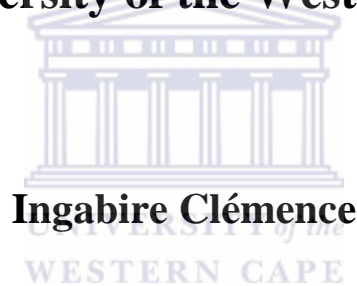




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WESTERN CAPE

**Problematizing the construct of ‘definitions’ within
academic literacy: an analysis of students’ knowledge of
definitions in isiXhosa and English language textbooks at
the University of the Western Cape**



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A Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Masters in

Linguistics in the Faculty of Arts, University of the Western Cape

Supervisor: Prof. Bassey E Antia

December 2016

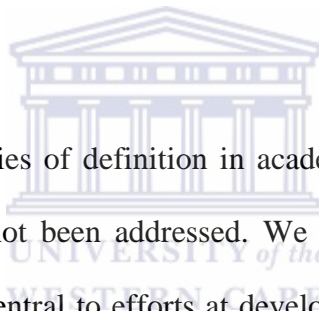
Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my late father-in-law Léonidas Mbarushimana and grand-mother Assinathe Nikuze. Dear grand-mother, thank you so much for your love, care and guidance. You were more than a mother to us and I will always appreciate all you did to make us who we are today.



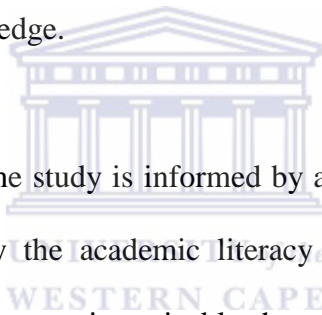
Abstract

Instructional verbs (such as analyse, summarise, apply, evaluate) have been referred to as performatives and have become the object of initiatives around developing and assessing students' academic literacy competencies. Although there are extensive studies on developing and evaluating performatives such as analyse, apply, create, there is one instructional verb that has not received much attention. It is the verb 'define'. The neglect of 'defining' as a performative in the relevant research on academic literacies may be explained by the low value attributed to this performative in different taxonomies of educational outcomes where it is placed along with verbs such as 'list', 'identify', 'recall' identified as lower-order thinking skills.



As a result of the dearth of studies of definition in academic literacy contexts, there are a number of questions that have not been addressed. We do not know the extent to which definitional knowledge may be central to efforts at developing the overall academic literacy of students. We do not know if the language in which students read academic texts (home language or second/third language) affects their ability to differentiate definitions from non-definitions, or to formulate definitions of concepts. This point is especially important as it is all too often assumed that (even without attention to relevant academic literacy development) the use of the home language of students necessarily enhances academic performance. Also, our knowledge is rather limited with respect to how different definitional structures affect the ability of students to recognize definitions in their study materials. It is also not clear how to intervene in order to make it explicit to students what may be expected of them in terms of defining in their academic work.

Given the foregoing, this research analyses the notion of ‘definition’ as an integral component of the academic literacy of university students, with the focus being on determining the knowledge around definitions possessed by students in the Linguistics and Xhosa departments of the University of the Western Cape. Specifically, the study assesses the following: the structure of definitions in selected textbooks; students’ awareness of the existence of different definitional structures in their textbooks; their ability to identify the concepts being defined in specific passages; their ability to define concepts; their ability to distinguish definitions from non-definitions; and their awareness of how definitions may be introduced. The study also investigates how the language of the textbook (home language versus second/third language of the students) may impact on the performance of students in assessments of definitional knowledge.



In terms of theoretical framing, the study is informed by an approach to definitions taken in the field of terminology and by the academic literacy framework which stipulates that students’ academic literacy practices are inextricably shaped by different factors such as basic skills possessed by them, institutional ideologies, contexts and issues of power. The research uses a mixed-method paradigm. A total of 100 definitions excerpted from English and isiXhosa textbooks were analysed qualitatively to describe the structure of definitions (in the textbooks), using as parameters the following: definiendum (item to be defined), definiens (meaning) and definator (link between definiendum and definiens). Quantitative data on students’ knowledge of different aspects of the notion ‘definition’ were collected by means of questionnaires completed by 50 students from each of the Linguistics and Xhosa departments of the University of the Western Cape. While the former have English as their major language of academic literacy, the latter have isiXhosa. Chi-square tests were administered to

examine whether or not there was a significant relationship between the language of the questionnaire and students' performance.

Overall, the research findings suggest that definition writing is not an autonomous phenomenon; rather, it is socioculturally (e.g. language, discipline) shaped. In this respect, the way definitions are structured in English (in a linguistics textbook) is in many respects different from the way they are constructed in isiXhosa (in books on cultural studies). With regard to students' performance on a range of definition tasks in the questionnaires administered, the findings reveal that the major language of academic literacy (also home language in the case of Xhosa students) may have a positive impact on how students perform tasks requiring them to, for instance, identify definienda (concepts being defined) and definientia (meanings), and/or to spot a definition within a passage. Unlike with these datasets, other findings show that the main language of academic literacy is not a significant explanation of students' underperformance in tasks requiring them to identify a definition that is wrongly introduced and also to produce definitions of their own. The findings underscore the need for explicit teaching as recommended by the academic literacies model. A pedagogical guide outlining how a course on definition could be structured is proposed.

Keywords

Definition

Definiendum

Definitior

Definiens

English

IsiXhosa

Language textbook

Academic literacy

Students' knowledge

University of the Western Cape



Declaration

I, Ingabire Clémence, declare that *Problematising the construct of ‘definitions’ within academic literacy: an analysis of students’ knowledge of definitions in isiXhosa and English language textbooks at the University of the Western Cape* is my own work, that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university, and that the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Name: Ingabire Clémence

Date: December, 2016

Signed.....



Acknowledgments

First and foremost, I thank GOD the Almighty. I would not have been able to achieve this if it was not for HIS grace.

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I also want to take this opportunity to thank Professor Felix Banda for trusting me and welcoming me to this department. The first time I spoke to him, as the head of the department in regard to my application, my English was extremely poor, but that did not affect my admission to Linguistics department. I am very grateful for that.

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To all the participant students in my study, thank you again for your availability, support and time. To tell you the truth, your contribution was a very important asset to this research. I really appreciate your cooperation and contribution.

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to my family, especially to my beloved husband Emmanuel Habimana and son Shalom Habimana for their support, understanding and patience. You were always there for me and I really enjoyed your company and encouragement throughout this journey. A special thank you goes to Dr Martin Mukeshimana, my in-laws, brothers, sisters and to my uncle Stanislas Mbanenande and his family.

Finally, to all staff of the University of the Western Cape, postgraduate candidates of Linguistics Department and to those who directly or indirectly contributed to the achievement of this study, thank you.

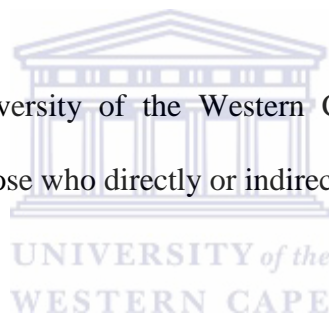


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1 Chapter One: INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH

1.1 Introduction

This research analyses the notion of ‘definition’ as an integral component of the academic literacy of university students, with the focus being on determining the knowledge around definitions possessed by students in the linguistics and isiXhosa departments of the University of the Western Cape. The purpose of this first chapter is to provide a brief introduction to this research. It therefore states the problem being investigated or the motivation for conducting this research. It further presents the aim as well as the objectives of this study. Finally, the chapter provides an outline of the structure of this dissertation.

1.2 The background to the study

Academic literacy may be described as a set of practices and skills associated with reading, writing, listening, talking and thinking that are appropriate (and required by a person) for successful and productive engagement within and across various disciplinary communities in a tertiary institution (Lea & Street 2006; Afful 2007). This account is easily recognised as combining a skills orientation and a more social, ideological approach to academic literacy. However, in what may be considered a more skills-based description of academic literacy, many researchers (like Geisler 1994; Webb 2002; Weideman 2003; Van Dyk & Weidman 2004; Ratangee 2007) have outlined what it takes to be academically literate. For instance, according to Weideman (2003: xi-xii), students are said to be academically literate when they are able to:

- understand a range of academic vocabulary in context;
- interpret and use metaphor and idiom, and perceive connotation, word play and ambiguity;

- understand relations between different parts of a text, be aware of the logical development of (an academic) text, via introductions to conclusions, and know how to use language that serves to make the different parts of a text hang together;
- interpret different kinds of text type (genre), and show sensitivity for the meaning that they convey, and the audience that they are aimed at;
- interpret, use and produce information presented in graphic or visual format;
- make distinctions between essential and non-essential information, fact and opinion, propositions and arguments; distinguish between cause and effect, classify, categorise and handle data that make comparisons;
- see sequence and order, do simple numerical estimations and computations that are relevant to academic information, that allow comparisons to be made, and can be applied for the purposes of an argument;
- know what counts as evidence for an argument, extrapolate from information by making inferences, and apply the information or its implications to other cases than the one at hand;
- understand the communicative function of various ways of expression in academic language (such as defining, providing examples, arguing);
- make meaning (e.g. of an academic text) beyond the level of the sentence.

In effect, to be academically literate students need to be familiar with conventions for producing and processing disciplinary texts (Berkenkotter & Huckin 1995; Starfield 2000; Hyland 2004; Rambiritch 2013); they need to be able to perform different activities through listening, speaking, reading and writing (Johnson, 2009). An appropriate level of academic literacy will enable students to understand spoken language, to decode written language and to have a deep understanding of the curriculum.

In South Africa, the academic literacy difficulties of university students have been widely studied (Amos & Fischer 1998; Jaffer & Garraway 2016). A major challenge highlighted is the medium of instruction. Many researchers find that the lack of proficiency in English hampers the academic performance of students (Macdonald 1990; Mesthrie 1995; Mohamed 2000; van Rensburg & Weidman 2002; van Dyk 2005; Desai 2010; Ngwenya 2010; Pineteh 2013). The medium of instruction appears to challenge a large number of students due to the fact that South African students from different linguistic backgrounds are taught in their second or sometimes third language.

Apart from the specific factor of the medium of instruction, another explanation for the academic literacy difficulties of university students is the more general under-preparedness of students for tertiary education (Herman 1998; Paras 2001; Scott, Yeld & Hendry 2007; Archer 2010; Ngwenya 2010; Pineteh 2013; Spaul 2013). Some of the evidence alluded in support of this general under-preparedness includes the inability of students to perform tasks that require higher-order thinking skills. Researchers have found that students have significant difficulties in summarizing and synthesizing information from different sources, critically evaluating, analysing, arguing, referencing, comparing and contrasting, providing evidence or justifying arguments, and logically organising ideas (Dyers 2000; van Dyk 2005; Archer 2010; Ngwenya 2010; Bharuthram 2012; du Plessis 2012; Vimbai 2012; Pineteh 2013).

The effects of these difficulties are readily observable in the drop-out rates (Cooper & van Dyk 2003; Mkhabela & Malan 2004; van Dyk 2005; Scott 2007); the under-performance of those historically disadvantaged students, including high repeat rates (de Klerk 1995; Ngwenya 2010; Bharuthram 2012; Mgqwashu 2013); the low throughput rates or graduation

rates of students (Mkhabela & Malan 2004; Scott, Yeld & Hendry 2007; du Plessis 2012); as well as the frustration levels of both lecturers and students (Leibowitz 2000; Ngidi 2007; Ramani 2009).

Several responses to these difficulties may be categorised into two groups: a general orientation and a specific skills-based orientation. The general orientation comprises proposals such as the following: using the home languages of students in the educational system, or multilingual education (Alexander 1995; Luckett 1995; Webb & Kembo 2000; Edwards & Ngwaru 2011; Mgqwashu 2013) in order to accommodate the linguistic diversity in the classroom; making explicit to students expectations of what it means to be academically literate (Bridgeman & Carlson 1984; Hale et al. 1996; Leibowitz 2000; Carson 2001; Krathwohl 2002; Weideman 2003; Zhu 2004; Carter 2007; Pillai 2014); providing regular constructive comments or feedback on students' academic papers (Ramsden 1992; Starfield 2000; Parkerson 2000; Tuck 2012; Pineteh 2013); and promoting intensive academic reading and writing activities so that students can improve their writing skills for academic purposes and master academic writing standards (Bharuthram 2012; Tuck 2012; Vimbai 2012; Pineteh 2013).

The more specific responses attempt to elaborate on what is expected of students. These responses focus on performatives or instructional verbs, that is, “verbs which, when used, invoke some form of conventional procedures and which in themselves constitute some form of action” (Pearson, 1998:106). These instructional verbs include: identifying, evaluating or critiquing, analysing, predicting, comparing and contrasting, describing, proposing, justifying (give arguments or evidence), organising or structuring, applying, interpreting, concluding, summarizing, paraphrasing, applying, interpreting, concluding, illustrating, quoting,

referencing, classifying, defining, and so forth (Bridgeman & Carlson 1984; Braine 1995; Hale et al. 1996; Leibowitz 2000; Carson 2001; Krathwohl 2002; Zhu 2004; Carter 2007; Cooper & Bikowski 2007; Pillai 2014). Thus, summarizing and/or synthesizing ideas from different sources has been studied by Pineteh (2013), Bharuthram (2012), du Plessis (2012); applying knowledge has been studied by Pineteh (2013), Knapper (2001); organizing ideas or thoughts has been researched by Ngwenya (2010), du Plessis (2012); arguing has been studied by du Plessis (2012); and so on.

Several classifications of these instructional verbs have been proposed. In educational or cognitive outcomes taxonomies such as those associated with Bloom (Krathwohl, 2002) or Biggs (Biggs, 1999), these instructional verbs are classified according to increasing levels of cognitive complexity. Table 1.1 explicitly classifies some of those verbs in terms of their cognitive categories based on Bloom's revised taxonomy (Aainsqatsi 2008; Overbaugh & Schultz 2008, Churches 2009) in comparison with Biggs' taxonomy (Biggs, 1999; Antia & Antia 2013).

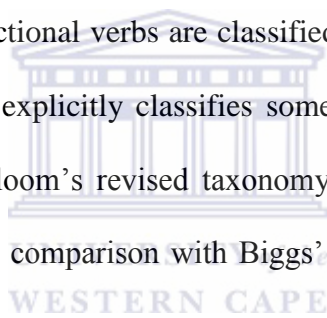



Table 1.1: Classification of verbs using Bloom’s revised and Biggs’ taxonomies

		LEVELS (taxonomy)		EXAMPLES OF INSTRUCTIONAL VERBS
		BLOOM’S (revised)	BIGGS’	
High order- thinking skills  Low order- thinking skills	Creating	Extended abstract	Compose, develop, design, combine, construct, produce, plan, create, invent, organize, propose, formulate, forecast, hypothesize, originate, devise, reflect, conceptualize, theorise, generalize	
	Evaluating	Relational	Judge, relate, criticize, support, evaluate, recommend, summarize, appraise, compare, select, decide, justify, debate, verify, argue, assess, discuss, determine, critique, defend, estimate	
	Analysing	Relational	Compare, contrast, investigate, analyse, classify, identify, distinguish, categorize, differentiate, subdivide, infer, select, survey, prioritize, explain, deduce	
	Applying	Relational	Organize, produce, choose, apply, solve, draw, show, use, examine, choose, modify, produce	
	Understanding	Multi-structural	Paraphrase, rewrite, illustrate, give examples, explain, defend, distinguish, summarize, interrelate, interpret, match, discuss, predict, demonstrate, combine	
	Remembering	Multi and unistructural	List, name, select, identify, locate, state, recognise, memorize, define, describe, label, recall, recite, reproduce, enumerate	

Verbs such as list, name, select, identify, locate, state, recognize and define, requiring students to recall or to remember and to understand basic concepts, belong to the low level in the academic cognitive domain, whereas verbs requiring students to interpret, to apply or solve, to produce, to create and evaluate tend to be linked to higher levels of cognitive domain. That is to say that, the former is concerned with lower-order thinking skills, while the latter has to do with those verbs requiring higher-order thinking skills.

1.3 Statement of the problem

From the perspective of a specific skills-based orientation, research on the academic literacy of students is increasingly focused on addressing the higher-order cognitive verbs such as critically evaluating, interpreting, organizing or structuring, arguing and analyzing (see Swales 1982; Bridgeman & Carlson 1984; English 1999; Jones 1999; Dyers 2000; Thesen & van Pletzen 2006; Carter 2007; Henderson & Hirst 2007; Diani 2009; Archer 2010; Ngwenya 2010; Strauss, Goodsir & Ferguson 2011; Bharuthram 2012; Vimbai 2012; Pineteh 2013; Pillai 2014).

There is, however, very limited focus on those instructional verbs that call for recognizing, identifying or remembering basic disciplinary concepts. Defining is one such instructional verb, which is regrettably placed in the category of lower-order cognitive skills. This position, coupled with the relative neglect of the study of defining in the research on academic literacy, may give the impression that defining is a negligible issue in the academic literacy development of university students. Indeed, there is a widespread assumption that knowledge of definitions somehow naturally resides or is “stored in students’ heads” (Gee, 2008:77) or is part of their “common sense knowledge” (Coofin et al., 2003:3).

Yet, the act of defining or the knowledge of definitions is extremely central to the practice of academic literacy. As Walton & Macagno (2009: 249) observe, “the failure to share a definition of a concept and instruments for situating a concept in the system itself, inevitably leads to failures in communicating and in understanding”. The relative neglect of definitions in research on the academic literacy of students is regrettable when it is recalled that there hardly is an examination or other class assessment task that does not require students to define. There is some evidence that students are not always very successful in tasks requiring

them to identify and understand definitions; or to define concepts that are used in their fields of study or lectures. For instance, in a study conducted by Bourdieu, Passeron & de Saint Martin (1995) to assess students' ability to define the most frequently used concepts within lectures, to understand different concepts in contexts and to recognise the meaning associated with each concept within a particular context, the researchers found that these frequently used concepts are "among the most poorly understood" by students (Bourdieu et al., 1995:37). In a study conducted by Bangeni & Kaap (2006:62), it was also reported that students barely and do not at all "define concepts that are central to their arguments" when writing academic essays.

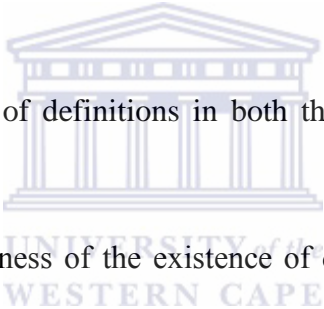
In spite of such observations, the systematic study of definitions in the context of the academic literacy development of students has not received much attention. As a result of the dearth of studies of definition in academic literacy contexts, there are a number of questions that have not been addressed. Besides anecdotal accounts of definitions posing a challenge to students, we do not know the extent to which definitional knowledge may be central to efforts at developing the overall academic literacy of students. We do not know if the language in which students read academic texts (home language or second/third language) affects their ability to differentiate definitions from non-definitions, or to formulate definitions of concepts. This point is especially important as it is all too often assumed that (even without attention to relevant academic literacy development) the use of the home language or normal language of academic literacy of students necessarily enhances academic performance. Also, our knowledge is rather limited with respect to how different definitional structures affect the ability of students to recognize definitions in their study materials. It is also not clear how to intervene in order to make it explicit to students what may be expected of them in terms of defining in their academic work. In sum, there is a need to determine how much relevant

knowledge around definitions students possess, and to use this as basis for relevant academic literacy development initiatives.

1.4 Aim and objectives

This research examines the knowledge around definitions possessed by two groups of students (at the University of the Western Cape) studying isiXhosa and Linguistics respectively, based on relevant tasks they have to perform on isiXhosa and English language textbooks.

The objectives of this research are as follows:

- 
1. To describe the structure of definitions in both the English and isiXhosa language textbooks;
 2. To assess students' awareness of the existence of different definitional structures in their textbooks;
 3. To determine the ability of students to identify the concepts being defined in specific passages;
 4. To assess students' ability to define concepts;
 5. To evaluate whether students are able to distinguish definitions from non-definitions;
 6. To evaluate whether students are aware of inappropriate ways of introducing definitions;
 7. To reflect on how the language of the textbook (home language/dominant language of academic literacy versus second/third language of the students) impacts on the performance of students in assessments of definitional knowledge; and

8. To reflect on how the construct of ‘definitions’ is an issue within students’ academic literacy, and to suggest ways of embedding definitional knowledge into the academic literacy development of students studying in English and in isiXhosa.

