinion that mixed methods researchers need to establish a purpose for their "mixing," a rationale for the reasons why quantitative and qualitative data need to be mixed in the first place.

The following is the explanation for the reasons for using a mixed method:

- Triangulation: use of two or more independent sources of data or data collection methods to corroborate research findings within a study.

- Facilitation: use of one data collection method or research strategy in support of research using another data collection method or research strategy within a study, whether qualitative and or quantitative.

- Complementary: use of two or more research strategies in order that different aspects of an investigation can be dovetailed, for example, qualitative plus quantitative questionnaire to fill in gaps, quantitative plus qualitative questionnaire for issues, and interviews for meaning.

- Generality: use of an independent source of data to contextualise the main study or use of quantitative analyses to provide a sense of relative importance.
- Promotion of interpretation: Use of qualitative data to help explain relationships between quantitative variables, for example the use of a quantitative and or qualitative.

Another reason for mixing is to study the different aspects quantitatively, to look at macro aspects and, qualitatively, to look at micro aspects, solving a puzzle use of an alternative data collection method when the initial method reveals unexplainable results or insufficient data (Saunders, *et al.,* 2007:152).

In this study, a questionnaire was administered to nine teachers of the East London District. This provided quantitative data which, when analysed statistically, allowed the attitudes of different teachers with regard to pragmatic teaching to be compared, taking into consideration differences of age, gender, length of service, occupation and grade groupings.

3.4 METHODOLOGY APPLIED IN THIS STUDY

According to Hofstee (2009:115), Methodology is a detailed explanation of the particular use of a design that is discussed in the research design section, how it is applied and that its application should be justified. It is, therefore, a theory of how an investigation should proceed (Schwardt, 2007:195). It involves the analysis of the assumptions, principles and procedures in a particular approach to inquiry. In the paragraphs below, the various aspects of the methodology of this study will be discussed.

3.4.1 Data Collection Instruments

Data collection instruments refer to the devices used to collect data, such as a paper questionnaire or a computer assisted interviewing system, and an assessment test (http://www.census.gov/quality/standards/glossary.html (Accessed on 11.07.2017).

The researcher chose the research instruments that would be most appropriate regarding the nature of the research problem as well as the type of questions the study aims to address. For this particular study, an instrument that was deemed proper is the one that works well with the descriptive methods and allows for quantitative analysis. This is the one which, when used, makes it possible to generate findings that are representative of the whole population at a lower cost than collecting the data for the entire population. This study gave preference for instruments that are perceived to be authoritative, but easy to explain and to understand. Over and above this, the researcher was also guided by the choice of paradigm, as well as the research design in adopting the instruments that were considered relevant to collect data that would address the research problem.

It has been the strategy of the study to strike a balance between testing the learners and making use of questionnaires to solicit data from the study's participants. The administering of a test to the learners became necessary for the researcher in order to establish the learners' level of pragmatic language competence. Amongst other things, learners were tested for their knowledge of the metaphorical use of language, greetings, requests, expression of gratitude, and so forth. Likewise, the researcher found questionnaires to be the proper instrument to collect data with themes such as teachers' knowledge of pragmatics teaching, their skills of application, their attitudes towards the teaching of pragmatics language, the amount of support from each other, as language teachers, as well as support from the Department of Education and so forth.

3.4.2 Piloting

De Vos (1998:179) defines a pilot study as the process whereby the research design for a prospective survey is tested. According to Teijlingen and Hundley (2001:1), a pilot study is a mini-version of a full-scale study or a trial run done in preparation of the complete study.

It became essential for this study to pilot its data collection instruments and, as such, the test that was administered to the learners and the questionnaires were issued to the teachers. It was necessary to pilot both data collection instruments before administering them in the full scale study, since the researcher had designed both of them. This was done to determine their practicality. The instruments were also piloted to test their reliability and validity, as well as the trustworthiness of the respondents for data collection in the main study. The researcher had to establish how appropriate, understandable and practical the instruments are, in order to address any problems prior to the main study and to check the time required for completion of the questionnaire.

The intention was to administer the questionnaire to pilot its data collection instruments subjects in exactly the same way as it would be administered in the main study.

The pilot study was a small scale model of the actual study, targeting a small number of persons with characteristics similar to those of the target group of respondents, namely, three (3) isiXhosa Home Language teachers, namely, (One (1) Grade (10), one (1) Grade (11) and one (1) Grade (12) teacher, who were purposefully sampled from the three (3) East London District High Schools. For the test, nine (9) learners, each representing Grades (10), (11) and (12) isiXhosa Home Language from the three participating high schools, namely, Hlokoma, Mzomhle and Ulwazi, were also purposefully sampled.

Once the questionnaire was piloted, it was ensured that all the questions were answered in the correct order. Secondly, it was ensured that flaws were identified, and it was established how long it took to complete the questionnaire. Piloting the questionnaire ensured that awkward repetitious wording was identified.

The pilot study demonstrated that the questionnaire did not contain any confusing items and the respondents found it easy to understand and quick to complete. This is due to the fact that some adjustments were made in order to improve the clarity of questions as well as to provide some degree of elaboration on certain aspects. This study, however, avoided the inclusion of the pilot study participants in the main study, because they had already been exposed to the research proceedings and therefore, had they been included in the main study, they might have responded differently from those who had not yet been exposed to the research processes, thereby distorting the outcome of the investigation.

Again, the study decided against the inclusion of data from the pilot study, since it would not be included in the main results and, it was, therefore, dealt with separately. The reason behind that is because, if, for instance, there were problems, regarding the research tool, and changes were to be made on the results from the pilot study, data would be inaccurate.

The findings of this pilot study helped in assessing and enhancing the data analysis techniques to be employed in the main study.

3.4.3 How the data was collected

When it was time for data collection, data was gathered from the isiXhosa grades (10), (11) and (12) teachers as well as from the learners of the same grades and it was, then, measured. The reason behind this move was to get a complete and accurate picture of the learners' level of linguistics competency relative to pragmatics teaching. Data collection methods included administering a test to isiXhosa Home language Grades (10) to (12) learners as well as questionnaires that were used to collect quantitative data that provided statistical descriptions, relationships and analysis.

The test constituted five questions that altogether totalled to twenty five (25) marks. The test questions sought to test the learners' levels of pragmatic language competence, with special reference to: metaphorical language, politeness, greetings, requests, expression of gratitude, apologies and refusals.

With regard to the questionnaires, there were five (5) themes, describing the perceptions of the teachers regarding their teaching of pragmatic language. The themes were as follows: knowledge of the teaching pragmatic language, skill of application, attitude towards pragmatic language teaching, support, as well as self-efficacy.

3.4.4 How the test was administered

Assessment occurs in many contexts and is done for a variety of reasons. The most common way to measure achievement and proficiency in language learning has been the test (Frank, 2012:32). It is in that regard that this study used more than one design to elicit data from its participants. A test was used to examine the extent of learners' pragmatic proficiency, while questionnaires were used to determine the effect of pragmatics teaching. The intention is to get to a reliable conclusion about the entirety of the problem statement.

Frank (2012:32), citing Basanta (1995), views testing as a tool that can help teachers identify learners' strengths and weaknesses and evaluate the effectiveness of their programmes. Hence, this study has opted for testing, as its tool, in its endeavour to investigate the effectiveness of pragmatics teaching on the development of learners' linguistic competence. Objective testing, therefore, helps the teachers, in particular, to understand the continued intellectual likeness between one-skill-at-a-time test items and instructional practices aimed at mastery of constituent elements.

Much emphasis is on ensuring that teachers choose tests that are practical, reliable, and valid. It is in this regard that the test, for this study, in particular, was designed, focussing on contextual speech acts such as requests, apologies, compliments, and so forth, to determine their pragmatic competence. In addition, assessments have to be targeted to meet a specific instructional goal. Assessments are needed to discover what students are learning. In essence, tests are isomorphic with learning, meaning that test (=) equals learning (Frank, 2012:32). If tests may be developed carefully, used properly, and interpreted appropriately, they may have enormous utility (http://www.nera-education.org/ (Accessed on 17.12.2016).

To ensure fairness, Shepard (2000:8) believes that assessments have to be uniformly administered. It is for that reason that, for the purposes of this study, the researcher administered a standardised test to the different participants from all the different high schools that formed part of the research.

Aufa (2012:115) agrees with Oller (1979) by believing that tests should use language in a way that resembles natural occurrences of language outside testing contexts or formal language testing environments. The meaning of language understood or produced in pragmatic tests must link somehow to a meaningful extra-linguistic context familiar to the examinee.

Assessment occurs in many contexts and is done for a variety of reasons. There are quite a number of assessment tools that can be utilised in testing for pragmatic competence. Some of them are rating scale assessments, multiple choice questionnaires, role plays, interview tasks, as well as the written discourse completion test.

The Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) is one of the widely recognised assessment tools for its practical use among other assessment tools. Focussing on the practicality of the test, the WDCT can be claimed to be a highly effective tool to gather a larger number of data quickly. For instance, when the researcher wanted to assess isiXhosa Home language Grades (10), (11) and (12) on their pragmatic competence, in big classes consisting of (36) learners, the WDCT could be effectively administered. The researcher does not need to take a long time for the learner to respond and, moreover, does not need to transcribe as the researcher could easily analyse the result and assess the level of learners' pragmatic competence.

For Aufa (2012:113), while this form of test has some pitfalls, it effectively assesses learners' pragmatic competence. In this test, the learners are asked to respond appropriately in written form, based on short situational descriptions given. Aufa (2012:114) confesses that it is difficult for teachers to develop and design a communicative language test to measure in order to determine learners' competence in the first language context. One of WDCT's advantages is that it does not need to be transcribed as the teacher can easily analyse the result and assess the learners' pragmatic competence.

Everything has its advantages and disadvantages, so are the tests. WDCT is not without its benefits. It is not only able to test learners' pragmatic awareness, but it can also assess learners' production on certain speech acts. It is found to be effective to assess learners' pragmatic linguistic knowledge of speech acts, such as speech acts and apologies. For example, the teachers may instruct learners to respond appropriately in written form based on short situational descriptions given (Aufa, 2012:113). One such situation may be when a teacher asks the learners to make a request to someone who is older and not a close acquaintance, and write it down in a natural way, as if they speak to a real person. The request has to be polite. They also have to pay attention to matters such as a social distance, relative power, as well as to some degree of imposition in each situation before giving their response.

Looking at the reasonable consistency of the results of the test that the researcher had administered, it can then be implied that the internal consistency reliability of the WDCT is highly satisfactory. The reliability of WDCT has been affirmed, as a measure of isiXhosa Home language learners' pragmatic competence. Bachman and Palmer (1990:13) propose the test's usefulness framework, wherein they consider reliability and validity as essential in the validation process. They further confirm that authenticity is one of the elements which ensure the quality of a language test and that it has a great impact on learners' performance. Relative to this, some researchers contend that the WDCT has been proved as a valid test so that it can be used as an effective assessment instrument of learners' pragmatic language competence's high validity (Aufa, 2012:113).

Hudson, Detmer, and Brown (1995:14) found out that WDCT had high validity after applying some statistical procedures on six different test instruments, namely, a safe assessment for the role play, a self-assessment for the DCT, a role play, oral DCT, WDCT, and MDCT for assessing pragmatic competence of English learners. This test has been used to investigate learners' pragmatic competence by various researchers, including Roever (2005:17) and it has been proven to reasonably have high reliability. Based on Roever's analysis (2005:17), this test is effective to assess, among other things, language learners' pragmalinguistic knowledge of speech acts, such as requests, apologies and refusals.

Aufa (2012:114) points out that WDCT is not without its limitations. Its authenticity and compatibility with natural speech occurrences is questioned by some teachers. The problem is in using the written form to elicit oral production while it is believed that such an exercise cannot reflect the cognitive process involved in the interaction. The realisation of targeted speech acts in the actual oral production is believed to be quite different from the written form. It is also impossible to play conversational turns in WDCT, since it does not allow for the assessment of speech act production in its real discourse context. It also lacks sequential orders in terms of the choice of strategy and the negotiation of meaning and, at the same time, it fails to demonstrate the interactive aspect of oral performance in authentic conversation, even though it portrays the linguistic expression of speech acts.

WDCT also has the disadvantage that it does not seem to reflect the range of strategies used in learners' speech acts. Learners' speech acts may have hesitations, repetition, inversions and long supportive moves that are missing in the WDCT (Aufa, 2012:115).

Rasekh and Alijanian (2012:3) are of the view that WDCT is not preferable to be used to elicit learners' oral speech production. While it is not an easy task to construct a testing instrument of this nature, the researcher preferred to design a written test as accurately as possible, so that it can adequately examine learners' pragmatic competence holistically. Learners were not only able to show their grammatical competence, but also used language in appropriate contexts. To ensure the quality of the test, the researcher first had to ascertain the authenticity of the test. For good quality, the developed test was first piloted with another group of learners to ensure its practicality, validity, reliability, as well as authenticity.

While much has been debated for and against WDCT by various researchers, for this particular research, WDCT has worked well to ensure the achievement of its objectives. This is as a result of the innovations that the researcher brought about in the design and the development of the test, to best suit the situation.

3.4.5 How questionnaires were applied

Having identified the data needs for addressing the research question, the study selected and developed the instrument for data collection. To be able to do that, the study had to consider resource matters such as data collection costs, hence it deemed it appropriate to consider to sample from the population within the Mdantsane' East London District high schools. More appropriate is the fact that the isiXhosa Home Language learners as well as the isiXhosa Home Language teachers formed part of the sample. This study adopted the survey method as one of its data collection strategies. Surveys include cross-sectional and longitudinal studies using questionnaires or structured interviews for data collection, with the intent of generalizing from a wider sample to a population (Creswell, 2003: 14, citing Babbie, 1990).

Other than the test, it has been the strategy of this study to use questionnaires as its second data collection technique, and its content was guided by the literature reviewed. The good thing about questionnaires is that respondents have time to think about the answers (Brynard and Hannekom, 1997:48).

Assistance from the Statistics Department of the University of Fort Hare was sought, particularly to get advice with regard to validity of items for statistical purposes.

An effort was made to avoid ambiguity in designing the questionnaire. Over and above, the questionnaire was made to be as comprehensive and representative as possible to the major principles of language teaching.

Questionnaire items formed five point Likert-type points and reflected the following composite variables, agreement, ordinal and interval, to measure the respondents' knowledge, attitudes, and so forth.

Primarily, the questionnaire consisted of the first section which was the personal information to provide an accurate description of the respondents' age, sex, an area of specialization, qualification and experience. The second section was comprised of the knowledge of pragmatics and its methods of teaching the third was to find out about the skill of application relative to pragmatic language teaching and, lastly, a section about determining the teachers' attitudes towards the teaching of pragmatic language.

Remeyi, as cited by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007:5), views a questionnaire as a set of carefully prepared questions designed with the aim of collecting reliable data from selected participants (https://writepass.com/jo...(14.01.2017). It is, therefore, a tool for collecting and recording information about a particular matter of interest (https://www.kirklees.gov.uk/.../.... (Accessed on 14.01.2017), as well as a data-collection technique, wherein the respondents are asked to give answers to a series of questions, written or verbal, about a pertinent topic. It is an important link to the phenomena people wish to study (Gzaja and Blair, 2005:4).

Questionnaires should always have a definite purpose that is related to the objectives of the research, which is to gather as much relevant information related to the phenomenon under study as possible. It is for that reason that, in the development of the questionnaire, the researcher focussed on the areas that the study needed to collect the information on, which are learners' level of pragmatic awareness, as well as the teachers' levels of pragmatics knowledge (https://www.nd.edu.au/.../research/...usin (Accessed on 04.02.2017).

The effectiveness of the questionnaires is determined by the number, as well as the kind of questions to be asked in order to measure the concepts with adequacy, so as to achieve the research objectives. It is mainly made up of a list of questions, but should also include clear instructions and space for answers or administrative details. Furthermore, it should be clear from the outset how the findings will be used.

The researcher's target sample was the nine (9) isiXhosa Home Language teachers selected from three East London District High Schools of the Eastern Cape Province, namely, Hlokoma, Mzomhle and Ulwazi.

On completion of the development of the questionnaire, it was then pre-tested on a smaller group of respondents. The researcher deemed it necessary to pilot the questionnaire, firstly, to ensure that all the questions are answered in the correct order and, secondly, to ensure that flaws are identified as well as to establish as to how long, in terms of time, it would take to complete and, lastly, to ensure that awkward repetitious wording is identified (www.edu.au/.../research/...usin (Accessed on 04.02.2017).

Questions were asked, close ended and open-ended questions. The researcher ensured that each and every question asked added value, that it is clear and easy to understand and that it asked what it was intended to ask, so that it did not cause confusion. Similarly, themed questions were grouped together and numbered according to sequence in order to create a logical sequence. For instance, questions were asked on gender, age, ethnic origin, and so forth. Also asked, were questions on knowledge about pragmatics, on skills relevant for the application of pragmatics knowledge, on teachers' attitudes towards pragmatics teaching, on teacher support by fellow teachers, as well as the Department of Education, and so forth. These questions were all grouped together. Respondents were made aware of the purpose of the research and they were told how and when they would receive feedback on the findings.

To avoid bias that may be caused by low response rate, the researcher personally delivered the questionnaires to the relevant schools and then, a week thereafter, made follow-up telephone calls as a means of a reminder. Likewise, the collection method was the same.

Questionnaires give the best sense of anonymity and privacy. During the survey, there was no pressure exerted on the respondents. They took their time to complete the questionnaire and, in that way, it was hoped that they would answer more truthfully, resulting in guaranteed, much more accurate results (http://surveyanyplace.com/questionnaire ... (Accessed on 05.01.2017).

Hall and Hall (2004:27), and Debois (2016:2) agree that questionnaires are cost-efficient. Besides their use to collect data from a large number of people in a short period of time, and in a relatively cost-effective way, that action can also be carried out without affecting much of its validity and reliability. While Questionnaires are effective mechanisms for efficient collection of data, they are not, however, a comprehensive means of evaluation. They should be used to support and supplement other procedures for evaluating and improving teaching (https://www.economicsnetwork.ac.uk/.../... (Accessed on 06.01.2017).

The results of the questionnaires can be quickly and easily quantified by either the researcher or by use of a software package. They can also be analysed more scientifically and objectively than the other forms of research.

The respondents were reassured that the information they had provided on the questionnaire would remain confidential and, therefore, their identities or personal details would not be disclosed.

3.4.6 Data Sampling

A sample is a subset of the target population that is selected and analysed for the actual research study. A sample is one of the most important factors that determine whether or not the survey produces accurate results (www.coronainsights.com/2008/08/the-importance-of-good-sampling (Accessed on 12.07.2017). Basically, sampling is about deciding on the place or site and persons from whom the data will be collected (Punch, 2006:67). This particular study made use of probability sampling to afford every unit of the population a chance of being selected to be part of the sample. Probability sampling is the selection of individuals from the population so that they are representative of the population. Hence, it is vital for the sample to accurately reflect the characteristics of the population from which it is drawn. A population is a group of individuals that have the same characteristics (www.education.nova.edu>app>files>arc_doc (Accessed on 12.07.2017). The reason behind using this kind of a sampling method is to produce unbiased estimates of population totals by weighing sampled units according to their probability of sampling (Creswell, 2009:126).

Sampling methods are classified under two categories, namely, probability methods and non-probability methods. Probability methods are based on the principles of randomness and probability theory while non-probability methods are not. Probability samples satisfy the requirements for the use of probability theory to accurately generalise the population and this is not the case with non-probability samples (Maree *et al*., 2007:172).

According to Saunders *et al.* (2007:222), the following five main techniques can be used to select a probability sample:

• Simple random; involves the selection of the sample at random from the sampling frame using random number tables, a computer or an online random number generator, such as the Research Randomizer. The cases in the sampling frame should each be numbered with a unique number. The first case should be numbered "0", the second "1" and so on. The cases are selected using random numbers until the actual sample size is reached.

• Systematic; Systematic sampling involves the researcher selecting the sample at regular intervals from the sampling frame.

• Stratified random; is possible, when it makes sense, to partition the population into groups based on a factor that may influence the variable that is being measured. These groups are then called "strata".

•Cluster; With cluster sampling, one should divide the population into groups (clusters), obtain a simple random sample of so many clusters from all possible clusters and obtain data on every sampling unit in each of the randomly selected clusters.

• Multi-stage; Multi-stage sampling, sometimes called multi-stage cluster sampling, is a development of cluster sampling. It is normally used to overcome problems associated with a geographically dispersed population when face-to-face contact is needed or where it is expensive and time-consuming to construct a sampling frame for a large geographical area.

The probability sampling technique was chosen to increase the external validity. This technique also depended on the research questions and its objectives. The researcher considered the stratified sampling method in that the population was partitioned into three groups representing the three high schools, and that is called the strata. A simple random sample was obtained from each group and data was collected on each sampling unit that was randomly sampled, and each group is called the stratum. For the learners, each group consisted of an equal number of males and females, totalling (108) learners altogether.

3.4.7 How the sample was obtained

It would have been ideal for the researcher to include in the investigation as many of the East London District schools as possible. However, due to the size of the district, the time available to complete the research, and financial implications, the researcher decided to limit the sample to the high schools within the Mdantsane area.

Of the (75) East London District high schools, three (3) high schools, namely, Hlokoma, Mzomhle and Ulwazi were intentionally selected to be the field of study to conduct the research. The researcher decided to focus her investigation on these public high schools which have similar backgrounds with regard to their geographical location, school facilities, funding models, and, more importantly, their performance patterns.

Nine (9) isiXhosa language teachers within the age range of between (45) years to (54) years, three (3) Heads of Department and six (6) post level one (1), as well as (108) male and female learners within the age range of sixteen (16) to eighteen (18) years. The total number of (36) learners per grade, representing grades (10) to (12), were selected in a random manner from the above-mentioned schools. Two research-aids together with language teachers based at the research sites formed part of the research processes. They helped a great deal in the management of the learners during testing the process. The nine language teachers responded to the questionnaire while the test was administered to the learners. Between them, the teachers had a teaching experience of between nine (9) to thirty five years (35) each, as well as a post-matric qualification.

3.4.8 Triangulation of data

Triangulation refers to the use of different data collection techniques within one study in order to ensure that the data is revealing to the researcher what she/he thinks it is revealing to her/him. Basically, it refers to the application and combination of several methods in the study. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:112) concur with the above authors when they define triangulation as the use of two or more methods of data collection, in order to study a particular phenomenon. For example, qualitative data collected using semi-structured group interviews may be a valuable way of triangulating quantitative data collected by other means, such as a questionnaires (Saunders, *et al*.2007:150). It is sometimes viewed as a verification procedure, whereby researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study (De Vaus, 2001: 93).

Triangulation of data combines data drawn from different sources and at different times and, at different places. Triangulation was used in this study as a means of overcoming bias and, developing certainty in the research methodology, checking data validity, reliability, and some other theoretical matters (Denzin, 1978: 82).

When used in combination, quantitative and qualitative methods complement each other, and allow for a more robust analysis, taking advantage of the strengths of each (Ivankova, Creswell and Stick, 2006:3).

Both quantitative and qualitative methodologies were used. Three different high schools of different enrolment sizes, with different learners of three (3) different grades, which are, Grades (10), (11) and (12) were investigated, together with three (3) different grade language teachers. An assessment test, as well as the questionnaire, was used as a means of data sources. The triangulation of data has strengthened this research and over and above, more comprehensive data was obtained. It has also facilitated the researcher's attempt to provide a complete picture of the phenomenon explored in this study of pragmatics teaching on the development of learners' linguistic competence.

3.4.9. Observing the participants and the research sites

All three sites were first visited during the last week of August of 2016 through to September of 2016. The researcher gained access to the research sites by getting a permission letter from the District Director to conduct research in his directorate. Again, an official letter was presented to the School Governing Bodies of the schools concerned. This was made possible through the assistance given by the University of Fort Hare by making a request to the schools on behalf of the researcher.

When permission to continue with the research was granted, times and dates for administering a test to the learners, as well as time for the distribution of questionnaires for the teachers, was agreed upon by both the school authorities and the researcher. The teachers had a week to complete the questionnaires and the test was scheduled for a period of $1\frac{1}{2}$ hour, with the agreement that more time could be allowed if necessary.

Professional conduct and the maintenance of confidentiality during the research proceedings were not only promised but were also guaranteed and honoured. The researcher received a warm welcome from the authorities at the various research sites, such that it became easy to get assistance in gaining access to the learners who would be research participants as well as getting assistance from their management.