1.5 The research questions

The study investigated the following research questions:

1. What are the dominant definitional structures in both the English and isiXhosa language textbooks?
2. Are students aware of different definitional structures?
3. Are students able to identify definitions in texts as well as components of definitions?
4. Are students able to draw on the given information and come up with a definition of a concept?
5. Are students able to distinguish definitions from definitional metadiscourses?
6. Are students aware of how definitions may be introduced?
7. Does the language of a text affect the way students interpret definitions?

1.6 The structure of the research dissertation

This section outlines the structure of this research dissertation and provides a brief overview of the content of each chapter.

Chapter One of this dissertation provides the background to this study. The statement of the problem, the major aim and the objectives of this research are also presented in this chapter. It finally provides an overview of chapters.

Chapter Two reviews literature appropriate for the purpose of this study. In the first section, the chapter discusses different criteria for becoming academically literate. It further presents relevant literature on different issues identified in the academic literacy of students in South African universities. It finally reviews the evolution of (responses to) academic literacy development in order to improve students' academic literacy.

Chapter Three describes the theoretical framework that will guide this research. The chapter first presents research on a social approach to literacy, and then a theoretical account of definitions.

Chapter Four discusses the research design and methodology used in this study. This chapter provides detailed information on the nature and size of data required, data collection processes, data analysis procedures, and the ethical issues followed in this research.

Chapter Five presents the findings of the research on the structures of definitions in isiXhosa and English language textbooks. The qualitative analysis of definitional structures is done with reference to three components of a definition, namely definiendum, definator and definiens.

Chapter Six, presents the findings on students' performance in different tasks assigned to them by means of a questionnaire. Students' responses are categorised and analysed with reference to different parameters.

Chapter Seven concludes this dissertation and provides key recommendations for further improvements in students' academic literacy development and researches.

1.7 Conclusion

This chapter attempted to present the background and the rationale for the study. This entailed discussing the requirements for becoming academically literate and the academic literacy challenges in South African universities and some responses to them. The chapter further discussed the problem which underlines the research. In addition, it presented the major aim of this research as well as the objectives to be investigated. The next chapter reviews literature on different facets of students' academic literacy and performance.



2 Chapter Two: THE LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The first section of this chapter discusses different requirements that are considered as major criteria for becoming academically literate. The second section discusses a range of issues that have been raised around the academic literacy of students in South African universities. The third section reviews the evolution of understandings of, or of responses to, academic literacy, and the implications of each phase for work on definitions are teased out.

2.2 Modelling university demands for becoming academically literate

From a skills perspective, academic literacy practices are contingent on a mix of three kinds of crucial skills, namely “an advanced facility with words, a strong sense of logic as well as a deep understanding of a specialized domain of knowledge” (Geisler, 1994:4). Being academically literate requires students to be able to apply different skills, namely, language skills, thinking skills, numeracy skills, basic computational skills and epistemic skills (or knowledge of how things must be done and challenged).

As McWilliams & Allan (2014) state, those who are said to be academically literate must:

- possess critical thinking skills;
- be aware of different conventions and rules regulating each academic work or performative;
- be linguistically fluent and equipped with the formal register or technical vocabulary suitable to each genre and discipline;
- be able to manipulate a range of information types or/and a variety of academic genres or texts; and

- be able to decipher the meaning conveyed by each genre of texts

Other researchers such as Brandt (1990) stress that students are expected to engage in metaphorical meaning-making of each discourse. In addition, they have to engage and perform different cognitively demanding academic tasks requiring them to exhibit their critical thinking skills (Scribner & Cole 1981; Coffin et al. 2003). Note that those demanding tasks are most of the time performed through academic writing and reading. Thus, academic literacy development is achieved through reading and writing activities involving both written and spoken skills (Garton & Pratt, 1989).

Emphasising less of the skills orientation and more literacy events, processes and situations, Barton (2006:23) argues that becoming academically literate entails “learning to produce and use texts, including being able to contribute to texts, and being able to find them, evaluate them and criticize them. It is about engaging with texts appropriately across a range of settings.”

2.2.1 Academic writing and its requirements

Academic writing is an important tool used to sustainably develop students’ literacy because it is seen as “the way in which students consolidate their understanding of subject areas, as well as the means by which tutors can come to learn about the extent and nature of individual students’ understanding” (Lillis, 2001: 20). In academia, lecturers and tutors learn about their students’ identities and understanding of the subjects through academic writing. Thus, academic writing is an instrument allowing students to sustainably acquire knowledge, to exhibit the insight gained during their schooling experience, as well as a tool allowing them to construct and reveal their identities.

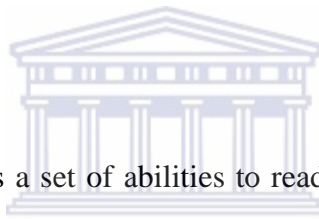
In academia, writing is seen as a complex activity in the sense that it is “a kind of problem-solving activity that involves generating ideas, discovering a ‘voice’ with which to write, planning, goal-setting, monitoring and evaluating what is going to be written, as well as what has been written, and searching for language with which to express exact meaning” (Seligmann, 2012:219). Thus, students are expected to recognise and meet different required academic standards, norms, communicative purposes and conventions established in each specific disciplinary community (Swales 1990; Geisler 1994, Berkenkotter & Huckin 1995; Starfield 2000; Coffin et al. 2003; Hyland 2004; Rambiritch 2013).

Besides the above criteria, becoming successful in academic writing requires students to write with a specific audience in mind; to be aware of their purpose of writing (Seligmann, 2012); and to be conscious of what they are doing. Students’ awareness of their audience in principle sensitizes them to the different linguistic features to be used within that process. In other words, this means that the awareness of the audience allows students to know which linguistic register to be used for which genre of text and for which audience or context (Baynham, 1995).

With respect to the construct of the definition, academic writing implies, for example, the observation of different procedural rules regulating how a definition should be structured (see chapter 3 for more details). This would require the awareness of how the three components of a definition (defininendum, definiens and definator) need to be linked together to make a meaningful unit capable of communicating the intention of the definer. It may also imply the awareness of the context within which a definition is being written given that each discipline or institution may have its own way of writing.

2.2.2 Academic reading and its requirements

As Gee (2008:43) states, “literacy surely means nothing unless it has something to do with the ability to read”. The ability to read texts is also a crucial ingredient for facilitating students’ academic literacy development and success. Literacy empowers students not only with the ability to write, but also with the ability to read and understand what different academic texts are offering to them. It is difficult to talk about academic writing and ignore academic reading because the readability of a text is also fundamental to academic literacy (Papashane & Hlalele, 2014) and academic writing draws upon what the person has read. In addition, Papashane & Hlalele (2014) argue how students’ competence in reading plays an important role in their ability to write well, hence the need for students to read in a critical manner.



Academic reading is construed as a set of abilities to read different types of texts in certain ways and at different levels. This is due to the fact that each disciplinary text has “its own rules and requirements [...] and each has a culturally and historically separate way of reading and writing” (Gee, 2003:28). The readability and the meaning-making process of a text depend upon different factors such as particular skills and the reader’s background knowledge or schemata, whether linguistic or sociocultural. For instance, in academia, once students are initiated into and are engaged with the process of reading and writing, they bring with them different expectations, perspectives and experiences and these shape the way they handle academic writing and reading tasks. Some students become point-driven (expert) readers, while others are identified as content-driven (non-expert) readers (Brandt, 1990). As Brandt (1990) states, a large number of student readers are identified as content-driven because they focus on understanding, recalling and conserving the given content or information in the same accurate (literal) and propositional form without challenging or

transforming that content. In other words, content-driven readers are those people who ‘read the lines’ as they are directly or accurately stated in a text (Seligmann, 2012).

As Tuman (1987, cited in Brandt, 1990:10) states, “one can read and write and still fail to engage in metaphorical meaning-making, which is the genuine literate enterprise.” Thus, becoming academically literate requires students to be point-driven readers by adopting different metacognitive strategies in meaning-making. Point-driven or expert readers can be described as those students who take responsibility in construing a text as a complex speech act requiring the ability to transform, critically interpret and challenge what has been said or written; or those readers who ‘read between the lines’ (Seligmann, 2012) by going beyond what is written to infer hidden meanings. For instance, in the context of defining concepts, students are said to be academically literate if they are able to link dispersed or isolated components of a definition; to infer the hidden meaning or interpret a definitional text; and/or if they are able to draw on the information provided in their course-readers to formulate a definition of their own.

2.3 Academic literacy in South African universities

2.3.1 Issues of English as a medium of teaching and learning in South Africa

2.3.1.1 The use of English as the medium of instruction in universities

In South Africa, even though attitudes towards the use of English as a medium of instruction are often instrumentally positive (see de Klerk, 1996), this does not prevent this language from being blamed for being responsible for the general lack of academic skills and intellectual development (Banda, 2000). The use of English as a medium of instruction by a large number of South African educational institutions affects students’ academic

performance (Trueba 1987; de Klerk 1995; Stephen, Welman & Jordan 2004; Jackson, Meyer & Parkinson 2006; Ntshangase 2011) and understanding of the content due to the fact that a large number of those students are second or third language speakers of English with varying degrees of competence (Myburgh, Poggenpoel & van Rensburg, 2004).

The challenge posed by the English medium of instruction has been widely documented. For instance, in a study by Leibowitz (2000) conducted in order to describe what opportunities for learning to write occur within the undergraduate courses at the University of the Western Cape, it was reported that students' lack of academic language (English) proficiency hampers their epistemological access to academic knowledge in lectures, and negatively affects their essay writing. The underperformance of students resulting from the lack of proficiency in English was also highlighted within Webb's (1996) research. In this study, it was also found that only 25% of Black South African students are functionally literate in English. By functionally literate in English, Webb (1996) means students who are equipped with enough knowledge of English and who are able to use that knowledge effectively in academic as well as in carrier settings.

Even though academic English is identified as a major challenge to those students who are second speakers of English (Myburgh et al., 2004), there is also concern around those students for whom English is a first language (Simpson & Cook 2010). In a study titled 'a study of the writing tasks and reading assigned to undergraduate science students at a South African University' conducted by Jackson et al. (2006), one of the lecturers interviewed highlights the difficulty that English poses to students. According to that lecturer "English first language students range from good to poor, while English second language students range from poor to extremely poor" (Jackson et al., 2006:271). This view is also supported by

different researchers (such as Angéllil-Carter 1993; Greenbaum & Mbali 2002; Snow & Uccelli 2009; Simpson & Cook 2010) when they stated that academic English challenges not only those students for whom English is an additional language, but also those students for whom English is a first language; because these ones speak “non-prestigious” varieties of English (Simpson & Cooke, 2010:59).

2.3.1.2 Other dimensions of the English literacy articulation gap

Another handicap hindering students’ understanding and academic performance is the articulation gap or students’ under-preparedness (CHE 2013; Anderson & Poole 2009; Jackson et al. 2006). Articulation gap is defined as “the disparity between the learning requirements of higher education programmes and the knowledge and competencies of students entering universities” (Lewin & Mawoyo, 2014:6). According to CHE (2013:60) the articulation gap is seen as ‘the mismatch or discontinuity between the exit level of secondary education and the entry level of higher education’. This educational mismatch results from different schooling experiences. Previous experiences of schooling have a great impact on how learners perform and think once they are exposed to different and new subjects within universities. This means that the experiences gained by students during previous years of schooling are engraved in them, leave traces and shape how they engage with new forms of knowledge (requirements). According to Baynham (1995:76) those traces of knowledge can “construct those experiences as successes or failures”. When those previous experiences of education are, for instance, inadequate, they lead to a situation where students struggle a lot to make the transition from high school literacies to university (academic) literacy (Bharuthram 2012; Vimbai 2012; Wilson-Strydom 2010; Kaap 2004) because they are under prepared for tertiary education (Herman 1998; Paras 2001; Butler 2007; Scott et al. 2007; Archer 2010; Ngwenya 2010; Pineteh 2013; Spaul 2013). This articulation gap is most

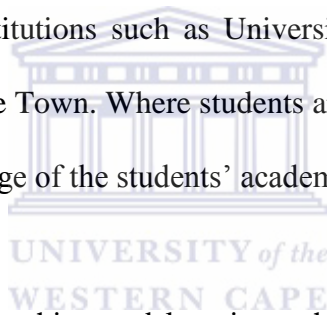
frequently evident in African students (CHE, 2013) and stems from poor and under-resourced schools where these students have acquired knowledge and skills that may not meet academic task expectations of higher education.

The articulation gap or under-preparedness is reflected in documented claims of students' inability to read and think critically, evaluate, analyse, interpret, compare and contrast, summarize and/or synthesize ideas from different sources (Dyers 2000; Anderson & Poole 2009; Archer 2010; Bharuthram 2012; du Plessis 2012; Pineteh 2013) and to apply knowledge acquired across different contexts (Knapper 2001; Pineteh 2013). Even though academic discourses require higher-order thinking skills, students are unable to logically organize ideas or thoughts (Ngwenya 2010; du Plessis 2012) in a "methodical manner, while applying specific discipline instructions and conventions" (Pineteh, 2013:15).

As reported in different studies (e.g. du Plessis 2012), students are also said to be unable to construct arguments by providing the necessary factual support, and to interpret different academic discourses. For example, in a research project, '*Academic writing challenges faced by first year B. Ed students at a South African university*' conducted at the University of the Witwatersrand by Vimbai (2012), analysed essays and questionnaire responses revealed that students face many challenges in referencing, quoting, constructing their arguments or in arguing their position, and in understanding academic vocabulary. Given that students were expected to write an essay, the findings illustrated that some students were not able to adequately introduce their essays by, for instance, identifying a clear statement of their arguments or the main aim of their essays. In addition, they were unable to logically organize ideas or arguments in what Pineteh (2013:15) refers to as "a methodical manner".

2.3.2 The use of isiXhosa as a language of teaching and learning

IsiXhosa as one of nine Bantu languages is not only taught as a degree course, but it is also a medium of instruction for so-called content subjects in some South African universities. IsiXhosa is taught as a content subject or as a proficiency course for staff members or for students in vocational disciplines like medicine, pharmacy, law, journalism, education, dentistry, psychology and social work at several universities such as Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Rhodes University, University of the Western Cape, University of Cape Town, University of Stellenbosch and Fort Hare (see Dalvit & de Klerk n.d; Neethling 2010; Deyi 2014; Maseko 2016). As some scholars (see Paxton 2009; Madiba 2013; Antia & Dyers 2016; Maseko 2016) highlight, isiXhosa is also used as a language of teaching and learning at higher education institutions such as University of the Western Cape, Rhodes University and University of Cape Town. Where students are taking a degree in isiXhosa, this language is often the main language of the students' academic literacy.



The use of home languages in teaching and learning enhances epistemological access and promotes students' effective participation and negotiation of meaning within academic settings (Heugh 2000; Alexander 2001; Sweetnam-Evans 2001; Malekela, 2006; Ramani & Joseph 2006; Mgqwashu 2013; Modiba 2008). The significance of isiXhosa as a medium of instruction is evident in some projects that were conducted within certain South African universities. For example, in discussing the impact of using isiXhosa in learning economics at the University of Cape Town, Paxton (2009) reported that using isiXhosa facilitated students' in-depth understanding of economic concepts. These findings suggest that the terms were better understood after they had been translated into isiXhosa, as two of interviewed students acknowledge (see examples 1 and 2 below):

(1) *“Yes it is easier to understand because you can’t miss any word when taught in Xhosa. You’ll understand more when explained in Xhosa even though I cannot write in Xhosa”* (Paxton, 2009:11).

(2) *“When he spoke about concepts, they were so clear after he explained. He explained concepts so clearly and I could understand more clearly”* (Paxton, 2009:12).

Another study reporting on the advantages of learning in isiXhosa is the one that was recently conducted by Antia & Dyers (2016) at the University of the Western Cape. In this research project, aiming to determine language varieties and modes that may serve in enhancing students’ epistemological access in lectures, it was reported that the translation of texts into isiXhosa had effective outcomes on students’ understanding and performance. According to the findings, students claimed that the translation facilitated their in-depth understanding of the concepts and/or the content of the module. Thanks to isiXhosa translations, some students were able to successfully complete their assignments. In addition, students felt comfortable, helpful and useful in the classroom activities because their languages were used as media of instruction (see example 3):

(3) *“Having materials in Xhosa had really made me feel very positive towards completing this assignment... since there was not only a written Xhosa but also an audio or podcast of Xhosa. So the experience of doing this assignment had much been easier and enjoyable more than others I ever done because they were never like this one: that is, they had not my mother tongue involved”* (Antia & Dyers, 2016:540).

Despite these advantages of being taught in isiXhosa, some first speakers of the language do not agree with the fact that they should be taught in isiXhosa (Antia & Dyers in press; Aziakpono & Bekker 2010; Barkhuizen 2001; Eurica 1998). The idea that some texts become

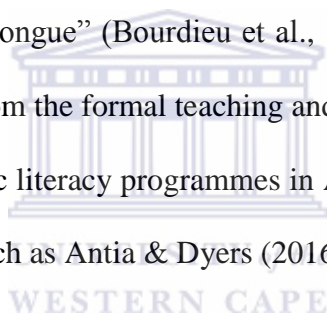
difficult to comprehend leads some students to rejecting or opposing the use of their mother tongue as a medium of instruction (see example 4 below). Some possible explanation of this opposition would be that students do not see how they would benefit from learning in Bantu languages given that those languages are not used for wider communication purposes (Aziakpono & Bekker 2010; Eurica 1998). Another factor would be that students do not understand much of the content when their home languages are used as acknowledged by some of them (see, Antia & Dyers in press, Paxton 2009):

- (4) *“Having materials in Xhosa made me realise that I am losing the language I call my mother tongue language, [...] I found it difficult to understand materials in my home language. [...] I would not like to have multilingual lecture materials in Xhosa because I am used to English as the medium of instruction and for me to understand Xhosa is going to take a while [...]. I would not recommend that the department of linguistics produce learning materials in other languages, they should stick strictly to English”* (Antia & Dyers, in press).
- (5) *“You sometimes translate things from English to Xhosa and find that it is more difficult in it than it is in English. It gives you a whole paragraph in Xhosa when it is only one term in English”* (Paxton, 2009:8)

These two comments reflect the fact that some learners do not feel comfortable when being taught in their mother tongue. As stated in Paxton (2009), the translation into isiXhosa makes some terms more difficult to grasp (see example 5 above). One possible explanation could be that isiXhosa is a complex language with different dialects (Deyi 2014; Barkhuizen 2001; Matiwane 2010; Eurica 1998). This diversity was also reported by Matiwane (2010) when he mentioned that the standard variety spoken by learners from the former Transkei homeland (or in the Eastern Cape Province) is totally differently from the one spoken by learners from the former Ciskei homeland and the Western Cape Province. Other factors or explanations

would be the unavailability of reliable educational resources such as Xhosa textbooks or teacher guides that may serve as teaching and learning support material in the educational system, and the lack of appropriate terminology for some concepts such as those identified as scientific (Aziakpono & Bekker, 2010).

There is sense in which the negative attitudes towards isiXhosa stem from the incorrect assumption that is often made that students will have no difficulties once their home language is used as academic language. One consequence of this assumption is the failure to develop academic literacy programmes in isiXhosa and other African languages. Although isiXhosa or other home languages may be used as media of instruction within universities, “academic language ... is no one’s mother tongue” (Bourdieu et al., 1995:8). It is however a linguistic variety which students acquire from the formal teaching and learning process (Madiba, 2013). Thus, there is a need for academic literacy programmes in African languages to be developed as suggested by some scholars such as Antia & Dyers (2016).



The implication of academic language not being anyone’s language is that many of the problems documented around students' academic literacy in English (such as arguing, critiquing, summarising, defining, etc.) could very well arise even when isiXhosa or other African languages are being used for teaching and learning at university. Of interest to this study, then, would be if Xhosa students studying isiXhosa necessarily perform better on tasks around definitions in isiXhosa than students studying in English but for whom English is not the home language.

2.3.3 Evolution of (responses to) academic literacy development in South Africa

According to Volbrecht & Boughey (2004), understandings or practices of academic literacy development have gone through three different stages namely, ‘academic support’, ‘academic development’ and ‘institutional development’.

2.3.3.1 Academic support

The *academic support* stage suggests that students should have access and be admitted to higher education regardless of their linguistic and educational backgrounds. Given that people are always shaped by their backgrounds, once those students, perceived as “weaker in terms of educational experience or ability” (Haggis, 2006:522) or as illiterate (see Davidson 2009; Papashane & Hlalele 2014), are academically supported, there is hope that their academic performance would improve. Thus, disadvantaged students’ skills and knowledge gap may be addressed by, for instance, offering additional classes and tutorials to those underprepared students (Maphosa, 2014).

Another strategy consists of giving students the opportunity to interact with a variety of written texts and tasks requiring them to use ‘atomised skills of academic literacy’ (Davidson, 2009). As Goodson (2013:4) highlights, initiating students into, for instance, academic writing tasks may “nudge them into developing consistent and healthy writing skills.” In order to do so, lecturers and tutors are expected to initiate students into academic writing culture through the promotion of intensive academic reading and writing activities (Leibowitz & Mohamed, 2000). That is to say that once students socialise and practice their linguistic skills and become familiar with different writing challenges, there would be an improvement in their academic writing skills (Lillis 2001; Seligmann 2012; Tuck 2012, Vimbai 2012; Bharuthram 2012; Pineteh 2013).

Although students are equipped with different potential choices which regulate their process of meaning-making within academic settings (Fairclough 1992; Ivanic 1995), these choices are not innate. Rather, they are likely to be acquired and/or boosted through academic support. For instance, in terms of the construct of a definition, students should be initiated into activities requiring them to identify, understand or formulate a definition in order to generate their awareness of how a definitional text should be structured or organised according to the socio-cultural and institutional contexts within which it occurs. Notice that once students are reinitiated into similar literacy practices, they will draw on the knowledge at their disposal, hence the need of academic support.

2.3.3.2 Academic development

The second phase, *academic development*, requires universities to take into account different initiatives that may help in improving their educational policies, aims as well as their methods of teaching or assessing in order to accommodate the diversity of students (Haggis, 2006) and facilitate students' academic performance. In order to do so, universities should not focus on students' individual behaviour and intellectual aptitude because "disadvantage is not something students carry into the universities, but is rather something which is derived from the institutions themselves" (Boughey, 2010:10). Thus, the socio-cultural context, institutional ideologies and issues of power should be taken into account because they may impact or shape the way students and lecturers fulfil their roles throughout the process of teaching and learning.

Given that there is a gap between lecturers' expectations and those of students, university expectations should also be made explicit so that students should become aware of what it takes to become academically literate (see Weideman 2003; Carter 2007; Pillai 2014). Recall that literacy practices are acquired through the process of learning and training (Barton &

Hamilton, 1998) in which students have to learn through practice. For this reason, it is therefore important to make sure that students are aware of what is expected of them when performing different activities associated with a particular culture or context. Once students are aware of what is expected of them, their practices get improved and their beliefs change all along the course, and this leads to a positive educational outcome. With respect to definitions, this phase could imply making explicit, for instance, definitional structures that are associated with each genre or discipline. In addition, students should also be alerted of the complexity of definitional structures as they move from one textbook (high school textbook) to another (university textbook).

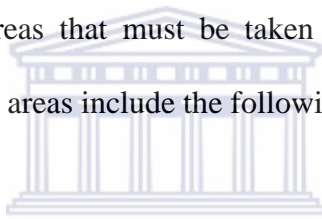
2.3.3.3 Institutional development

The last phase, namely *institutional development*, is concerned with developing or transforming universities by, for instance, generating qualified human resources (lecturers, tutors), adequate material and financial resources that may help in attaining different educational objectives. The idea that universities should be transformed was also supported by different scholars such as Whitley & Gläser (2014) who suggested that universities should always be encouraged to be strategic and innovative in their process of teaching and learning in order to strengthen the quality of their educational system.

Despite all these aforementioned strategies, a university cannot achieve a sustainable development of students' academic literacy if it does not review its curriculum to make sure that it responds to its educational goals, fits students' knowledge and needs, and also calls for students' active participation within the classroom. In other words, the transformation of universities does not only require academic staff development, but also an appropriate and well-designed curriculum (Boughey, 2010) that responds to students' knowledge and

expectations. With respect to academic curricula, they should, according to Barton (2006:29), be “designs for the future and combine skills, creativity, critique and participation to help prepare creative, responsive and active citizens.” That is to say that the curriculum should initiate students into different cognitively demanding tasks in order to sustainably engender active thinkers that will successfully serve the community.

As Haggis (2006:225) highlights, the development and/or improvement of the curriculum can be achieved by, for instance, answering to the following question: “what are the features of the curriculum, or of processes of interaction around the curriculum, which are preventing some students from being able to access this subject?” To be more specific, there are different potential parameters or issues areas that must be taken into account in order to achieve different educational goals. Those areas include the following (see Haggis, 2006:525-528):



i. Students' lack of familiarity with different academic practices and processes:

Students are always equipped with knowledge that varies from one individual to the other. For instance, underprepared students may be unable to understand and recognize different curricular and institutional conventions and standards. Therefore, universities have the responsibility of making explicit their demands in terms of procedures and conventions associated with each academic task in order to facilitate academic performance.

ii. Motivating and engaging students in the discipline:

Given that students may not possess the same knowledge in relation to goals and assumptions of each discipline, some may lack motivation to do what is expected of them. For this reason, the university has the responsibility of encouraging, reinforcing (through feedback) and

engaging students so that they can be committed and be aware of what is expected of them in terms of responsibility in their fields of study.

iii. Understanding the orientation of each discipline:

With regard to this, students should be aware of the purpose of study in each discipline. In other words, students must be aware of the goals that each discipline intends to achieve. For instance, some disciplines may expect students to be expert in problem-solving, while other may require them to draw on different sources and produce or generate a piece of writing (discourse) or knowledge.

iv. The language of teaching and learning: Issues of communication breakdown

In order to productively and significantly participate in the academic context, students are always expected to be able to “apprehend the implicit structure of the discourse” (Laurillard, 2002:43). That is to say that universities are required to ensure that the style of the discourse as well as the linguistic register to be used are appropriate, and that they do not make it difficult for students to access and comprehend the content of the curriculum (Davidson, 2009).

v. The nature of process in the discipline:

As Haggis (2006:528) highlights, some students are not aware of “the more complex aspects of process” through which their higher-order thinking skills will be evaluated and realized. In other words, students may not know the procedures or instructions or technical conventions that are bound with each academic task or performative. Given that those different crucial aspects of each academic process may be quite opaque to students (Lillis & Turner, 2001), some texts would be difficult to comprehend (Starfield, 2004), while the fulfilment of some

tasks may be problematic. To master different complex operations associated with each academic performative, universities are therefore expected to build the context (Coffin et al., 2003) by regularly initiating students into different cognitively demanding tasks (Bharuthram 2012; Tuck 2012; Vimbai 2012; Pineteh 2013), and by considering the nature of each academic task and procedures associated with that performative.

In terms of definitions, the ‘institutional development’ phase implies, for example, the responsibility of universities to make students aware of what is expected of them in terms of producing definitions. In addition, the curriculum should also include a section elaborating on how definitions should be structured to avoid the ambiguity, if any, between definitional texts and definitional metadiscourses.

2.4 Conclusion

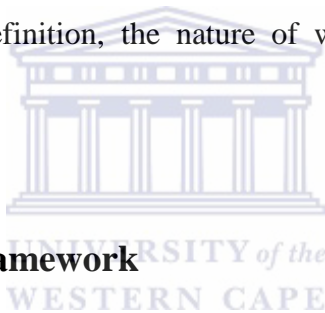
This chapter outlined what it takes for students to become academically literate. In university communities, students are said to be academically literate if they are able to successfully perform different cognitively demanding tasks through reading, writing and meaning-making. The chapter also discussed different issues being identified as major challenges in students’ academic literacy development and performance. Those issues include for example, the language used as a medium of instruction as well as students’ under-preparedness for higher education. The evolution of understandings of, or responses to, academic literacy was then presented, and implications of each phase for work on definitions were teased out. The next chapter discusses the theoretical framework upon which this study draws.



3 Chapter Three: THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This study is framed theoretically by two bodies of knowledge, which are presented in this chapter. In the first section, *academic literacies framework*, this chapter discusses how students' academic literacies are inextricably shaped by different factors such as basic skills possessed by them, institutional ideologies, contexts and issues of power. In order to do so, the study skills model, the academic socialization model and the academic literacies model will be discussed. The second section of the chapter presents theoretical insights into the subject of 'definition' from the field of terminology. Some of aspects that are discussed include the components of a definition, the nature of what is defined, and typology of definitions.



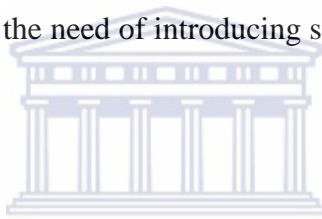
3.2 Academic literacies framework

The academic literacies approach to students' writing took its roots in the area of 'New Literacy Studies' (Street 1984; Baynham 1995). This approach was then developed in a study conducted by Lea & Street (1998) to evaluate students' academic writing. Lea & Street (2006) identified three models, namely, the study skills model, the academic socialization model and academic literacies model.

3.2.1 The study skills model

The study skills model is concerned with surface features and structures of text. These superficial features and structures such as structure of sentences, punctuation and spelling were believed to be generic and effortlessly transferable from context to context or from one practice to another. In this model, students are seen as intellectually unequipped, hence the

need of fixing their intellectual deficit. The study skills model ignores the fact that literacies may change as people move from one context to another (for example from high school to university), from one discipline to another, from one culture to another and or from one period to another. For example, with respect to this research, the standards or conventions regarding what counts as a legitimate definition may vary from one language to another or from one discipline to another as students move in space and time. Thus, this model may not allow students to know why definitions, in a given context or discipline, need to be structured in a certain way. In addition, one way of defining cannot be used for every concept to be defined. For example, the norm of ‘*proximate genus*’ and ‘*specific differentiae*’ (see Robinson 1965; Berg 1983) cannot be applicable to those definitions classified as encyclopaedic (see below), hence the need of introducing students into the culture of defining within and across disciplines.



3.2.2 The academic socialization model

The academic socialization model places emphasis on the concept of acculturation. It requires the immersion of students into academic disciplinary-subjects (Davidson, 2009) or into a ‘culture of writing’ (Lea & Street, 1998). There is an assumption of stability of genres and discourses in disciplinary fields. Within this model, students should intensively be initiated into different academic tasks to acquire new ways of doing things, hence the need to strengthen the relationship or interaction between students and the relevant academic community. Given that each discipline is assumed to have its ways of writing, it is assumed under this model that all that is required is for students to be introduced to these ‘stable’ disciplinary conventions for them to assimilate the conventions and to effortlessly reproduce them in their own writing.

The assumption of stability of conventions may be challenged because it does not adequately recognise that there is a range of socio-cultural values, beliefs and expectations associated with each discipline, genre or institution. That is to say that each community or discipline within academia has its own way of doing things, and each participant (lecturer, tutor and student) has his or her ideas of what counts as good or poor writing. The other problem with this model is that even the relevant institutional, disciplinary or lecturer norm to which students need to acculturate is not explicitly stated. Students are expected to somehow intuitively acquire or pick it up.

3.2.3 The academic literacies model

The academic literacies model builds on the latter two models to emphasize the social practice nature of academic literacy (Barton & Hamilton 1998; Gee 2008). By so doing, it questions an autonomous or generic view of literacy and underscores the importance of making explicit expectations associated with different literacy events (see below). This more integrative approach acknowledges the building blocks represented by the focus on the textual features of academic discourse (skills model) and students' acculturation (socialisation model). It, however, emphasizes the socioculturally integrated nature of literacy practices that are associated with different ideological and epistemological issues within and across communities in academia. Within this model, academic writing or literacy is seen as social practice or social act (Baynham 1995; Barton & Hamilton 1998; Lea & Street 2006).

To be more specific, the academic literacies model is associated with different concerns such as issues of power, issues of identity and issues of epistemology (Jones 1999; Hyland 2009). For example, students' academic writing cannot be evaluated or be well-understood without taking into account some of those issues because they do have a great influence on how

students write in academia. Issues of power are related to different institutional or disciplinary ideologies that may shape, for example, the way students perceive, understand or design their definitions. Thus, institutional or disciplinary ideologies may be those different expectations of academic staff (lecturers) or different requirements of each field of study (discipline) in terms of what is a good writing or a well-formulated definition. But if these expectations are not made explicit, it is unreasonable to hope that students will all know them and learn them. It could even be argued that not making expectations explicit is ideological or an instance of power play, which produces certain consequences: students with a certain cultural capital will easily work out those expectations and learn them, while students without this cultural capital will be unable to work out these expectations by themselves and continue to be penalised (e.g. poor marks). Issues of identity are concerned with, for instance, how students may negotiate their positions or identities through their production of, or meaning-making with, texts; while issues of epistemology or cognition are concerned with how students access knowledge, allowing them to structure, organise and manage their writings within the academic community (Geisler, 1994). The fact that academic literacy is seen as a socioculturally situated phenomenon pays attention to the overall context within which that literacy takes place by considering three components, namely, literacy practices, events and texts (Barton, 2006).

3.2.3.1 Literacy events and texts

Literacy events are described as different activities within which literacy is involved or plays a part (Street 1995; Barton 2006). In other words, literacy events are those different day-to-day activities involving written or spoken texts together with the talk or discourse around those texts. Some examples of events in which definitions may be used include, for example, reading a textbook, writing a test or an assignment, listening to a lecturer, peer (group) study

in face-to-face settings or via social media (Facebook, Whatsapp, etc). As Barton (2006) stresses, texts are essential elements in events because each event or activity has a talk or a written text surrounding it. The notion of events underlines the fact that literacy exists within the social context where people interact differently through their everyday practices or activities, and where they have to draw on different resources at their disposal. Those resources can include, for instance, a range of cognitive skills and knowledge of how things must be done in each domain or discipline.

With respect to those skills, as suggested by Perry (2012:55-57), they include the “lexico-syntactic and graphophonic knowledge; cultural knowledge; and written genre knowledge.” In terms of definitions, written genre knowledge involves the knowledge of textual features of definitions (such as the position of each component within a definition), purposes for using, for example, different given genres or types of definitions as well as the structure or organisation of those genres or definitional texts. The lexico-syntactic and graphophonic knowledge entails the knowledge of the register to be used such as knowledge of vocabulary or terms to be used within a definition, syntax; and the knowledge of how to encode or decode (or interpret) a given language or definitional text. The cultural knowledge is concerned with the knowledge of different beliefs, values, and expectations associated with each community (discipline) or each typology of a definition.

3.2.3.2 Literacy practices

The concept of literacy practices can be defined as those cultural ways of using literacy upon which people may draw in any literacy event or occasion (Street 1995; Barton & Hamilton 1998). According to Street (n.d.), literacy practices refer to “the broader cultural conception of particular ways of thinking about and doing reading and writing in cultural contexts”.

Thus, literacy practices are people's everyday activities involving the production of spoken and written texts as well as new ways of thinking, interacting, talking, believing and doing things within a cultural context or setting (Gee, 2008).

The idea that literacy is seen a set of social practices highlights the fact that there is a variety of literacy practices. This diversity is underlined by the fact that literacy practices are always shaped by people's attitudes, beliefs, feelings, power structures, values, assumptions and social relationships between people (see Street 1995; Barton & Hamilton 1998; Barton 2006) within each domain of life or community. They are also shaped by "social or institutional rules which regulate the use and distribution of texts, prescribing who may produce and have access to them" (Barton & Hamilton, 1998:7).

3.2.3.3 The significance of social theory of literacy to this research

Students' academic failure or underperformance is sometimes linked to their cognitive deficit or lack of efforts and motivation (see Fraser & Killen, 2005). That is to say that students' difficulty of performing effectively is always attributed to individual lack of skills, of motivation or of familiarity with academic writing tasks as the deficit model and academic socialization approach would suggest. Despite this assumption, the academic literacies model views things differently because the ability to see or make sense in texts requires the coordination or interaction of language skills, cognitive knowledge and social awareness (Brandt, 1990). "Texts and the various ways of reading them do not flow full-blown out of the individual soul" (Gee, 2008:48). People must first be exposed to those literacy practices and be taught how to write, read or interpret those practices within and across different contexts. Recall that the cognitive development requires the interaction of both literacy and other variables such as institutional or disciplinary ideologies and issues of power, the

individual experiences of schooling, students' preparedness in the previous years of schooling as well as their ability to make a transition across a range of literacy practices. Thus, students' literacy practices in terms of identifying and producing definitions cannot be adequately discussed without considering different influential variables such as dominant academic practices and the socio-cultural context (or the discourse community) within which those literacies occur, hence the decision in this study to analyse definitional structures in isiXhosa and English language textbooks.

Studies that reported on the gap existing between students' and lecturers' expectations highlighted that lecturers' expectations are sometimes opaque (or not clearly stated) to students (see Lea & Street 1998; Lillis & Turner 2001; Fraser & Killen 2005). The issue that may be raised is that those people whose literacies are invisible are always assumed to be equipped with knowledge of how things must be done in each discipline, and expected to comply with different imposed values associated with each literacy practice regardless of whether or not they have been taught how to do things. Despite these assumptions, people are however not born with the knowledge of how to read or write, but with the ability to learn how to read and write (Berthoff, 1982). Writing is a process requiring people to first learn how things must be done or said, and then to be able to mechanically apply those rules (White, 2011).

With respect to definitions, it may not be easy for students to write a definition (Henning et al., 2005) if these students have not been introduced into activities of defining so that they can learn different definitional structures. For instance, students become able to successfully recognise, understand and produce definitions if they are aware of different conventions and norms regulating a well-formulated definition in a given context. Recall that academic

literacy practices are context-embedded in the sense that these practices may also vary within the same department or fields of study across different universities. Thus, the social approach to literacy is therefore crucial to this research in the sense that it allows the researcher to compare students' ways of constructing definitions, within and across disciplines as well as across languages.

3.3 A theoretical account of the notion of 'definition'

3.3.1 'Defining a word' or 'defining a thing'

For centuries, the concept of 'definition' has been a subject of discussion and of interest for philosophers, linguists, and mathematicians (see Robinson 1965; Sager 1990; Svensén 1993; Strehlow 1995; Charles 2010). According to Robinson (1965) the concept of 'definition' has become the best known idea in the field of logic. The fact that each field views the activity of defining from a particular perspective (Sager, 2000) led to different various meanings of the concept. The following are some examples of the most prominent meanings given to the concept of 'definition':

1. According to Plato, when someone asks you what a thing is, you should be able to “answer him by the means of the elements of the thing and you should also be able to give some mark by which the thing asked about differs from all things” (Robinson, 1965:2).
2. Cicero described a definition as “certain brief and circumscribed accounts of the properties of the thing we wish do define” (Robinson, 1965:2).
3. Aristotle defined the word 'definition' as “the account of essence of the thing” (Robinson, 1965:2).

All of the above definitions given to the concept of 'definition' tended to show that people should specify different properties of the definiendum (the thing to be defined) when defining.

In Mathematics, Whitehead and Russell (cited in Robinson, 1965:194) defined the concept of 'definition' as "a declaration that a certain newly introduced symbol or combination of symbols is to mean the same as a certain other combination of symbols of which the meaning is already known". In other words, this means that a definition is the meaning of a combination of symbols by other symbols or combination of symbols. Therefore, a symbol or a combination of symbols may be identified as a definiendum (or item being defined) as well as a definiens (or meaning). From the philosophy of language, John Stuart Mill (cited in Moore, 2009:2) defined a 'definition' as "a proposition declaratory of the meaning of a word; namely, either the meaning which it bears in common acceptance, or that which the speaker or writer, for the particular purposes of his discourse, intends to annex to it". By this, he meant that a definition may give a general meaning of a concept as well as a specific meaning related to what the definer wants to communicate for a particular purpose. For Carnap (1938), a definition is a rule for mutual transformation of words in the same language. That is to say that a word must be defined by another word of the same sense within one language.

Writing within terminology, Sager (1990:39) defined a definition as "a linguistic description of a concept, based on the listing of a number of characteristics, which conveys the meaning of the concept". For Sager, a definition should describe what a concept is by providing different features or attributes of the concept. All of these definitions given to the concept of 'definition' suggest that a word must be defined by other words by providing different properties.