3.5 DATA ANALYSIS

Schram (2003:144) views data analysis as a mechanism for reducing and organising data to produce findings that require description and interpretation by the researcher. Denscombe (2004:221) highlights two types of data analysis, thematic analysis and content analysis. Descombe further describes content analysis as a method that helps the researcher to analyse the content of the documents, while thematic analysis looks at the merging of the themes from the data collected.

Mouton (2001:108) is of the opinion that data analysis is aimed at understanding the various constitutive elements of one's data through an inspection of the relationships between concepts, constructs or variables, and to see whether or not there are any trends or patterns that can be identified or isolated or, even to establish themes in the data.

The methodology for the analysis of the qualitative data was based on the content analysis procedures and was presented in two sections, according to the nature of the captured data. At first, the focus was on providing a discussion on the analysis gathered from the test, which was followed by an analysis and interpretation of the quantitative part of the empirical investigation, namely the questionnaire.

Researchers consider seven stages when analysing qualitative and quantitative data within a mixed methods framework. They are; Data Reduction, that is, reducing the dimensional nature of the data, data display, which is the illustration and the description of the qualitative and the quantitative data, data transformation, the conversion of numerical data to a narrative form and the narrative data to numerical codes, data correlation, when qualitative data is correlated with quantitative data, and vice versa, data consolidation, when both the qualitative and the quantitative data are combined to constitute new variables, data comparison, where data from both quantitative and qualitative sources is compared, and data integration, both qualitative and quantitative data are integrated into either a coherent whole or two separate sets of coherent wholes (Saunders, *et al*., 2009:503).

In her quest to find an overview of the learners' level of isiXhosa pragmatic language competency relative to pragmatics teaching, the researcher commenced her data collection from the first week of November 2016, visiting the three research sites over a period of three days.

3.5.1 Coding

Coding is an analytical process in which data, in either quantitative form, (that is, questionnaires' results) or in qualitative form, (such as interview transcripts,) is categorised to facilitate analysis (Saldaña, 2015:1). Smith and Davies (2010:155) argue that coding is a method to organise the data so that underlying messages portrayed by the data may become clearer to the researcher. Hence, Charmaz (2006:46) views it as a descriptive construct designed by the researcher to capture the primary content or essence of the data.

Codes and coding were used as a way of indexing or identifying categories of data. The other purpose of data coding for this study was to bring out the essence of the meaning of the data that the respondents and/ or the participants have provided. It was deemed vital to code it so as to interpret the data meaningfully.

3.5.1.1 Coding Test participants

Learner coding consisted of a combination of both alphabetic symbols and numerical symbols. The first symbol contains the first letter of the school's name and it, therefore, represents the school. The second letter is a symbol that represents the learner's gender. In each grade learners were then listed numerically and the number formed part of each learner's code. Below are tabulations of the learners' codes for each and every grade concerned in this study.

Table: 3.1: Grade 10 participants' Codes and Gender

Number	Learner's Codes	Gender
1	UM2	MALE
2	UF36	FEMALE
3	UM35	MALE
4	MM1	MALE
5	UM10	MALE
6	MF6	FEMALE
7	HF2	FEMALE
8	MF7	FEMALE
9	HM8	MALE
10	UF8	FEMALE
11	HF1	FEMALE
12	MM10	MALE
13	MF9	FEMALE
14	UM4	MALE
15	MM2	MALE
16	HM34	MALE
17	MM33	MALE
18	HM10	MALE
19	MM3	MALE
20	MF32	FEMALE
21	HM9	MALE
22	HF3	FEMALE
23	HF31	FEMALE
24	MF8	FEMALE
25	UF6	FEMALE
26	HM7	MALE
27	MF5	FEMALE
28	UM1	MALE
29	UF5	FEMALE
30	HF5	FEMALE
31	HM6	MALE
32	UF9	FEMALE
33	UM3	MALE
34	MM4	MALE
35	HF4	FEMALE
36	UF7	FEMALE
	Number of females	**18**
	Number of males	**18**
	Total	**36**

Table: 3.2: Grade 11 participants' Codes and Gender

Number	Learner's codes	Gender
1	MF19	FEMALE
2	HM12	MALE
3	HF18	FEMALE
4	UM17	MALE
5	MF17	FEMALE
6	HF20	FEMALE
7	HM36	MALE
8	HM13	MALE
9	UM19	MALE
10	HF17	FEMALE
11	UM16	MALE
12	UF13	FEMALE
13	UF12	FEMALE
14	MF35	FEMALE
15	HM11	MALE
16	UM15	MALE
17	HF16	FEMALE
18	MM34	MALE
19	MF15	FEMALE
20	MM12	MALE
21	UF11	FEMALE
22	UM33	MALE
23	MM11	MALE
24	UF20	FEMALE
25	HF32	FEMALE
26	HF19	FEMALE
27	MF20	FEMALE
28	UF31	FEMALE
29	UM18	MALE
30	MM13	MALE
31	HM15	MALE
32	MF18	FEMALE
33	UF14	FEMALE
34	MM14	MALE
35	HM14	MALE
36	MM16	MALE
	Number of females	**18**
	Number of males	**18**
	Total	**36**

Table: 3.3: Grade 12 participants' Codes and Gender

Number	Learner's codes	Gender
1	UM24	MALE
2	MM28	MALE
3	UM25	MALE
4	UF27	FEMALE
5	UF26	FEMALE
6	MM30	MALE
7	MM29	MALE
8	UM23	MALE
9	UF36	FEMALE
10	HM24	MALE
11	UM21	MALE
12	HF27	FEMALE
13	MF25	FEMALE
14	HF29	FEMALE
15	HM35	MALE
16	MF27	FEMALE
17	MM22	MALE
18	UF30	FEMALE
19	UF29	FEMALE
20	HM21	MALE
21	UM22	MALE
22	UF28	FEMALE
23	MM34	MALE
24	UM33	MALE
25	MF32	FEMALE
26	MM21	MALE
27	MF24	FEMALE
28	MF26	FEMALE
29	HM23	MALE
30	HM22	MALE
31	HF30	FEMALE
32	HF26	FEMALE
33	HF31	FEMALE
34	HF28	FEMALE
35	HM25	MALE
36	MF23	FEMALE
	Number of female	**18**
	Number of males	**18**
	Total	**36**

3.5.1.2 Coding Questionnaire respondents

The completed questionnaires were all collected from the various schools that took part in the investigation and the response rate was 100%. They were then read with the aim to have a holistic understanding of the information, as well as the respondents' points of view.

Table: 3. 3: Codes and Demographics of participating Teachers

	Teacher codes	Age range	Teaching experience
1	T H 1	45-54	20 years
2	T M 1	45-54	9 years
3	T U 1	45-54	22 years
4	T H 2	45-54	32 years
5	T M 2	45-54	35 years
6	T U 2	45-54	11 years
7	T H 3	45-54	33 years
8	T M 3	45-54	23 years
9	T U 3	45-54	20 years

The completed questionnaires were all collected from the various schools that were part of the research and the response rate was 100%. They were then read with the aim to have a holistic understanding of the information, as well as the respondents' points of views.

The participants in the survey were coded according to the first letters of the schools that they represented. Hlokoma high school became school H and Mzomhle high school became school M while Ulwazi was coded school U.

The teacher participants were coded first, using the first letter of their profession which is 'Teaching'. Secondly, by using the first letter of the school and thirdly, numerically, according to the grade in which they teach isiXhosa Home language, for example, TH1 is equal to; T for Teacher, H for Hlokoma, the name of the school and the number, 1 means a Grade (10) teacher. All isiXhosa Grade (10) teachers were allocated number 1, the Grade (11) teachers, number 2 and the Grade (12) teachers, number 3.

At school H, from grades (10) to (12), all the isiXhosa Home language teachers were males between the ages of (45) and (54) years. The Grade (10) teacher has been teaching isiXhosa for about twenty (20) years now, while the teaching experience of

Grade (11) and Grade (12) teachers for this subject is (33) years and (35) years, respectively. All three of them have a post-matric qualification. They have been classroom teachers for 30 years or more and, therefore, much could be learnt from such seasoned teachers, who may be of great help to novice teachers.

All the isiXhosa Home language teachers, from Grades (10) to (12) at school M are females between the ages of (45) and (54), sharing a teaching experience of between nine (9) and (32) years and with post-matric teaching qualifications.

The situation at school U is almost similar to the one at school M because, the isiXhosa Home language teachers are all females between (45) and (54) years of age. Between them, they share a teaching experience of between (11) and (23) years. They all have a post matric teaching qualifications.

3.5.2 The researcher's role

The "researcher is the instrument," therefore, explicitly identifying himself/herself assumes an importance that it might not have in quantitative research (http://researchsalad.wordpress.com (Accessed on 08.09.2018). The purpose of this study and the population under the study warranted that the researcher be identifiable, both linguistically and culturally.

The researcher took it upon herself to ensure that appropriate planning was in place before the commencement of the fieldwork. The venues that were allocated for tests were inspected to ensure that they were noise free and that, as much as possible, there was limited distraction. All the material that was instrumental to the writing of the tests was readily available.

Through the collaboration and the assistance of each school's language teachers, it was made perfectly clear how the study was to be conducted. In her capacity as a teacher, the researcher's personal experience of working in school environments and, of having had encounters with various generations of learners, has shaped her perception of the context. Such experiences have enhanced her awareness, knowledge and sensitivity to many of the challenges, decisions and issues encountered when working with people, particularly children. During the process of testing, the researcher applied her knowledge of some of the processes of the education system by applying the principles to adhere to during the assessment processes.

The interaction between the researcher and the participants can be ethically challenging for the researcher, as they are personally involved in different stages of the study. It is for this reason that formulation of specific ethical guidelines in this respect seems to be essential (Cheraghi *et al.* 2014:4).

Some important ethical concerns that should be taken into account while carrying out research are: anonymity, confidentiality and informed consent. Informed consent has been recognized as an integral part of ethics in research carried out in different fields (Cheraghi *et al.* 2014:4). It was of vital importance for the researcher to explain the study to the participants, without prejudice. They were informed about the nature of the study, the identity of the researcher and her aids, the participants' potential role, as well as the objectivity of the research.

The researcher specified in advance which data will be collected for the purposes of creating an understanding of the reasons of the research. Having collected data, it was then coded, interpreted and analysed to draw reliable and valid conclusions.

Confidentiality does not necessarily prevent intrusion, as anonymity by itself is not enough to protect a person's privacy or prevent disclosure of personal issues (Cheraghi *et al.* 2014:4). The researcher avoided soliciting private information that is not related to the research question, as much as possible. Furthermore, all of the study's participants were assured that their names and the names of their schools would be dealt with in the strictest confidence; hence, the researcher's decision to design and implement a coding system.

Since the researcher is also a teacher by profession, one could sense that the study participants, who were also colleagues, legitimately wondered whether the researcher intended to test their professional competence. It could be sensed that they regarded the questions as a test of their professional knowledge. It became of vital importance for the researcher to address all the participants' concerns, in this regard.

3.5.3 Trustworthiness of data

Trustworthiness is the extent to which the data and data analysis are believable and reliable. In research, it might be a demonstration that the evidence for the results reported is sound and when the argument made is based on the results is strong (www.problemfinding.labanca.net (Accessed on 24. 05.2010). Suter (2012:362) is of the view that, data trustworthiness, whether collected from direct observations, focus groups, or interviews, is evidenced by the following:

•Transferability is the demonstration that the research findings are applicable to other contexts, similar situations, similar populations, and similar phenomena. Data has been described adequately to allow comparison.

The research findings were submitted to both of the supervisors of this study for constructive criticism. They were responsible for examining the findings, interpretations, and recommendations and then, attest to whether they are supported by the data or not. The researcher ensured that the study findings could have meaning to others in similar situations.

•Dependability means that the study could be repeated by other researchers and that the findings would be consistent.

•Confirmability is the degree of neutrality in the study's findings. The findings must be based on the participants' responses or on any potential bias or personal motivations of the researcher. In order to maintain consistency, it has been of major importance for this study to have findings that reach similar conclusions.

The process of data collection, data analysis and interpretation of the data was detailed as a means to verify that the findings were shaped by the participants and that it was not influenced by biases, motivations or interests of the researcher.

•Credibility is about how confident the researcher is in the truth of the research study's findings, knowing that the findings are true and accurate. Of major importance for this study, was to see to it that its data is of high quality. Data reduction was done by removing complex data through coding. It was then displayed through the use of tables and charts, in order to draw sound conclusions. The verification of conclusions was done in order to test the validity of findings.

The researcher used triangulation to ensure that research findings are credible. That was achieved by using multiple data collection devices, data sources, and so forth, to establish the validity of findings.

In order to ensure trustworthiness in this study, amongst other things, the researcher made use of multiple data collection devices, in the form of tests to assess the levels of pragmatic competency in learners, and questionnaires to establish the degree of teachers' knowledge of pragmatic language, their skill of application and their attitude towards the teaching of pragmatic language sources. The objective for triangulating the methods of data collection and data analysis was, therefore, to ensure that there were no inconsistencies with regard to findings.

To ensure that the data collected was valid and reliable various measures were employed, such as:

- Submitting an ethical statement for approval by the University of Fort Hare ethics committee.
- Asking for permission from the Department of Education.
- Asking schools for consent for their participation.

By the nature of this study, its findings can be generalised to other similar situations, such as, when other researchers further investigate linguistic competence in order to gain a common understanding regarding the different reports on the level of learners' linguistic competency.

A detailed description of the study and of the research methods employed, as well as the description of the settings studied, has been given in order to afford other researchers the opportunity to replicate the study, using similar conditions in other contexts or settings. By so doing, the applicability of the findings to other settings is ensured (Searle, 1999:45).

3.5.4 Validity and Reliability

According to MacMillan and Schumacher (2001:407), validity is the degree to which the interpretations and concepts have mutual meanings between the participants and the researcher. It determines whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure, or how truthful the results are. Reliability, on the other hand, according to Silverman (2004:285), is the degree to which the findings of the research are independent of accidental circumstances.

Golafshani, citing Joppe (2001:1), defines reliability as:

> The extent to which results are consistent over time, and are an accurate representation of the total population under study. If the results of a study can be produced under a similar methodology, then the instrument is considered to be reliable.

To ensure that data collected from respondents is reliable and valid, the questionnaire was piloted to three (3) high schools and the participants' responses were instrumental in drafting the final questionnaires.

3.5.5. Ethical considerations

It was of major importance for the researcher to hold the rights of her study's participants in high regard. Dudovskiy cautions that respect for the dignity of research participants should be prioritised and, rightfully so, as they are the ones to cast light on the subject of investigation https://www.google.co.za/amp/s/research-methodology/ethica-considerations/amp/ (Accessed on 10.09.2017). The researcher found it wise to establish trust between the research participants and her in order to create a more conducive atmosphere for the research processes. With this in mind, the researcher treated the study's participants with utmost respect.

Bless *et al.,* (2006:1) claim that an investigator has a moral obligation to protect the participants from harm and unnecessary invasion of their privacy and to promote their wellbeing. It was of major concern for the researcher to take the participants' safety into consideration and to protect their feelings, their welfare, and their rights. Guarding against exposing the research participants of this study to any form of harm was, therefore, at all times, prioritised.

Somekh and Lewin (2005:2) believe that while ethical considerations may initially be viewed as stumbling blocks to the initiation of a study, they are clearly integral to the process. They further point out that attention to the ethics of an investigation requires extra thought and effort, and that the reward for a study that is both methodologically intact and ethically sound, is extremely exhilarating. In essence, this means that more attention should be given to these two mentioned sections of the study in order to attain the described goals.

The study has complied with the rules and regulations of the University of Fort Hare, regarding the conducting of research using human subjects. The following ethical considerations were taken into account during the course of the research: consent, confidentiality, anonymity and the right to withdraw from study.

The researcher's request for permission to conduct the study was forwarded to the University's Ethics Committee and she had an obligation to comply with the rules thereof. Written permission was also obtained from the office of the East London District Director, to which the three research sites, where the study was conducted, belong. Informed consent was sought from the schools, on behalf of the participants, and attached to it was a document that spelled out the intentions of the study and the objectives thereof. It was also clearly stated why it was important to carry out the study and the envisaged benefits thereof. The intentions of the study was not to evaluate individual learners, but to learn more about the role of pragmatics teaching in the development of learners' linguistic competence.

Polit and Hungler (1999:143) state that confidentiality means that no information that the participant divulges is made public or available to others without her/his consent. Ethical research therefore, is about handling the information concerning the participants in a confidential manner. The anonymity of a person or an institution is protected by making it impossible to link aspects of data to a specific person or institution. Confidentiality and anonymity are guaranteed by ensuring that data obtained is used in such a way that no one, other than the researcher, knows the source (LoBiondo-Wood & Haber 2002:273). In this study, no names were attached to the information obtained, but codes were used. Respondents were assured that their names and the names of their schools would be dealt with in the strictest confidence. This aspect includes the principle of trust in terms of which the researcher assured the participants that their trust would not be exploited for personal gain.

When some participants indicated that they were not comfortable about taking part in the investigation, the researcher respected their decision and released them. It was the same with the completion of the questionnaires. When a respondent felt he did not want to be part of the investigation, the researcher respected that and the respondent was allowed to withdraw from taking part. They were informed in advance that they were not forced to participate, as they had a choice to take part or not to, and that either way there would be no penalties nor would anyone be prejudiced. Their privacy was respected by putting in place some measures to control the entering and exiting from the venue, while the investigation was in progress. Moreover, pseudonyms were used to hide their true identity.

While their personal share in the research proceedings would remain confidential, however, the participants were informed that a copy of the findings would be submitted to the Department of Education.

3.5.6 Conclusions

Chapter Three, amongst other things, outlined the use of qualitative and quantitative paradigms in order to achieve the objectives of the study. Research paradigms were discussed so as to understand the philosophy of this particular study.

This chapter is about the philosophical orientation of the researcher, the research approach adopted the research strategies and the data collection strategies that the study has employed.

Also discussed is the research design, this study's criteria on how to select its subjects, the research sites and its data collection procedure so that the study can provide credible results.

This chapter also detailed a discussion of the nature of the mixed method approach and the explanation on why this study employed this approach and how mixing was achieved.

The study's processes were used to collect data in order to determine the effects of pragmatic language teaching on the development of learners' linguistic competence and they were individually discussed. An explanation was given for the researcher's reasons behind the choice of the research instruments that were used and how those instruments were developed. It was explained that the instruments were piloted through a small scale model of the actual study to test their reliability and validity. The researcher has given a detailed explanation of how data was collected and of how the data collection instruments were applied.

The researcher also explained the study's data sampling strategy and clarified the sampling strategy of its choice, as well as its sampling procedure. Data was triangulated and the use of different data collection techniques within the study was fully explained, as well as the reasons thereof.

Both qualitative and quantitative data was analysed. The analysis of the qualitative data was based on the content analysis procedures and was presented in two sections, according to the nature of the captured data. Data was reduced through coding. It was also displayed, transformed, consolidated, correlated, compared and consolidated.

Attention was given to the trustworthiness of data and the measures employed to ensure that the results are credible. Ethical considerations were an important aspect of this study, as they are integral to the investigation processes. Matters of validity and reliability were taken into consideration to ensure the consistency and the accuracy of the results.

The following chapter will focus on the presentation of results and the analysis thereof.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

While the previous chapter explained the various means and ways of data collection and data analyses, Chapter four constitutes what could be regarded as the heart of the research. This is due to its role of letting the researcher probe and test the thesis statement, as well as for giving feedback and, at the same time, dealing with the concerns of the research. Through this chapter, the researcher introduces the reader to the presentation, analysis and the interpretation of the data.

When data collection was complete, the next step was to analyse it with the intention to present it in an intelligible and interpretable form. The findings of this study were organised diagrammatically, wherein tables and charts were provided as a supplement to the narrative part of the presentation and analysis, as well as percentages. This seeks to enable the reader to visualise and to understand the important issues and the concepts that were discussed in the narrative. It is also to identify the general tendencies and relations in accordance with the aims of the study.

The research results were presented as an analysis of the qualitative data obtained from the assessment tests. This analysis was followed by an analysis of the quantitative data that was recorded by means of the questionnaire. Three different sites within the East London area became the focus of investigation and, notwithstanding the matters of ethical considerations; they were mentioned by name for the purposes of coding, from paragraphs one (1) to two (2) on page (35) of Chapter Three (3). The research sites were, therefore, coded as, school H, school M and school U, respectively, and they are all township high schools, in the heart of Mdantsane. This is an urban township which is situated about 15 kilometres from East London and about 37 kilometres from King William's Town.

The investigation commenced during the last week of November of 2016 and proceeded through to the 25th of the same month in 2016. All three of the high schools have a common background. While these high schools could be categorised as formerly disadvantaged black schools, they, however, pride themselves on their reputation for being considered the ‘elite schools' in the area and for having produced quite a number of achievers in various academic fields and sporting disciplines. School M and school H, in particular, have a history dating back to the establishment of Mdantsane around the year 1964, a Township considered to be the second largest in South Africa after Soweto. School U was established in the 1980’s, long after the two mentioned schools came into being. However, for the past three years, this school has maintained a significantly high pass rate. Socio-economically, the opposite can be said about these schools, as Mdantsane Township is ridden by a high unemployment rate that has resulted in extreme levels of poverty and, consequently, crime being rife in this township. All of these constraints have a potential to impede the learners’ academic achievements.

The three (3) research sites were subjected to investigation in order to elicit information on learners’ levels of pragmatic language competence, as well as on the teachers’ levels of knowledge of pragmatics language teaching, their attitude towards its teaching, as well as their skill of executing this subdivision of language teaching.

Both teachers’ and learners’ responses were closely examined and broken down to find interpretations for the data collected and explanations for the unusual responses, themes and patterns that relate to both the teachers’ attitudes towards pragmatic language teaching and to the learners’ levels of linguistic competency. These matters will be dealt with in two separate sections of this chapter.

This chapter, therefore, is an attempt to integrate the actual findings with the interpretation of the data.

4.2 PROFILES OF THE PARTICIPANTS

A careful description of the participants’ characteristics and their management is essential in research in order to bring to light the purpose, the intentions and the rationale behind the questions that were used to elicit the responses to be analysed (www.statisticssolutions.com (Accessed on 05.10.2017).

School H is in its entirety, a black school in Unit Three (3) of Mdantsane Township, with an enrolment of about (+/-493) learners. This school is managed by a Headmistress of about (+/-60) years of age, assisted by 1 administrator, 17 teachers of which six (6) are males and eleven (11) are females.

School M is also located in Unit Three (3) of Mdantsane and is managed by a Head-master with the assistance of one (1) administrator. It has an enrolment of about (609) learners. Of its (25) teaching staff members, (21) are females and the other four (4) are males. This school has a fully functioning Laboratory as well as a Library.

School U is situated in Unit Two (2) of the Mdantsane area. This school has an enrolment of about (656) learners and is managed by a female Headmistress of about (+/-58) years of age. She is assisted by one (1) administrator, and, under her leadership, are (20) teaching-staff members, of which thirteen are females, while seven are males. What is common about these three high schools is that, they are all categorised under the so-called, "Previously disadvantaged" schools and are further categorised as quintile one (1) schools. The quintile system is part of the National Norms and Standards that were introduced in 1998 to improve equity in education. For the past seventeen years, all the public schools in South Africa have been funded according to the category they have been allocated by the National Education Department. All the quintile one (1) schools are considered to be the poorest of the public schools, while those categorised under quintile five (5) are considered to be the least poor public schools. The quintile to which the school is categorised is based on income rates, unemployment rate and the degree of illiteracy within the area where the school is located (www.iol.co.za (Accessed on 31.10.2017). These schools could otherwise be referred to as "no-fee schools" or as "fee-paying schools", respectively.

4.2.1 Presentation and analysis of biographical data

Biographical data is instrumental in providing critical information on pragmatics teaching on the development of learners' linguistic competence. For instance, there is a relationship between the quality of teaching rendered, the teaching experience, the qualifications obtained, as well as of the age of the teaching staff.

Out of the population of (493) learners, (36) of them were assessed at school H. The test group consisted of (18) males and (18) females of Grades (10), (11) and (12).Three (3) of the seventeen (17) teachers constituting six (6) males and (11) females, of about (45) to (54) years of age, were also assessed. Of the school population of (609) learners at school M, (36) learners consisting of an equal number of males and females who were in Grades (10), (11) and (12), were subjects of investigation. Of the (25) teachers comprising of four (4) males and (21) females, three were part of the investigation. Their ages were between (45) and (54). School U has a population of about (656) learners, of which there is an equal number of males and females, adding up to thirty six (36) of those that were studied. Likewise, three (3) of the (20) teachers that consisted of seven (7) males and (13) females of between (45) and (54) years of age were part of the investigation.