As Deslauriers (2007) points out and as is evident from the above accounts, there can be disagreement among scholars in different fields about what must be defined. On the one hand, in the philosophical traditional or Aristotelian approach, the concept of 'essential definition' was regarded as a purely metaphysical concept, expressing the immutable nature of the thing to be defined (Walton & Macagno, 2009). For example, Aristotle, through his theory of definition, insisted that definitions tell people what something is and not just what a word means, and he guaranteed that definition represents the essential nature of the thing to be defined.

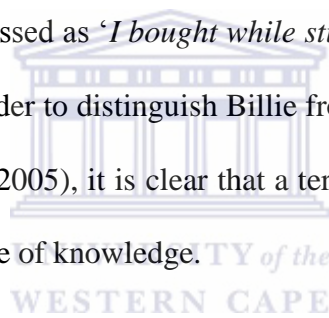
On the other hand, C.S. Peirce (cited in Wright & Strehlow, 1995) suggested that in signification, a term is taken as a representation of a concept, while a definition statement is considered as a representation of the term. In other words, this means that linguists focus on defining a 'word' instead of the 'thing'. Nevertheless, modern studies on definition have rejected that theory of 'essential definition' and moved to a 'relativistic approach' in which definitions are seen as a matter of choice and or convenience (Walton & Macagno, 2009). Within the field of terminology in which we will be analysing definitions, three types of definitions are generally discussed as the next section shows:

3.3.2 Typology of definitions

There are different types of definitions elaborated by different philosophers, scientists and linguistics, but this research will consider three different types of definitions discussed within the field of terminology (Sager 1990, de Bessé 1997, Antia 2005), namely, lexicographic, terminological and encyclopaedic.

3.3.2.1 A terminological definition

A definition is said to be terminological when it “gives information on the position of concept in the structure of knowledge” (Antia, 2005:1). According to Sager (1990:39) “a terminological definition provides a unique identification of a concept only with reference to the conceptual system of which it forms part and classifies the concept within that system.” Terminological definitions focus on describing, delimitating and distinguishing concepts (de Bessé, 1997). To illustrate this fact, Antia (2005:2) gave the following as an example of a terminological definition: “*Billie is a bearded collie I bought while studying in the UK*”. In this example, the proximate genus ‘*collie*’ positions *Billie* (a dog) in a structure of knowledge in which we have collie as an animal classified into a category of mammals. In addition, the part of the above definition expressed as ‘*I bought while studying in the UK*’ is considered as a characteristic that is given in order to distinguish *Billie* from other bearded collies. Drawing on this example given by Antia (2005), it is clear that a terminological definition identifies a concept within a relevant structure of knowledge.



3.3.2.2 An encyclopaedic definition

An ‘*encyclopaedic definition*’ identified as a ‘*general definition*’ “describes a concept in a generally comprehensible way by giving all its functions” (Sager, 1990:39). As Hudson (1995) highlights, an encyclopaedic definition presents a list of many facts regardless of whether these facts are distinctive or not. In this way, it means that this kind of definition tends to offer additional information of general interest in order to identify and differentiate the concept from other concepts and in order to increase the precision of a term’s meaning (Antia, 2005). According to de Bessé (1997) an encyclopaedic definition may hence be conceived as a ‘summary of knowledge’ because it contains explanations and other additional information.

3.3.2.3 A lexicographic definition

Antia (2005:1) writes that “a lexicographic definition is one that says the same thing in other words by using, for example, a paraphrase, a synonym; and by analysis, by synthesis, by implication, by denotation, by demonstration or by comments”. He illustrated this by defining ‘intracranial haemorrhage’ as ‘an internal bleeding of the skull’. In this example, it is evident that the definer paraphrased or reworded each concept within the definition by, for instance, describing intra as internal and haemorrhage as bleeding, and by relating cranial to skull. For some scholars, such as Jackson (1988) a lexicographic definition may also provide other language-type information like grammatical information including part of speech labels, etymology and pronunciation, while for Berthoff (1982) it only provides a conventional set of meanings without locating any particular meaning out of the context.

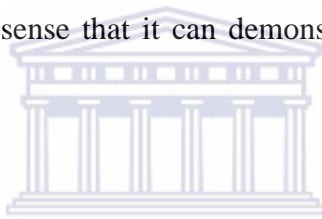
What a typology such as the above does is problematize what lecturers mean when, in assessment tasks, they ask students to define. The typology underscores several ideas in the academic literacies model: practices of defining may vary from one social/disciplinary context to another; if expectations are not made explicit, it amounts to an abuse of disciplinary power to penalise a student who produces a terminological definition when what was expected was an encyclopaedic definition.

3.3.3 The functions of a ‘definition’

Some authors such as Sager (1990), Antia (2005) and Wallis (2012) claimed that definitions may serve a variety of functions. As Wallis (2012:1) mentions, definitions serve “to fix the meaning of a word or phrase in the context of some language thereby eliminating ambiguity and / or vagueness; definitions operate by equating the definiendum (the word or phrase to be defined) with the definiens that allows the definition’s consumer to better understand the

word defined.” According to Berthoff (1982:100-101) a definition “sets up the limits by means of which the name can mean; it indicates both what kind of thing is named by the word being defined and how this particular thing is different from others of the same kind”.

According to Antia (2005:1) definitions play an important role in “fixing a concept (especially during an assignment of a term to concept), in explaining a concept; and in relating one concept to another”. In other words, this means that a definition can serve to identify the specific meaning given to a concept with reference to the context within which the concept is being used. Further, it allows the reader or listener to comprehend the intended sense of the concept by, for instance, explaining a term. In addition, a definition serves to relate a concept to others in the sense that it can demonstrate how concepts are similar or dissimilar to each other.



3.3.4 The components of a definition

A definition is made-up of three different components, namely *definiendum*, *definitior*, and *definiens* (Chan 2004; Antia & Ivo 2013; Sweet 2013). The notion of *definiendum* (plural = *definienda*) refers to the concept (represented by a simple word, a compound-word, a symbol or an expression) that is to be defined. A *definiens* (plural: *definientia*) is conceived as the meaning given to the *definiendum*, whereas a *definitior* is defined as the link or equivalence relation between the *definiendum* and the *definiens* (Antia & Ivo, 2013). With regard to the *definiens*, Aristotle advocated that it should be divided into two parts, namely ‘*proximate genus*’ and ‘*specific differentiae*’ (Robinson 1965; Swales 1971; Darien 1981; Berg 1983; Trimble 1985; Pearson 1998).

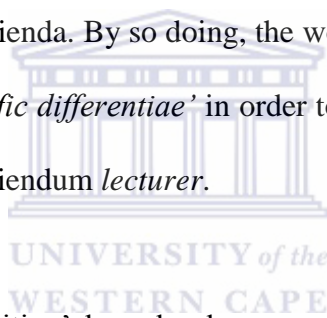
In a definiens, a proximate genus (or a classifier) identified as the ‘*body of a definition*’ (see Berthoff, 1982) refers to the word which classifies a concept in relation to a more general class or category to which the concept belongs (Robinson 1965; Swales 1971; Hansson 2006; Geeraerts 2009; Seligmann 2012). Other researchers (see Pearson, 1998) identify the genus as the superordinate or the headword of a definition because it allows people to easily identify the hierarchy or the broad category to which the concept or item being defined belongs. Specific differentiae identified as the ‘*soul of the thing to be defined*’ (see Berthoff, 1982) can be described as different distinguishers, characteristics or properties that are provided in order to distinguish the word’s sense from the senses of any other words that share the same genus or class (Robinson 1965; Hudson 1995; Geeraerts 2009).

For Hudson (1995:24) a definition for a word should contain “a classifier or a genus to classify the definiendum in the general category, and at least enough facts or distinguishers which play an important role in distinguishing this word’s sense from the senses of any other words that share the same classifier.” In other words, defining a concept entails identifying the group or the category to which the concept or item to be defined belongs, and distinguishing it from other concepts or items that can be assigned to that group or category (Soles 2010; Saligmann 2012). This is illustrated in the following examples of definitions:

Table 3.1: Illustration of different components of a definition

Definiendum	Definitior	Definiens	
		Genus	Distinguishing characteristics
<i>A student</i>	<i>can be described as</i>	<i>a person</i>	<i>who is studying at a university or other place of higher education.</i>
<i>A lecturer</i>	<i>can be described as</i>	<i>a person</i>	<i>who gives lectures, especially as an occupation at a university or college of higher education.</i>

In the above definitions, the words *student* and *lecturer* are definienda, the definitors are *can be described as*, and the remainder part for both definitions are called definientia (singular: definiens). For example, in ‘*a student can be described as a person...*’ the word *person* identifies a broader category to which the definiendum ‘student’ belongs, hence the classification of *person* as genus. However, the genus alone is not enough in providing a complete definition because, for instance, the word *lecturer* was also defined as ‘*a person...*’. Thus, saying that a lecturer or a student is a person does not really define what a student or a lecturer is; it is only stating what a student and a lecturer have in common by classifying both definienda in a same class. Although both *student* and *lecturer* are being defined as persons, there are other essential characteristics or features that must be identified in order to clarify the difference between both definienda. By so doing, the word ‘*person*’ provided as a ‘genus’ should be accompanied by ‘*specific differentiae*’ in order to tell people how the definiendum *student* is different from the definiendum *lecturer*.



Given that the concept of ‘definition’ has also been a subject of interest in mathematics, mathematicians highlighted the three components of a definition with different meanings. For them, the term *definiendum* is defined as the symbol that is being defined, the *definiens* is the symbol or group of symbols explaining the meaning of the definiendum, whereas the equal sign ($=$) is represented as a *definitior* (Moore, 2009).

With respect to the location of each component in the entire definition, both definiendum and definiens can be placed in initial or final position due to the fact that the definiendum should be equivalent to its definiens (Hansson, 2006) or have the same meaning as the definiens has. For instance, the following definition of the definiendum ‘*sender*’ can be written in two different ways:

- (1) A **sender** refers to a person who transmits a message.’
- (2) ‘A person who transmits a message is called a **sender**.’

In example 1 above, the definiendum *sender* is located in initial position, while the definiens ‘*a person who transmits a message*’ is placed at the end of the definition (final position). In example 2 above, the definer started the definition by providing the definiens and used the definiendum as the closing part of that definition. In defining activity, both alternatives are possible even though they may not be applied to all definitions such as those definitions identified as encyclopaedic.

3.4 Summary of the chapter

This chapter described and presented the theoretical framework for this study. On the one hand, the chapter explained different theories related to literacy, and emphasized a social theory of literacy (the academic literacies model) which stipulates that students’ academic performance or writing is shaped and embedded within issues of power, identity and institutional ideologies. On the other hand, this chapter outlined theoretical constructs related to the notion of ‘definition’: e.g. the nature of what is defined, a typology of definitions, functions of definitions, and so on.

In combining both of these frameworks, the following may be said. The accomplishment of some literacy event and/or practice (Barton & Hamilton, 1998) within academic settings requires students to observe different formal procedures and to meet certain expectations. For instance, the activity of producing, recognizing and understanding a definition requires students to be equipped with a complex set of linguistic and cognitive skills. That is to say that students must possess a range of shared definitional rules and conventions, and be able to organise or identify words to be contained in a definition. In addition, students, when

producing definitions, have to do so by using conventions appropriate to the context (Henning et al., 2005).

Departing from the idea that literacy is historically situated, defining activity can also be seen as a social practice that is historically situated and which can change as students move from one context to another. In other words, students' defining practices can change as they move from one context or discipline to another. However, it is not always easy for all students to adhere to the conventions appropriate to each context if they have not been taught how to do things. Given that students' defining practices can also be situated in their own history of literacy, they may fail to adhere to those conventions of new literacy events because they are underprepared. Their inability or ability to produce, understand and recognize definitions may be shaped by their backgrounds; their experiences of previous schooling years; their existing knowledge of conventions, and by how they were previously exposed to texts containing definitions. Thus, observing different conventions in terms of defining concepts requires the knowledge of how a definition may be structured within a discipline. The next chapter describes the research design and methodology.

4 Chapter Four: THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and explains the research design and the methodological approach that were used within this research. The nature, the source and the size of data to be analysed are also presented. It further provides a detailed description of the procedures and methodological techniques used by the researcher to access and collect data. In addition, the procedures followed to process and analyse data are also presented in this chapter.

4.2 The research design

Given that two key objectives of this research aimed to examine and describe the structure of definitions provided in both English and isiXhosa language textbooks, and to evaluate students' knowledge of definitions, this study adopted a mixed-methods sequential explanatory design. Hanson et al. (2005:224) describe the mixed-methods approach as “the collection, analysis, and integration of quantitative and qualitative data in a single or multiphase study”. The mixed-methods approach provides a more complete understanding or explanation of a research problem than either the qualitative or the quantitative research approach alone (Morse 1991; Creswell 2003; Bulsara 2011; Hashemi 2012; Hashemi & Babaii 2013). In this study, the quantitative data entailed the questionnaire responses, while the qualitative data included different written texts described as definitions and whose content was analysed in order to respond to the first objective of this research, that is, describing the structure of definitions in both English and isiXhosa language textbooks. Given that students' performance or underperformance may be the result of how definitional texts are structured within different languages, the researcher could not evaluate the performance of students in terms of definitions without considering different definitional structures. The sequential

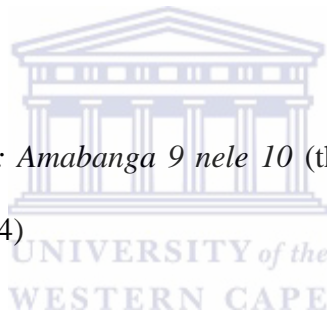
explanatory design will provide a better and complete understanding of why students do or do not perform well in tasks requiring them to recognise and produce definitions.

4.3 Data sources

4.3.1 IsiXhosa and English language textbooks

Definitions used in this research were collected from different textbooks, specifically those serving as teaching and learning support material in language and cultural courses. For isiXhosa, the textbooks used were:

- *Sasinoncwadi Kwatanci* (a textbook authored by Satyo, Zotwana, Yapi, Gxilishe & Dikeni in 1993); and
- *Uphengululo LwesiXhosa: Amabanga 9 nele 10* (this textbook is authored by Satyo and was published in 1994)



The former textbook is about folk literature or oral traditions within the South African community. In this textbook, the author focused on giving examples of folklore such as riddles, tall tales, folk dramas and folk songs. The latter textbook is an isiXhosa teacher guide that serves as teaching and learning support material. This textbook covers, on the one hand, different topics such as those related to different cultural customs and other traditions and, on the other hand, it elaborates on the literature. From both textbooks, a total of fifty definitions were excerpted.

For English, fifty definitions were equally taken from *Language, Society and Communication: An introduction* (the English language textbook edited by Bock & Mheta in 2014). This textbook was authored mainly by the staff members of the Department of

Linguistics at the University of the Western Cape (UWC) and is used for teaching. It explores different topics such as semiotics, language acquisition and learning, morphology, syntax, phonology, language planning, language professions and so forth.

Besides definitions, other texts surrounding definitions and of potential interest (introductory background and elaboration) were also taken from both the English and isiXhosa textbooks. Details of the procedure are described subsequently.

4.3.1.1 The participants

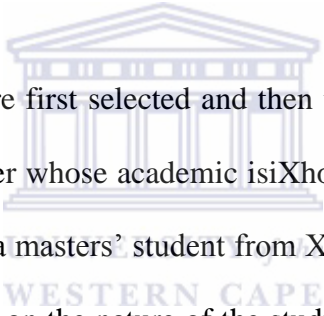
Given that this study needed quantitative data to be collected by means of the questionnaire, 50 volunteer undergraduate students were randomly recruited from both Xhosa and Linguistics Departments at the University of the Western Cape. Students from Xhosa department who participated in this research were expected to be home language users of isiXhosa. Note that although students from Xhosa department were expected to be isiXhosa speakers, the focus of this study was not mainly on the students' home languages, but on the language to which they are exposed in the teaching and learning process. With respect to students from Linguistics department, those who were recruited for the study were required to indicate what their home languages are on the questionnaire (relevant data provided in chapter 6, see Table 6.1 and Table 6.2).

4.4 Data collection procedures

4.4.1 Document analysis

In order to respond to this research question aiming to describe the dominant definitional structures in both the English and isiXhosa language textbooks, definitions were first identified and excerpted through reviewing and reading the relevant textbooks. After

collecting more than 100 definitions in each language, the researcher had to retype all definitions obtained and then select a sample of fifty definitions per language. English definitions were taken from different chapters of the aforementioned textbook, specifically from those chapters designed for first-year students. The researcher used stratified random sample in determining which of the more than 100 definitions would be selected. Sampling was done with reference to how the three components (definiendum, definator and definiens) were organised and/or structured within a definition (e.g. dispersed definition, definitions surrounded by other potential texts, complex definienda and definitors, complex definition in its nature, etc.). With reference to co-texts of definitions, the researcher collected only those texts containing information allowing the definer to make a definition clearer.

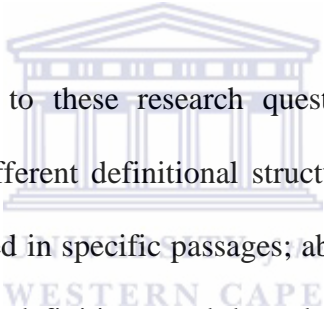


Hundred isiXhosa definitions were first selected and then translated into English in order to facilitate analysis by the researcher whose academic isiXhosa is basic, but also to facilitate a wider readership. The translator (a masters' student from Xhosa department at the University of the Western Cape) was briefed on the nature of the study and on the need to translate in a way that did not substantially affect the integrity of the data. This meant, for instance, the translator could not decide to place the definiendum at the end when in the original isiXhosa text it was at the head of the definition. The list of isiXhosa definitions translated was then vetted by a masters' Xhosa speaker student from Linguistics in order to ensure the accuracy of the translation and confirm the appropriateness of what was collected as a definition. Finally, the researcher used stratified random sampling to select fifty isiXhosa definitions on the basis of the diversity of definitional structures or textual features or visible structures of definitions.

4.4.2 The questionnaire

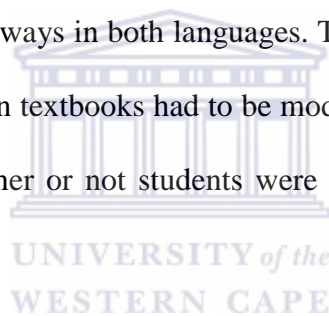
This study required quantitative data on students' knowledge around definitions to address the following questions:

1. Are students aware of different definitional structures?
2. Are students able to identify definitions in texts as well as components of definitions?
3. Are students able to draw on the given information and come up with a definition of a concept?
4. Are students able to distinguish definitions from definitional metadiscourses?
5. Are students aware of how definitions may be introduced?
6. Does the language of a text affect the way students interpret definitions?



The research objectives related to these research questions aimed to assess students': awareness of the existence of different definitional structures in their textbooks; ability to identify the concepts being defined in specific passages; ability to define concepts; ability to distinguish definitions from non-definitions and knowledge of how definitions may be introduced. In order to attain these goals, students were expected to perform certain tasks given to them in a semi-structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was first piloted to evaluate if there were some issues to resolve to make the questionnaire clearer and unambiguous. The problems arising from the piloting, such as the way questions were worded, were then resolved by making some changes. Answers to the questionnaire were marked as either correct or wrong, except the question requiring students to produce a definition (see Question 3 in appendices A and B). With respect to this question, its answers were classified as either wrong, partially correct or correct. The marking scale of English questions was mainly verified by my supervisor, while the one for isiXhosa questions was vetted by both my supervisor and the student who helped in translating the isiXhosa text.

The questionnaire had two sections. The first section elicited limited biographical information on the respondents such as their department, home language and year of study. The second part contained six open-ended and/or closed-ended questions. Those questions covered a variety of themes such as distinguishing between definition and non-definition; formulating or producing a definition; identifying the concept that is being defined in a passage; awareness of different definitors; identifying a definition that was wrongly introduced, and so on. Several texts used were directly collected from the textbooks. Some other items used within the questionnaire were slightly modified. An example of these modifications included the use of different definitors such as verbs and punctuation marks. Some other items, such as those about the ways of introducing a definition, required the researcher to have one definition introduced in different ways in both languages. Therefore, the ways in which some definitions were introduced within textbooks had to be modified by adding or replacing some words in order to evaluate whether or not students were aware of how definitions may be introduced in textbooks.