The above account is reflected in the following tables of demographical data:

4.2.2 Data demographics for learners

Table: 4.1: Demographic Data for School H

Grade	Age	Females	Males	Total
10	15-16	6	6	12
11	16-17	6	6	12
12	17-18	6	6	12
Total		**18**	**18**	**36**

Table: 4.2: Demographic Data for School M

Grade	Age	Females	Males	Total
10	15-16	6	6	12
11	16-17	6	6	12
12	17-18	6	6	12
Total		**18**	**18**	**36**

Table: 4.3: Demographic Data for School U

Grade	Age	Females	Males	Total
10	15-16	6	6	12
11	16-17	6	6	12
12	17-18	6	6	12
Total		**18**	**18**	**36**

4.2.3 Age and gender relative to language acquisition

Learners who were assessed across the FET grades were between (15) and (18) years of age, and the same sample type for all of the three schools reflected as such. The age representation for Grade (10) learners was (15) to (16) years and for Grade (11) learners, it was (16) to (17) years while for learners in the 12th Grade it was (17) to (18) years.

Regarding the learners' pragmatic ability relative to age, Kim, as cited by Kung (2011:3), recognises a statistically significant correlation between the learners' starting age with language learning and, his/her grammatical and speaking abilities. He, however, asserts that learners may require different instructional measures to support their learning of pragmatic language.

Han and Tannöver (2015:1) argue that older learners are found to be less inclined to learn pragmatic norms of the target language, than the younger ones who are more broad-minded and concerned about learning of its pragmatic features. When it comes to language learning, males and females are different. Male's learning is instrumental, while the female's is integrative www.godstudylink.net. (Accessed on 04.12. 2017). Males are better with orientation than females, while females possess innate verbal skills and, as a result, they are better listeners, speakers, writers and readers. It is further claimed that when females talk, they use both hemispheres of their brain, while males use one and that explains the reason why females are more creative and engage in learning more effectively than males. The presentation of this study's findings was dealt with mindful of these researchers' assertions that females are better language learners than males (www.academia.edu>Gender_Age_and... (Accessed on 04.12. 2017).

The above narrative is displayed in the table below.

Table: 4.4: Profile of the Age of Learners

	Age group			
School	**15-16**	**16-17**	**17-18**	**Total**
School H	12	12	12	36
School M	12	12	12	36
School U	12	12	12	36
Totals	**36**	**36**	**36**	**108**

Table: 4.5: Profile of the Gender of the Learners

School	Males	Females	Total
School H	18	18	36
School M	18	18	36
School U	18	18	36
Total	**54**	**54**	**108**

4.2.4 Data demographics for teachers

Since the investigation of this study was twofold, some participants were assessed to measure the degree of their pragmatic competency, and others were subjected to a questionnaire in order to determine the extent of their knowledge of pragmatic language teaching, including their knowledge of the methods of application that are relevant to the effective development of linguistic skills.

All the participants sampled from a pool of teachers from the East London district were between the ages of (45) and (54) years of age. Participants from school H were all males, while at school M, participants were all females. The situation was different for school U, for its representation consisted of two (2) females and one (1) male. Participant representation for each of the schools was three (3). The total number of females representing the three schools was therefore, (5) while for the males it was (4), leaving the study with a total of nine participants representing the teachers in the investigation.

At the time that this study was conducted, some of the teachers resided within Mdantsane Township, while the others stayed in some of the East London suburbs. Of those nine (9) teachers, seven were married, while the other two (2) were single. The participants' work experience ranged from nine (9) to (35) years.

The above account of events is projected in the tables below.

Table: 4.6: The Age spectrum of Teachers

School	Age	Females	Males	Total
School H	45-54	0	3	3
School M	45-54	3	0	3
School U	45-54	2	1	3
Total		**5**	**4**	**9**

Table: 4.7: Gender profiles of participating Teachers

School	Males	Females	Total
School H	3	0	3
School M	0	3	3
School U	1	2	3
Total	**4**	**5**	**9**

4.3 PRESENTATION OF DATA

4.3.1 Introduction

In the researcher's quest to measure learners' degree of competence with reference to their pragmatic language skills, the study used a research instrument such as an assessment test. A questionnaire was used in order to determine the role played by pragmatics teaching in the development of learners' linguistic competence.

Below are the five major themes that were administered in order to fulfil the study's objectives with regard to determining the extent of teachers' pragmatic knowledge and teaching skills.

4.3.2 Presentation of data: Teachers

4.3.2.1 Introduction: Teachers' questionnaire

Teachers were issued with a copy of a questionnaire consisting of nine pages. It consisted of five (5) major themes. A copy of the questionnaire is attached to this study as appendix B.

Upon collection of the completed questionnaires, the data from the questionnaires was analysed and the findings are discussed below according to the various themes. The themes of the questionnaire are as follows:

- Knowledge of pragmatics language teaching method;
- Skill of application of pragmatics language teaching methods;
- Attitude towards pragmatics teaching;
- The availability of teacher support;
- Self-efficacy

4.3.2.2 Analyses of teachers' responses: Knowledge of pragmatic language teaching method

With regard to the teachers' knowledge of pragmatics language teaching method, the teachers were requested to indicate whether their knowledge of pragmatic meaning is adequate or not. The theme had ten statements to respond to. As indicated above, the respondents were given only two options, namely "agree" or "disagree". These statements will now be discussed individually in the paragraphs below.

Six (6) of the nine (9) teachers, accounting for 66.7 percent of the total number, agreed with the statement that, their knowledge of pragmatic meaning is adequate, while the other three (3), amounting to 33.3 percent of the total number, disagreed.

On the adequacy of the appropriateness of the teachers' use of language in different social situations, six (6) out of the nine (9), which is an equivalence of 66.7 percent agreed, and the remaining three (3), amounting to 33.3 percent, disagreed. Another six (6) of the teachers, a number equal to (66.7) percent, agreed that their knowledge of application of pragmatic knowledge is adequate, while the other three (3) disagreed.

In response to the statement on whether or not the teachers' knowledge of valid pragmatic assessment methods is sufficient, six of them, which accounts for 66.7 percent, believed that it was indeed sufficient and, therefore, agreed with the statement, while the other three (3), amounting to 33.3 percent, did not think so and, therefore, disagreed. Of the nine (9) teachers, five of them, which translate to 55.6 percent, agreed that their knowledge to reinforce teaching methods of language learning is sufficient, while the other four (4), which translates to 44.4 percent, did not agree with the statement.

In response to the statement that teachers' knowledge of the application of appropriate language teaching approaches is sufficient, five (5) of them agreed with the statement, and that accounts for 55.6 percent, while the other four (4), which is equal to 44.4 percent, disagreed. It is clear that, 88.9 percent, which is about eight

(8) teachers, were never taught how to apply pragmatic language knowledge, while the remaining teacher, which amounts to 11.1 percent, disagreed with the statement.

Five (5) teachers, equivalence to 55.6 percent of the total number, agreed that they have the knowledge to use strategies and activities that raise pragmatics awareness. Another four (4) of them disagreed and their number accounts for 44.4 percent. Seven (7) of the total number of teachers agreed that their knowledge to assess learners' pragmatic knowledge is proper. Their number accounts for 77.8 percent. Meanwhile, the other remaining 22.2 percent, which is about two (2) teachers, disagreed.

In response to a statement that the teachers' knowledge of the types of lessons proper for developing learners' pragmatic competence is sufficient, eight (8) teachers, which are equal to 88.9 percent, agreed that indeed it is proper. One (1) teacher disagreed with the statement and that number is equivalent to 11.1 percent. The above narrative is presented as follows in the table below:

Table: 4.8: Statistics of teachers' responses on knowledge of pragmatic teaching methods

S/N	KNOWLEDGE STATEMENT	RESPONSES				
	ITEMS	**AGR.***	**%**	**DISAGR.***	**%**	**TOTL***
1	Knowledge of pragmatic meaning is adequate.	6	66.7	3	33.3	9
2	Appropriate use of language in different social situations is adequate.	6	66.7	3	33.3	9
3	Knowledge of applying pragmatic knowledge is adequate.	6	66.7	3	33.3	9
4	Knowledge of valid pragmatic assessment methods is sufficient.	6	66.7	3	33.3	9
5	Knowledge to reinforce teaching methods of language learning is sufficient.	5	55.6	4	33.3	9
6	Knowledge of applying appropriate language teaching approaches is not sufficient.	5	55.6	4	44.4	9
7	Never taught how to apply pragmatic language knowledge.	8	88.9	1	11.1	9
8	Knowledge to use strategies and activities that raise pragmatics awareness.	5	55.6	4	44.4	9
9	Knowledge to assess learners' pragmatic knowledge is proper.	7	77.8	2	22.2	9
10	Knowledge of types of lessons proper for developing learners' pragmatic competence is sufficient	8	88.9	1	11.1	9
	TOTAL	**62**		**28**		**90**
	PERCENTAGE	**68.9**		**31.1**		**100**

* Key: AGR. = Agree; DISAGR. = Disagree; TOTL. = Total

4.3.2.3 Presentation of teachers' responses: the skill of application of pragmatics teaching methods

This section of the questionnaire evaluated teacher's skills with regard to the application of effective pragmatics language teaching methods in the class room. Teachers were requested to indicate whether or not they are confident that they have been equipped with adequate skills concerning pragmatics language teaching options. In this section responses were coded as: "strongly agree", "agree", "disagree", "strongly disagree" and "neutral". The theme had eleven statements to respond to. These statements will be discussed individually in the paragraphs below.

Regarding the teachers’ responses on whether or not their skill of application of the pragmatic knowledge was poor, three (3) of them strongly agreed, another three (3) agreed, the other two (2) disagreed, while one (1) of them strongly disagreed.

Three (3) teachers, who count for about 33.3 percent of their total number, strongly agreed with the statement that they bring to the classroom lessons on pragmatics that are adequate. Another 33.3 percent of them, which is three (3) teachers, agreed and the other 2.2 percent, a minority of two (2) teachers, disagreed while the remaining 11.1 percent, which is one (1) teacher strongly disagreed.

Of the nine (9) teachers, only two (2) which accounts for 22.2 percent, strongly agreed on a statement enquiring about whether or not the present language teaching methods that they use are appropriate and sufficient for proper language learning. The other six (6), which is 66.7 percent, agreed while one (1) teacher, which is about 11.1 percent, gave a neutral response.

Five (5) of the teachers, an equivalence of 55.6 percent, indicated that they do design their own teaching material to reinforce their teaching, while not a single one disagreed in this regard. The other 11.1 percent, one teacher, strongly disagreed with the statement, while the remaining three (3) of them, which accounts for 33.3 percent, remained neutral.

A minimum of three (3) of the total number of teachers strongly agreed to bringing to the classroom learning material other than the prescribed textbooks to develop learners' pragmatic competence, and their number accounts for 33.3 percent. Another five (5) of them, which is about 55.6, agreed with the statement, while one (1) of them, which accounts for 11.1 percent, strongly disagreed. On the statement on whether or not the teachers use reliable teaching material that stimulates real-life communicative situations, 44.4 percent of the total number, which is an equivalence of four (4), strongly agreed. Again, another four (4) of the teachers, which accounts for 44.4 percent, agreed while one (1) teacher disagreed with the statement.

In response to the statement that teachers require intense empowerment regarding the knowledge of methods of raising learners' pragmatic awareness, two (2) of them, which is equal to 22.2 percent, strongly agreed and the other remaining seven (7), which is equal to 77.8 percent, agreed. None of the teachers strongly disagreed,

disagreed or gave a neutral response. Four of the teachers, which are an equivalence of 44.4 percent, strongly agreed that they sometimes use role-play activities to observe learners' linguistic levels. Another five of them, accounting for 55.6 percent, agreed on the statement while neither of them strongly disagreed, disagreed or were neutral. Two (2), an equivalence of 22.2 percent of the teachers, strongly agreed that they sometimes ask learners to collect linguistic information from magazines, movies, novels, and so on. Another six (6), an equivalence of 66.7 percent, agreed while the last one (1) amounting to 11.1 percent gave a neutral response.

Of the total number of teachers, not a single one strongly agreed with the statement that they do include topics such as, apologies, requests and compliments, thanking, refusing and complaining, in their language lessons. Another six (6), accounting for about 66.7 percent, agreed while the remaining three (3), an equivalent of 33.3 percent, were neutral.

Three (3) of the total number of teachers, an equivalence of 33.3 percent, strongly agreed with the statement on whether or not classroom practice regarding pragmatics teaching has been transformed, used and revised for effective teaching. Another two (2), which is 22.2 percent of them agreed, while another two (2), which accounts for 22.2 percent, disagreed. The remaining two (2), which is equal to 22.2 percent, remained neutral.

Table: 4.9: Statistics of teachers' responses on skill of application

S/N	SKILL OF APPLICATION						RESPONSES				
	ITEMS	**SA**	**%**	**A**	**%**	**D**	**%**	**SD**	**%**	**N**	**%**
1	The skill of applying pragmatic knowledge is poor.	3	33.3	3	33.3	2	22.2	1	11	0	0
2	Teachers bring to the classroom lessons on pragmatics that are adequate.	3	33.3	5	55.6	0	0	0	0	1	11.1
3	The present language teaching methods that the teachers use are appropriate and sufficient for proper language learning.	2	22.2	6	66.7	0	0	0	0	1	11.1
4	Design own teaching material to reinforce their teaching.	0	0	5	55.6	0	0	1	11	3	33.3
5	Bring to the classroom learning material other than the prescribed textbooks to develop learners' pragmatic competence.	3	33.3	5	55.6	1	0	0	0	0	0
6	Use reliable teaching material that stimulates real-life communicative situations.	4	44.4	4	44.4	1	11.1	0	0	0	0
7	Require intense empowerment regarding knowledge of methods of raising learners' pragmatic awareness.	2	22.2	7	77.8	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	Sometimes use role-play activities to observe learners' linguistic levels.	4	44.4	5	55.6	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	Sometimes ask learners to collect linguistic information from magazines, movies, novels, and so on.	2	22.2	6	66.7	0	0	0	0	1	11.1
10	Include pragmatic topics such as, apologies, requests, and compliments, thanking, refusing and complaining, in their language lessons.	0	0	6	66.7	0	0	0	0	3	33.3
11	Classroom practice regarding pragmatics teaching has been transformed, used and revised for effective teaching.	3	33.3	2	22.1	2	22.1	0	0	2	22.2
	TOTAL	**26**		**54**		**6**		**2**		**11**	
	PERCENTAGE	**26.3**		**54.5**		**6.1**		**2**		**11.1**	

* Key: S A. = Strongly Agree; A. =Agree; D. = Disagree; S D. = Strongly Disagree; N. =Neutral

4.3.2.4 Analysis of teachers' responses: Attitude towards pragmatics teaching

Regarding the evaluation of the teachers' attitudes towards the teaching of pragmatics language, criteria such as, "never", "sometimes", "don't know", "most of the time" and "always" were used to determine their position in as far as their attitude towards teaching of the above-mentioned language is concerned. The theme had fourteen statements to respond to. These statements will be discussed individually in the paragraphs below.

One (1) of the respondents, which constitutes about 11.1 percent of the teachers that were evaluated, never thought that teaching pragmatics material is beneficial to learners, while one (1) of them, which is equal to 11.1 percent, thought that sometimes it is. None of them gave a, "Do not know" response, while another five (5) of them, constituting about 55.6 percent, thought that, indeed most of the time, teaching pragmatic material is beneficial. The remaining two (2) respondents, which accounts for 22.2 percent, thought that teaching pragmatics to learners, is always beneficial.

Of the nine (9) teachers, two (2) of them accounting for 22.2 percent, confirmed that they never question the necessity of teaching pragmatics, while another four (4), constituting 44.4 percent, voiced it out that, they sometimes do. Not one teacher responded with a, "Don't know" answer to the statement in question. Meanwhile, the other three (3) respondents, an equivalence of about 33.3 percent, thought that most of the time, they do.

Only one (1) respondent did not think that pragmatics teaching is helpful and necessary and, that accounts for 11.1 percent. The other one (1), accounting for another 11.1 percent, consented that it is sometimes helpful and, none of them gave a, "Do not know" response. The other four (4), accounting for 44.4 percent, believe that, most of the time, they do think that pragmatics teaching is helpful, and that, they also view it as being necessary. The remaining three (3) teachers were always of the view that, the teaching of pragmatic language is helpful and necessary.

One (1) of the respondents, an equivalence of 11.1 percent, was not convinced that learners would pick up a lot of pragmatic knowledge or competence through communication, while another one, also 11.1 percent of the total number, is of the view that, they sometimes do. Neither of them had a “Don’t know” as a response, while the other two (2), an equivalence of 22.2 percent thought that, most of the time, they hold this view that learners would acquire a lot of pragmatic knowledge through communication. The remaining five (5) respondents always have that belief that, learners would gain some knowledge by means of communication.

A figure of 11.1 percent of the total number of respondents never thought that the teaching of aspects of pragmatics, such as culture, politeness and usage are valuable, while 11.1 percent of them thought that they sometimes are. The other two (2), an equivalence of 22.2 percent, thought that they sometimes do. The remaining five (5), which is equal to 55.6, always thought so.

A figure of 11.1 percent of the respondents, which is equal to one (1) of their total number, has never desired to acquire more information about pragmatics in order to have adequate teaching skills. Another 11.1 percent acknowledged that they sometimes do. Another two (2), an equivalence of 22.2 percent, reaffirmed that, most of the time, they have the desire to learn more about pragmatics. The remaining five, (5) which constitutes 55.6 percent, said that they always have a desire to acquire additional information about pragmatics.

Five (5) of the respondents, which is equivalent to 55.6 percent claimed to have never been sensitive to the learners’ subjectivity as well as to their cultural being. None of them believed that they are sometimes sensitive to the learners’ subjectivity. Only one (1) of them did not hold a view about the statement and that is an equivalence of 11.1 percent. One (1) respondent, an equivalence of 11.1 percent thought that most of the time he/she can be sensitive to the learners’ subjectivity. The other two (2), an equivalence of 22.2 percent, admitted to be always sensitive to the learners’ subjectivity and their cultural being.

Most of the teachers admitted that they never give attention to communicative functions in the classroom but two (2) of them, which is 22.2 percent, claimed that they sometimes do. None of them gave a, “Don’t know” response, while three (3) of them thought that, most of the time, they do and the remaining four (4) said that they always give attention to communicative functions in the classroom.

Responding to a statement that, teachers welcome and are keen to implement newly introduced teaching programmes, one (1) of them, an equivalent of 11.1 percent, claimed that they are never keen to implement newly introduced teaching programmes. Meanwhile, one teacher, which is equal to 11.1 percent, claimed that she/he sometimes does not only welcome such programmes but is also keen to implement them. None of them gave a, "Don't know" response while another five (5), an equivalence of 55.6 percent consented to welcoming and implementing such programmes, most of the time. The remaining two (2), constituting 22.2 percent, said that they always welcome and implement newly introduced teaching programmes.

Only one (1) teacher, an equivalent of 11.1 percent of the total number of the teachers evaluated, indicated that they are never keen to prepare models for demonstration. Another one, constituting 11.1 percent of the total number, thought that she/he sometimes does prepare models for demonstration and, on the other hand, none of them gave a, "Don't know" response. Three (3) of the respondents consented to being keen to prepare models for demonstration, most of the time while the remaining four (4) claimed to be always keen to prepare such models, whenever that was necessary.

Of the nine (9) respondents, three (3) respondents are never prepared to welcome learner discussion in class after demonstration and, neither of them welcomes such discussions, sometimes. Neither of them had a 'don't know' response while the other three (3) do welcome such discussions. The remaining three (3) always welcome learner discussions after demonstration.

None of the respondents is ever keen to receive specific training on how to teach pragmatics however, two (2), which is 22.2 percent of them, thought that they sometimes do. Only one (1) teacher did not hold any opinion regarding the statement but, nevertheless, four (4) of them said that, most of the time, they are always keen to receive specific training on how to teach pragmatics. The remaining two (2) said that they always are and their number accounts for 22.1 percent of the total number.

One (1) of the respondents, which constitutes 11.1 percent of the number of teachers, indicated that he/she is never keen to incorporate new knowledge into classroom practice, while another 11.1 percent thought that sometimes he/she is keen to do that. There was no teacher who did not know how to respond to the statement in question, while the other four (4) of them, an equivalent of 44.4 percent, indicated that, most of the time teachers are keen to incorporate new knowledge into classroom practice. The remaining three (3), 33.3 percent, said that they are always keen to incorporate new knowledge into classroom practice.

The 11.1 percent of the respondents said that the experience of teaching language shall never make them comfortable to teach pragmatics, while another 11.1 percent believed that it would. None of the teachers gave a, “Don’t know” as their response and, meanwhile, the other 11.1 percent of them thought that the experience of teaching language will always make them comfortable to teach that kind of language. The remaining six (6), constituting 66.7 percent, said that the general experience of teaching a language always makes them comfortable to teach pragmatics.

The following table reflects every aspect of the above discussion:

Table: 4. 10: Statistics of teachers' responses on attitudes towards pragmatics teaching

S/N	RESPONSES					
	ATTITUDES TOWARDS PRAGMATICS TEACHING					
	ITEMS	NEVER	SOMETIMES	DON'T KNOW	MOST OF THE TIME	ALWAYS
1	Teaching pragmatics material is beneficial to learners.	1	1	0	5	2
2	Questions the necessity of teaching pragmatics.	2	4	0	3	0
3	Pragmatics teaching is helpful, and therefore, necessary.	1	1	0	4	3
4	Learners would pick up a lot of pragmatic knowledge through communication.	1	1	0	2	5
5	Teaching aspects of pragmatics such as culture, politeness and usage is valuable.	1	1	0	2	5
6	Desire to learn more information about pragmatics in order to have adequate teaching.	1	1	0	2	5
7	Sensitive to learners' subjectivity and cultural being.	5	0	1	1	2
8	Giving attention to communicative functions in the classroom.	0	2	0	3	4
9	Welcome and keen to implement newly introduced teaching programmes.	1	1	0	5	2
10	Keen to prepare models for demonstration, where necessary.	1	1	0	3	4
11	Welcome learner discussions after demonstration.	3	0	0	3	3
12	Keen to receive specific training on how to teach pragmatics.	0	2	1	4	2
13	Keen to incorporate new knowledge into classroom practice.	1	1	0	4	3
14	The experience of teaching language shall make me comfortable to teach pragmatics.	1	1	0	1	6
	TOTAL	**19**	**17**	**2**	**42**	**46**
	PERCENTAGE	**15.1**	**13.5**	**1.6**	**33.3**	**36.5**

4.3.2.5 Analysis of teachers’ responses: the availability of teacher support

This section consists out of two sub-sections. The first section assesses the extent to which teachers receive support from the Department of Education. The second part focuses on the extent to which teachers are willing to provide support for each other.

4.3.2.5.1 The availability of teacher support from the Department of Education

Items such as “agree” and “disagree” were used to elicit information in order to determine the degree of support the teachers receive from the Department of Education. The theme of “support” with reference to support by the Education system had seven statements to respond to. As indicated above, the respondents were given only two options, namely “agree” or “disagree”. These statements will now be discussed individually in the paragraphs below.

The majority of the respondents, a figure of 77.8 percent which translates to seven (7) of the total number, agreed with the statement that the teachers constantly attend workshops to develop and improve their knowledge of teaching pragmatics, while the other two (2) which is 22.2 percent, disagreed. Four (4) of them, an equivalence of 44.4 percent, agreed with the statement that teachers are provided with learning material that is sure to support the teaching of pragmatics. The other 55.6 percent, an equivalence of five (5) of the total number, were of a different opinion, with regard to the statement.

The statement that, enough time is allocated for teaching pragmatics was supported by only two (2) of the respondents, which is equivalent to 22.2 percent of the total number of respondents. The remaining 77.8 percent, which was seven (7) teachers, disagreed.

In response to the statement that Educational policies properly manage the matters of classroom overcrowding, only 22.2 percent, an equivalence of two (2) agreed. Meanwhile the other seven (7), which constitutes 77.8 percent, disagreed.