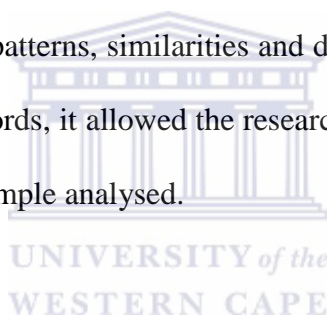
The tasks to be performed by the respondents required them to read or study passages and to respond to questions. Both the English and isiXhosa questionnaires had two items related to identifying the definiendum in a passage; one item on identifying the definiens; one item on the awareness of different definitors, one item on formulating a definition, one item related to identifying a definition, one item related to distinguishing between a definition and a non-definition and one item related to identifying a faulty way of introducing a definition (see appendices A and B).

Students were requested to individually write down their answers. The questionnaire was hand-delivered to participants who were allowed to submit it at their convenience. This was

to ensure that students had enough time to respond to the questions adequately. Given that some questionnaires were not returned, the researcher had to give other questionnaires in order to reach the predetermined number of the sample.

4.5 Data analysis

Within the qualitative analysis phase, the researcher used content analysis method to analyse the content of definitions excerpted from the English and isiXhosa language textbooks. Hsieh & Shannon (2005:1278) define content analysis as “a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns”. The content analysis method permitted the researcher to underline different patterns, similarities and differences appearing in definitions collected as a sample. In other words, it allowed the researcher to mainly identify definitional structures occurring within the sample analysed.



For each of the English and isiXhosa sources, definitions obtained were analysed as follows.

Informed by the theoretical account of definitions in chapter 3, the definitions were analysed according to a number of structural parameters, with cross language comparisons being made after each analysis:

- With respect to the definiendum, the study examined the position of a definiendum within each definition, its formatting style and its morphological structure. The position of a definiendum refers to the place where a definiendum is placed according to its position relative to its definiens. The formatting style refers to how definienda are typographically presented. Some may typographically be highlighted in bold or italics, while others may be typed using a normal font. The concept of ‘morphological

structure' may be described as the word class belonging and complexity of a definiendum. With respect to this classification, definienda were then categorised with reference to their constituent free morphemes (minimal linguistic meaningful units), hence the use of terms such as *single-morpheme unit noun* and *multi-morpheme unit noun* for definienda classified as nouns. To be more specific, each definiendum noun that was identified as a single word was classified as a single-morpheme unit noun, while multi-morpheme unit nouns included nouns identified as compound-words or as constitutive of multiple free morphemes.

- With respect to the second component of a definition, namely definator, the classification was done according to the word class of each definator. In addition, the study applied Process categories from the Systemic Functional Linguistics framework to identify verb processes of definitors classified as verbs. A process is defined as “the action around which the clause is structured [...] and the Process is always realized by a verb” (Ravelli, 2000: 35). Different authors such as Morley (2000) and Kamanga (2014) identify six types of process, namely (1) a *material* process or a process of ‘doing’ or ‘happening’; (2) a *mental* process which involves the senser and the phenomenon in a process of cognition, affection (or emotion) and perception; (3) a *verbal* process or a process of saying, showing or indicating; (4) an *existential* process reporting that something occurs or exists; (5) a *behavioural* process or a process that shares some of the characteristics of material, and some of mental; and (6) a *relational* processes or processes of ‘being’ or ‘becoming’ which can express the possession, the identity or attributes assigned to the thing being defined.

- With respect to the analysis of definiens, all definitions were classified into the different types of definitions based on the information provided in each definiens. Notice that we used the classification given by Sager (1990). The typology includes terminological, lexicographic and encyclopaedic. It is important to note that another category, namely, ‘mixed types’ underscored by Antia (2005) was added to this.
- With respect to the entire definition, some authors introduce or elaborate on what they are going to define by giving examples, explanatory background or explanation to orientate readers or listeners. Thus, the analysis was based on whether or not a definition is provided alone.

The second dataset that was analysed had to do with the students’ performance in the tasks presented to them via questionnaires. Recall that both versions of the questionnaire had two items related to identifying the definiendum in a passage and one item on: identifying the definiens; formulating a definition, distinguishing between a definition and a non-definition, identifying a definition within a text, and on the correctness of structures introducing definitions.

Using the marking scheme earlier developed and vetted by the supervisor, the researcher marked the answers provided by the participants in the questionnaire, and then recorded them (with relevant biographical information) on Excel sheets for statistical analysis. These answers were statistically analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22. Descriptive and inferential statistics were employed, hence the use of frequencies, cross tabulations and Chi-Square Tests. Frequencies served in determining the number of students who correctly or wrongly answered the questions; cross tabulations were used to

categorically analyse and compare different variables (language of the text or department, students' year of study and responses) to each other; while Chi-Square tests were administered to test whether or not the language medium of the text had an effect on how students performed. In other words, the Chi-Square tests helped in determining whether or not there was a significant difference between the results of students from different departments.

4.6 Ethical considerations

This study adhered to relevant ethical considerations around the confidentiality of the respondents and the protection of their dignity. The participants for the study were drawn from both Linguistics and Xhosa departments at the University of the Western Cape. In order to have access to these respondents, the researcher first sought ethical approval and permission from the University of the Western Cape to carry out the research on the university premises. The researcher explained to would-be participants what the research was about, informed them that their participation was voluntary, and guaranteed them of anonymity. Would-be participants were also assured that their responses would be purely used for academic purposes. Would-be participants were also informed that they could withdraw from the study at any time should they wish to do so without giving any explanation and without any penalty. All volunteers from first to third year of both Xhosa and Linguistics departments had an equal chance of being selected for this research without any discrimination.

4.7 Summary of the chapter

This chapter described the methodological approach used in this study. The researcher adopted a mixed-methods approach by combining both qualitative and quantitative data. The

study was sequentially exploratory in its nature and entailed a linguistically-based analysis of definitional texts and of responses from the questionnaire. The chapter described the participants and material used as data sources. In addition, it explained how data were analyzed. It also provided an overview of ethical considerations to be followed in the study. The next chapter presents the findings on definitional structures.



5 Chapter Five: THE STRUCTURE OF DEFINITIONS IN THE ENGLISH AND ISIXHOSA TEXTBOOKS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter and the next one are concerned with the presentation, analysis and discussion of the findings of the study. Given that there are multiple forms of data, each chapter has its focus or covers a particular theme. This chapter reports on the different definitional structures occurring within the English and isiXhosa language textbooks. The results will be presented below according to the structural components of definitions as discussed in both chapters 3 and 4.

5.2 Definiendum (the term or item to be defined)

The analysis took into account different parameters or features, namely, the position of a definiendum in a definition, its morpho-syntactic form and the typographic or formatting feature of the concept or item to be defined.

5.2.1 Position of the definiendum in a definition

In this section, a definiendum was classified according to its position relative to its definiens. For instance, some definienda may precede their definientia, while others may be placed behind them. It is also possible for a definiendum not to occur within the same sentence as its definiens. Table 5.1 presents the findings for both English and isiXhosa definitions:

Table 5.1: Position of definienda in a definition

Variables		English		isiXhosa	
		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>
Definiendum occurring within the same sentence as definiens	Initial position	31	74	47	96
	Final position	6		1	
Definiendum detached from definiens	Before definiens	5	26	1	4
	After definiens	8		1	
Total of definienda		50	100.00	50	100.00

Data presented in Table 5.1 show that 74% of English definienda and 96% of isiXhosa definienda occurred within the same sentence or clause as their definientia. Of 37 of English definienda, 31 (equivalent to 62%), and of 48 definienda in isiXhosa, 47 (94%) were placed in front of their definientia. Whereas 12% of English definienda and 2% of isiXhosa definienda were placed in final position. Examples of pre- and post-definiens positioning are as follows:

Example 1:

Oomabizwafane la ke amagama abizwa ngokufanayo kodwa izinto athetha zona wona zahlukile “Homonyms are words having similar pronunciation but different meanings” (Satyo, 1994:56).

In example 1 above, the definiendum oomabizwafane (*homonyms*) was placed in front of its definiens. In example 2 below, the definiendum *morphemes* is positioned behind the definiens:

Example 2:

“[...] *the units that words consist of and which still have lexical or functional meaning, namely morphemes*” [...] (Mambwe et al., 2014:151).

With respect to a definiendum and its definiens occurring in different sentences or clauses, 26% of English definienda and 4% of isiXhosa definienda corresponded to this format. Examples 3 and 4 provided below illustrate definitions within which definienda (highlighted in bold) and definientia (underlined) occur in separate clauses:

Example 3:

“We can describe the relations between words in semantic fields by using semantic features. Let us take the simple example of stallion and mare. In order to describe the meanings of these words, we have to say that a stallion is a male horse, while a mare is a female [...] This type of approach to semantics is called **componential analysis** or **semantic decomposition**” (Bock, 2014c:63-64).

Example 4:

Abantu bayo ke ingoma yakwaNtu bakholelwa ekubeni mayibuywe kade. Oko kuyibuya kade ke kuthiwa **kukutsala** “People who sing believe in prolonging some lyrics of the song. That is called ukutsala” (Satyo et al., 1993:77).

In examples 3 and 4 above, the definienda ‘componential analysis or semantic decomposition’ and ‘ukutsala’ or *to pull* (highlighted in bold) were detached from their definientia (the underlined). In other words, the elements of these definitions are seen in the different sentences as illustrated in examples 3 and 4 above. These examples provide evidence that definitions are sometimes explicitly stated (that is, where the authors take on

that responsibility), while others may be expected to be inferred (that is, where the formulation of a definition is seen as the reader's responsibility). This means that, the latter creates a sense of reader-responsibility for the formulation of definitions. The reader will have to bring together bits of information scattered across a number of sentences, sometimes pages, in order to construct a definition. It would be interesting to see the extent to which this reader-responsibility for formulating definitions challenges participants in chapter 6. In addition, given examples such as 3 and 4 above, and the greater frequency of these kinds of examples in English, it would also be interesting to find out whether both groups of participants find such definitional structures equally difficult to process, or one group has more difficulty with these structures than the other.

5.2.2 Typographic feature of the definiendum

Within this context, typography has to do with the formatting style or the style in which definienda are written. That is to say, formatting style can be seen as the way in which a definiendum is textually presented or typographically highlighted using, for instance, non-highlighted font and/or highlighted fonts such as bold or italics. Table 5.2 presents the findings in terms of formatting style of definienda collected in both English and Xhosa textbooks.

Table 5.2: Formatting style of definienda

Variables	English		isiXhosa	
	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>
Bold	30	60	2	4
Italics	8	16	5	10
Non-highlighted font	12	24	43	86
Total of definienda	50	100.00	50	100.00

Data provided in Table 5.2 indicate that the majority of English definienda (60%) was typographically highlighted in bold, followed by italicised definienda (16%). Non-highlighted definienda amounted to 24%. With respect to isiXhosa, the majority of definienda (86%) were not highlighted; those highlighted in italics amounted to 10%, while definienda in bold font came up to 4%. Here are some examples of highlighting in bold and italics:

Example 5:

Ulwimi *yintetho yabantu okanye uhlanga oluthile, umzekelo, lulwimi lwamaXhosa* (Satyo, 1994:53) “**Ulwimi** is a language belonging to a group of people or a race, for instance Xhosa language”

In example 5 above, the definiendum ‘*ulwimi* (language)’ was typographically highlighted in bold. In example 6 presented below, the definiendum ‘*bilingual first language acquisition*’ or ‘*simultaneous bilingualism*’ was italicized.

Example 6:

“All over the world, children often acquire two languages at the same time from birth; this process is referred to as *bilingual first language acquisition* or *simultaneous bilingualism*” (Oostendorp, 2014:226).

Highlighting a word in bold or italics is one of the strategies that some authors use to emphasize a specific word or to assign a particular value to that word. In addition, highlighting a word in bold may grab the attention of the reader.

5.2.3 Morphology of the definiendum

Definienda were also analysed and classified on the basis of word classes and with reference to their morphology. Thus, the terms *single morpheme unit noun* and *multi-morpheme unit noun* were used in order to classify those definienda identified as nouns or noun phrases. Recall that the category of single-morpheme unit nouns included definienda that were identified as single words, while multi-morpheme unit nouns were nouns identified as compound-words or as constitutive of multiple free morphemes. Table 5.3 contains the findings:

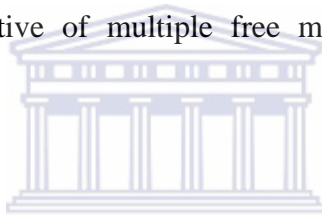


Table 5.3: Morphology of definienda

Variables	English		isiXhosa	
	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>
Single-morpheme unit nouns	14	28	11	22
Multi-morpheme unit nouns	32	64	35	70
Verbs or verb phrases	1	2	4	8
Clauses	3	6	-	-
Total of definienda	50	100.00	50	100.00

Findings provided in Table 5.3 demonstrate that the majority of English (64%) and isiXhosa (70%) definienda were assigned to the category called ‘multi-morpheme unit nouns’. 28% of English definienda and 22% of isiXhosa definienda were identified as ‘single-morpheme unit

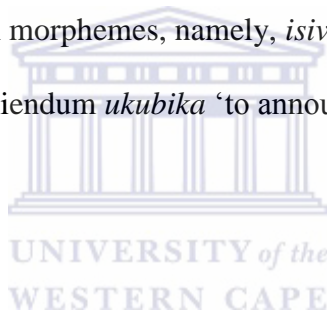
nouns'. Definienda classified as verbs or verb phrases amounted to 2% in English and to 8% in isiXhosa. Definienda classified as clauses (6%) occurred only in English textbook. Examples of these categories are given below. For example, in example 7 (see below), the definiendum 'coda' was identified as a 'single-morpheme unit noun' because it is constitutive of one meaningful unit.

Example 7:

The coda involves the consonants occurring after the vowel in a syllable (Mambwe, 2014:135).

In example 8 below the definiendum *isivula-mlomo* was identified as a multi-morpheme unit noun because it comprises several morphemes, namely, *isivula* 'opens' and *umlomo* 'mouth'.

Example 9 below contains a definiendum *ukubika* 'to announce death' identified as a verb.



Example 8:

Isivula-mlomo esi ibisisipho ebisikhutshwa ngoonozakuzaku xa bevula umcimbi weengxoxo ngentombi ecelwayo "Isivula-mlomo was a gift given to the bride's family by the negotiating team of the groom before the negotiations can begin" (Satyo, 1994:45).

Example 9:

Ukubika kukuambisa iindaba zokuba ubani kabana ubhubhile "it is to carry the message across that someone has passed away." (Satyo, 1994:36).

5.3 Definitor (the part linking the definiendum to its definiens)

As far as the structure of a definitor is concerned, this component was analysed in terms of its morpho-syntactic (or grammatical) form. In addition, definitors described as verbs were also categorised using transitivity analysis from the Systemic Functional Linguistics framework.

5.3.1 The typology and morpho-syntax of definitors

With respect to the morpho-syntactic classification of definitors, it was only applied on those definitors identified as language or linguistic units as opposed to, say, punctuation marks.

Table 5.4 presents both types of definitors.

Table 5.4: Typology and morpho-syntactic form of definitors

Variables	English		isiXhosa	
	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>
Verbs	38	76	45	90
Adverbs	4	8	-	-
Conjunctions	2	4	-	-
Preposition	2	4	-	-
Inflectional affixes	-	-	5	10
Punctuation marks	4	8	-	-
Total of definitors	50	100.00	50	100.00

Data provided in Table 5.4 indicate that 76% of English definitors and 90% of isiXhosa were identified as verbs. These data suggest that verbs are the mostly used definitors. In addition, the above data illustrate that the isiXhosa corpus employs a less differentiated set of definitors compared to the English. For instance, definitors used in the isiXhosa corpus were only verbs and some inflectional prefixes indicating the number (see example 10 below). Besides these definitors identified as linguistic units, English also uses a range of punctuation marks as definitors. Punctuation marks used included, for example, a comma, a colon, a hyphen and brackets. Examples of definitors in some of the mentioned categories include:

Example 10:

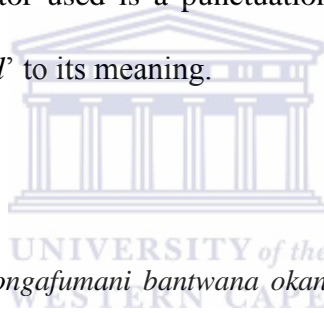
“[...] *the units that words consist of and which still have lexical or functional meaning, namely morphemes [...]*” (Mambwe et al., 2014:151).

In example 10 above where the definiendum is *morphemes*, the definator ‘*namely*’, identified as an adverb, was used to link the definiens to its definiendum.

Example 11:

“*Phrases can thus be broken down into smaller units which have different functions. [...] **Head** – the word around which the phrase is built*” (Duncan, 2014:196).

In example 11 above, the definator used is a punctuation mark, specifically a hyphen (-), connecting the definiendum ‘*head*’ to its meaning.



Example 12:

Udlolo umntu obhinqileyo ongafumani bantwana okanye inkomo okanye igusha ekwanjalo
“infertile, a person that cannot give birth to a child or a cow or a sheep that cannot bear a child” (Satyo, 1994:39).

In example 12 above, the isiXhosa inflectional ‘*um-*’ identified as a singular marker was attached to the root ‘*-ntu*’. In such a situation, we can say that the inflectional prefix ‘*um-*’ was used as a definator linking the concept *udlolo* or ‘sterile’ to its meaning. This can also be indicated by means of the concord or grammatical agreement between the augment ‘*u*’ (the vowel that precedes a prefix in Bantu languages) from the word *udlolo* ‘infertile’ (as a definiendum) and the singular noun prefix *um-* from *umntu* ‘person’ (as the proximate genus or part of the definiens).

5.3.2 Process types of verbs used as definitors

In this section, we analyse those definitions whose definitors were assigned to the category of verbs. Recall that because there are definitors that used punctuation, the definitors analysed here do not amount to 50 for each language. There are 38 definitors for English and 44 for isiXhosa. As was mentioned in chapter four, there are different types of processes. Some examples of verb processes include the following:

Example 13:

“[...] *in phonetics, lateral sounds are produced by raising the tongue in the oral cavity but without causing an obstruction and while letting the air escape along the sides of the tongue*” (Simon & Kunkeyani, 2014:98-99).

In the clause above (example 13), the verb ‘*are produced*’ serves in linking the definiendum ‘*lateral sounds*’ to its definiens. In this process of ‘doing’, lateral sounds are seen as the goal which is created by the material process identified through the process of doing or producing.

Example 14:

Isivumo yibhokhwe le ixhelwa xa oonozakuzaku beze okwesibini, bezisa ikhazi “Isivumo is a goat that is slaughtered for people who are coming to ask for a bride’s hand in marriage, they bring the bride price (cows for lobola)” (Satyo, 1994:45).

In example 14 above, the definitor *yi* or ‘is’ is identifying *isivumo* as a slaughtered goat, and after that it is also describing different attributes or characteristics of that slaughtered goat to be labelled *isivumo*, hence a relational process that is both identifying and attributive.

Example 15:

“Thus we define vowel coalescence as a phonological process in which vowels cause each other to change” (Mambwe, 2014:142-143).

In example 15, the sayer (or the person who communicates) is ‘we’ while the definiens or meaning given to vowel coalescence is seen as the verbiage or what we mention about vowel coalescence, hence a verbal process.

Table 5.5 presents process categories of verbs that were identified as definitors:

Table 5.5: Process types of verbs used as definitors

Variables	English		isiXhosa		
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Relational	Attributive	13	34.2	6	13.3
	Identifying	5	13.1	12	26.7
	Both identifying and attributive	12	31.6	24	53.3
Verbal		3	7.9	-	-
Material		3	7.9	1	2.2
Mental		2	5.3	2	4.5
Total of definitors		38	100.00	45	100.00

Findings presented in Table 5.5 show that the majority of verbs used as definitors were classified into the category of relational process, with 78.9% for English and 93.3% for isiXhosa. With respect to English, the majority of definitors were of the attributive relational process type (34.2%), while definitors playing a role of identifying and attributing at the same

time amounted to 31.6%. According to these data, it is clear that the majority of verbs (53.3%) used within isiXhosa textbooks were identifying and describing attributes of what was being defined. The predominance of relational processes within these definitions provides evidence that definitors serve in connecting or relating definienda to their definientia, and vice versa.