Responding to whether or not language teachers' workload is given proper attention, two (2), which is equal to 22.2 percent of the teachers, supported the statement, while the other seven (7), an equivalence of 77.8 percent, disagreed. Six (6) of them, constituting about 66.7 percent of the total number, were in harmony with the statement on whether or not they get enough support from each other. Only three (3) of them, which constitutes 33.3 percent, disagreed. The opposite could be said of the three (3) that constituted 33.3 percent and agreed on the statement that language teachers receive enough support from their Subject-Advisors. Another six, an equivalence of 66.7percent, flatly disagreed.

The above report is projected in the table below.

Table: 4. 11: Statistics of teachers' responses on support by the DoE

S/N	TEACHER SUPPORT	RESPONSES			
	ITEMS	**AGREE**	**Percent**	**DISAGREE**	**Percent**
1	Teachers constantly attend workshops to develop and improve their knowledge of teaching pragmatics	7	77.8	2	22.2
2	Teachers are provided with learning material that is sure to support the teaching of pragmatics.	4	44.4	5	55.6
3	Enough time is allocated for teaching of pragmatics.	2	22.2	7	77.8
4	Educational policies properly manage the matters of classroom overcrowding.	2	22.2	7	77.8
5	Language teachers' workload is given proper attention.	2	22.2	7	77.8
6	Language teachers get enough support from fellow-teachers.	6	66.7	3	33.3
7	Language teachers receive enough support from their Subject-Advisors.	3	33.3	6	66.7
	TOTAL	**26**		**37**	**63**
	PERCENTAGE	**41.3**		**58.7**	**100**

* Key: AGR. = Agree; DISAGR. = Disagree; TOTL. = Total

4.3.2.5.2 The availability of teacher support from fellow teachers

Two items such as true and false were used in order to establish whether or not teachers receive support from one another. The theme of “support” with reference to support provided by fellow teachers had seven statements to respond to.

Responding to whether or not there are people they can depend on if they really need to, regarding their language teaching, 88.9 percent, which is equal to (8) of the teachers, said that, it was true, while one (1) percent of them claimed that to be false. This figure accounts for 11.1 percent of the total number. Another seven (7) of them, an equivalence of 77.8 percent, said that it was true that they feel a strong emotional bond with at least one other colleague within the language department. The other two (2), an equivalence of 22.2 percent, could not find any truth in that statement. Another 88.9 percent of the teachers confirmed the truthfulness of the statement that there is a trustworthy person they could turn to for advice if they may experience problems with regard to their language teaching commitments. Their percentage translates to (8) teachers. Only a minority of 11.1 percent of them denied that the statement is true.

A minimum of 11.1 percent of the teachers were of the view that it was not true that there were people who depend on them for help in their language department. The other 88.9 percent of them said that indeed, it was true. Seven (7) of them, an equivalence of 77.8 percent of the total number, also claimed the statement to be true that there were people who enjoy the same social activities as they do. The other 22.2 percent of them confirmed that the statement was false.

A significant number of teachers, (88.9) percent believed that it is true that there are people who admire their work and who are keen to help develop their linguistic teaching skills and talents. The other 11.1 percent of them disagreed with the statement.

The table below attests to the above narrative:

Table: 4. 12: Statistics of teachers' responses on teacher's mutual support

S/N	TEACHER SUPPORT	RESPONSES				
	ITEMS	TRUE	Percentage	FALSE	Percentage	TOTAL
1	There are people I can depend on, if I really need to, regarding my language teaching.	8	88.9	1	11.1	9
2	I feel a strong emotional bond with at least, one other colleague within the language department.	7	77.8	2	22.2	9
3	There is a trustworthy person I could turn to for advice if I may experience problems with regard to my language teaching.	8	88.9	1	11.1	9
4	There are people who depend on me for help in my language department.	8	88.9	1	11.1	9
5	There are people who enjoy the same social activities as I do.	7	77.8	2	22.2	9
6	There are people who admire and are keen to help develop my linguistic teaching skills and talents.	8	88.9	1	11.1	9

4.3.2.6 Statements and responses to self-efficacy

In order to determine how much confidence teachers have with regard to their capacity to execute their duty of teaching pragmatics well, four options such as “never”, “sometimes”, “most of the time” and “always” were used to elicit the desired response. The theme of “self-efficacy” had twenty-one statements to respond to.

In response to the statement on whether or not the teachers have a hard time giving learners tasks that encourage communication with each other, two (2) of them, accounting for 22.2 percent, said that they never have a hard a time giving learners tasks of that nature, while the other five, which is 55.6 percent claimed that sometimes they do give tasks that encourage communication. Another 22.2 percent, an equivalence of two (2) respondents, have a hard time giving learners tasks that encourage communication with each other.

Of the total number of teachers, 22.2 percent, which is equal to two (2) respondents, never use a variety of tasks to make language teaching more communicative. The same percentage, which translates to two (2) of the total number of teachers claimed that, sometimes, their teaching does use a variety of different tasks to make language teaching more communicative. Another four (4), which is equal to 44.4 percent, said that, most of the time, their teaching fails to achieve that, while the other one, an equivalent of 11.1 percent, did not support the statement that his/her teaching always uses a variety of different tasks to make language teaching more communicative.

A figure of 55.6 percent of the respondents admitted that there is never a moment where they find themselves unable to give tasks that are designed to imitate real-life activities which learners are likely to encounter outside of the classroom. Another 22.2 percent of them are not able to give tasks of that nature. The remaining 22.2 percent of them are always unable to give tasks that are designed to imitate real-life activities that learners are likely to encounter outside of the classroom.

Some of the teachers (55.6) percent never fail to introduce the topic and name it pragmatics when teaching pragmatics. Two (2) of the teachers, an equivalence of 22.2 percent, did not deny that sometimes they do fail to introduce the topic. The other two (2) agreed that, most of the time, they fail to introduce the topic and name it pragmatics.

None of the respondents accepted the fact that they seldom include pragmatic aspects such as greetings, apologies, politeness and compliments when they do oral assessment. Meanwhile, three (3) of the respondents, amounting to 33.3 percent, confirmed that they sometimes include such pragmatic aspects of language, regardless of doing oral assessment. Another 33.3 percent of the respondents claimed to include the mentioned pragmatics aspects most of the time, even though they do oral assessment, while the other 33.3 percent of them claimed to rarely include those pragmatics aspects.

All nine (9) teachers claimed that their method of teaching never fails to encourage learners to learn from each other. Four (4) respondents, which accounts for 44.4 percent, seldom bring Video programmes, films and Television as a means of teaching pragmatics in the classroom, while another three (3), which is 33.3 percent of them, confessed to sometimes bringing such teaching aids into the classroom. Two (2) of the remaining teachers, equivalent to 22.2 percent claimed that they rarely bring such equipment to the classroom.

Only 11.1 percent of the teachers claimed not to be concerned with the fact that they are not capable of providing the learners with excellent resources to analyse language use in specific contexts, while another four (4), constituting 44.4 percent of them, agreed to sometimes worry that they are not able to impart such excellent skills that will enable learners to analyse language contextually. Most of the time, 33.3 percent of the teachers are not concerned at all that, they are not capable of providing the learners with such excellent resources. Meanwhile, the remaining 11.1 percent claimed to be concerned of their incapability to provide such excellent resources which will help the learners to analyse language use in specific contexts.

None of the respondents are ever worried that not sufficient time is provided for learners to experience how language is used for real communication purposes. On the other hand, the other six (6), which is equivalent to 66.7 percent, conceded to sometimes concern themselves about this matter, while 33.3 percent of them are concerned, most of the time. Five (5) of the teachers that were evaluated, which is equal to 55.6 percent, never thought that they would be able to keep up with all the suggested methods for teaching pragmatics, no matter how hard they try. Another 33.3 percent of them sometimes feel the same, while only one (1), an equivalent of 11.1 percent of them, is of the opinion that she/he will never be able to keep up with such methods, regardless of his /her efforts towards their acquisition.

An equivalence of 44.4 percent which translates to four (4) of the total number of respondents, never find it impossible to follow the methods for teaching pragmatic language, while another 44.4 percent, sometimes do. Meanwhile, another 11.1 percent said that, most of the time, they do find it nearly impossible to follow such methods.

Only one (1) respondent, which is 11.1 percent, claimed to never having trouble teaching pragmatics, while the other eight (8), which constitutes 88.9 percent of the respondents, did not deny having trouble teaching that aspect of language studies. Most of the time, none of the teachers have trouble teaching pragmatics.

An equivalence of 33.3 percent which translates to three (3) of the respondents, have never in the past had trouble implementing teaching methods that are new to them, while another four (4), which constitutes 44.4 percent of them, have sometimes experienced that. One (11.1 percent) conceded to sometimes having had trouble implementing new teaching methods, while another one 11.1 percent said that he/she always had trouble implementing such methods.

None of the respondents have ever had overload get in the way of their implementation of new teaching strategies. Meanwhile, 55.6 percent of them, which translates to five teachers, claimed to sometimes have experienced overload impeding the implementation of new teaching strategies. The remaining four (4) admitted that, it happens most of the time.

A minimum of 22.1 percent of the respondents, which is equal to two (2) teachers, claimed to never been determined to spend more time teaching pragmatics, while none of them have sometimes been determined to teach that kind of language, ever. Another four (4) which is equal to 44.4 percent of the total number, have most of the time been determined to teach that particular language, while the remaining 33.3 percent, which is equivalent to three (3), have always been determined to spend more time teaching pragmatics.

Two (2) respondents, constituting 22.1 percent of the teachers, indicated that they are never determined to do whatever it takes to teach pragmatic language to the level that is required of them, while one (1) of the respondents, about 11.1 percent, claimed to be prepared to go to great lengths to teach that same language. Most of the time, 33.3 percent of them are determined to teach pragmatics, according to the required standard while, the other 33.3 percent is always determined to teach pragmatic language to the level that is required of them.

Responding to whether or not the respondents are determined to review, reinforce and recycle the lessons previously taught, two (2) of the teachers, constituting 22.2 percent, admitted that, at no stage would they consider taking such actions while, another 11.1 percent of them, said that they would, sometimes. Another 33.3 percent acknowledged that most of the time they are determined to consider taking that action, while the other 33.3 percent claimed to always have that kind of determination.

None of the respondents are ever committed to using the target language for classroom management, while 22.2 percent of them admitted to sometimes being committed to doing that. Three (3) other respondents conceded to be committed to using the target language for classroom management, most of the time, while the remaining four (4), an equivalence of 44.4 percent, have always been committed to using such language for the purposes of managing the classroom.

Three (3) respondents, an equivalence of 33.3 percent of the teachers, are never determined to stick to a plan that will help them implement the relevant teaching strategies, in order to raise pragmatic awareness in learners. Another 22.2 percent of them indicated that they sometimes become determined to keep up to such a plan for the above-mentioned purposes. Meanwhile, another 22.2 percent is most of the time determined to make use of such a plan, in order to achieve the intended objectives. The remaining two (2) respondents conceded to always being determined to commit to a plan that is intended to assist in the implementation of the relevant teaching strategies.

Four (4) respondents confirmed that they learn as much as they can about ways and means of teaching pragmatic language. None of them indicated that they, sometimes, learn extensively about strategies of teaching pragmatic language. Meanwhile, one (1) of them claimed to, most of the time, learn about the tactics of teaching pragmatic language. Another four (4) confirmed that they always learn as much as they can of the tactics of teaching pragmatic language.

None of the respondents claimed to be committed to taking full responsibility for teaching pragmatic language. Meanwhile, four (4) of them are sometimes committed to the cause, as another one, an equivalence of 11.1 percent of the respondents claimed to be committed, most of the time. The other four (4) are always committed to taking full responsibility for teaching pragmatic language.

The table below is a projection of the narration above.

Table: 4.13: Questions and responses on self-efficacy

S/N	SELF EFFICACY	RESPONSES			
	ITEMS	NEVER	SOMETIMES	MOST OF THE TIME	ALWAYS
1	I have hard time giving learners tasks that encourage communication with each other.	2	5	2	0
2	My teaching does not use a variety of different tasks to make language teaching more communicative.	2	2	4	1
3	I am not able to give tasks that are designed to imitate real-life activities that learners are likely to encounter outside of the classroom.	5	2	0	2
4	When teaching pragmatics, I fail to introduce the topic and name it pragmatics.	5	2	2	0
5	Even though I do oral assessment, it seldom includes aspects of pragmatic aspects such as, greetings, apologies, politeness and complements.	0	3	3	3
6	My method of teaching does not encourage learners to learn from each other.	9	0	0	0
7	I seldom bring Video programmes, films and Television as a means of teaching pragmatics in the classroom.	4	3	0	2
8	I am concerned that I am not capable of providing the learners with excellent resources to analyse language use in specific contexts.	1	4	3	1
9	I also worry that, not sufficient time is provided for learners to experience how language is used for real communication purposes.	0	6	3	0
10	No matter how hard I try, I do not think that I shall be able to keep up with all the suggested methods for teaching pragmatics.	5	3	0	1
11	I find it nearly impossible to follow the methods for teaching pragmatics language.	4	4	1	0
12	I have trouble teaching pragmatic language.	1	8	0	0
13	In the past, I have had trouble implementing teaching methods that are new to me.	3	4	1	1
14	.Overload gets in the way of my implementation of new teaching strategies.	0	5	4	0
15	I am determined to spend more time teaching pragmatics.	2	0	4	3
16	I am determined to do whatever it takes to teach pragmatic language to the level that is required of me.	2	1	3	3
17	I am determined to review, reinforce and recycle the lessons previously taught.	2	1	3	3
18	I am committed to using the target language for classroom management.	0	2	3	4
19	I am determined to stick to a plan to help myself implement the relevant teaching strategies in order to raise pragmatic awareness in learners.	3	2	2	2
20	I learn as much as I can about ways and means of teaching pragmatic language.	4	0	1	4
21	I am committed to taking full responsibility for teaching learners pragmatic language.	0	4	1	4
	TOTAL	**54**	**61**	**40**	**34**
	PERCENTAGE	**28.6**	**32.3**	**21.2**	**17.9**

4.3.3 Assessment of learners

4.3.3.1 Introduction to learners' questions

As mentioned in paragraph 4.3.1 above, the researcher's quest to measure the learner's degree of competence with reference to pragmatic language included the use of a research instrument such as an assessment test.

The assessment test will now be discussed in the paragraphs below. This section consists of three sub-sections, namely, a description of the actual contents of the assessment test, secondly, a presentation of the test data and, finally, the analysis of the test data. A question paper has been attached to this study as "Annexure B".

4.3.3.2 Content of the assessment test

The assessment test consists out of five (5) questions and the test counts out of (25) marks. A mixed-evaluation strategy was followed. The answers to some of the questions were of the multi-choice type, whilst for the remaining questions, learners were requested to formulate their own answers. Here below are the five major questions that were administered in order to fulfil the study's second main objective, namely, to assess learners' levels of pragmatic competence:

Title of test

"Uvavanyo lolwazi lokusebenzisa ulwimi kwiimeeko zentlalo nokuqonda intsingiselo efihlakeleyo." (Testing for the learners' levels of pragmatics awareness.)

(Amanqaku ewonke (Total) [25]

Instructions to participants:

Phendula yonke imibuzo (Answer all the questions)

Umbuzo 1

1.1 Ilidi yakho ayibhali kakuhle kuba indunyuva. Zibolekele isixhobo sokulola ilidi komnye wabafundi beli gumbi ufunda kulo. (Ask one of your classmates to lend you a lead pencil sharpener.) [1]

1.2 Akuboni kakuhle ebhodini. Cela umfundi ophambi kwakho ukuba akhe ashenxe nje kancinci kuba, ukusithile. (You cannot see properly on the board. Ask the learner in front of you to shift a, little so that you can see properly.) [1]

1.3 Uncwase ukuzifunela isingxungxo ngeeholide zehlobo. Cela inqununu yesikolo sakho, ikutyikityele incwadi egunyazisa isicelo sesingxungxo.(Ask your principal to sign a letter allowing you to seek a part-time job during summer holidays.) [1]

1.4 Umfundi wesikolo sakho uwongwa ngembasa yokugqwesa kukhuphiswano lwezikolo lwentetho ngolwimi lwesiXhosa. Ungathini kuye ukuvakalisa indlela ovuyisana naye ngayo, kule mpumelelo? (Compliment your schoolmate for receiving an award for the best isiXhosa Language Achiever in the Schools' Provincial Awards for 2016.) [1]

1.5 Nanku umfundi ofunda naye encoma indlela ekuhlala ngayo ibhatyi yakho yesikolo entsha. Ngesivakalisi esinye phendula esi sincomo. (Your school mate complements you on how smart you look in your new school jacket. In one sentence, respond to this complement.) [1]

[5]

Umbuzo 2

2.1. Akuzokuphumelela namhlanje kwizifundo anibizela kuzo emva kwemini uTitshala wenu wezeMbali kuba, unedinga noGqirha wamazinyo. Cela imvume yokungabikho kuTitshala wakho wesi sifundo. (Ask your History Teacher to excuse you from attending the afternoon class as you have an appointment with the Dentist.) [1]

2.2. Uphiwa inyama yehagu ngumama womhlobo wakho kwaye ke, akuyityi. Zilandulele. (You are offered pork by your friend’s mother and, unfortunately, you do not eat pork. What will you say to decline the offer?) [1]

2.3. Uwise imali yakho yokugqibela engama-R20 yaza yacholwa, yabuyiselwa kuwe lelinye lamagqiyazana ofunda nawo. Libulele kucace ukuba kubulela umXhosa, xho. (You have dropped your last twenty rand (R20) by mistake and, most fortunately; it was picked up, and brought back to you by one of your female class-mates. Thank her.) [1]

2.4. Nanku umfundi eshiywe ngubhuti wakhe. Kunyulwe wena ke, ngabafundi ukuba, udlulise amazwi ovelwano. Khawutsho kuvokotheke ngesivakalisi esinye vo. (One of your school mates has lost his/her brother and you have been asked to convey some words of condolences on behalf of the class. Do that in a single sentence.) [2]

[5]

Umbuzo 3

3.1. Nika intsingiselo yezi ntetho ngokukhetha impendulo echanekileyo kwezi zidweliswe ngezantsi. (Give the meaning of these phrases by choosing the correct one from these listed below):

3.1.1 Oku kuthethela phezulu kwakho kuza kundibizela amahashe ndingenambona. (Literal translation: Your loud speaking habit shall invite horses for me, yet I do not have any maize to offer them.)

Uthetha ukuba: (This means):

A. Akanambona, abe amahashe akhe ewuthanda umbona (His/ her horses like maize while, he/she does not have any.)

B. Akakholwa kukungawalimeli umbona amahashe akhe. (He/ She does not like not to grow maize for his/her horses.)

C. Uza kumbizela inkathazo. (His/her loud speaking is going to cause trouble for her/him.) [2]

3.1.2 Olo thando lwabo lwasuka lwangumlilo weendiza. (Their hot love for each other became a maize-stem fire.

Uthetha ukuba: (This means):

A. Umlilo weendiza awunabushushu boneleyo. (Fire made from maize stems does not give much heat).

B. Uthando lwabo lwakhawuleza ukuphela. (Their love ended quickly.)

C. Umlilo weendiza ngowona uvutha kakuhle. (Fire made from maize-stems burns well.) [2]

3.1.3 Akanantloko ke noko lo mntwana! (This child is headstrong!)

Ingaba lo kuthethwa ngaye: (Does it mean the one referred to has):

A. Unentloko encinci (a small head.)

B. Unengqondo emfutshane (is small minded.)

C. Ukrwada (is rude) [2]

[6]

Umbuzo 4

Nika intsingiselo yezi ntetho: (Give the meaning of these phrases.)

4.1 UThembi uziqale ngegugu izifundo zakhe zebanga leshumi elinesibini kodwa, andazi, ingathi ngoku inkal' ixing' etyeni. (Thembi was highly motivated when she started with her Grade 12 studies but now it seems that things are extremely difficult.)

[2]

4.2. UThemba walile ukundincedisa kwisifundo seziBalo. Uyalibala ukuba inkungu ilala kwiintaba ngeentaba. (Themba refused to help me with Mathematics studies).

He forgets that what goes around comes around.) [1]

4.3. Sebenzisa isaci okanye iqhalo kwisivakalisi ngoncedo lwesiqu sesenzi u-betha.

(Use a proverb or an idiom in a sentence using the verb stem –betha.) [2]

[5]

Umbuzo 5

5.1. Akutshaywa kwaMc Donald's. Umamele omnye wabasebenzi enqanda umfo ambona etshaya esithi, "Akutshaywa apha mfondini!" Yeyiphi indlela ephucukileyo nechubekileyo obunokumxelela ngayo ukuba akutshaywa apha wena lo mfo? (Smoking is not allowed at Mc Donald's. (You hear one of the Mc Donalds' employees asking the person that he found smoking saying, ("Hey man! Smoking is not allowed here! Which other polite way would you use to inform this person that, smoking is forbidden at Mc Donald's?)

5.2. Ingxoxo phakathi koThandokazi nonina uMaRhadebe: (A conversation between

Thandokazi and her mother, MaRhadebe): [2]

UThandokazi: (Uvela kudlala ngorhatya.) (She is from playing outside, at twilight.) Andilambe! (I am so hungry!)

UMaRhadebe: Nazo iimbiza. (There are the pots.)

Cazulula intsingiselo yale mpendulo kaMaRhadebe. Ucinga ukuba uMaRhadebe uthini kanye, kanye kuThandokazi? (Analyse the actual meaning of MaRhadebe's response). What is she actually, saying to Thandokazi? [2]

[4]

Amanqaku ewonke (Total) [25]

4.3.3.3 Presentation of the test data

Learners were tested on separate dates for each of the three East London district high schools. This means that the research took place around the exam time and that worked well for the study as its timing resonated with the exam mood. They were tested for their pragmatic language proficiency, particularly, on aspects of language usage such as metaphorical language, politeness, greetings, requests, expression of gratitude, apologies and refusals.

The researcher made sure, way before the testing period, that the test questions were moderated to ensure that they were understandable and of a satisfactory standard. After the seating arrangement was completed and a brief explanation was given of what the test was all about and its duration, the question papers were issued.

When the time that was allowed for the test had expired, the scripts were collected according to respective grades, and made ready for marking as well as for moderation. A memorandum was used as an assessment tool to mark the test scripts.

Data was analysed manually and, then, it was later processed with the assistance of a Computer programme in the form of Microsoft Excel.

Quantitative analysis techniques were used to examine, evaluate and interpret the learners' responses to the questions. These included tables to allow comparisons, correlations and frequency of occurrence.

The paragraphs below reflect the participants' test scores, as well as an interpretation of the test data for all of the three Grades, (10) to (12). The maximum mark for the test was (25) while the minimum pass mark was (10), which is equal to (40) percent of the total mark.

4.3.3.4 Presentation of the test data: Grade 10

Table: 4. 14: Grade 10 Scores in order of merit

Item number	Participants' Codes	Score	Percentage	Level
1	UF7	18	72	6
2	HF4	18	72	6
3	MM4	17.5	70	6
4	UM3	17.5	70	6
5	UF9	17	68	5
6	HM6	16.5	66	5
7	HF5	16.5	66	5
8	UF5	16	64	5
9	UM1	16	64	5
10	MF5	15.5	62	5
11	HM7	15.5	62	5
12	UF6	15	60	5
13	MF8	14.5	58	4
14	HF3	14	56	4
15	HF31	14	56	4
16	HM9	13	52	4
17	MM3	12.5	50	4
18	MF32	12.5	50	4
19	HM10	12.5	50	4
20	MF33	12	48	3
21	MM2	11.5	46	3
22	UM4	11.5	46	3
23	MF9	11.5	46	3
24	HM34	11.5	46	3
25	MM10	11	44	3
26	HF1	11	44	3
27	UF8	11	44	3
28	HM8	10.5	42	3
29	MF7	10	40	3
30	HF2	9.5	38	2
31	MF6	9.5	38	2
32	UM10	8.5	34	2
33	MM1	8	32	2
34	UM2	7.5	30	2
35	UM35	7.5	30	2
36	UF36	7.5	30	2
	TOTAL	**461.5**	**1846**	
	Number of participants	**36**	**36**	**36**
	Average Mark	**12.8**	**51.3**	
	Pass Rate	**29**	**29**	
	Pass Rate %	**80.6**		
	No. Failed	**7**	**7**	

4.3.3.5 Interpretation of Grade 10's test results

The above tabulation is a reflection of the test scores of the (36) learners per grade from Grade (10) to (12) participants representing the schools that were part of the investigation. The results of the test are presented in the form of raw scores, in percentages and in levels, according to the Scale of Achievement for the National Curriculum Statement. This scale makes provision for seven levels of competence and can be interpreted as follows: An achievement mark from eighty (80) to (100) percent is an Outstanding Achievement and an attainment of level seven (7). Level six (6) means a mark attainment from (70) to (79) percent and it also means a Meritorious Achievement.

A Substantial Achievement is a mark attainment from (60) to (69) percent and is qualified as level five (5). A mark attainment from (50) to (59) percent qualifies one for an Adequate Achievement which translates to level four (4). From (40) to (49) percent means an attainment of a Moderate Achievement and qualifies for the level three (3).

The next level on the achievement scale is level two (2) which is a mark attainment from (30) to (39) percent and means an Elementary Achievement. The last level on the achievement scale is a "Not Achieved" which reflects the mark attainment from zero (0) to (29) percent and qualifies for level one (1) (www.saou.co.za>upload>2016/04 (accessed on 07.11.2017).

None of the participants of Grade (10) obtained a score within the category of (80) and (100) percent and, therefore, none has managed to achieve level seven (7), an Outstanding Achievement. Nonetheless, four (4) of them managed to score between (70) and (79) percent thereby achieving level six (6), which is a Meritorious Achievement. Eight participants of this grade achieved level five (5), a mark between (60) and (69) percent and, therefore, had a Substantial Achievement. The seven (7) participants that attained a score in the category between (50) and (59) percent achieved level four which is a Moderate Achievement. Most of the participants obtained a mark between (40) and (49) and that qualified them for a Moderate Achievement, which is equal to level three (3). Another seven (7) achieved scores in the range of (30) and (39) percent and that is equivalent to level two (2) and, an

Elementary Achievement. For all the three schools, no participant had obtained a mark between one (1) and (29) percent and, therefore, none belonged to the ‘Not Achieved category. Sum of (29) of the (36) Grade (10) participants passed the assessment test. Of the number of passes, (16) were females while (13) were males. Collectively, the Grade (10) cohorts attained a pass rate of 80.6 percent for the assessment test, with an average mark of 12.8. Of the seven participants that had failed, four were males while three were females.

The above narration is reflected on the table of the scale of achievement below.

Table: 4. 15: Interpretation of the Grade 10 test results according to the level of Achievement

Scale of Achievement	**80-100%**	**70-79%**	**60-69%**	**50-59%**	**40-49%**	**30-39%**	**1-29%**
LEVELS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Number	0	4	8	7	10	7	0
TOTAL number= 36							

Table: 4. 16: A table reflecting the mean, median, mode and range of Grade 10 participants

Item Number	Participants' Codes	Scores
1	UM2	7.5
2	UF36	7.5
3	UM35	7.5
4	MM1	8
5	UM10	8.5
6	MF6	9.5
7	HF2	9.5
8	MF7	10
9	HM8	10.5
10	UF8	11
11	HF1	11
12	MM10	11
13	MF9	11.5
14	UM4	11.5
15	MM2	11.5
16	HM34	11.5
17	MM33	12
18	HM10	12.5
19	MM3	12.5
20	MF32	12.5
21	HM9	13
22	HF3	14
23	HF31	14
24	MF8	14.5
25	UF6	15
26	HM7	15.5
27	MF5	15.5
28	UM1	16
29	UF5	16
30	HF5	16.5
31	HM6	16.5
32	UF9	17
33	UM3	17.5
34	MM4	17.5
35	HF4	18
36	UF7	18
	TOTAL	**461.5**
	Number of participants	**36**
	Average Mark	**12.8**
	Mean	**12.8**
	Median	**12.5**
	Mode	**11.5**
	Range	**10.5**

- To find the mean for the above scores, the values were added up and then, divided by the number of participants and, hence, the mean is (12.8).
- In order to find the median, the (18th) and the (19th) values had to be averaged because of a point five (.5) and the median, therefore, is (12. 5).
- The mode is (11.5) for it is the value that has been repeated four times.
- The highest value is (18) minus the lowest value, which is seven point five (7.5) and, therefore, the range for these scores is (10.5)

4.3.3.6 Presentation of the test data: Grade 11

Table: 4.17: Grade 11 score in order of merit

Item Number	Participants' Codes	Score	Percent	Levels
1	MM16	18.5	74	6
2	HM14	16.5	66	5
3	MM14	16.5	66	5
4	UF14	16	64	5
5	MF18	16	64	5
6	HM15	15.5	62	5
7	MM13	15.5	62	5
8	UM18	15.5	62	5
9	MF20	15	60	5
10	HF19	15	60	5
11	UF31	15	60	5
12	UF20	14.5	58	4
13	MM11	14.5	58	4
14	HF32	14.5	58	4
15	UF11	14	56	4
16	UM33	14	56	4
17	MM12	13.5	54	4
18	MF15	13.5	54	4
19	HF16	13	52	4
20	MM34	13	52	4
21	UM15	12.5	50	4
22	HM11	12	48	3
23	UF12	11.5	46	3
24	UF13	11.5	46	3
25	UM16	11.5	46	3
26	MF35	11.5	46	3
27	HF17	11	44	3
28	UM19	11	44	3
29	HM13	10.5	42	3
30	HM36	10	40	3
31	HF20	8.5	34	2
32	MF17	8	32	2
33	UM17	7.5	30	2
34	HF18	7	28	1
35	HM12	6.5	26	1
36	MF19	4	16	1
	TOTAL	**454**	**1816**	
	Number of participants	**36**	**36**	**36**
	Average Mark	**12.6**	**50.4**	
	Pass Rate	**30**	**30**	
	Pass Rate %	**83.3**		
	Number failed	**6**	**6**	

4.3.3.7 Interpretation of Grade 11's test results

Grade (11) participants were an equal number of males and females and, altogether, they were (36) candidates. Rated on the Scale of Achievement, assessment results reflect that there were zero (0) participants that obtained between (80) to (100) percent. This suggests that, no participant in this grade had attained an Outstanding Achievement and, therefore, no participant attained level seven (7).

One (1) participant managed to obtain a mark between (70) and (79) percent, which resulted in the participant to attaining level six (6) and a Meritorious Achievement. About (10) participants were in the (60) to (69) percent bracket, a level five (5) attainment that translates to a Substantial Achievement.

There were (10) participants that had attained an Adequate Achievement, which is a mark attainment between (50) to (59) percent, and level five (5) of the Scale of achievement.

Of the (36) participants of Grade (11), nine (9) attained a Moderate Achievement which translates to level three (3), a mark attainment between (40) and (49) percent.

Only three (3) participants in this grade obtained a mark between (30) to (39) percent and level two (2), which is equal to an Elementary Achievement in terms of the Scale of Achievement.

In the last category of the scale, three (3) participants obtained between one (1) and (29) percent. Participants in that category had attained level one (1), which translates to a Not Achieved status.

Of the (30) Grade (11) passes, (16) were males and (14) were females. The number of the participants that had failed comprised of two males (2) and four (4) females. The pass rate for this grade was, therefore, 83.3 percent, with an average mark of 12.6 and the range for the grade's scores was 14.5.

The above account of the status quo of the Grade (11) participants in the investigation is reflected in this analysis of results below.

Table: 4.18: Interpretation of the Grade 11 test results according to the level of Achievement

Scale of Achievement	80-100%	70-79%	60-69%	50-59%	40-49%	30-39%	1-29%
LEVELS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
TOTAL =36	0	1	10	10	9	3	3

Table: 4.19: A table reflecting the mean, median, mode and the range of Grade 11 participants

Item Number	Participants' Codes	Scores
1	MF19	4
2	HM12	6.5
3	HF18	7
4	UM17	7.5
5	MF17	8
6	HF20	8.5
7	HM36	10
8	HM13	10.5
9	UM19	11
10	HF17	11
11	UM16	11.5
12	UF13	11.5
13	UF12	11.5
14	MF35	11.5
15	HM11	12
16	UM15	12.5
17	HF16	13
18	MM34	13
19	MF15	13.5
20	MM12	13.5
21	UF11	14
22	UM33	14
23	MM11	14.5
24	UF20	14.5
25	HF32	14.5
26	HF19	15
27	MF20	15
28	UF31	15
29	UM18	15.5
30	MM13	15.5
31	HM15	15.5
32	MF18	16
33	UF14	16
34	MM14	16.5
35	HM14	16.5
36	MF16	18.5
	TOTAL	**454**
	Number of participants	**36**
	Average Mark	**12.6**
	Mean	**12.6**
	Median	**13.3**
	Mode	**11.5**
	Range	**14.5**

To find the mean for the above grade's scores, all the values were added up and then, divided by the number of participants.

- The median for Grade (11) scores is (13.3) and it was attained by averaging the (18^{th}) and the (19^{th}) value because of a point five (.5)
- The figure (11.5) is the mode, because these values appear four times more in the list than the other values.
- The highest value is (18.5) minus the lowest value, which is four (4) and that is equal to (14.5) and, therefore, this figure is the range for these scores.

4.3.3.8 Presentation of the test data: Grade 12

Table: 4. 20: Grade 12 Scores in order of Merit

Item Number	Learner's Codes	Score	Percent	Levels
1	MF 23	20	80	7
2	HM25	19	76	6
3	HF28	19	76	6
4	HF31	17.5	70	6
5	HF26	17	68	5
6	HF30	17	68	5
7	HM22	16.5	66	5
8	HM23	16	64	5
9	MF26	16	64	5
10	MF24	16	64	5
11	MM21	16	64	5
12	UF28	15.5	62	5
13	UM22	15.5	62	5
14	HM21	15.5	62	5
15	UF29	15.5	62	5
16	UF30	15.5	62	5
17	MF32	15.5	62	5
18	UM33	15.5	62	5
19	MM34	15.5	62	5
20	MM22	15	60	5
21	MF27	15	60	5
22	HM35	14.5	58	4
23	HF29	14	56	4
24	MF25	14	56	4
25	HF27	13.5	54	4
26	UM21	13.5	54	4
27	HM24	13	52	4
28	UM23	12.5	50	4
29	MM29	12.5	50	4
30	UF36	12.5	50	4
31	MM30	11.5	46	3
32	UF26	11	44	3
33	UF27	10.5	42	3
34	UM25	9	36	2
35	MM28	8.5	34	2
36	UM24	8	32	2
	TOTAL	**522.5**	**2090**	**161**
	No. of participants	**36**	**36**	**36**
	Average Mark	**14.5**	**58.1**	**4.5**
	Pass Rate	**33**	**33**	
	Pass Rate %	**91.7**		
	No. Failed	**3**	**3**	

4.3.3.9 Interpretation of Grade 12's test results

The scale of achievement regarding the Grade (12) test results reflects the following: Only one (1) participant for this grade obtained a score within the range of (80) to (100) percent, meaning that the participant has managed to attain level seven (7) and, consequently, reached an Outstanding Achievement.

Three (3) participants obtained a score between (70) and (79) percent and that afforded them to attain level six (6), which then qualified them for a Meritorious Achievement.

A significant number of Grade (12) participants were found to be more concentrated in the (60) to (69) percent category. There were about (17) participants that had attained level five (5) and, consequently, reached a Substantial Achievement. Another nine (9) participants obtained between (50) and (59) percent which means an Adequate Achievement and an attainment of level four (4). In the (40) to (49) percent bracket, there were three (3) participants who had attained level three (3), which means that they had acquired a Moderate achievement. In the (30) to (39) percent category, three (3) participants attained a 'Moderate Achievement', thereby attaining level two (2).

None of the participants of this grade obtained between one (1) and (29) percent and, therefore, no participant was in the 'Not Achieved' category and none had attained level one (1).

Of the (36) Grade (12) participants, comprising of an equal number of males and females, all the (18) female participants passed the assessment test while only (15) males had passed. The Grade (12) participants who had failed the assessment test were all males.

The average mark for Grade (12) in the assessment test was 14.5 percent, with a pass rate of 91.7 percent, while the range of the scores was 12.

Below, is a table of analysis that reflects the above narrative.

Table: 4. 21: Interpretation of Grade 12 test results according to level of achievement

Scale of Acievement	80-100%	70-79%	60-69%	50-59%	40-49%	30-39%	1-29%
LEVELS	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
NO	1	3	17	9	3	3	0
TOTAL = 36							

Table: 4. 22: A table reflecting the mean, median, mode and range of Grade 12 participants

Item Number	Learner's Code	Scores
1	UM24	8
2	MM28	8.5
3	UM25	9
4	UF27	10.5
5	UF26	11
6	MM30	11.5
7	MM29	12.5
8	UM23	12.5
9	UF36	12.5
10	HM24	13
11	UM21	13.5
12	HF27	13.5
13	MF25	14
14	HF29	14
15	HM35	14.5
16	MF27	15
17	MM22	15
18	UF30	15.5
19	UF29	15.5
20	HM21	15.5
21	UM22	15.5
22	UF28	15.5
23	MM34	15.5
24	UM33	15.5
25	MF32	15.5
26	MM21	16
27	MF24	16
28	MF26	16
29	HM23	16
30	HM22	16.5
31	HF30	17
32	HF26	17
33	HF31	17.5
34	HF28	19
35	HM25	19
36	MF23	20
	TOTAL	**522.5**
	No. Wrote	**36**
	Average Mark	**14.5**
	Mean	**14.5**
	Median	**15.5**
	Mode	**15.5**
	Range	**12**

- The values were added up and divided by their number to find the mean for these scores, which is (14.5).
- The median for Grade (12) scores is (15.5) and it was attained by averaging the (18th) and the (19th) value because of a fraction equal to a point five (.5).
- The value that appears eight times more than other values on the list is (15.5) and therefore, this figure is the mode for these values.
- From the highest value, which is (20) minus eight (8) which is the lowest value, and that is equal to (12), which then becomes the range for these values.

4.3.3.10: A comparative interpretation of the results

Comparatively, while the participants of the three schools were subjected to the same assessment test, under similar conditions, the results reflect some important differences of performances not only between the respective grades, but, also between the genders, as well as between the three schools that took part in the assessment.

With regard to the general performance per grade, Grade (10) obtained a pass rate of about 80.6 percent, as against the 83.6 percent for Grade (11) and the 91.7 percent for Grade (12). This state of affairs confirms that, with an average mark of 14.5, Grade (12) learners had performed better than Grades (10) and (11), whose average marks were 12.8 and 12.6, respectively.

For all the three (3) grades, females seemed to be taking a leading role in the assessment test, as far as performance is concerned. The participant that had an Outstanding Achievement, thereby attaining level seven (7), was a female and the only participant to have achieved that level in Grade (12), and even across the three grades. However, there were instances where the number of male passes was higher than the number of female passes. For instance, for Grade (10), school H broke the norm when it recorded six (6) male passes against five (5) female passes. The occurrence of more male passes than females was repeated for the above mentioned school's Grade (11) results, where five (5) males passed versus the four (4) female passes. Collectively, for Grade (10), a significant number of (16) females versus (13) males passed the assessment test, while for Grade (11) more males had passed, recording (16) male passes versus the (14) female passes. In Grade (12), (18) females versus (15) males passed the assessment test. It can therefore be concluded that Grade (11) is the only grade that had more male passes than females. It can also be said that, with (48) female passes versus (44) passes for all the three (3) grades, more females than males had passed the assessment test.

For the three (3) schools, of the (108) participants, (92) passed, while (16) failed the assessment test. Of that number, Grade (10) had seven (7) participants that did not pass while Grades (11) and (12) recorded six (6) and three (3), respectively. Grade (10) had the highest number of participants that failed the test, recording seven (7) consisting of three (3) females and four (4) males. Six (6) participants failed the test in Grade (11). That number was made up of four (4) females and two (2) males. Three (3) of these participants were representatives of school H. The other two (2) belonged to school M while the other one (1) belonged to school U. The three (3) participants that failed the test in Grade (12) were all males. Two (2) of them were from school U and one from school M.

For Grade (10), the school with the highest number of passes was school H, with (11) passes, followed by school M, with (10) passes. School U recorded only eight (8) passes. For Grade (11), school U leads with (11) passes. School M took the second position by recording (10) passes, followed by school H, with nine (9) passes. For Grade (12), the three (3) schools had an equal number of passes and, all three (3) each had (12) passes.

Below is the tabulation of the above narrative.

Table: 4. 23: A comparative analysis of passes for the schools by grade and gender

GRADE	SCHOOL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
10	SCHOOL U	3	5	8
	SCHOOL M	4	6	10
	SCHOOL H	6	5	11
TOTAL		**13**	**16**	**29**
11	SCHOOL U	5	6	11
	SCHOOL M	6	4	10
	SCHOOL H	5	4	9
TOTAL		**16**	**14**	**30**
12	SCHOOL U	4	6	10
	SCHOOL M	5	6	11
	SCHOOL H	6	6	12
TOTAL		**15**	**18**	**33**

4.3.3.11 Analysis of findings of the assessment

An accurate analysis of the findings of an investigation is necessary and important in the sense that they enable the researcher to consider the findings in a deeper sense than he/she has done up to the present stage. This is done to reveal the meanings that underlie each and every aspect of the findings. Of importance also, is for the researcher to uncover what was learned from undertaking the research and from studying its findings. The aim is also to have a perception of the common existing trends regarding the participants' experiences. It is equally vital for the researcher to have proper understanding, as well as full explanation, of those common experiences. There is also a need to be cognisant of the new insights and understanding resulting from conducting this study. Consistency of the findings, in relation to other studies, is also important.

4.3.3.12 Analysis of findings: Grade 10

The cohort of (36) Grade (10) participants that wrote the test consisted of (18) males and (18) females. Out of that cohort of (36) participants, (29) passed and that constitutes 80.6 percent, while the other remaining seven failed, which translates to (19.4) percent. (16) of those who passed, which is equal to 55.2 percent, were females. The number of males that passed the test was (13), which represents a figure of 44.8 percent of the total number of passes. What this means is that, comparatively, Grade (10) females had performed better than their male counterparts.

Of the seven (7) participants that failed the assessment test in this grade, three (3) were females, which represent about 42.9 percent of the total number of failures, while the other four (4), which was about 57.1 percent of the total number of failures, were males. Of the total number of males that had failed, school U recorded three (3) while school M recorded one (1). For this grade, each of the three (3) schools had one (1) female failure.

The results for the above mentioned grade were distributed as follows: None of the participants of Grade (10) participants acquired a mark between (80) and (100) percent. Only four (4) of the participants of this grade had a pass mark of between (70) and (79) percent and that makes for (11.1) percent. Eight (8) of the participants, or (22.2) percent of the total number obtained a mark between (60) and (69) percent. Seven (7) of them, or (19.4) percent acquired a mark between (50) and (59) percent. Another (10) of the participants accounting for (27.8) percent, obtained a mark between (40) and (49) percent. The remaining seven (7) of the participants, about (19.4) percent of the total number, obtained a mark between (30) and (39) percent. No participant of this grade obtained a mark within the bracket of one (1) to (29) percent.

The following table is a reflection of what has been discussed above.

Table: 4. 24: Summary of Grade 10 Findings

	80-100		Totl	70-79		Totl	60-69		Totl	50-59		Totl	40-49		Totl	30-39		Totl	29-Jan		Tolt	Total
Gender	**M**	**F**		**M**	**F**		**M**	**F**		**M**	**F**		**M**	**F**		**M**	**F**		**M**	**F**		
1.School H	0	0		0	1		2	1		2	2		2	1		0	1		0	0		12
2.School M	0	0		1	0		0	1		1	2		3	2		1	1		0	0		12
3.School U	0	0		1	1		1	3		0	0		1	1		3	1		0	0		12
TOTAL			**0**			**4**			**8**			**7**			**10**			**7**			**0**	**36**
Percent			**0**			**11**			**22**			**19**			**27.8**			**19.4**			**0**	**100%**

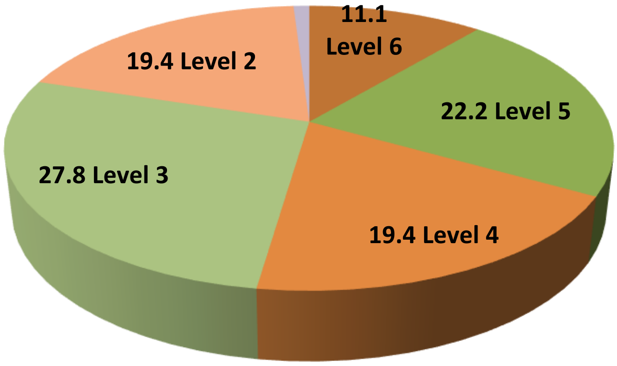

Figure 4. 1: A pie chart of findings in percentages for Grade 10

- Zero values are not reflected on the chart because they are naught values and, therefore, the value for level zero could not be made visible.

4.3.3.13 Analysis of findings: Grade 11

A figure of (36) Grade (11) participants who wrote the test represented an equal number of (18) males and (18) females. Of that (36), a figure of (30) obtained a mark ranging from (40) percent to (79) percent, which represents a pass mark of (40) percent, meaning that they had passed the assessment test.

The passes for this grade constituted of (16) males, making for 53.3 percent, while (14) females had passed, which is equal to 46.7 percent. Grade (11) therefore, had more male passes than female passes. The percentage pass for males for this grade was 53.3 percent of the total number of passes.

Six (6) of the Grade (11) participants failed the assessment test. Of that number, four (4) were females while two (2) were males. The number of male failures for Grade (11) constitutes (22.2) percent of the number of male participants while the number of four (4) females that failed, accounts for (57.1) percent of the number of females who did not pass the test. Of the (18) female participants, (14) met the pass requirement and had obtained from (40) percent and above. This constitutes (77.8) percent of the total number of Grade (11) female participants who wrote the test.

None of the Grade (11) participants obtained a mark between (80) and (100) percent. Only one (1) male participant of this grade obtained a mark between (70) and (79) percent and that translates to two point eight (2.8) percent of the total number of Grade (11) participants. A figure of (10) participants obtained a mark between (60) to (69) percent. Of that (10), five (5) were male and another five (5) were females. This figure is equal to twenty seven point eight (27.8) percent of the total number of the Grade (11) participants. Again, (10) participants made up of five (5) males and five (5) females obtained a mark between (50) and (59) percent. That is an equivalence of (27.8) percent of the total number of participants. Nine (9) participants amounting to (25) percent obtained a mark between (40) and (49) percent. This number is inclusive of five (5) males and four (4) females. The other three (3) of the participants of this grade, which constitutes eight point three (8.3) percent, obtained a mark between (30) and (39) percent. This number was inclusive of one (1) male and two (2) females. The other three (3) remaining participants, made up of one (1) male and two (2) females obtained a mark between one (1) and (29) percent.

Below is a table reflecting the above narrative.

Table: 4. 25: Summary of Grade 11 Findings

	80-100		Tot	70-79		Tot	60-69		Tot	50-59		Tot	40-49		Tot	30-39		Tot	29-Jan		Tot	Total
Gender	M	F		M	F		M	F		M	F		M	F		M	F		M	F		
1.School H	0	0		0	0		2	1		0	2		3	1		0	1		1	1		12
2.School M	0	0		1	0		2	2		3	1		0	1		0	1		0	1		12
3.School U	0	0		0	0		1	2		2	2		2	2		1	0		0	0		12
TOTAL			**0**			**1**			**10**			**10**			**9**			**3**			**3**	**36**
Percent			**0**			**2.8**			**28**			**28**			**25**			**8.3**			**8.3**	**100**

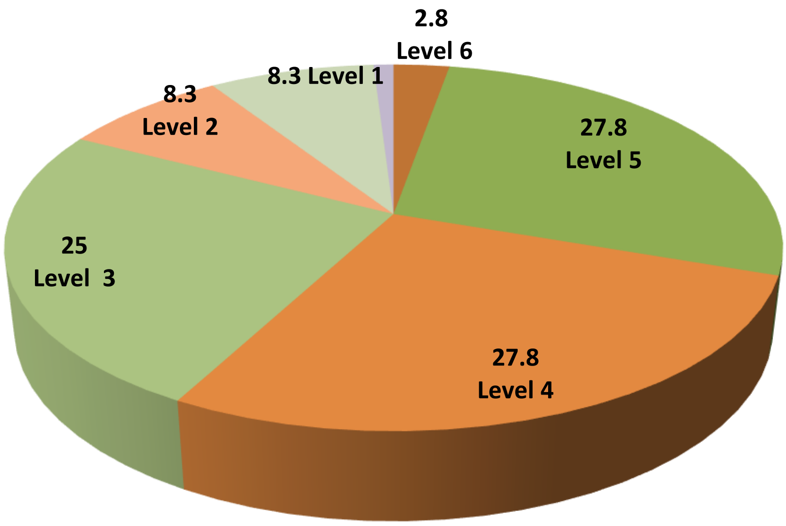

Figure 4. 2: A pie chart of findings in percentages for Grade 11

- Zero values are not reflected on the chart because they are naught values and, therefore, the value for level zero could not be made visible.