Besides the relational processes, there were other process types that were identified within these definitions. Those processes included material process (with 7.9% for English and 2.2% for isiXhosa), verbal process (with 7.9% for English only) and mental process with a percentage of 5.3% for English and 4.5% for isiXhosa.

5.4 Definiens (or the meaning assigned to the definiendum)

In this section, definientia were analysed in terms of their typology. That is to say that, definientia were classified into different types according to the information that was provided as the meaning of what is being defined. As Sager (1990) highlights, a definition may be identified as terminological, lexicographic or as encyclopaedic with reference to the information that is given in the definiens of that definition. Consider the following examples:

Example 16:

Ukubika kukuambisa iindaba zokuba ubani kabana ubhubhile “ukubika is to carry the message across that someone has passed away” (Satyo, 1994:36).

In example 16 above, the definer provided the conventional meaning of ‘ukubika’ by paraphrasing the word *ukubika* ‘to announce death’ or by saying the same thing in other words, hence, a lexicographic definition.

Example 17:

“Phonetics can be defined as the branch of linguistics which examines the inventory and the structure of the sounds of language as speech” (Simon & Kunkeyani, 2014:85).

In example 17 above, the definiendum *phonetics* is being identified with reference to the conceptual system (linguistics) of which it forms part, and this classifies the definiendum ‘*phonetics*’ as a branch or a part of that system. In other words, the proximate genus ‘*a branch of linguistics*’ positions the term *phonetics* in a structure of knowledge in which we have phonetics as a type of study belonging to the category of Linguistics, hence a terminological definition.

Example 18:

“Studying communication in context means taking note of not only what is communicated, but also of who communicates with whom, in what setting, for what purpose and according to which norms and social conventions; which attitudes and ideologies underlie the communication, and, of course, which languages or language varieties and styles are selected by the speakers as appropriate for the messages they want to communicate” (Bock, 2014b:6).

In example 18 above, where *studying communication in context* is taken as the definiendum; the definer, besides using a verb phrase as a definiendum, provided a range of facts and information on what studying communication in context means. Hence we would consider this to be an encyclopaedic definition. Recall that an encyclopaedic (or a general) definition may be conceived as a ‘summary of knowledge’ (de Bessé, 1997) because it contains explanations and other additional information and facts.

Table 5.6 below presents the typology of definienda that were analysed:

Table 5.6: Typology of definientia

Variables	English		isiXhosa	
	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>
Lexicographic	10	20	17	34
Terminological	12	24	2	4
Encyclopaedic	21	42	16	32
Mixed types	7	14	15	30
Total of definientia	50	100.00	50	100.00

With respect to the category of ‘mixed types’ that has been added in table 5.6, Antia (2005) points out that very often definitions will not fall into neat categories, and will rather combine elements or features from the three categories of lexicographic, terminological and encyclopaedic. In our data, an example of such a mixed definition is:

Example 19:

Ukufunga yindlela umntu ebebonisa ngayo inyaniso yakhe ethe sululu. Umntu ke ubefunga uyise nonina nomafungwashe wakokwabo. “ukufunga is a way a person showed his/her absolute truth. The person would swear on his father, mother, and his/her first born sibling” (Satyo, 1994:40).

The definition above (see example 19) was identified as ‘mixed type’ because it contains a lexicographic definition, *yindlela umntu ebebonisa ngayo inyaniso yakhe ethe sululu* (is a way a person showed his/her absolute truth), to which other information was added, hence a lexicographico-encyclopaedic definition.

Now, findings presented in Table 5.6 illustrate that the majority of English definitions (42%) were identified as encyclopaedic, while for isiXhosa the lexicographic category was the dominant category (34%). These findings suggest that Xhosa definers focus on describing the word, while the English definers focus on the thing. With respect to terminological definitions, the data showed that this category was higher in English (24%) compared to isiXhosa (4%). IsiXhosa had more of the mixed typology (30%) than English did (14%).

5.5 Analysis of the co(n)-text of definitions

In some contexts, authors or definers introduce or elaborate on the concepts that they are defining by, for instance, providing some examples or explanatory background or preamble to the definition proper. Some may also elaborate on what is being defined through additional explanations or paraphrases. This is done with the intention to orientate readers. These additional explanations are also crucial to defining, because they often complement and facilitate in-depth understanding of what is being defined. The following are some examples of definitions:

Example 20:

However, when we think of the category bird we are more likely to think of a pigeon than of an ostrich or a penguin. We can say that pigeon, swallow and crow are prototypical exemplars of the category, while penguins and ostriches are marginal exemplars. Thus, prototype refers to the first or primary type of something that provides a model or 'typical example for that thing' (Bock, 2014c:65).

In example 20, the definer provided an explanatory background by providing different sorts of birds in order to define the concept of 'prototype'. The distinction between vertebrates identified as prototypical exemplars and those identified as marginal exemplars would allow readers to capture the meaning of prototype.

Example 21:

“Words such as tick and pick or veer or beer are minimal pairs in English, while pad (‘road’) and pat (‘a stalemate in chess’) are minimal pairs in Afrikaans. A minimal pair comprises two forms or words with distinct meanings that differ by only one segment found in the same position in each of the two forms. It is used as a basic test for a sound’s distinctiveness and the minimal pair test is the key principle of phonemic analysis” (Mambwe, 2014:122).

In example 21 above, the definer oriented the readers by giving both explanatory background and elaboration. First of all, the definer provided background information by citing examples of words that are identified as minimal pair. Thereafter, the definer moved to defining what a minimal pair is (see the underlined section). In final position, the definer highlighted the context within which a minimal pair test is applicable.

Example 22:

Umnqayi le kwakusithiwa yintonga yamathamsanqa eyayisaya kuphathwa ngumnumzana xa esekuhamba-hambeni phakathi kohlanga. Umnqayi lo ubuphathwa nasemidudweni, xa kusiyiwa kwendiswa “this was called a stick of luck that a gentleman carried with him when visiting other nations. This stick was carried in many ceremonies or social events such as the welcoming of umkhwetha and weddings” (Satyo, 1994:40).

In example 22, after defining what ‘umnqayi’ is (see the underlined part), the definer elaborated on the definition by highlighting that ‘umnqayi’ stick was used in different ceremonies or social events such as wedding and the welcoming of umkhwetha (the boy coming from the process of entering manhood through circumcision).

In other words, examples (20, 21 and 22) provided above are evidence that definitions proper often occur within a certain context or with relevant co-texts. It is instructive to analyse the

co-texts of definitions in the English and isiXhosa sources. Table 5.7 presents the findings on the textual surroundings for definitions in both English and isiXhosa sources:

Table 5.7: The textual feature of the entire definition

Variables	English		isiXhosa	
	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>
Definition placed after an explanatory background	13	26	1	2
Definition placed before an elaboration	15	30	25	50
Definition 'sandwiched' between explanatory background and elaboration	16	32	4	8
Definition with neither explanatory background nor elaboration	6	12	20	40
Total of definitions	50	100.00	50	100.00

Table 5.7 shows that the most number of English definitions (32%) were sandwiched between introductory or explanatory background and elaboration. This is in contrast to isiXhosa where only 8% of definitions had this co-textual environment. On the other hand, the most number of isiXhosa definitions (50%) were followed or accompanied (not preceded) by an elaboration or an extended explanation. Whereas 26% of the English definitions came after an explanatory background, the corresponding figure for isiXhosa was 2%. For both languages, some definitions were provided without any explanatory background or elaboration. In English, definitions with neither preceding introductory background nor following explanation amounted to 12%, while for isiXhosa they amounted to 40%. One

striking observation to be made is that most of the time Xhosa definers do not provide an introductory background of what they are going to define.

Baynam (1995) states that the availability of contextual information may shape the way people read and make meaning of what is said or written. Brandt (1990) similarly argues that the ways texts or discourses are produced may have an impact on how readers or listeners interpret them. That is to say that the introductory background or elaboration on what is being defined may serve as contextual information upon which the reader or listener may draw to make meaning of what is being defined. A definition may be difficult to understand, but the additional information provided may simplify it and make it comprehensible. In other words, a student may fail to grasp the meaning of a definition on its own, but once a definition is provided together with additional information (such as introductory background or elaboration) students' understanding of the concept may be facilitated or enhanced. On the other hand, however, it would be interesting to find out whether these co-texts are understood as such, as adjuncts to the definition, and not as the definition proper. One of the tasks performed by respondents involved precisely this issue (see chapter 6).

5.6 Summary of qualitative findings

This chapter focused on qualitatively presenting and analysing different structures of definitions collected in the isiXhosa and English textbooks. The analysis took into account each component of a definition, namely, a definiendum, a definator and a definiens. This chapter aimed to achieve the first objective of the study, that is, describing the different definitional structures occurring within the aforementioned textbooks. The findings showed that the way definitions are structured in English is in many respects different from the way they are constructed in isiXhosa (see table 5.8 below):

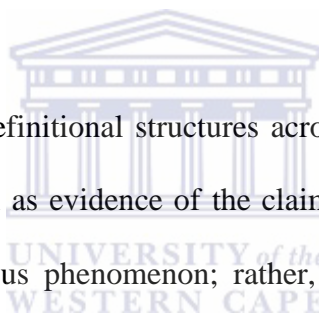
Table 5.8: The summary of qualitative data

<i>The components of a definition</i>	<i>The themes covered</i>	<i>Comparative analysis of structures (English vs. isiXhosa)</i>	<i>Observations</i>
<p>The definiendum (the item being defined)</p>	<p>The position of a definiendum in a definition</p>	<p>74% of English definienda and 96% of isiXhosa definienda occurred within the same clause as their definientia, while 26% of English definienda and 4% of isiXhosa definienda were detached from their definientia by occurring in separate clauses.</p>	<p>Data showed that the majority of English and isiXhosa definienda are placed in initial position (before their definientia). Of 50 definienda per language, 14 English definienda and only 2 isiXhosa definienda were placed behind their definientia.</p>
	<p>The typographic feature of the definiendum (or formatting style)</p>	<p>60% of English definienda were typographically highlighted in bold and 16% were in italics, while 24 % of definienda were non-highlighted. For isiXhosa, the majority of definienda (86%) were non-highlighted, while those highlighted in bold and italics amounted to 4%</p>	<p>The English (74%) mostly used the highlighting font (bold and italics), while for isiXhosa, the highlighting formatting style amounted to 14% for both bold and italics.</p>

		and 10% respectively.	
	The morphology of definienda	<p>The majority of English (64%) and isiXhosa (70%) definienda were identified as ‘multi-morpheme unit nouns’ and those identified as ‘single-morpheme unit nouns’ amounted to 28% and 22 in English and isiXhosa respectively.</p> <p>Besides definienda identified as nouns, there were also definienda identified as verbs (2% for English and 8% for isiXhosa), and as clauses (for English only with 6%).</p>	<p>The majority of isiXhosa terms are identified as compound-words. In this language, different words are combined to form one concept or term.</p> <p>In isiXhosa, none of definienda was identified as a clause.</p>
The definitor (the link between definiendum and definiens)	The typology and morphology of definitors	The majority of definitors for both English (76%) and isiXhosa (90%) were identified as verbs.	The isiXhosa corpus uses a less differentiated set of definitors (verbs and inflectional affixes serving as definitors), while the English one has a variety of definitors (verbs, adverbs, conjunctions, prepositions and punctuation marks such as colon, hyphen, comma and brackets).

	<p>The process type of verbs used as definitors</p>	<p>78.9% of English verbs and 93.3% of isiXhosa verbs were classified as relational processes.</p> <p>Other process types included verbal process for English only (7.9%); and material and mental processes for both English (7.9% and 5.3% respectively) and isiXhosa (2.2% and 4.5% respectively).</p>	<p>In isiXhosa, the dominant relational process was simultaneously identifying and providing attributes of the item being defined (53.3% of 93.3%).</p> <p>The lack of verbal process within isiXhosa corpus can be linked to the way definitions are introduced in isiXhosa textbooks.</p>
<p>The definiens (or the meaning assigned to the definiendum)</p>	<p>Typology of definiens</p>	<p>For English, the majority of definitions were identified as encyclopaedic (42%), while for isiXhosa the majority were classified as lexicographic (34%).</p> <p>Other categories included terminological (24% for English and 4% for isiXhosa) and mixed typed (or definitions combining different features from the three aforementioned categories) with 14% for</p>	<p>Besides the terminological definitions that amounted only to 4% in the isiXhosa corpus, both languages comprised different types of definitions.</p>

		English and 30% for IsiXhosa.	
The entire definition (co(n)-text of definitions)	Textual feature of the entire definition	The most number of English definitions (32%) were sandwiched between introductory background and elaboration, while 50% of isiXhosa definitions were only followed by elaboration.	IsiXhosa definitions comprised less details or information compared to English where the definer mostly provide an explanatory background or additional explanation to make the definition more clear.



The diversity occurring within definitional structures across those two languages can (even with the limited corpus) be taken as evidence of the claim in the academic literacies model that writing is not an autonomous phenomenon; rather, it is socioculturally shaped. The analysis allows for the conjecture that practices of definition can vary from language community to language community and/or from subject field (linguistics) to subject field (cultural studies). The structural analysis also serves as backdrop for assessing students' knowledge of definitions as reported in the next chapter.

6 Chapter Six: ASSESSING STUDENTS' KNOWLEDGE OF DEFINITIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter analyses and discusses quantitative data collected by means of the questionnaire.

Recall that the research sought to answer the following questions:

1. What are the dominant definitional structures in both the English and isiXhosa language textbooks?
2. Are students aware of different definitional structures?
3. Are students able to identify definitions in texts as well as components of definitions?
4. Are students able to draw on the given information and come up with a definition of a concept?
5. Are students able to distinguish definitions from definitional metadiscourses?
6. Are students aware of how definitions may be introduced?
7. Does the language of a text affect the way students interpret definitions?

The findings of the questionnaire are reported under the following headings: (1) identification of a definiendum in a definition; (2) identification of the definiens corresponding to a definiendum; (3) identifying a definition based on its definator; (4) recognizing or spotting a definition within a text; (5) producing a definition; (6) making a distinction between a definition and a non-definition; and (7) appropriateness of structures employed in introducing definitions.

Even though the content of questions was different for both English and isiXhosa languages, the researcher made sure that both English and Xhosa questionnaires covered the similar themes as reflected above in headings 1 to 7.

These data on students' performance on a range of definition tasks were first quantified using frequencies and then analysed using inferential statistics analysis, namely, cross-tabulations and the Chi-Square tests. The cross-tabulations allowed the researcher to record frequencies of students' responses with reference to their nominal category (i.e. wrong or correct or half-correct), while the Chi-square tests were used to determine whether or not there was a statistical significance or relationship between students' performance and the language of the text. But before presenting the results, let us consider the profile of the study's participants.

Tables 6.1 and 6.2 present the distribution of respondents' year of study and home languages per department.

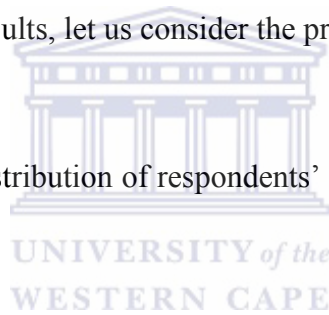


Table 6.1: Year of study of the participants per department

Department	Year of study	Frequency	Percent
Linguistics	First	20	40.0
	Second	20	40.0
	Third	10	20.0
	Total	50	100.0
Xhosa	First	20	40.0
	Second	20	40.0
	Third	10	20.0
	Total	50	100.0

As Table 6.1 shows, students' study level ranged from first year of university to third year. Of the 50 respondents in each of Linguistics and Xhosa departments, 20 (40%) respondents were in the first year, 20 (40%) in the second year, and 10 (20%) in the third year. Let us examine the home languages of the study's participants in table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Home language distribution of the participants per department

Department	Home language	Frequency	Percent
Linguistics	English	31	62.0
	isiXhosa	12	24.0
	Other	7	14.0
	Total	50	100.0
Xhosa	isiXhosa	50	100.0

With respect to reported home languages (or languages mostly used at home), in Linguistics, the majority of respondents (31 students or 62%) mentioned English, 12 (24%) identified isiXhosa, while 7 (14%) mentioned languages other than English and isiXhosa (e.g. Afrikaans, isiZulu and chiShona). With respect to the isiXhosa questionnaire, all respondents identified isiXhosa as their home language.

6.2 Identifying a definiendum in a definition

Both English and isiXhosa questionnaires contained two questions (see Textboxes 6.1 and 6.2 for question '2.i' and textboxes 6.3 and 6.4 for question 5.ii respectively) related to this theme. These questions were asked to determine students' ability to identify a definiendum or the concept being defined within a text, regardless of whether that definiendum was typographically highlighted or not.

Textbox 6.1 presents the question given to students from the Xhosa department:

Textbox 6.1: First isiXhosa passage in which definiendum was to be identified

Funda lo mhlathi ungezantsi wandule ukuphendula imibuzo elandelayo:

Olu hlobo loncwadi lubizwa ngeendlela ngeendlela. Abanye bathi ngamaqhina qashi qashi abanye basebenzisa igama lemboleko bathi ngoorayi rayi (oorayirayi). Le ndlela yokubiza olu hlobo loncwadi isekelwe kwindlela ekuqalwa ngayo xa kusenziwa amaqhina la. Iqhina qashi qashi okanye orayirayi luhlobo **loncwadi lwemveli** oluqulethe umbuzo okanye iimpendulo. Iimpendulo zamaqhina la ziba ziimpendulo ezamkelwe ngokusesikweni sisizwe eso saloo maqhina (oko kukuthi isizwe eso samaqhina lawo enziwayo).

(Imvelaphi: Satyo, Zotwana, Yapi, Gxilishe & Dikeni, 'Sasinoncwadi Kwatanzi', 1993:39)

Bhala eli/loo magama achazwayo kulo mhlathi ungentla.

English translation follows (but not provided to participants):

Read the following passage and then answer the questions that follow:

This type of literature can have different names. Mostly people call them riddles or brain teasers. This way of calling this genre is based on how you start the riddle. A riddle is a type of literature that is based on the tradition of first asking the question before the answer can be revealed. The answers of the riddles are generally or traditionally accepted by the particular language group that develop the riddle (meaning the native origin of the riddle).

Identify the word(s) that is/are being defined in the above passage

The answer expected was 'amaqhina qashi qashi' or 'oorayirayi' (*riddles*). The passage for a corresponding question in English administered to students in the Linguistics department can be seen in textbox 6.2.

Textbox 6.2: First English passage in which definiendum was to be identified

Read the following passage carefully and then answer the questions that follow:

Selection is logically seen as the first step towards the **standardization of a language**, even though on some occasions the language selected may already be codified or have great acceptance in its community. This stage entails choosing the dialect to be used as the standard form or picking the dialects which are then unified or harmonized to form the standard language.

Circle the word(s) that is/are being defined.