.4.3.3.14 Analysis of findings: Grade 12

A sum of (33) out of the cohort of (36) Grade (12) participants met the pass requirement of (40) percent and, therefore, had passed the test. This figure accounts for (91.7) percent pass for this grade. Three participants obtained a mark below the pass mark and, therefore, failed. This figure accounts for eight point three (8.3) percent of the total number of participants. The cohort consisted of (18) males and eighteen females. Of the (33) passes, (15) were males, making for (45.5) percent of the total pass. The remaining (18) were females, making for (54.5) percent of the total number of Grade (12) passes. One (1) female participant for this grade obtained a mark between (80) and (100) percent, meaning that only 2.8 percent of the total number of Grade (12) participants was at that level, as far as the scale of achievement is concerned.

The three (3) participants that obtained a mark between seventy (70) and seventy-nine (79) percent comprised of one (1) male and two (2) females. Their number accounts for eight point three (8.3) percent of the total number of grade participants.

A sum of (47.2) percent of the participants obtained a mark between (60) and (69) percent and the group consisted of eight (8) males and nine (9) females. A sum of (25) percent of the total number of Grade (12) participants obtained between (50) and (59) percent and the group consisted of five (5) males and four (4) females.

The group that obtained a mark between (40) and (49) percent was composed of one (1) male and two (2) females, which constitutes eight point three (8.3) percent of the total number of Grade (12) participants. Likewise, three participants, one (1) male and two (2) females obtained between (30) and (39) percent. Their number accounts for eight point three (8.3) percent. None of these participants obtained a mark between one (1) and (29) percent.

The above narrative is reflected in the following table.

Table: 4. 26: Summary of Grade 12 Findings

	80-100		Tot	70-79		Tot	60-69		Tot	50-59		Tot	40-49		Tot	30-39		Tot	29-Jan		Tot	Total
Gender	M	F		M	F		M	F		M	F		M	F		M	F		M	F		
1.School H	0	0		1	2		3	2		2	2		0	0		0	0		0	0		12
2.School M	0	1		0	0		3	4		1	1		1	0		1	0		0	0		12
3.School U	0	0		0	0		2	3		1	2		0	2		0	2		0	0		12
TOTAL			1			3			17			9			3			3			0	36
Percent			2.8			8.3			47			25			8.3			8.3			0	100

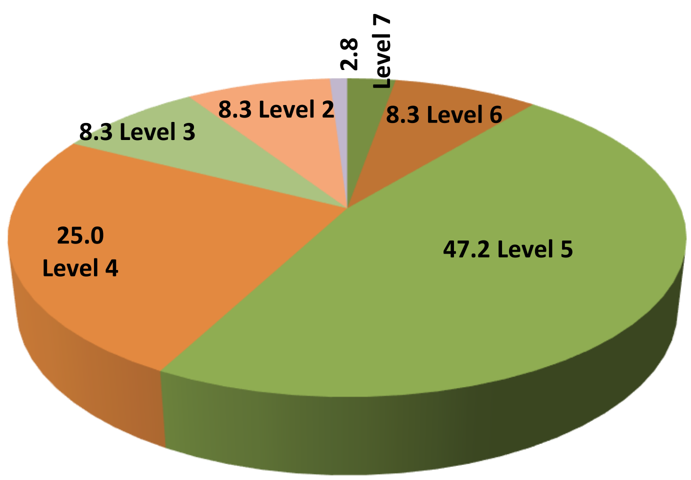

Figure 4. 2: A pie chart of findings in percentages for Grade 12

- Zero values are not reflected on the chart because they are naught values and, therefore, the value for level zero could not be made visible.

4.4 INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This section of the study seeks to explain the findings in order to develop some understanding of what lies beneath them. It is an effort of understanding what information this research has found and what it means, based on the purpose of the investigation. The interpretation of these findings, therefore, is an attempt to make sense of the data that is presented above. The section below deals with a critical interpretation of the teachers' responses. This will be followed by a section that deals with a critical analysis of the learners' responses.

4.4.1 Interpretation of teachers' responses

The purpose of this investigation was to evaluate the effectiveness of isiXhosa pragmatics teaching in the teaching profession. This was achieved by designing a questionnaire and by submitting it to nine (9) respondents for completion. The questionnaire consists of a series of statements and the respondents were requested to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed with the statements.

The questionnaire consists of five themes and each theme consists of a number of statements. These themes were designed in a manner that the responses of the participants could be evaluated as accurately as possible. This would provide a clear indication of the current status quo of isiXhosa pragmatics teaching in the East London region.

The first theme was designed to evaluate teachers' knowledge of pragmatics language teaching. The purpose of this evaluation was to determine whether or not teachers have received adequate training regarding the theoretical, as well as the pedagogical aspects of isiXhosa pragmatics teaching. This theme consists out of ten (10) statements and the respondents were requested to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed with each statement.

In this theme, eight (8) of the respondents agreed with the statement that, their knowledge of types of lessons, proper for developing learners' pragmatic competence is sufficient. In addition to that, seven (7) respondents indicated that they do have adequate knowledge to assess learners' pragmatics knowledge. This is an indication that isiXhosa language teachers in the East London region do have adequate pedagogical skills to enable them to design and offer lessons that are suitable for the teaching of isiXhosa pragmatics and to assess learners' pragmatics competence effectively. However, a significant number of respondents have responded in the affirmative to the statement that they have never been taught how to apply pragmatic language knowledge. This is indicative of the fact that the formal pedagogical training of prospective teacher students in isiXhosa pragmatic language might not be as satisfactory as it should be. In addition to this, there have not been sufficient in-service training opportunities in the form of workshops and other teacher training sessions that have been arranged to equip teachers in the area of isiXhosa pragmatics teaching. Therefore, the successes that have been obtained by teachers in this field may be attributed to experience that has been gained in the workplace over a period of many years, rather than to formal academic training per se.

Theme two (2) is a little different from theme one (1). Here, respondents needed to indicate whether they strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. For the purposes of this discussion, the number of respondents who strongly agreed with a particular statement will be combined with those who agreed with the statement and this number will be referred to as the affirmative value. This theme was intended to evaluate the teachers' skill of application of pragmatics language. The reason behind this evaluation is to find out whether or not teachers are equipped to possess the necessary skills to enable them to apply the various teaching methods relevant to pragmatics language development. This theme consisted out of eleven statements, which the participants were expected to respond to.

Nine of the respondents affirmed their need for intense empowerment in the area of knowledge of methods of raising learners' pragmatic awareness. This is an indication that teachers in this region are receptive to programmes of training that seek to empower teachers in the development of their knowledge of methods of raising learners' pragmatic awareness. This also means that teachers can use the knowledge acquired through such training programmes, to develop strategies that can be used to raise pragmatic awareness of isiXhosa language learners.

The fact that eight (8) of the respondents agreed that, the language teaching methods used by the teachers presently, are appropriate and sufficient for proper language teaching does not only confirm that teachers are acquainted with such methods, but it also reaffirms that proper use of such methods guarantees a significant contribution towards the development of learners' pragmatics competence. It was, however, established that nine (9) of the respondents are in harmony with the fact that they do require intense empowerment regarding knowledge of methods of raising learners' pragmatic awareness.

Nine (9) of the respondents agreed that teachers do use role-play activities sometimes, in order to observe the learners' linguistic levels. By so doing, they actually ensure the development of learners' pragmatics language skills, as well as their communicative skills.

The fact that the respondents were unanimous in their response to these statements, serves as an indication of how strongly convinced they are about this matter.

The next theme was aimed at evaluating the teachers' attitudes towards pragmatics language teaching. The reasoning behind this evaluation was to determine whether teachers desire to acquire more information about pragmatics in order to offer adequate teaching. It is important for them to be keen to receive the kind of training that is specifically designed for teaching pragmatics. Another reason for this evaluation was to find out whether or not teachers are keen to include and to implement newly introduced teaching programmes that are focussed on raising learners' pragmatic awareness.

Here, respondents needed to make a selection between the categories: "never" "sometimes", "don't know", "most of the time" and "always". For the purposes of this discussion, the number of respondents who selected the option "most of the time" will be combined with those who have selected the option "always" and this number will be referred to as the affirmative value. At the same time, the number of respondents who selected the option "never" will be combined with those who have selected the option "sometimes" and this number will be referred to as the negational value.

In this theme, seven (7) teachers believe that their experience shall contribute positively in their teaching of isiXhosa pragmatics language. Additional to that, a significant number of teachers believe that the teaching of pragmatics material is beneficial to learners. That indicates that teachers in the Eastern Cape have a positive attitude towards appropriate strategies for teaching pragmatics.

The provision of support, as one of the themes participants had to respond to, was two-fold, namely; the support provided by fellow teachers and support provided by the Department of Education. The theme of Support by the Department of Education consisted out of seven (7) statements and the participants were to respond to each and every one of them. They were requested to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed with the statement made.

The theme of support was designed to evaluate the teachers' perceptions regarding the levels of support they receive from the Department of Education. The purpose of this evaluation was to find out whether teachers believe their employer reaches out to them, as much as it should, for support throughout their teaching engagements. In so doing, the teachers will not only understand their roles, but they will be willing to contribute towards the realisation of the goals of the Department of Education.

Seven (7) teachers confirmed that they constantly attend workshops that are intended to develop and improve their knowledge of teaching pragmatics. The teachers' positivity and willingness to yield towards empowerment programmes that are presented to them raises the confidence that teachers in this Province are determined to work, as much as they can, towards the development of the isiXhosa pragmatics language. However, a significant number of respondents do not believe that the teaching of pragmatics is allocated enough time and are of the view that educational policies do not properly manage the problems of classroom overcrowding. Furthermore, they refute the notion that language teachers' workload is given proper attention. Additional to that, they believe that Subject Advisors are not doing enough in as far as providing teachers with the desired support. All of the above-mentioned teachers' concerns impact negatively on the process of teaching and learning and a disregard of these concerns could lead to undesired results regarding the development of pragmatics competence in learners.

The theme of teachers' mutual support was intended to evaluate whether teachers are able to reach out to one another for support, with regards to pragmatics language teaching. This evaluation sought to determine the extent to which teachers are able to establish and maintain a mutual support structure, as colleagues. This theme contained six (6) statements and the respondents were required to indicate whether the statements were true or false.

Through this theme, it was determined that eight (8) of the respondents declared the statement on whether there are people who are keen to help develop their linguistic teaching skills to be true. A significant number of respondents also confirmed as true the statement that there is a trustworthy person they can turn to for advice. On the other hand, they were pleased that there are people who depend on them, in their language department. This shows that teachers in this region have come to the realisation that they need to collaborate more in order to achieve the desired objectives of the Department of Education. A significant number of respondents confirmed as true the statement that there is a trustworthy person they can turn to for advice, regarding their language teaching, whenever a need arises.

The last theme was personal and the respondents needed to indicate with; "Never", "Sometimes", "Most of the time" or "Always". For the purposes of this discussion, the number of respondents who selected the option "most of the time" will be combined with those who have selected the option "always" and this number will be referred to as the affirmative value. At the same time, the number of respondents who selected the option "never" will be combined with those who have selected the option "sometimes" and this number will be referred to as the negational value.

The aim behind the design of this theme was to determine whether the teachers were prepared to do self-evaluation in as far as their teaching of pragmatics language is concerned. The purpose of this evaluation was for teachers to reflect on their teaching and find out whether their teaching methods, their teaching strategies, and their commitment to executing their teaching duties to the best of their knowledge, are proper. Evaluated also were their strong points, as well as their deficits. This theme was composed of (21) statements to which the participants were to respond.

In this theme, nine (9) of the respondents affirmed that they perceived the teaching of pragmatics language to be difficult for them, sometimes. Nevertheless, they all believe that their method of teaching is not discouraging to the learners to a point that they cannot learn from each other. However, irrespective of those deterrents, the teachers were determined to do whatever it takes to teach isiXhosa pragmatics language to the best of their ability, even though sometimes they feel that not enough time is provided for the teaching of this aspect of language. They perceive that learners are deprived time to experience how language is used for real communication purposes. The teachers' awareness of their strengths and weaknesses, regarding their pragmatics language teaching will prompt them to devise means and ways to address their shortfalls, so that they can be able to implement adequate teaching strategies to improve the quality of teaching.

Nine (9) of the respondents affirmed that their method of teaching does not discourage learners from learning from each other. Additional to that, eight (8) of the respondents have never perceived that, despite their efforts, they could still be unable to keep up with the suggested methods for teaching pragmatics.

The following section will deal with the interpretation of learners' responses.

4.4.2 Interpretation of learners' responses

This section attempts to interpret the data that was acquired as a result of an assessment test that was administered to the learners.

All of the three (3) grades that were part of the investigation, that is, from ten to twelve, were subjected to a common assessment since they share a common syllabus. This is according to the National Curriculum Statement for Grade (10) to (12) in the Government Gazettes Number 25545, of the 6th of October of the year 2003.This is also according to Number 27594 of the 17th of May of 2005 (Education, 2016). All the learners of these grades had to answer all of the five questions that were meant to assess their knowledge of pragmatic language usage. The question paper was circulated among the learners and it consisted of two (2) pages containing five (5) major questions. The maximum mark for the test was (25) marks while the pass mark was (10), which is an equivalence of (40) percent.
A copy of the question paper is attached as annexure B.

4.4.2.1 Comparison of pragmatic competence: The selected schools

To determine the different rates of the learners' pragmatic competence, the three selected schools were compared based on their pass rates per grade, as well as, per school. Grade (10) learners from school H obtained a pass rate higher than that of their counterparts, leading with a pass rate of (91.7) percent. School M learners of the same grade had a pass rate of eighty three point three (83.3) percent, followed by School U with a pass rate of 66.7 percent. There is a difference of (25) percent between the best performing school and the weakest performing school. This representation portrays that, of the three schools' Grade (10) learners, school H learners' levels of pragmatic competence are significantly higher than that of school M and school U.

For Grade (11), of the three schools, school U had the highest pass rate of (91.7) percent compared to school M pass rate of eighty (83.3) percent and of school H pass rate of (75.0) percent. There is a difference of (16.7) percent between the best performing school and the weakest performing school. This representation portrays that, Grade (11) learners from school U have higher levels of pragmatic competence than school M and school H.

School H Grade (12) learners exhibited high levels of pragmatic competence compared to their counterparts. This school recorded a pass rate of (100) percent. School U and school M shared a pass rate of (91.7) percent between them. There is a difference of eight point three (8.3) percent between the best performing school and the weakest performing schools. This representation portrays that, Grade (12) learners from school H have higher levels of pragmatic competence than those from school U and school M.

The above discussion is portrayed in the table below.

Table: 4. 27: Comparison of pragmatic competence levels of the three schools' learners

School	Pass Rate	Pass rate	Pass Rate
	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
School U	66.7	91.7	91.7*
School M	83.3	83.3	91.7*
School H	91.7*	75	100

4.4.2.2 Comparison of pragmatic competence: by Grade

Table 4.27 above shows that, the learners of school H performed the best overall, with two first places out of a possible three being occupied by that school. Furthermore, this school’s learners achieved a mark of 100 percent at Grade (12) level. This indicates that the pragmatic competence of learners in school H is at a higher level than that of learners in the remaining two (2) schools. This may be attributed to a high standard of pragmatics competence teaching and learning in this particular school.

Table 4.27 above shows that amongst the three grades, Grade (12) learners performed better than those in Grades (10) and (11). This is confirmed by the fact that, the weakest score that was achieved in Grade (12) namely, (91.7) percent is equal to the highest score that was achieved in Grades (10) and (11). Furthermore, there is one cohort that obtained a (100) percent pass rate, and that is the Grade (12) group in School H. The pragmatic competence of learners in Grade (12) is at a higher level than that of learners in the remaining two (2) grades. This indicates that there is a close correlation between learner’s stages of cognitive development and their ability to master basic pragmatics language skills as they progress incrementally through the various grades up to Grade (12).

4.4.2.3 Comparison of pragmatic competence: Passes by grade and gender

Grade (10) passes were distributed as follows; the (10) passes at school M were composed of six (6) females and four (4) males while school H consisted of group of six (6) males and five (5) females. Passes at school U consisted of five (5) females and three (3) males. This shows that, at two of the schools, there are more female participants who had passed at this level than males. Overall, there were also more female passes than male passes at this level.

For Grade (11) at school U, more females than males had passed and therefore, the number of passes was six (6) females versus five (5) males. At school M, the situation was different, with six (6) males and four (4) female passes. The nine (9) passes at school H were composed of five (5) males and four (4) females. This means that, at this level, more male participants passed the assessment test than female participants.

For Grade (12), school U recorded six (6) female passes versus four (4) male passes while school M recorded five (5) male passes versus six (6) female passes. At school H, male and female participants had an equal number of passes as this school recorded six (6) for both genders. Overall, there were more female passes than males at this level. The table below reflects the narrative above.

Table: 4.28: Comparison of pragmatic competence of passes by grade and gender

	Grade 10	**Grade 11**	**Grade 12**	**Total**	**Percentage**
M	13	16	15	44	40.7
F	16	14	18	48	44.4
Total	**29**	**30**	**33**	**92**	**85.2**

This table shows that, overall, more female learners passed the test across the three grades than male learners. This indicates that the pragmatics language skills of female learners are at a higher level of development than those of male learners. This finding concurs with what was described previously by Han and Tannöver in paragraph 4.2.3 when they found that, there are differences in the manner in which males and females acquire language. Their perception is based on the view that, females possess innate verbal skills that are better developed than those of males. They are further, of the opinion that, that might be the reason why females are more creative, language-wise and, engage in learning more effectively than males. On the other hand, as Kung (2011) points out, as per paragraph 4.2.3, by nature male learners prefer to be orientated towards situations. This could mean that, they need more attention and more support than female learners do. In that regard, this could also mean that, more specialised instructional measures should be used to help develop the pragmatic competence of male students.

4.4.2.4 Detailed Interpretation of learners' responses to the assessment

Of the five questions that were included in the assessment, each of them was designed specifically to carry out a particular objective of the study. Each question had a number of sub-questions that were related to the theme of that particular section of the assessment. The learners' achievements in the five individual sections of the questionnaire will now be analysed in greater detail.

From Grades (10) to (12), the learners responded to the questions more or less at the level that is expected of an isiXhosa-speaking person. This is an indication that, to a certain extent, they had acquired most of their linguistic skills in accordance with their respective age groups.

The table below provides more detailed information on the results of the assessment:

Table: 4. 29: Breakdown of the marks that were achieved in the assessment

	Quest. 1	Quest. 2	Quest. 3	Quest. 4	Quest. 5	Average
	(max:5)	(max:5)	(max:6)	(max:5)	(max:4)	(max: 5)
Average mark	2.8	2.9	4.1	1.3	1.4	2.5

There were however, a number of weaknesses that were identified. These matters will now be dealt with in greater detail in the paragraphs below.

Question one (1) was mainly about requests, and also about extending compliments. The purpose of this question was to determine the learners' knowledge of how to express a request, as well as, how to respond to a compliment, taking into consideration the specific cultural norms of their Home Language environment, isiXhosa. Based on the figures reflected by the table above, the average mark for question one was 2.8. With this compared to the average mark for all the questions which was 2.5, it could be determined that learners performed satisfactorily in this question. However, with regard to questions 1.1 to 1.3, very few learners' responses exhibited awareness of the fact that, according to cultural norms, in isiXhosa, a request should be preceded by the word, ‘*uxolo*’ (apology). This is so that the next person does not feel disrespected, especially, taking into consideration the specific social status and the age of that person.

Participants also did not show satisfactory knowledge of the various cultural strategies of expressing and of responding to a compliment. Consequently, very few of them got the response correct. An example of this is with reference to questions 1.4 and 1.5, where participants were requested to compliment their schoolmate for receiving an award for the best isiXhosa Language Achiever in the Schools' Provincial Awards for 2016. For example, for the purposes of encouragement, expressions such as, ‘*Ntinga ntakandini’* (the sky is the limit), “Ta-ta-lahote!” (Well done!) and so forth, could have been used to compliment the fellow-learner on his/her achievement. Of the total number of participants, only one Grade Twelve learner managed to use the above expression properly. Learners failed to make proper use of the various cultural ways of expressing speech acts such as those mentioned above.

Participants' responses often exhibited improper use of words where learners used informal language that could be referred to as, the ‘register’ (a form of informal language). This was done by introducing foreign words into their first language phrases and by resorting to code-switching. An example is when they were requested to respond to a question requiring them to ask their principal to sign a letter allowing them to seek a part-time job during the summer holidays. One of the Grade (10) participant's response was, “*-cela signature*” (I am asking for a signature). The learner could have used the term, *–tyikitya* which means, (to sign). Another example that was given by some of the learners when they were to respond to a compliment about a nice jacket, one of the Grade twelve (12) participants' response was, “*oh enkosi shem,*” (Oh! Shame! Thank you). The participant had a choice to use the word, *torho (*shame) instead of the borrowed English version ‘shem’. Learners tended to use versions of English words in the construction of isiXhosa utterances. For instance, one Grade twelve (12) participant's response was, “*Chommie yam kuzoba riyiti*.” (It is going to be alright, my friend). Riyiti is a borrowed version of the English word, ‘right’ which means in isiXhosa, *-lungile.* The participant could have responded by saying, *kuza kulunga, mhlobo wam (*Everything will be alright, my friend*)* for, that was the actual meaning of her response. The examples referred to above, serve as confirmation of the tendency that exists amongst modern learners to resort to the use of code-switching and slang language within a contemporary township environment.

Amongst other things, question two was meant to determine the learners' knowledge levels of the expression of excuses, refusals, gratitude, as well as the knowledge of isiXhosa idiomatic expressions. When judged against the average of 2.5 for all the questions, an average mark of 2.9 suggests that the learners' performance was not satisfactory in this question. It may be concluded that the average mark of 2.9 suggests that the learners' performance was not satisfactory in this question, but it is still above the overall average for all the questions.

Almost all the learners did not respond satisfactorily to question 2.2 in particular, where they were requested to formulate a phrase to decline a pork dish that was offered to them. Members of Xhosa culture are always expected to guard against hurting the next person's feelings in matters of this nature. They could have applied various strategies in their declination statements. For example, saying, "*Enkosi, noko bendikhe ndafumana"* (No, thank you, I have just had something), sounds more polite, than the response that many of them gave when they said, for instance, "*Andiyifuni or andiyityi mna inyama yehagu"* (I don't want it or I don't eat pork).

In response to question 2.3, a Grade (12) learner's answer was, "*Maz' enethole!"* (Thank you so much) where he had to thank a school-mate who returned his lost and found twenty rand note. This was an indication that, to a certain extent, a positive effort is made to raise awareness of the acquisition and use of cultural language terminology. According to the cultural norms of isiXhosa society, one of the strategies of rewarding a good deed is by singing one's clan names. This action not only motivates a person to perform good deeds, it also induces more gestures of goodwill. For example, they could have said, "*Tshotsh' ubekho!"* (Thanks to you!) *or "Nangamso*!*"* (Do it again)*, Jola, Qengeba, Thole lomthwakazi*!" (These are AmaMpondomise praise names), assuming that the person referred to, belongs to that clan).

Even though the learners' responses on question 2.4 exhibited satisfactory knowledge of the proverb, "*akuhlanga lungehliyo*," (What you are experiencing has been experienced by many, before). They however, failed to use the proverb properly. For instance, where they had to convey a message of condolences to another learner who had lost a brother, they gave many versions of the proverb. Responses varied from, "*alihli lingehlanga",* to*, "aluhlanga olungehliyo",* while some responses were, *"alihlanga lingehlanga"*. These versions were mostly prevalent with Grade (10) and (11).

Both questions three (3) and four (4) were designed to test the learners' knowledge levels regarding the use of metaphorical language. Question three (3), in particular, was in the form of a multiple choice questionnaire. The average mark of 4.1 for this question was far above the overall average of 2.5. It seems therefore, as if the participants across the grades did not find the question very challenging. It was noted that, while their performance was excellent when compared to the maximum average mark for all the questions.

Participants were expected to interpret the meanings of the three proverbs; '*ukubiza amahashe ungenambona'* (Your loud speaking habit shall invite horses for me, yet I do not have any maize to offer them), '*umlilo wendiza'* (Their hot love for each other became a maize-stem fire) and '*akanantloko' (He/she is headstrong*). Learners' performance was good, with regard to this question.

Question four, as mentioned above, was about assessing the learners knowledge of metaphorical language. Learners were required to display their knowledge of the isiXhosa proverbs as well as the application thereof, in various contexts. It was strange to find that question four and 4.3 in particular, proved to be the most challenging for most of the participants across the grades. The average mark performance of 1.3 for question 4, compared to the average mark of 2.5 for all the questions bears testimony to this fact. The question required them to construct a proverb from the verb stem – "*betha*" (strike/beat/hit) and, amongst other things, they were expected to use the following proverbs correctly: "*Ukubetha ngoyaba",(*not to say anything about a situation) *“ukubeth’ emlonyeni,* (to speak at the same time), *“ukubetha ngemf’ iphindiwe*” (to cheat someone), “*ukubethw’ eluphondweni*” (to be crazy about something), and so forth. The reason for this expectation is due to the knowledge that, these are commonly used isiXhosa proverbs found in day-to-day speech. While it was pleasing to find the following correct response from a Grade (11) learner, that is as follows; “*Ndeva ngokubetha kolwimi ukuba akathethi nyani.”* (I could tell from his/her speech that, there is no truth in what he/she is saying), it was unfortunately also found that, a significant number of respondents were unable to construct a proverb from this particular verb stem. The answers that were received ranged from “*uThabo ubetha” uLwazi (*Thabo is beating up Lwazi.) to “*wandibetha ngentonga*.” (He/she hit me with a stick.) Most of the responses reflected learners’ awareness of the literal meaning of that verb stem.

Question five (5) was about metaphorical language, the kind of language that is often used in social interaction. It was intended to serve two purposes, namely, to determine the learners’ extent of their knowledge of using politeness strategies and, secondly, to test the extent of their inferential abilities. The average mark for this question was 1.4 compared to the average for all the questions which was 2.5 and that is not an impressive performance. Learners did not find question 5.1 easy and as a result, their performance was not satisfactory but question 5.2 proved to be less challenging for most of them and therefore, many of them gave the correct response.

One would have expected to see the participants’ standard of performance in their home language, being in agreement with their level of study. Surprisingly, that was not the case; as some learners struggled to comprehend the meaning of certain words. That alone further became a barrier to getting the correct responses to some of the sub-questions, in particular with regard to question one. An example of such an incident is when Grade (10) participants did not understand the meaning of concepts such as, “*isingxungxo*” (a temporal job) and “*ukuzilandulela*” (recuse one’ self). It had to be explained to them in order for them to be able to continue with the test writing. Amongst other things, concords were omitted from certain words, or written down in incomplete form. For example, that occurred in words such as, “*ufaka isandla”* (put in the hand) instead of “*u<u>ku</u>faka isandla”*, and *“-cela” instead of* *"ndicela"* (I request that). Prefixes were also omitted, for instance: "-*xolo"* instead of "*uxolo"* (excuse me), or written incorrectly, for instance "*ixolo"* instead of "*uxolo"*. Finally, certain morphemes were omitted, for example: "*into yoba"* instead of "*into yokuba" (*that...), "*–funeka"* instead of "*kufuneka"* (to need to), "*uyawze"* instead of *"uyakuze"* (he would). These kinds of errors were committed by learners across the grades.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter was about a detailed presentation of the findings of the investigation concerning the degree of the learners' pragmatic competency with reference to the teachers' contribution in their development towards the acquisition of pragmatic competence. All the research questions have been addressed and the conclusions are based on the research questions and hypothesis.

This chapter started off by providing a detailed presentation of the aspects of research such as, profiles that incorporate participants' characteristics. The instruments with which data was collected to elicit information from the participants were intelligibly accounted for. It also presented the teachers' responses on questions about the extent of their knowledge with regard to pragmatic language, of their skill of application of pragmatic language, of their attitude towards its teaching, of whether or not they receive support from the Department of Education, and from one another as well as, of their capability to effectively execute their duty as language teachers.

Assessment test questions, as well as their analyses were provided in a narrative as well as in a tabular form, in order to project the learners' raw scores and to determine the mean, the median, the mode and the range. A Scale of achievement was used for all the grades to project the different achievement levels attained by the participants on the scale of one (1) to (100) percent.

It is also in this part of work that findings were interpreted and exhibited in percentages by means of tables and charts. Upon their interpretation, the findings were judged according the researcher's experiences from conducting the study and from the findings thereof. The experience of conducting this investigation has caused a gain of new insights and refreshed understanding. While there were a couple of surprises experienced from the findings, they were however found to be consistent with other related scholarly works. This study established how important the role played by competent teachers in the development of learners' pragmatic competence is.

The next chapter will discuss the research findings as well as its limitations and make some necessary recommendations.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter was about data presentation and analysis. Every section of the presentation was discussed extensively due to the qualitative nature of this study.

This chapter, on the other hand, is an in-depth discussion of the findings of the study, with the purpose of giving clarity to the data presented in the previous chapter. These aspects were highlighted with a view to demonstrate the key findings and the debating points.

The following discussion also attempts to address the study's overriding purpose which, amongst other things, sought to examine the effects of pragmatic teaching in the development of learners' competence. In order to achieve that, it was of major importance to reach some prerequisite goals. It became imperative to understand what competence developing techniques in the communicative uses of sentences, especially in speech acts, conversations, speech registers and discourse, mean. It is also essential to understand how they contribute to pragmatics awareness and in the development of learners' pragmatics competence. Such understanding assumed a high degree of importance while developing the theoretical framework for this study. The theoretical framework was constructed out of well-known theories on the teaching of pragmatics, including the theories such as Value-based approaches and Theory-based approaches. This is mentioned because theoretical framework served as a frame of reference, to which results may be connected. In relation to that, the understanding of the extent of the teachers' knowledge of pragmatics, of the skill of application, as well as their attitude towards the teaching of this particular language became necessary. Once these fundamental steps were achieved, this study was able to go forward.

Two types of research instruments, a questionnaire and an assessment by means of a test, were used to collect data and participants were randomly selected from high schools that are socio-economically equivalent. The following are the questions that guided this study:

1. What is the extent of pragmatics incompetence amongst high school learners?
2. How do the teachers deal with the problem of pragmatic incompetence?
3. Which alternative strategies do teachers employ to deal with the learners' pragmatics incompetence?

5.2 COMMENTS ON THE FINDINGS

5.2.1 Learners

The main findings were discussed based on the data collected. The researcher administered an assessment in the form of a test to the FET Phase participants, with focus on aspects of language, such as metaphorical language, politeness, greetings, requests, expression of gratitude, apologies and refusals. Also, attention was given, amongst other things, to teachers' knowledge of pragmatic language, their attitudes towards pragmatic teaching and skills relevant to pragmatics teaching. Surprisingly, findings revealed that, isiXhosa Home language FET Phase learners still lack proper knowledge of the meaning of some of the concepts they are expected to have knowledge of since they are at that level of study.

Findings showed that, between the respective grades, the grade that acquired the highest average pass rate was Grade (12) with 97.1% followed by Grade (11) with 83.3% whilst the grade with the lowest pass rate was Grade (10) with 80.6 percent compared to Grades (10) and (11). Grade (12) learners have undergone more years of syllabus refining in this Phase. Hence, their pass rate is higher than that of their counterparts. The same could be said of Grade (11) performance compared to that of Grade (10).

With regard to the pass rate that was achieved by the various schools, the findings reveal that, for Grade (10), school U, had the lowest pass rate of 66.7%, compared to the pass rate of 83.3% acquired by school M and the 91.7% acquired by school H. This means that for Grade (10), the school that had performed well in the assessment test is school H, followed by school M. For Grade (11), the school with the highest pass rate was School U with 91.7%, followed by school M with 83.3% whilst school H acquired the lowest pass rate of 75% for this grade. For Grade (12), school U and School M both acquired 91.7%, while school H acquired a 100% pass. The mean score for Grade (10) was 12.8 and, it was 12.6 for Grade (11), while, for Grade (12), it was14.5

The rate of female passes was higher than that of male passes, with 44.4% female passes versus 40.7% male passes. In total, 85.2% learners passed the assessment test while 14.8% failed. This may be due to the integrative nature of female learning. It is claimed that females are more creative and engage in learning more effectively than males.

Inclusively, the findings projected that School H performed better with 88.9%, compared to school M and school U, whose pass rates were 86.1% and 83.7%, respectively. While these schools share a similar socio-economic background, there might be other factors that could be accounted for, as far as the variation of their pass rates is concerned. No one can ever be certain of the level at which the curriculum is implemented in each individual school. Other contributing factors could be the quality in teaching styles, as well as the differences in the distribution of learning opportunities, that may differ from school to school. As the curriculum drivers, teachers should take it upon themselves to ensure that quality teaching is effectively implemented so as to improve the quality of results. Policy-makers are equally responsible for determining what to prioritise in the process of policy development, by ensuring implementation of pedagogical policies directed at improving learning outcomes.

When the outcomes of the assessment test were compared grade by grade, it transpired that, generally, there was a lack of quality in the results. However, Grade (12) participants performed better compared to their counterparts. This becomes evident when one (1) Grade (12) learner scored a mark at level seven (7), (between 80% and 100%). None of the participants of the other two grades had attained anything of that sort at that level. This situation is not surprising, since a greater percentage of teachers' responses indicated that teachers have never been taught how to apply pragmatic language. That should have a bearing on the learners' levels of performance, as Rueda (2000:170) suggests, that pragmatic language teaching should aim for the achievement of functional abilities in the target language. The main objective for that is to understand and produce language that is appropriate to communicative situations, in accordance with specific socio-cultural limits.

Comparably, Grade (10) learners took a leading position in achieving a level of between 70% and 80%. There were four of (4) this grade's participants in that range, compared to the three (3) of Grade (12) and one (1) for Grade (10). Interestingly, it has become difficult to pinpoint exactly why Grades (11) and (12) were outsmarted by the lowest grade in the phase. This situation may be due to learners' motivation or their attitudes towards language learning. This is in agreement with Han's (2015:2) assertion that, motivation and attitude are some of the factors that could be considered to affect learners' communicative interactions. Han further indicates that, learners who had positive attitudes towards their first language were mostly instrumentally oriented.

Findings revealed that only Grade (11) learners had scored below 30%. None of Grades (10) and (12) participants were found at that level of mark attainment. This situation is not surprising, taking into consideration that a greater percentage of the teachers are not concerned about not being capable of providing the learners with excellent resources to analyse language used in specific contexts. Only a small percentage of them claimed to be always concerned about their incapability of providing the learners with excellent resources. The teachers' actions in this regard are contradictory to what Han (2015:7) believes when he maintains that teaching a language means to support the learners with adequate facilities to improve their conversational skills and gain pragmatic competence.

While there were learners across the grades who failed to attain a pass mark of 40% percent, the difference between those learners is the manner in which they had failed. Findings indicate that learners across the grades found it hard to obtain a quality pass. This perception emanates from the fact that, of the 108 learners, only nine (9) had a score in the range between 70% and 100%. That indicates that a small percentage of them were at levels six (6) and seven (7), while most of them were in the score range of 1% to 60% and that accounts for a figure of (99) learners which can be translated to 91.7%. This situation clearly confirms a high degree of lack of underperformance in the results, considering that participants were subjected to the assessment in their First Language.

Findings indicated that, across the grades, some participants did not understand the meanings of some of the concepts. Ultimately, this resulted into incomprehension problems and further hindered the learners from providing the correct answers to the questions. This is not surprising as it is a known fact that, nowadays, television and other forms of Social Media have taken a centre stage in the lives of children and, as a result, there is not enough time for social interaction in their Home Language. This phenomenon is contrary to what Tumasello (2000:407) believes regarding the acquisition of concepts. He emphasises that children can learn new words in a variety of complex social-interactive situations and that new words are best learned in the 'on-going flow' of social interaction, when both the child and the nurturer are trying to do things together.

Participants exhibited poor knowledge of the idioms and the proverbs of their language. This became evident in their poor performance in some questions, where they were expected to demonstrate their knowledge of cultural language usage. Many of them found it hard to provide the correct answers to the questions.

5.2.2 Teachers

Propelled by the quest to determine the extent of the effects of the alternative strategies employed by the teachers in dealing with the learners' pragmatic incompetence, the findings of the study revealed the following:

Even though a significant number of teachers were never taught how to apply pragmatic language knowledge, it is however, comforting to learn that, a significant percentage of their total number claim to bring to the classroom lessons on pragmatics that are adequate. Additional to that, more than 80% of the teachers do bring learning material other than the textbooks to the classroom to develop pragmatics competence in learners. This, with the sufficiency of their knowledge of types of lessons proper for developing learners' pragmatic competence, may have contributed to the quality of results yielded by the assessment test that was administered to the learners. Furthermore, the teachers' sufficiency of knowledge of applying appropriate language teaching approaches manifested itself in the comparative high pass rate of 80.6% for Grade (10), 83.6% for Grade (11) and 91.7% for Grade (12).

While the findings revealed that the teachers' skill of application of pragmatic knowledge is not very strong, the learners' high pass rate could, therefore, be as a result of the teachers' willingness to comply with empowerment programmes that are being made available to them. It is also good that even while a significant number of teachers question the necessity of teaching pragmatics, they still attend language workshops and other empowering language programmes. Were it not for that, the lack of such an important skill would have been detrimental to learners' pragmatic language development.

Teachers' adequate knowledge to assess learners' pragmatics knowledge may be the reason for the learners' overall pass mark of 85.2% and that may be attributed to the teachers' proper application of their pedagogical skills, which, amongst other things, may include group work and cooperative learning.

It became worrisome to learn from the findings that only a small percentage of teachers were strong in their perception of having classroom practice transformed, used and revised for effective teaching. This may be the reason why learners, collectively attained empowerment more on the lower levels of the achievement scale than on the higher levels of the same. This situation can be prevented, amongst other things, by giving clarity to the purpose of every project given, as well as the objectives thereof, and of providing learners with accurate feedback by means of routine and frequent assessment.

There is an indication that more than 50% of teachers are not sensitive enough to learners' subjectivity and their cultural being. This situation manifested itself through the average mark of 1.3 against the overall average mark of 2.5 that was obtained for the question that was based on a cultural context. That has impacted negatively on the efforts of raising the learners' pragmatic awareness. This situation may also be the reason why, even though many of the learners met the requirement of 40%

pass mark, some had still performed poorly in their first language. This may also be due to the fact that not enough learning material is provided to support the teaching of pragmatics. Additional to that is the fact that not enough time is allocated for its teaching, and, meanwhile the perception that educational policies do not properly address the matters of classroom overcrowding is very high amongst the teachers, hence, the poor quality of results.

It has transpired through the findings that, regardless of the many hindrances the teachers experience with regard to the implementation of educational policies, the high levels of motivation the teachers have in keeping up with the new suggested methods work in their favour, in developing learners' pragmatics language competence.

Findings reveal that, through training programmes, teachers have developed more effective strategies for the teaching of pragmatics language in order to raise pragmatic awareness. A combination of such strategies, together with their teaching experiences, may have contributed positively to the quality of the learners' assessment results.

More than 50% of the teachers are of the view that language teachers' workload is not given proper attention. They believe that they receive more support from each other than from their Subject Advisors and the findings show this perception to be a popular view amongst the teachers. With regard to this, Bilingsley (2007:168) suggests the creation of positive administrative support in order to sustain the teachers' involvement and commitment to their work. Teachers will then recognise the various strategies and methods that can be put into action to support language teachers (http://scholarcompass.vcu.edu/etd/3481 (Accessed on 02.01.2018).

While through these findings, it appears as if many teachers are not resolutely sticking to a plan to help implement the relevant teaching strategies in order to raise the learners' pragmatic awareness and practice, the findings show that some of them, a little lower than 50%, are committed to taking full responsibility of teaching pragmatic language. According to Rasekh (2005:201), amongst other things, teachers can use presentation and/ or discussion techniques to relay to learners information drawn from research on pragmatic issues. This can be done inductively or deductively. The following part of this work will examine what the above findings mean for this study.

5.3 Theoretical implications of the findings

In order to determine and discuss any gaps and similarities that may be found from an investigation, it is important to clearly state what the findings mean for the study. It is for that reason that this research deemed it necessary to revisit other theoretical cases for the purposes of diversity. This is done in order to understand the effects of pragmatic teaching in relation to the degree of the Grades (10), (11) and (12) learners' pragmatic competence, so that remedial solutions regarding incompetence could be considered.

It was noted that, while 85.1% of learners across the grades managed to attain a required minimum pass mark of 40% for the assessment test, still, a greater percentage of them did not achieve the highest levels, such as, for example, level seven (7) or level six (6). Many of them were concentrated at levels five (5), four (4) and three (3), with a few at levels two (2) and one (1). For Grade (12) a high concentration of marks remained between levels five (5) and four (4) and came with a significant decline to levels seven (7) and six (6). A clear decline could also be observed between levels three (3) and two (2), with a Zero (0) mark representation at level one (1). The situation was not very different for Grade (10) learners, where many of the highest representations in terms of marks attainment were concentrated at levels two (2), three (3) and four (4), with only about 11.1 percent at level six (6) and 22.2 percent in level five (5).

Learners' previous experiences with pragmatically competent language speakers and their cultural experiences, in general, have a strong bearing on their pragmatic ability (www.M01_COHE4573_01_SE_C01 (Accessed on 05.11.2017). In view of this situation, one cannot help but wish to examine the environment that has nurtured the pragmatic language of the participants of this study. With reference to Cohen's (2008:4) claim, it could also be assumed that, probably, their pragmatic language background was not as enriching as it should have been. Another consideration that may have contributed to the present state of affairs may be the poor level of knowledge the teachers have regarding the teaching of pragmatics, as far as the appropriate language teaching approaches are concerned. This becomes evident in the high percentage of the teachers who claim to have never been taught such appropriate teaching approaches. This corresponds with the hundred (100) percent of the teachers acknowledging their need for intense empowerment, in reference to the knowledge of methods of raising learners' pragmatic knowledge. The findings also revealed that there is a high percentage of teachers who have a perception that they are not being provided with enough learning material. This has become a source of great concern particularly because, according to the Ministry of Education, Guyana, teaching and learning material not only support student learning but, increase students' achievement (http://www.ehow.com/ (Accessed on 31.12.2017). What this means then, is that, with the proper provision of learning material, learners would have performed better than they have.

It is quite significant to learn that it is up to the learners themselves to decide whether they choose to be pragmatically appropriate or not and, even worse, that if they gain an understanding of the social and cultural norms, they could still resist being compliant to their first language norms in their own pragmatic performance. This was demonstrated when many learners found it difficult to construct an idiomatic or a proverbial sentence. This situation resonates with Ishihara's (2010:76) conviction that learners are, to a certain extent, not interested in being pragmatically appropriate.

Learners across the grades did not do well in a question that required them to make a request to their principal to sign the letters allowing them to search for jobs during the summer holidays. Culturally, there is a certain way in which children are expected to address people of the principal's stature, taking into cognisance the age, his social class and social status. Perhaps they might not have been aware of the social norms on when speech acts are likely to be performed regarding the principal's social status.

While as high as 66.7% of the teachers do include pragmatic topics such as apologies, requests, and so forth, in their language lessons, it is, however, a source of concern that the other 33.3% of them say that they do not. With the given state of affairs, one cannot help, but wonder, if these learners have proper knowledge of the norms of behaviour for realizing the given speech act in a given context, taking into account factors, such as the culture involved, the relative age as well and gender of the speaker and the listener, their social class and occupations and also, their social status and roles in the interaction (https://books.google.co.za>books (Accessed on 28.12.2017). With regard to the above, Krashen and Terrell (1983:71) affirm that, besides acquiring a certain group of linguistic structures or forms, the main idea behind the setting of communicative goals is for the learners to be able to deal with a particular set of topics in a given situation. Based on the reality of this affirmation, learners at FET Phase level are expected to have the ability to apply basic and other skills in situations that are commonly encountered in everyday life.

More than 50% of the participants' responses showed that they took account of age in their polite refusal when they were offered pork by a friend's mother. They also showed pragmatic ability with regard to the interpretation of the meaning of the proverbs given. This means that, these participants know how to process and how to judge what the illocutionary force of an utterance is, that is, what the string of sounds is intended to mean in a particular setting, under a particular set of circumstances (Ahmadi, 2011:978).

The confirmation made by 66.7% of the teachers, based on the adequacy of their appropriate use of language in different social situations, may be the reason for the learners' proper knowledge of application of metaphoric language. The reason for saying this is based on the fact that, many learners, across the grades were able to interpret MaRhadebe's response to her daughter correctly, when she reported to her mother that she was hungry and her mother, in turn, showed her the pots (5.2).

The above situation is confirmed by Cohen (2008:4) when he shows determination in that, people need to interpret what is said, as well as what is not said, and what may be communicated non-verbally. Cohen therefore, believes that the verbal and non-verbal hints communicate to people just how polite, direct or formal the communication is. They also communicate the intention for their use. Judging by the high percentage of participants who did well in this question, one can just assume that many of the participants were able to determine the sarcasm behind

MaRhadebe's response. This may be due to the fact that teachers' responses proved to strongly believe in making use of reliable teaching material that stimulates real-life communicative situations and, based on that, that may be the reason for the learners' inference of sarcasm from MaRhadebe's response.

Comparably speaking, the pass rate for Grade (12) was 91.7%, while for Grades (11) and (10) it was 83.3% and 80.6%, respectively. The differences in pass rates between Grades (12) and (11), was 8.4% and, between Grades (11) and (10), it was 2.7%; while the differences between Grades (12) and (10) were about 11.1%. In light of the above, this study can conclude that, 8.3% of Grade (12) learners failed the assessment test, compared to the 16.7% failure rate for Grade (11) and the 19.4% for Grade (10).

Findings further suggest that, while the failure rate for Grade (12) may seem to be lower than that of Grades (10) and (11's), quality-wise, the difference is not as huge as all that, given the fact that this is the highest grade of the FET Phase. Findings confirm that, the percentage of the passes for the 108 participants is 85.2%, as against the 14.8% of the participants who failed.

What follows next will be a discussion of the significance of the results of this study for the concerned stakeholders.

5.4. Significance of the study

The main aim of this investigation was two-fold; it was to measure learners' degree of pragmatic competence and to determine the outcomes of pragmatic teaching in the development of the learners' competence. The study undertook to carry out this task to have a better understanding of the reasons behind the learners' problems of pragmatic incompetency.

While this study considered it necessary to undertake this kind of investigation, there were gaps due to a lack of previous work done in the area of pragmatic language acquisition, particularly in isiXhosa, as one of the indigenous languages. It became imperative for this study to address the identifiable gaps, in this regard. The reasons behind this action are due to the fact that, ignoring the development of learners' pragmatic competence may, in turn, result in failure to achieve some specific purpose, and that is understanding language in context. There is, therefore, an obligation to address this need in order to fulfil the mandate of the Pan South African language Board (PanSALB), whose mandate, amongst other things, is to develop all the eleven South African official languages, as well as to protect language rights in South Africa. PanSALB shares this duty with the South African Language Practitioners, and some of its responsibilities are to raise the status of the language profession and improve the quality of language products.

It has been observed that, scholars seldom enter into the field of pragmatics in relation to isiXhosa Home Language, in particular. Amongst other things, there is a lack of standardized tests for assessing isiXhosa Home language learners' competence, compared to the other non-indigenous South African languages. To be exact, there are not many identifiable studies that have investigated learners' pragmatic incompetence in, for example, metaphoric language relative to isiXhosa Home Language. Much attention has been given to structural forms of language than to communicative competence, which pragmatic competence is part of. Investigations with regard to this area of study are of importance since cultural knowledge plays a vital role in improving learners' pragmatic competence.

While a number of studies on pragmatic competence have been conducted in the past, there are still a limited number of studies that have been conducted in the area of pragmatic competence in relation to isiXhosa. Also, there has been little investigation related to the effectiveness of pragmatic teaching with reference to the development of learners' pragmatic competence in the above-mentioned language, in particular. However, a few empirical findings this study has consulted, and one of them being Rueda (2006:1), give an indication that up to this point, there has been a considerable improvement in this regard, as from when language learning was equated with linguistic or grammatical accuracy. Some of the results of these studies demonstrated that instruction and feedback, in general, have a positive impact on the development of learners' pragmatic competence. Their findings further indicated that integrating input into the teaching process was a beneficial technique.