The answer expected was the term *selection*. Table 6.3 presents the results for both questions:

Table 6.3: Identification of the definiendum in Question ‘2.i’

Department	Answer	Frequency	Percent
Linguistics (English)	Correct	27	54.0
	Wrong	23	46.0
	Total	50	100.0
Xhosa (isiXhosa)	Correct	44	88.0
	Wrong	6	12.0
	Total	50	100.0

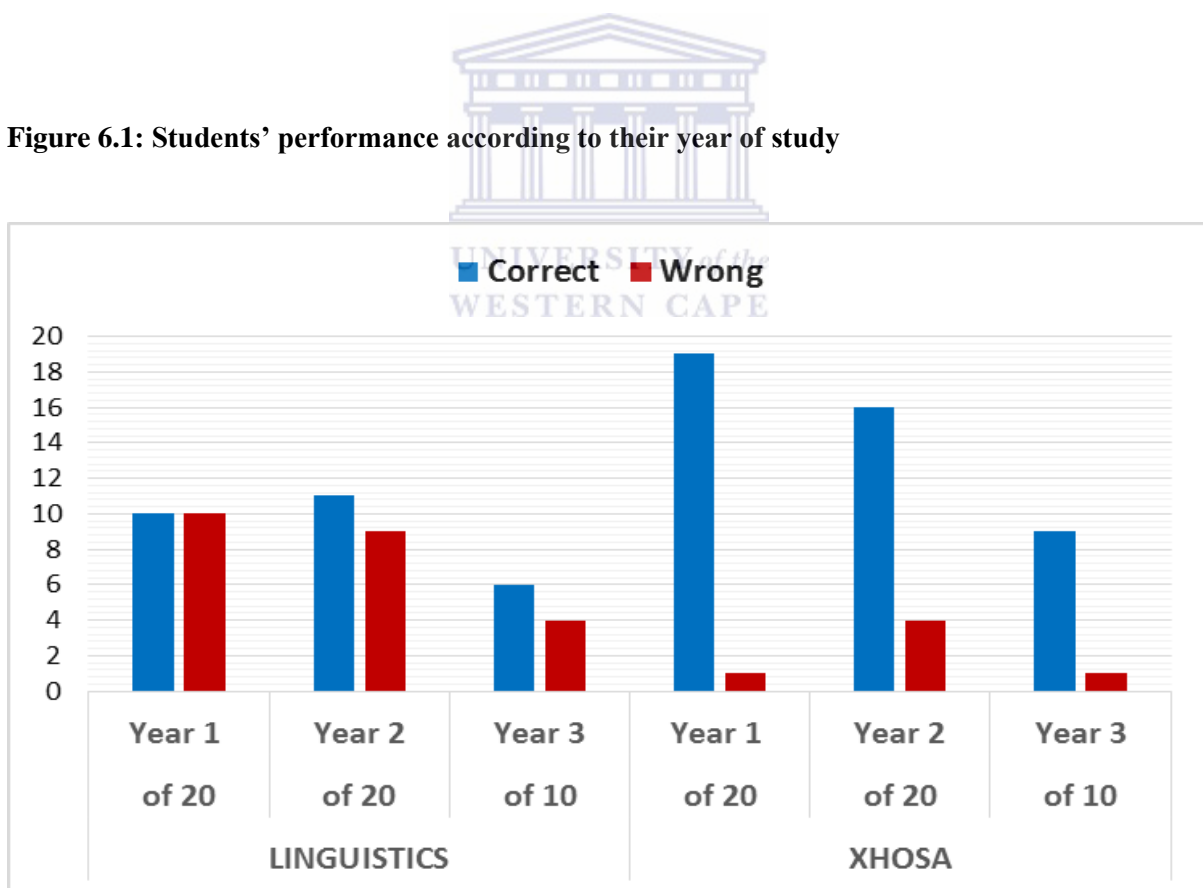
Table 6.3 shows that in both groups a majority participants (54 % of students from the Linguistics department and 88% from the Xhosa department) were able to correctly identify the concepts being defined (*selection* and *amaqhina qashi qashi* or *oorayirayi* ‘riddles’) within the respective passages they read. For the 12% in the Xhosa department who got the answer wrong, the term being defined was *uncwadi lwemveli* ‘folklore or traditional literature’ (a bold-highlighted term). It is remarkable that as many as 46% of the Linguistics students failed to identify ‘*selection*’ as the concept being defined. For this 46%, the term being defined in English question was ‘standardization of a language’. Notice, from textboxes 6.1 and 6.2, that the terms *standardization of a language* and *loncwadi lwemveli* (seen as distractors) were highlighted in bold, while the concepts of ‘*selection*’ and ‘*amaqhina qashi qashi*’ were typed using the normal font. The identification of these concepts as the definienda suggests that some students were not able to ignore these distractors.

From an academic literacies standpoint, it might be suggested that the selection of a bold-highlighted term is evidence that students’ practices are always being influenced or shaped by past literacy practices, for instance, habits developed from exposure to high school textbooks

where the bold-highlighted term within a definition might always be the definiendum. The fact that students identified that term as the definiendum is evidence for the claim by Baynham (1995) that previous experiences of education can lead to success or failure. Although there was a term highlighted in bold, this did not really mean that that term was the one being defined. Students' success in identifying definienda does not only draw upon generic superficial writing skills, as the study skills model would suggest, but also upon the awareness of the context (e.g. texts, literacy events) in which these definienda occur.

Figure 6.1 classifies students' performance on the definiendum identification task according to the students' year of study and department:

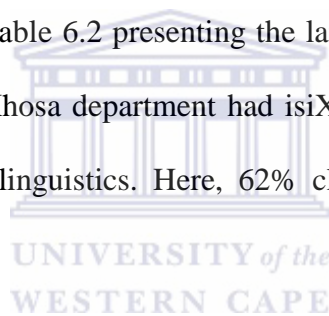
Figure 6.1: Students' performance according to their year of study



Within the Linguistics' group, Figure 6.1 shows that half of first year students (10 of the 20) and nearly half of second year (9 of the 20) and of third year students (4 of the 10) got the

answer wrong. In contrast, the findings indicate that students from the Xhosa department performed well across all years of study. In this department, 19 (of the 20) first year students, 16 (of the 20) second year students and 9 (of 10) students of third year got the answer correct.

Applying Chi-Square tests, with department or language medium of the text as independent variable, showed that there is a statistically significant difference between the performance of students in different languages (Chi-square = 12.433, $df = 1$, $p < .05$). That is to say that isiXhosa as the language of the text had a positive effect on how students performed. It is important to note that language medium of the text is being taken as proxy for home language, although there are slight problems with this decision. While it works well for the isiXhosa data where, as seen in table 6.2 presenting the language profile of the participants, 100% of respondents from the Xhosa department had isiXhosa as home language, it is less satisfactory for the students in linguistics. Here, 62% claimed to have English as home language.



Let us turn to the second questionnaire item dealing with identifying the definiendum. In a first part of the question, students were to state if the passage given was a definition. Where they answered 'Yes', they were to state, in the second part of the question, what the corresponding definiendum was. The English and isiXhosa passages given to students can be seen in textboxes 6.3 and 6.4.

Textbox 6.3: Second isiXhosa passage in which the definiendum was to be identified

Funda lo mhlathi ungezantsi uze uphendule imibuzo elandelayo:

Into eyayingekho kule mfundo yemveli lubhalo; yonke into yayithethwa ngomlomo ibhaleke ezingqondweni, ize ke izizukulwana ezingaphambili ziyidlulise kwezilandelayo. Njengoko sekuchaziwe kwisahluko sokuqala apha ngentla, le mfundo yemveli yayinalo uncwadi, lwaye olu ncwadi njengolu lwanamhlanje, lwalunayo iprozi (naprozi iprozi le ibalisayo - narrative prose). Ziintsomi ezi ke ezo. Imbangi yokuba kuthiwe umntu wenza intsomi xa exoka, kukuba uninzi lwalamabali abalisa ngezinto ezingenakwenzeka nangamazwe angekhoyo nangezilwanyana ezingekhoyo. Nakubeni kunjalo ke kambe, iintsomi ezi ngamabalana amafutshane angumfuziselo onqatyisiweyo wobomi boluntu, nenjongo yawo ikukuqulunqa nokunqwanqwada isimo somntu, nokuzoba ububanzi bemihlaba ehanjwa ziingcinga zomntu ekuzingeleni izisombululo zokuchaza iimfihlelo zendalo, kwakunye nokuqaqambisa izenzo zobuqhawe zamaqhawe namaqhawekazi esizwe. (Satyo, Zotwana, Yapi, Gxilishe & Dikeni, 'Sasinoncwadi Kwatanci', 1993:10)

Ukuba impendulo yakho ngu 'Ewe', nceda ubhale ngezantsi le/ezi zinto zichazwayo.

English translation follows (but not provided to participants):

Read the following passage and then answer the questions that follow:

The traditional literature was not written; everything was passed on by word of mouth, committed to memory and retold to future generations. As already indicated in the first chapter above, this traditional literature was in book form in a way which is similar to our modern literature; it had prose even (narrative prose that is). These were folklores and tall tales. The reason that people say you are telling tales when you lie is because most stories were about events that were not real, based in countries that did not exist and on animals that were not real. Even though that may be the case, these tales are short stories that are in figurative form about human life. The aim is to form and discipline the community, as well as demonstrate the breadth of the human thoughts in finding a particular solution and finding it in nature. It also highlights desirable qualities such as bravery, tells of heroes and heroines of the nation.

If your answer (above) is 'yes', please write below the concept(s) that is (are) being defined or explained.

Textbox 6.4: Second English passage in which definiendum was to be identified

Read the following passage carefully and then answer the questions that follow:

Studying communication in context means taking note of not only what is communicated, but also of who communicates with whom, in what setting, for what purpose and according to which norms and social conventions; which attitudes and ideologies underlie the communication, and, of course, which languages or language varieties and styles are selected by the speakers as appropriate for the messages they want to communicate.

If your answer (above) is 'yes', please write below the concept or expression that is being defined or explained

For the first part of the question, the expected answer was ‘Yes’. Both passages entailed definitions. For the second part of the questions, the definienda expected were *studying communication in context* (for the English) and *intsomi* ‘tales’ for the isiXhosa. Both the English and isiXhosa passages were identified as definitional texts because their focus was on describing the aforementioned concepts. Because not everyone in each group said the passage given to them was a definition, the number identifying the definiendum did not amount to 50 in each case. There were 28 answers for Linguistics and 45 for isiXhosa (see Table 6.4 below).

Table 6.4: Identification of a definiendum in Question ‘5.ii’

Department	Answer	Frequency	Percent
Linguistics (English)	Correct	1	3.6
	Wrong	27	96.4
	Total	28	100.0
Xhosa (isiXhosa)	Correct	34	75.5
	Wrong	11	24.5
	Total	45	100.0

Table 6.4 shows that of the linguistics student-respondents who attempted to identify the definiendum 96% were unable to correctly identify the concept being defined. Many of them gave answers such as *communication*, *study of communication* and *communication in context*. *Communication* and *communication in context* were marked wrong because they are not studies, or as the passage says “taking note of”. *Study of communication* is not totally correct because the major point of the passage is to highlight the context in which what is communicated takes place. In contrast, the majority of students from the Xhosa department (75.5%) were able to positively identify the term being defined. The high number of wrong

responses within the English questionnaire can probably be explained by students' non-familiarity with verb phrases being definienda. This may be taken to illustrate the point in the academic literacies model that previous literacies are not necessarily appropriately transferable to new contexts, and that previous literacy exposures can in fact become an impediment or an obstacle with new texts or literacy events.

For the isiXhosa questionnaire, the common wrong answer provided was *imfundo yemveli* 'traditional literature'. Although *iintsomi* 'tales' is a genre of traditional literature, this answer was marked as wrong because the emphasis of the passage was not on describing what *imfundo yemveli* is, but on what a tale is.

The cross-tabulation results presented in figure 6.2 show which group (Linguistics and Xhosa) and which year of study performed better than the other.

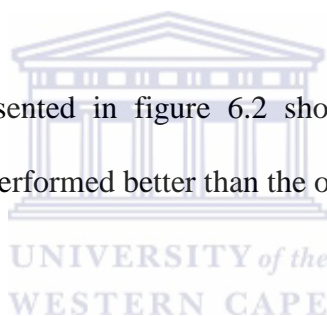
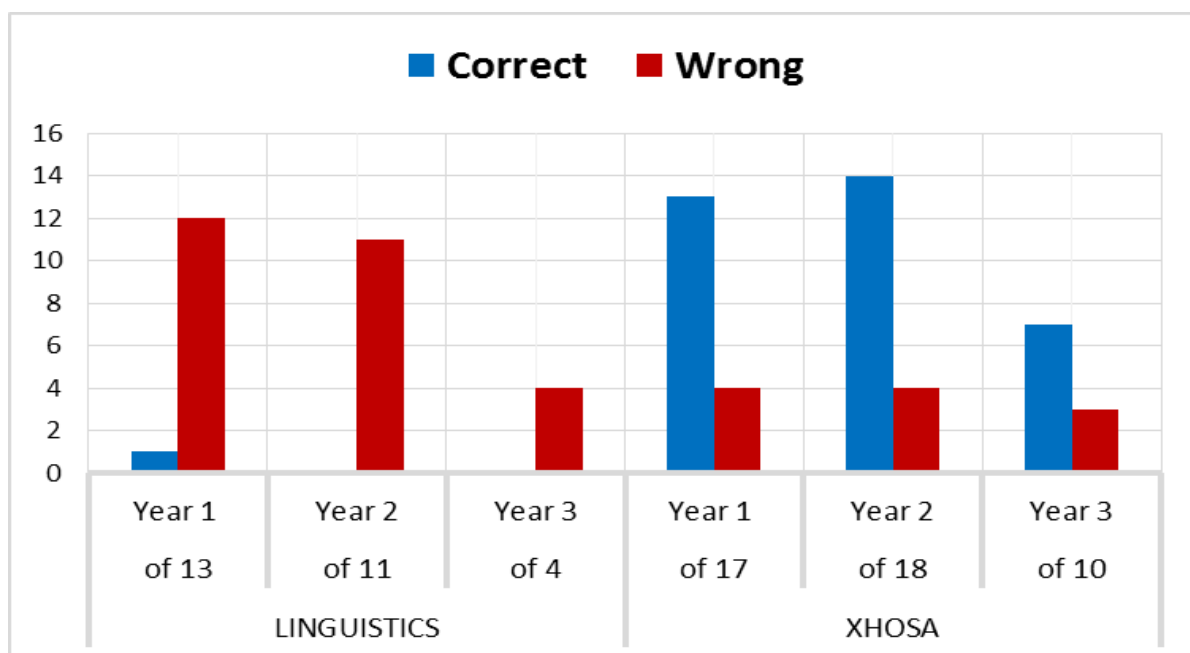


Figure 6.2: Students' responses per year of study and department (Question 5.ii)



Data presented in Figure 6.2 indicate that the majority of students from Linguistics got the answer wrong. Of 13 first year students in the Linguistics department, only one student (3.6%) was able to provide a complete definiendum which was *studying communication in context*. Of 11 students of second year and of 4 students from third year no one was able to correctly identify the concept being defined. For the isiXhosa question, of 17 first year respondents 13 got the question correct, of 18 second year students, 14 were able to correctly answer the question, while of 10 third year respondents 7 were able to provide a correct answer.

Chi-Square tests were also applied to the data, with department or language medium of the text as independent variable. The results indicated a significant difference in responses between students in Linguistics (English) and in isiXhosa (Chi-square = 33.009, df = 1, $p < .05$). The P-value, being less than .05, suggests that there was very strong evidence of a relationship between students' performance and the language of the text. Given that the language of the text is taken as proxy for home language, this means that the home language was an advantage to the students performing the task of identifying the definiendum in the isiXhosa questionnaire.

Combining the data from both tasks on identifying definienda, the evidence we see is that students from all years of study in Linguistics department face more challenges than students from the Xhosa department. From a literacy standpoint and the role of knowledge within academic literacy, what these findings suggest is that students encounter or read definitional passages without really being able to put a name to what is being defined. With such a problem, it is clear that students may face difficulties in different assessment tasks such as those requiring them to fill-in-the blank, to summarize what they have read or to give a name

to what is being talked about within a text. The failure of the majority of students to identify the concept or expression being defined may be the result of different factors such as the language used in defining, the lack of awareness of a variety of definitional structures, and/or the complex way in which definitional texts are structured, specifically those from the English textbook.

6.3 Identifying the definiens corresponding to a definiendum

With regard to this theme, students were asked to underline the sentence (or the definiens) that defines the concept that they had identified as definiendum in a previous task. The question was posed to evaluate whether or not students were able to link the definiendum to its definiens. Textboxes 6.5 and 6.6 present the passages for both groups:

Textbox 6.5: IsiXhosa passage in which the definiens corresponding to a definiendum was to be identified

Funda lo mhlathi ungezantsi wandule ukuphendula imibuzo elandelayo:

Olu hlobo loncwadi lubizwa ngeendlela ngeendlela. Abanye bathi ngamaqhina qashi qashi abanye basebenzisa igama lemboleko bathi ngoorayi rayi (oorayirayi). Le ndlela yokubiza olu hlobo loncwadi isekelwe kwindlela ekuqalwa ngayo xa kusenziwa amaqhina la. Iqhina qashi qashi okanye orayirayi luhlobo **loncwadi lwemveli** oluqulethe umbuzo okanye impendulo. Iimpindulo zamaqhina la ziba ziimpindulo ezamkelwe ngokusesikweni sisizwe eso saloo maqhina (oko kukuthi isizwe eso samaqhina lawo enziwayo).

(Imvelaphi: Satyo, Zotwana, Yapi, Gxilische & Dikeni, 'Sasinoncwadi Kwatanci', 1993:39)

Krwela umgca phantsi kwesivakalisi esichaza eli gama lichazwayo kulo mhlathi ungentla.

English translation follows (but not provided to participants):

Read the following passage and then answer the questions that follow:

This type of literature can have different names. Mostly people call them riddles or brain teasers. This way of calling this genre is based on how you start the riddle. A riddle is a type of literature that is based on the tradition of first asking the question before the answer can be revealed. The answers of the riddles are generally or traditionally accepted by the particular language group that develop the riddle (meaning the native origin of the riddle).

Underline the sentence(s) that define(s) the word mentioned in 2i in the passage above

Textbox 6.6: English passage in which the definiens corresponding to a definiendum was to be identified

Selection is logically seen as the first step towards the **standardization of a language**, even though on some occasions the language selected may already be codified or have great acceptance in its community. This stage entails choosing the dialect to be used as the standard form or picking the dialects which are then unified or harmonized to form the standard language.

Underline the sentence(s) that define(s) the word(s) you mentioned in 2i above

For the English, the expected answer was *this stage entails choosing the dialect to be used as the standard form or picking the dialects which are then unified or harmonized to form the standard language*, while for the isiXhosa, the answer expected was *iqhina qashi qashi okanye orayirayi luhlobo loncwadi lwemveli oluqulethe umbuzo okanye iimpendulo* (a riddle is a type of literature that is based on the tradition of first asking the question before the answer can be revealed). Table 6.5 presents the results on students' performance in terms of identifying a definiens in a passage:

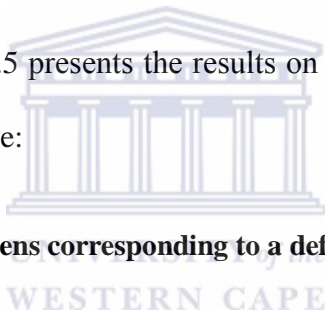


Table 6.5: Identification of a definiens corresponding to a definiendum

Department	Answer	Frequency	Percent
Linguistics (English)	Correct	22	44.0
	Wrong	28	56.0
	Total	50	100.0
Xhosa (isiXhosa)	Correct	33	66.0
	Wrong	17	34.0
	Total	50	100.0

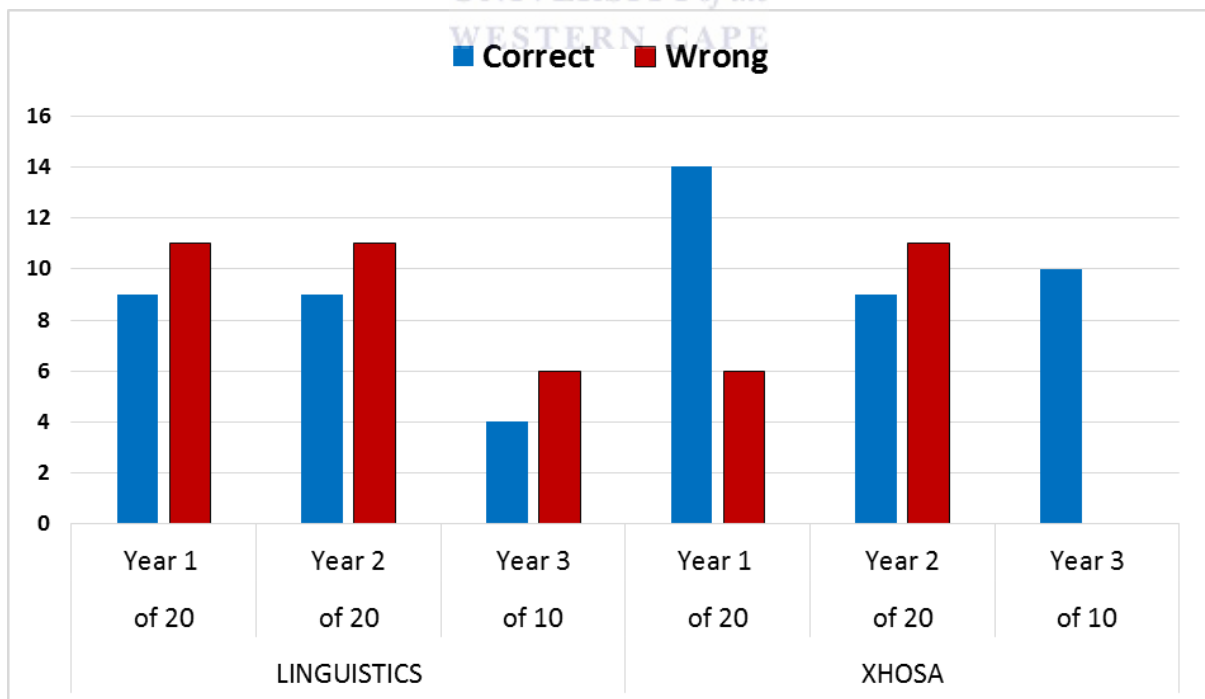
Table 6.5 demonstrates that only 44% of respondents from Linguistics department were able to correctly underline the sentence defining the definiendum that they had previously identified. Of 50 respondents from Xhosa department, 33 (66%) were able to correctly identify the definiens within the given text. These results demonstrate that the majority of

students (56%) from Linguistics department did not perform well, while the majority of Xhosa students (66%) performed well in identifying the definiens given to definiendum *selection* or *amaqhina qashi qashi* ‘riddles’.