In light of the above, this research recommends that, rests on, language teachers, as co-learners may find a way to attend workshops on pragmatic competency development on a regular basis. This would be an indication that they are willing to be always conscious of innovative new and different ways of doing things, in as far as the teaching strategies are concerned; hence, they should be constantly trying out different alternatives. That would also enable them to receive thorough, sound and proper training relevant to the knowledge of pragmatics. Such knowledge will enable them to address problems of pragmatic incompetence, which will ultimately help the learners to develop a sufficient level of pragmatic competence for effective communication in isiXhosa, since their greatest source of pragmatic information is most likely their language teacher.

For future purposes, teachers should consider involving learners as collaborators in practitioner research, not only for motivation and classroom interaction, but also, to find solutions to problems of pragmatic incompetency. It would be also good if teachers could develop learning and teaching material such as, for example, Workbooks and even Study Aids, specifically for teaching of pragmatics in isiXhosa Home Language. They can select teaching activities that are inclusive of all the pragmatic factors that affect interaction so that cultural and important aspects of language are not overlooked. For example, metaphors are instrumental in the expression of human feelings and emotions and, therefore, such language aspects should not be taught in isolation. Their teaching and learning could help develop strategic skills in learners' communication. Their teaching can include role-plays, especially for pragmatic language aspects, such as the expression of feelings of gratitude, excuses, refusals, and so forth; so that learners cannot only be empowered to master these speech acts but also be able to apply them in their day-to-day communication to the level that is expected in isiXhosa culture.

It is hoped that the findings of this study will be able to encourage syllabus designers to collaborate with subject teachers, beginning right at the inception of the syllabus planning. IsiXhosa language teachers can develop teaching material appropriate for their primary goal, which is the development of pragmatic competence. With the learners' needs in mind, they can select and incorporate suitable teaching strategies that will enhance the development of learners' communicative competence.

In light of the above, this study desires to propose a thorough policy review that will enable a policy diversification to intensify strategies designed to improve the problems of pragmatic incompetency, as well as those that are a barrier to effective pragmatics teaching.

Researchers, teachers and other relevant stakeholders could benefit from the findings of this study by accessing information that has relevance to pragmatic language teaching and to competence development, in particular. Working in mutual collaboration could result in the integration of whatever they consider of value and the application of that knowledge to life situations in their respective fields. It is against this background that the researcher decided to undertake a study that focuses on the effects of pragmatics teaching in the development of competence in learners, with the objective to establish the extent of the problem of incompetency and the magnitude of its existence, with the purpose of drawing attention to a solution for deficiency.

5.5 Recommendations for the way forward

The primary objective of this study was to determine the effects of pragmatics teaching on the development of learners' linguistic competence. Initially, the study aspired to widen its scope of research to include a significant number of the East London District high schools, members of School Management Teams who, as one of their duties, is to control languages. Again, the wish was to include the other education experts such as the Subject Advisors. For the problem to be addressed in its entirety, more data should be gathered from all of the different sources that are mentioned here above. However, due to limited time and resources linked to PhD studies, focus was on the three Mdantsane high schools, targeting the Grades (10) to (12) isiXhosa Home language teachers, together with their learners.

Since linguistics learner incompetency is not limited to isiXhosa language only, the study hoped to sample a large population of teachers from other language learning areas, as that would have enhanced the study.

It would have been ideal to widen the scope of this research such that it involves more learners, teachers and be extended to all the isiXhosa-speaking regions such as, Cape Town. However, it would have been an expensive undertaking that would depend on the availability of good funding. Workshops could be planned for training language teachers around the area of pragmatics teaching. Language teachers could also engage with the Language departments of Universities in order to get guidance on matters related to teaching pragmatics language. However, the researcher is doing everything in her power to ensure that findings of the study are valid and clear of unethical issues.

Limited prior research studies on pragmatics relevant to isiXhosa Home Language prevented the study from accessing the framework as a means of reference in order to understand the research problem under investigation. However, the least that could be accessed helped a great deal in reaching suitable findings and sound conclusions.

With all of the limiting challenges that the study had experienced during the research process, findings are rich and provide deep insight into matters of pragmatic language incompetence, as well as to the strategies on how they could be dealt with.

Chapter 5 has concerned itself with discussing the findings, following the presentation of results in the previous chapter and the data collected, which has directed the carrying out of that task.

The learners' responses generally showed that they are less aware of meanings of words and expressions they were expected to have, concomitant to their level of study. This may have long term effects as far as the appropriateness of their language proficiency is concerned. It is evident from the findings that FET Phase learners have a challenge when it comes to metaphorical language and that became evident from the rate at which they failed to answer questions based on idioms and proverbs correctly. This calls for greater emphasis on the development of functional abilities in isiXhosa as the target language.

The findings of this study show that the differences between Grade (10), (11) and (12) mean scores did not show any significant difference. This becomes evident when the mean score for Grade (10) came out as 12.8, 12.6 for Grade (11) while for Grade (12) it was 14.5. More surprising was finding of Grade (11) scoring lower than Grade (10).

The teachers' insufficient knowledge of applying appropriate language teaching approaches, their lack of a good skill of application of pragmatic knowledge, as well as their attitude concerning their questioning of the necessity of teaching of pragmatics, could have a negative effect on the learners' acquisition of pragmatic language. Furthermore, a disregard of matters of importance, such as having classroom practice transformed, used and revised for effective teaching, could hinder the development of pragmatic competence in learners. Likewise, it has transpired that, if teachers could be provided with enough learning material to support the teaching of pragmatics, and be allocated enough time for its teaching, learners' pragmatic competence could improve. It is also clear that if educational policies could properly manage the matters of classroom overcrowding, the quality of results regarding pragmatics would improve and, not only that; giving proper attention to language teachers' heavy workload could make a significant improvement on the development of learners' levels of competence.

Teachers, definitely yearn for support in order to execute their duty excellently. This becomes evident when a higher percentage of teachers claim to receive less support from their Subject Advisors, in particular.

In this study, it was also stated what the findings mean for this study, and, as a result, other theoretical cases were revisited for confirmation purposes and to further understand the outcomes of pragmatic teaching in relation to the development of pragmatic competence.

In determining the structure and design of this research, gaps that are as a result of lack of previous work done in the area of pragmatic language acquisition in isiXhosa were identified and addressed accordingly. This study also evaluated the impact of the results and conclusions, while suggestions for further research were made.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: PERMISSION LETTER TO COLLECT DATA FROM DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION EAST LONDON

Province of the
EASTERN CAPE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
EAST LONDON DISTRICT

Dr. WB Rubusana Building * NU 1 Mdantsane* Private Bag X9007 * East London * 5200 * REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA * Tel: +27 (0)43 708 6208 Fax: +27 (0)43 760 0545 *Website: ecprov.gov.za
EMAIL: audrey.esben@ecdoe.gov.za

Date: 30 June 2016

Mrs N Myoli
Sophathisana Senior Secondary School
Dice Street
EAST LONDON
5201

Dear Mrs Myoli

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SCHOOLS IN THE EAST LONDON DISTRICT

Approval is hereby granted for you, **Mrs N Myoli,** to conduct research in Ulwazi High School, Mzomhle High School and Hlokoma High School, with the topic ***"Pragmatics Teaching on the Development of Learners' Linguistic Competence among the Selected Schools in East London"***, as part of your study towards the PhD qualification at the University of Fort Hare.

This permission is granted provided that you make proper arrangements with the affected school principals and to ensure that tuition time is not disrupted.

We wishing you well in your endeavours.

Yours faithfully

S MNGUNI
ACTING DISTRICT DIRECTOR

RESEARCH LETTTER: MRS N MYOLI Page 1

APPENDIX B: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A

Please answer the following questions as honest as possible. Answer all the questions. All the responses will be treated as confidential as possible.

Demographic information:

Please indicate the following answers by making an (x) in the appropriate box.

1. Age: What is your age?

- Under 12 years old □
- 12-17 years old □
- 18-24 years old □
- 25-34 years old □
- 35-44 years old □
- 45-54 years old □
- 65-74 years old □
- 75 years or older □

2. **Gender:** Male □ Female □

3. **Ethnicity**: □ African □ Coloured □ White □ Indian

□ **Other:** (Please state: ________________________

4. **Marital status:**

□ Single □ Widowed □ Separated □ Divorced □ Married/ living together

5. **Living situation:**

□ Live alone

□Live with other adults(s),

□ live with children

□ Live with other adults and children

6. **Job Level:**

□ Post level 1 □ Post level 2 □ Post level 3 □ Post level 4

7. **Work environment**

□ Urban □ Rural

8. What is the highest education level you have completed?

□ Completed primary school

□ attended high school but did not complete Matric

□ Completed matric

□ Bachelor's Degree

□ Professional Degree

□ Master's Degree

□ Doctoral Degree

9. **Level of professional education**

□PTC □PGCE □ HDE/HED □ B Ed Honours □ M Ed/ Master's Degree □ PhD

10. What is your current work situation?

Permanently employed □ Not permanently employed □ Unemployed □

11. What is your teaching experience? ---------------

12. Where were you born?

□ Urban □ Rural □

13. **What is your first language? _________________**

14. **What other languages do you speak? ______________**

SECTION B

Choose from one of the items:
Agree/ Disagree. Indicate your
choice with a tick

Knowledge	Agree	Disagree
1. Knowledge of pragmatic meaning is adequate.		
2. Knowledge to use language appropriately in different social situations is adequate.		
3. Knowledge of applying pragmatic language is adequate.		
4. Knowledge of valid methods for testing learners' pragmatic knowledge is sufficient		
5. Knowledge to reinforce teaching methods of language learning is sufficient.		
6. Knowledge of applying appropriate pragmatic language teaching approaches is not sufficient.		
7. Never taught how to apply pragmatic language knowledge.		
8. Knowledge to use strategies and activities that raise learners' pragmatic awareness is not sufficient.		
9. Knowledge to assess learners' pragmatic knowledge is proper.		
10. Knowledge of types of lessons proper for developing learners' pragmatic competence is sufficient.		

SECTION C

Items: SA-strongly agree A-agree N-neutral D- disagree SD-strongly disagree

Skill of application	**SA**	**A**	**N**	**D**	**SD**
1. The skill of applying pragmatic knowledge is poor.					
2. Teachers bring to the classroom lessons on pragmatics that are adequate.					
3. The present language teaching methods that teachers use are appropriate and sufficient for proper language learning.					
4. Design own teaching material to reinforce their teaching.					
5. Bring to the classroom learning material other than the prescribed textbooks to develop learners' pragmatic competency.					
6. Use reliable teaching material that stimulates real life communicative situations.					
7. Require intense empowerment regarding knowledge of adequate methods of raising learners' pragmatic awareness.					
8. Sometimes use role-play activities to observe learners' linguistic levels.					
9. Sometimes ask learners to collect linguistic information from magazines, movies, novels, and so on.					
10. Include pragmatic topics such as apologies, requests, complements, thanking, refusing and complaining, in their language lessons.					
11. Classroom practice regarding pragmatics teaching has been transformed, used and revised for effective teaching.					

SECTION D

ITEMS: Never, Sometimes, Don`t know, Most of the time, Always

Attitude towards pragmatic language teaching					
	Never	**Some-times**	**Don't know**	**Most of the time**	**Always**
1. Teaching pragmatics material is beneficial to learners.					
2. Question the necessity of teaching pragmatics.					
3. Pragmatics teaching is helpful and therefore, necessary.					
4. Learners would pick up a lot of pragmatic knowledge through communication and practise mostly outside of the classroom.					
5. Teaching aspects of pragmatics such as culture, politeness and usage is valuable.					
6. Desire to learn more information about pragmatics in order to have adequate teaching.					
7. Sensitive to learners' subjectivity and cultural being.					
8. Giving attention to communicative functions in the classroom.					

9. Welcome and keen to implement newly introduced teaching programmes.					
10. Keen to prepare models for demonstration where necessary.					
11. Welcome learner discussions. after demonstration.					
12. Keen to receive specific training on how to teach pragmatics.					
13. Keen to incorporate new knowledge into classroom practice.					
14. Experience of teaching language shall make me comfortable to teach pragmatics.					

SECTION E

ITEMS: AGREE, DISAGREE

Aspect of teacher support by the Department of Education	**AGREE**	**DISAGREE**
1. Teachers constantly attend workshops to develop and improve their knowledge of teaching pragmatics.		
2. They are provided with learning material that is sure to support the teaching of pragmatics		
3. Enough time is allocated for teaching of pragmatics.		
4. Educational policies properly manage matters of classroom overcrowding.		
5. Language teachers' workload is given proper attention.		
6. Language teachers get enough support from fellow-teachers.		
7. Language teachers receive enough support from their Subject Advisors.		

SECTION F

True False

Social support items	True	False
1. There are people I can depend on for help if I really need it regarding my teaching of language.		
2. I feel a strong emotional bond with at least one		

other colleague within the language department.		
3. There is a trustworthy person I could turn to for advice if I am experiencing problems with regard to my language teaching.		
4. There are people who depend on me for help in my language department.		
5. There are people who enjoy the same social activities as I do.		
6. There are people who admire and keen to help develop my linguistic teaching skills and talents.		

Section F

Items of self-efficacy	**Never**	**Some-times**	**Most of the time**	**Always**
1. I have a hard time giving learners tasks that encourage communication with each other.				
2. My teaching does not use a variety of different tasks to make language teaching more communicative.				
3. I am not able to give tasks that are designed to imitate real-life activities that learners are likely to encounter outside of the classroom.				
4. When teaching pragmatics, I fail to introduce the topic and name it as pragmatics.				
5. Even though I do oral assessment, it seldom includes pragmatic aspects such as, greetings,				

apologies, politeness and complements.				
6. My method of teaching does not encourage learners to learn from each other.				
7. I seldom bring video programmes, films and Television, as means of teaching pragmatic language in the classroom.				
8. I am concerned that, I am not capable of providing the learners with excellent resources to analyse language use in specific contexts.				
9. I also worry that not sufficient time is provided for learners to experience how language is used for real communicative purposes.				
10. No matter how hard I try, I do not think I shall be able to keep up with all of the suggested methods for teaching pragmatics language.				
11. I find it nearly impossible to follow the methods for teaching pragmatic language.				
12. I have trouble teaching pragmatic language.				
13. In the past I have had trouble implementing teaching methods that are new to me.				
14. Overload get in the way of my implementation of new teaching strategies.				
15. I am determined to spend more time teaching pragmatics.				
16. I am determined to do whatever it takes to teach pragmatic language to the level that is required of me.				

17. I am determined to review, reinforce and recycle the lessons previously taught.				
18. I am committed to using the target language for classroom management.				
19. I am determined to stick to a plan to help myself implement the relevant teaching strategies in order to raise pragmatic awareness in learners.				
20. I learn as much as I can about ways and means of teaching pragmatics language.				
21. I am committed to taking full responsibility for teaching learners pragmatic language.				

APPENDIX C: LETTER REQUESTING FOR EDUCATOR PARTICIPATION

Dear Colleague

I am currently seeking educators to participate in my dissertation study. This study will examine the instructional effectiveness of pragmatics teaching on the development of learners' linguistic competence among the selected schools in East London.

I am looking for educators who work with high school learners of the grade range of ten (10) to twelve (12) who would be able to go through my questions and complete the questionnaire by answering the questions thereof. As you know, the relation of pragmatic competence and instruction greatly affect the language classroom as well as the students' abilities to use language outside of the classroom. The study is designed to examine this relationship.

Your participation will be highly appreciated and hopefully, it will make a positive contribution to the results as well as the success of this research study. I would be happy to share the results of the study with you upon completion and discuss their implications on classroom language teaching and learning.

Should you require further explanation regarding this, please, do not hesitate to make further enquiries.

Thank you for your interest.

Sincerely,

N. Myoli

APPENDIX D: TESTING TOOL FOR THE LEARNERS' LEVEL OF PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE

UVAVANYO LOLWAZI LOKUSEBENZISA ULWIMI KWIIMEEKO ZENTLALO NOKUQONDA INTSINGISELO EFIHLAKELEYO

(TESTING FOR THE LEARNERS' LEVEL OF PRAGMATIC AWARENESS)

Phendula yonke Imibuzo (Answer all the questions)

Umbuzo 1

1.1. Ilidi yakho ayibhali kakuhle kuba indunyuva. Zibolekele isixhobo sokulola ilidi komnye wabafundi beli gumbi ufunda kulo. (Ask one of your classmates to lend you a lead pencil.) 1

1.2. Akuboni kakuhle ebhodini. Cela umfundi ophambi kwakho ukuba akhe ashenxe nje kancinci kuba ukusithile. (You cannot see properly on the board. Ask the learner in front of you to move a bit so that you can see.) 1

1.3. Uncwase ukuzifunela isingxungxo ngeeholide zehlobo. Cela inqununu yesikolo sakho ikutyikityele incwadi egunyazisa isicelo sesingxungxo. (Ask your principal to sign a letter allowing you to seek a part-time job during summer holidays.) 1

1.4. Umfundi wesikolo sakho uwongwa ngembasa yokugqwesa kukhuphiswano lwezikolo lwentetho ngolwimi lwesiXhosa. Ungathini kuye ukuvakalisa indlela ovuyisana ngayo naye kule mpumelelo? (Complement your schoolmate for receiving an award for the best isiXhosa Language Achiever in the Schools' Provincial Awards for 2016.) 1

1.5. Nanku umfundi ofunda naye encoma indlela ekuhlala ngayo ibhatyi yakho yesikolo entsha. Ngesivakalisi esinye, phendula esi sincomo. (Your school mate complements you on how smart you look on your new school jacket. In one sentence, respond on this complement.) 1

(5)

Umbuzo 2

2.1. Akuzokuphumelela namhlanje kwizifundo anibizela kuzo emva kwemini UTitshala wenu wezeMbali kuba unedinga noGqirha wamazinyo. Cela imvume yokungabikho kuTitshala wakho wesi sifundo. (Ask your History Teacher to excuse you from attending the afternoon class as you have an appointment with the Dentist.) 1

2.2. Uphiwa inyama yehagu ngumama womhlobo wakho kwaye ke, akuyityi.

Zilandulele. (You are offered pork by your friend's mother and unfortunately, you do not take pork. What will you say to refuse the offer?) 1

2.3. Uwise imali yakho yokugqibela engama-R20 yaza yacholwa, yabuyiselwa kuwe lelinye lamagqiyazana ofunda nawo. Libulele kucace ukuba kubulela umXhosa, xho. (You have dropped your last twenty rand (R20) by mistake and, most fortunately; it was picked up, and brought back to you by one of your female class-mates. Thank her.) 1

2.4. Nanku umfundi eshiywe ngubhuti wakhe. Kunyulwe wena ke, ngabafundi ukuba udlulise amazwi ovelwano. Khawutsho kuvokotheke ngesivakalisi esinye vo! (One of your school mates has lost his brother and you have been asked to convey some words of condolences on behalf of the class. Do that in just one sentence.) 2

(5)

Umbuzo 3

3.1. Nika intsingiselo yezi ntetho ngokukhetha impendulo echanekileyo kwezi zidweliswe ngezantsi. (Give the meaning of these phrases by choosing the Correct one from these listed below);

3.1.1 Oku kuthethela phezulu kwakho kuza kundibizela amahashe ndingenambona. (Your loud speaking shall invite horses for me yet, I do not have maize to offer them.)

Uthetha ukuba; (This means):

A. Akanambona, abe amahashe akhe ewuthanda umbona (His/ her horses like maize while, he/she does not have it.)

B. Akakholwa kukungawalimeli umbona amahashe akhe. (He/ She does not like it that he/ she could not grow maize for his/her horses.)

C. Uza kumbizela inkathazo. (he/she is going to cause trouble for him/her.)

2

3.1.2. Olo thando lwabo lwasuka lwangumlilo wendiza. (Their hot love became a maize-stem fire.

Uthetha ukuba; He/ She means that:

A. Umlilo wendiza awunabushushu boneleyo. (Fire made from maize stems does not give much heat.)

B. Uthando lwabo lwakhawuleza ukuphela. (Their love ended quickly.)

C. Umlilo wendiza ngowona uvutha kakuhle. (Fire made from maize stems burns well.)

2

3.1.3. Akanantloko ke noko lo mntwana! (This child is headstrong!)

Ingaba lo kuthethwa ngaye; (Does it mean the one referred to has);

A. Unentloko encinci (a small head.)

B. Unengqondo emfutshane (is small minded.)

C. Ukrwada (is rude) 2

Umbuzo 4

Nika intsingiselo yezi ntetho (Give the meaning of these phrases.)

4.1. UThembi uziqale ngegugu izifundo zakhe zebanga leshumi kodwa, andazi, ingathi ngoku inkal' ixing' etyeni. (Thembi was highly motivated when she started with her grade 12 studies but, now it seems that things are extremely difficult.) 2

4.2. UThemba walile ukundincedisa kwisifundo seziBalo. Uyalibala ukuba inkungu ilala kwintaba ngentaba. (Themba refused to help me with Mathematics studies. He forgets that what goes around comes around.) 1

4.3. Sebenzisa isaci okanye iqhalo kwisivakalisi ngoncedo lwesiqu sesenzi u-**betha**. (Use a proverb or an idiom in a sentence using the verb stem –betha.) 2

(5)

Umbuzo 5

5.1. Akutshaywa kwaMc Donald's. Umamele omnye wabasebenzi enqanda umfo ambona etshaya esithi, "Akutshaywa apha mfondini!" Yeyiphi indlela ephucukileyo nechubekileyo obunokumxelela ngayo ukuba akutshaywa apha wena lo mfo? (Smoking is not allowed at Mc Donald's. You hear one of the Mc

Donalds' employees asking the person that he found smoking saying, "Hey man! Smoking is not allowed here! Which other polite way would you use to inform this person that, smoking is forbidden at Mc Donald's? 2

5.2. Ingxoxo phakathi koThandokazi nonina uMaRhadebe. (An arguement between Thandokazi and her mother, MaRhadebe.)

UThandokazi: (Uvela kudlala ngorhatya.) (She is from playing outside, at twilight.)

Andilambe! (I am so hungry!)

UMaRhadebe: Nazo iimbiza. (Those are the pots.)

Cazulula intsingiselo yale mpendulo kaMaRhadebe. Ucinga ukuba uMaRhadebe uthini, kanye, kanye kuThandokazi? (Analyse the actual meaning of MaRhadebe’s response. What is she actually, saying to Thandokazi? 2

Amanqaku ewonke (Total) [25]

APPENDIX E: ENGLISH EDITOR CERTIFICATE

EDITING/PROOFREADING CERTIFICATE

To whom it may concern

This serves to certify that I, Jabulani Mkhize, have proofread and/or edited Mrs. N. Myoli's doctoral thesis to ensure that the language, grammar, punctuation and spelling are academically sound and appropriate, by rectifying errors, wherever these have been identified, and rephrasing sentences that would possibly make one lose sight of the flow of the argument.

Title of the Thesis: "Pragmatics teaching on the development of learners' linguistic competence among the selected schools in East London"

Editor's Name: Jabulani Mkhize

Signature :

Date : 20 June 2018

Contact Details: jmkhize@ufh.ac.za

Qualifications: PhD (English)

APPENDIX F: DATA COLLECTION LETTER FOR SOPHATHISANA SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL

Sophathisana Senior Secondary School

Dice Street

East London

5200

17.06.2016

The District Director

Department of Education

East London District

Eastern Cape

PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AT THE SCHOOLS IN THE EAST LONDON DISTRICT

I hereby request to carry out a research in Senior Secondary Schools in East London District. The topic of my research is: **PRAGMATICS TEACHING ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNERS' LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE AMONG THE SELECTED SCHOOLS IN EAST LONDON.** Specifically, I wish to solicit information through questionnaires from isiXhosa- teaching educators from Grades Ten (10) to Twelve (12) and administer a test to learners of the same grades.

I am employed by the Department of education as an educator at Sophathisana Senior Secondary School and currently studying towards PhD.

It is hoped that this study shall be of benefit to the Department of Education as well as to the Department of Arts and Culture.

The information obtained shall be kept strictly confidential and shall be only used for the purposes of the study.

I hope that my request shall meet your most favourable consideration.

Yours sincerely

....

N. Myoli