Comparing the results of table 6.5 with those provided in Table 6.3, it is evident that whereas 54% of Linguistics students and 88% of Xhosa students correctly identified the definienda in the respective passages, lower numbers (44% for Linguistics and 66% for Xhosa) were able to identify definientia. This reveals that although respondents were able to identify the concepts being defined, some of them did not provide the correct meanings of those concepts. The cross-tabulation results presented in figure 6.3 identify which students performed better than others.



Figure 6.3: Students’ responses according to their years of study (Question 2.ii)



With respect to the English questionnaire, data presented in Figure 6.3 show that the majority of students from all years of study in Linguistics (11 of 20 of each of first and second year; and 6 of 10 of third year) were not able to identify the following sentence (definiens): *this stage entails choosing the dialect to be used as the standard form or picking the dialects which are then unified or harmonized to form the standard language*. The failure to spot this sentence provides evidence that students did not recognize the synonymous relation existing between the word *step* and the word *stage*, and between *selecting* and *choosing*. In addition, the results suggest that students from Linguistics were not aware that a definiendum may be detached from its definiens. Within this questionnaire, the most underlined part was *is logically seen as the first step towards the **standardization of a language***. The underlying causes of this failure may vary from one student to another. For instance, for some students who thought that the term highlighted in bold was foregrounded for a certain reason, it may not be easy for them to ignore that concept, hence its identification as a definiendum. For those students who identified 'selection' as the definiendum, some of them may have assumed that what follow the concept being defined are always the definator and definiens as is evident in high school textbooks where definienda are immediately followed by definitors and definentia.

Regarding the Xhosa questionnaire, it is clear that all third year students (10 of 10) were able to identify the definiens, while the majority of students who failed to give a correct answer belong to second year (11 of 20). Those who failed to identify the correct answer underlined the following: *abanye bathi ngamaquina qashi qashi abanye basebenzisa egama lemboleko bathi ngoorayi rayi (oorayirayi)* (mostly people call them riddles or brain teasers). The identification of this sentence may be due to the fact that students were not able to distinguish a definition from an introductory background or elaboration. Within this clause, the definer

pointed out that some people may use the concept *amaquina qashi qashi*, while others may say *oorayirayi*. Admittedly while the concept *oorayirayi* is correct because it is a lexicographic definition (or synonym) of *amaquina qashi qashi*, providing that concept was not good enough because of the fact that there was a definiens or a predicate for both *oorayirayi* and *amaquina qashi qashi* in the passage. In addition, providing *oorayirayi*, within this context, was not good enough because students were required to underline the sentence that defines *amaquina qashi qashi*.

Applying Chi-Square tests to the data, with department or language of the text as independent variable, indicated a significant difference in responses between students in Linguistics (English) and in isiXhosa (Chi-square = 4.040, df = 1, p = .044). The P-value, being less than .05, suggests that there is a very strong relationship between students' performance and the language of the text. That is to say that, it is statistically significant that students who performed the tasks in the isiXhosa questionnaire (Xhosa department) performed better than those who performed the same tasks in the English version (Linguistics). The findings suggest that students' ability to identify definienda may have been influenced by the language within which the definition was written. This result, like some of the others presented earlier, in part support the idea of students' performance being better when they are taught and assessed in their home languages. Of course, the observation that the students in the Xhosa department or those in Linguistics for whom English was home language did not always perform well, also shows that claim of home language is not an automatic key to academic literacy in that language.

6.4 Identifying a definition based on its definator

With respect to this theme, the researcher provided definitions with a variety of definitors. The challenge in these questions was to see if students would recognize different types of definitors. For instance, within the English version, a definition of *language attrition* was provided with different types of definitors such as *a comma* (,), *a colon* (:), *is described as* and *is known as*. Students were expected to select what they thought was or were definition(s) of the concept of *language attrition*. Textbox 6.7 is Question ‘1’ from the English questionnaire:

Textbox 6.7: English passage in which the definition was to be identified

Which of the following is or are definitions(s) of the concept of ‘language attrition’: Draw a circle/circles around the correct option(s) below:

- i. The process by which language skills become rusty, or even forgotten altogether is known as language attrition.
- ii. Language attrition, a process that occurs naturally in bilingual and multilingual speakers when there is a change in the patterns of language use, and one of the languages is not used as often as it previously was.
- iii. Language attrition: a non-pathological loss in language proficiency that had previously been acquired by an individual.
- iv. Language attrition is described as a non-pathological decrease in language proficiency.
- v. All of the above

For the corresponding isiXhosa item, the researcher provided a list of definitions of *intloko* with a variety of definitors such as *isenokuba* ‘may be’, *isenokubhekisa* ‘may refer to’, *kungathethwa* ‘can be’ and *ubizwa ngokuba* ‘can be referred to’ (see textbox 6.8).

Textbox 6.8: IsiXhosa passage in which the definition was to be identified

Kwezi zivakalisi zingezantsi, khetha inkcazelo yegama ‘intloko’. Bonisa ngo ‘X’ kwibhokisi.

- i. Intloko isenokuba ngumbandela othethela phezu kwawo okanye obhala ngawo.
- ii. Intloko isenokubhekisa kumbandela othethela phezu kwawo okanye obhala ngawo.
- iii. Xa kuthethwa ngentloko kungathethwa ngombandela othethela phezu kwawo okanye obhala ngawo.
- iv. Umbandela othethela phezu kwawo okanye obhala ngawo kuthiwa okanye ubizwa ngokuba yintloko.
- v. Zonke ezi zingasentla.

English translation follows (but not provided to participants):

Which of the following is or are definitions(s) of the concept of ‘intloko’: indicate the answer by writing ‘X’ in the box

- i. A Theme may be the topic you write about or a subject you want to discuss.
- ii. A Theme may refer to a subject you talk about or write about.
- iii. When referring to a theme it can be a subject that you are discussing or a topic you write about.
- iv. A topic you write about or discuss can be referred to as a theme.
- v. All of the above

Notice that all options provided in textboxes 6.7 and 6.8 were correct. Table 6.6 presents the results of respondents from both Linguistics and Xhosa departments.

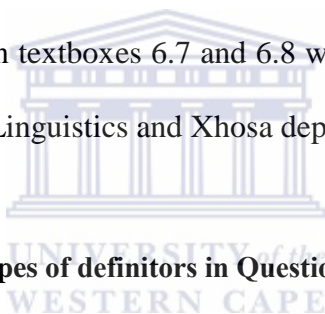
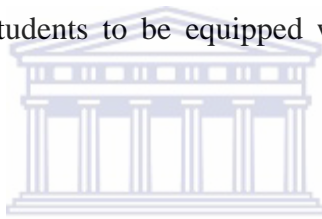


Table 6.6: Recognising different types of definitors in Question ‘1’

Department	Answer	Frequency	Percent
Linguistics (English)	Correct	9	18.0
	Wrong	41	82.0
	Total	50	100.0
Xhosa (isiXhosa)	Correct	31	62.0
	Wrong	19	38.0
	Total	50	100.0

Table 6.6 indicates that only 18% of respondents from Linguistics were aware that all options were definitions of *language attrition*, while 62 % of respondents from Xhosa department were able to tell that all options listed were definitions of *intloko* ‘topic’. The majority of students who failed in English did not select options 1.i, 1.iii and 1.iv in textbox 6.7. The

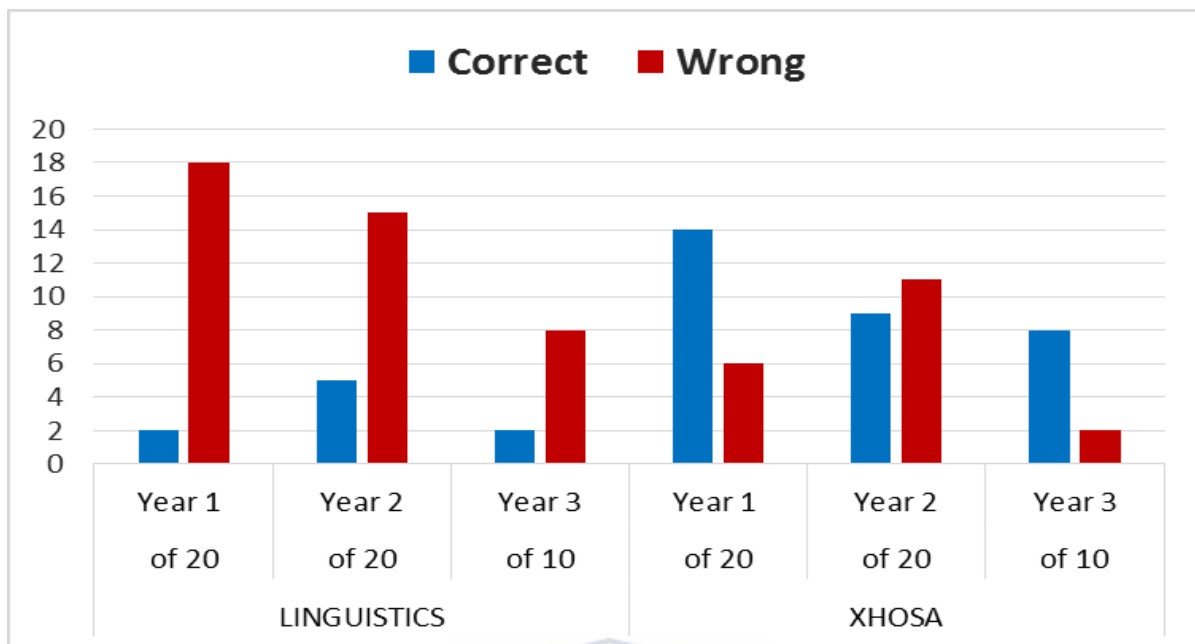
rejection of option *1.i* suggests that some students were not aware of the fact that a definiendum may also be placed in the final position with reference to the location of its definiens. Even though the identification of definitions required students to be equipped with a set of basic skills in terms of definitors, students' success in identifying definitions depended upon other variables, such as the knowledge of concepts used in the definition and of the sociocultural setting within which the concept was being used. For example, the elimination of these two options (*1.iii* and *1.iv*) may be due to different factors. Besides the lack of knowledge of definitors, another factor may be the term used to define a concept. For example, the definition of 'language attrition' as *a non-pathological loss or decrease* may be more difficult to grasp than its description as a process. The ability to identify the other two options as definitions required students to be equipped with the meaning of that medical phraseology (non-pathological).



With respect to Xhosa definitions, the majority of those students who got Question '1' wrong, selected option *1.i* or *1.ii* in textbox 6.8. The findings suggest that these students were used to *isenokuba* 'may be' and *isenokubhekisa* 'may refer to' as definitors in defining concepts. Another reason for these choices may be the fact that both definienda were situated in initial position compared to other options parts of the list. Thus, the rejection of other options by the majority of respondents suggests that those students were not equipped with the knowledge of that a definiendum may be placed in the medial or final position within the entire definition.

The cross-tabulation results presented in Figure 6.4 demonstrate which group (Linguistics and Xhosa) and which year of study performed better than the other.

Figure 6.4: Students’ responses according to their year of study (Question ‘1’)



The results presented in Figure 6.4 highlight that the majority of students across all years of study in Linguistics were not able to recognise that every option provided in textbox 6.7 was a definition of ‘language attrition’. The higher number of wrong answers belongs to students from first year (18 of 20). Of 20 second year students, 15 were not able to correctly answer the question, while of 10 students from third year, those who failed amounted to 8. For the isiXhosa questionnaire, the findings also indicate that the majority of respondents were able to identify all definitions listed in Question ‘1’. The higher number of correct responses belongs to students from first year (14 of 20), while the higher number of incorrect answers belongs to students from second year (11 of 20).

The Chi-square tests showed very strong evidence of a relationship between students’ performance and the language of the text (Chi-square = 18.375, df = 1, $p < .05$). The P-value, being less than .05, suggests that the language medium of the text affected the way students performed. The findings showed that the majority (62%) of students from Xhosa department

were able to recognise a variety of definitors used within the definition of *intloko* ‘topic’, while 82% of students from Linguistics were not able to correctly answer the corresponding question. The failure of students from Linguistics would probably be associated with the language used in defining. Thus, students’ lack of appropriate academic literacy skills in terms of defining concepts within a particular language may negatively affect the way they interpret and deconstruct definitions.

6.5 Recognizing or spotting a definition within a text

The following section presents students’ responses on Questions 5.i. In these questions, students from both Linguistics and Xhosa departments were given a text and they were then required to state whether the given text was a definition or not. Although the passage in textbox 6.9 was seen previously in section 6.1, it served a different purpose then. The purpose then was to identify the concept being defined (*definiendum*), whereas in the current context the purpose is to state whether or not there is a definition in the given passage. Textbox 6.9 presents the passage given to students from Linguistics:

Textbox 6.9: English passage in which a definition was to be spotted

Read the following passage carefully and then answer the questions that follow:

Studying communication in context means taking note of not only what is communicated, but also of who communicates with whom, in what setting, for what purpose and according to which norms and social conventions; which attitudes and ideologies underlie the communication, and, of course, which languages or language varieties and styles are selected by the speakers as appropriate for the messages they want to communicate.

Is the above text a definition? Tick your option:

YES

NO

Textbox 6.10 has the corresponding question for students from the Xhosa department:

Textbox 6.10: IsiXhosa passage in which a definition was to be spotted

Funda lo mhlathi ungezantsi uze uphendule imibuzo elandelayo:

Into eyayingekho kule mfundo yemveli luhbalo; yonke into yayithethwa ngomlomo ibhaleke ezingqondweni, ize ke izizukulwana ezingaphambili ziyidlulise kwezilandelayo. Njengoko sekuchaziwe kwisahluko sokuqala apha ngentla, le mfundo yemveli yayinalo uncwadi, lwaye olu ncwadi njengolu lwanamhlanje, lwalunayo iprozi (naprozi iprozi le ibalisayo - narrative prose). Ziintsomi ezi ke ezo. Imbangi yokuba kuthiwe umntu wenza intsomi xa exoka, kukuba uninzi lwala mabali abalisa ngezinto ezingenakwenzeka nangamazwe angekhoyo nangezilwanyana ezingekhoyo. Nakubeni kunjalo ke kambe, iintsomi ezi ngamabalana amafutshane angumfuziselo onqatyisiweyo wobomi boluntu, nanjongo yawo ikukuqulunqa nokunqwanqwada isimo somntu, nokuzoba ububanzi bemihlaba ehanjwa ziingcinga zomntu ekuzingeleni izisombululo zokuchaza iimfihlelo zendalo, kwakunye nokuqaqambisa izenzo zobuqhawe zamaqhawe namaqhawekazi esizwe.

(Imvelaphi: Satyo, Zotwana, Yapi, Gxilisce & Dikeni, 'Sasinoncwadi Kwatanci', 1993:10)

Ingaba zikhona iinkcazelo kulo mhlathi ugentla?

Ewe

Hayi

English translation follows (but not provided to participants):

Read the following passage and then answer the questions that follow:

The traditional literature was not written, everything was passed on by word of mouth, committed to memory and retold to future generations. As already indicated in the first chapter above, this traditional literature was in book form in a way which is similar to our modern literature; it had prose even (narrative prose that is). These were folklores and tall tales. The reason that people say you are telling tales when you lie is because most stories were about events that were not real, based in countries that did not exist and on animals that were not real. Even though that may be the case, these tales are short stories that are in figurative form about human life. The aim is to form and discipline the community, as well as demonstrate the breadth of the human thoughts in finding a particular solution and finding it in nature. It also highlights desirable qualities such as bravery, tells of heroes and heroines of the nation.

Are there any definitions in the above passage?

Yes

No

These questions were given to students to evaluate whether or not they are able to spot definitions within a certain passage. The answer expected for both passages was 'yes'. Table 6.7 presents the findings:

Table 6.7: Students’ ability to recognise definitions in Question ‘5i’

Department	Answer	Frequency	Percent
Linguistics (English)	Correct	28	56.0
	Wrong	22	44.0
	Total	50	100.0
Xhosa (isiXhosa)	Correct	45	90.0
	Wrong	5	10.0
	Total	50	100.0

Of 50 respondents from Linguistics department, only 28 (56%) students from Linguistics were able to identify the given text as a definition. With respect to the isiXhosa questionnaire, 45 (or 90%) students from Xhosa department were able to state that there was a definition in the text given to them. The fact that the majority of students from Xhosa department were able to spot a definition within the given text is perhaps evidence that academic literacy practices may be enhanced when the home language is used. The cross-tabulation results presented in Figure 6.5 below demonstrate which group (Linguistics and Xhosa) and which year of study performed better than the other.

Figure 6.5: Responses against year of study (Question 5.i)

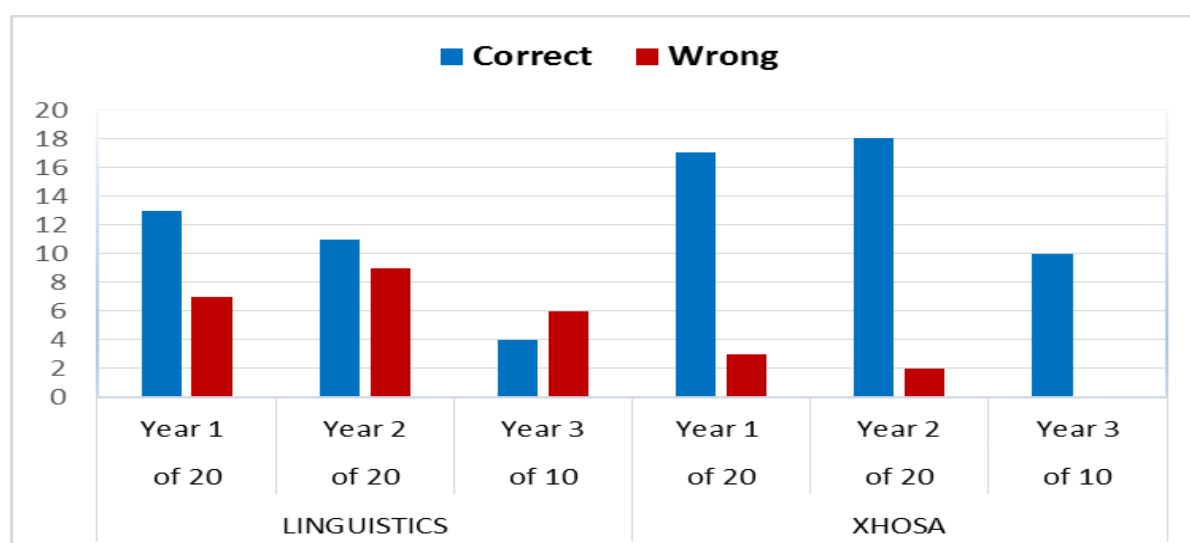


Figure 6.5 indicates that of 20 first year students from Linguistics, 13 were able to identify the given text as a definitional text, of 20 second year students 11 were also able to identify the definition, while nearly three quarters of third year students (6 of 10) failed. Concerning the isiXhosa questionnaire, the findings show that the majority of students from Xhosa department (90%) were able to correctly answer the question by stating that the given text contained a definition. The high number of correct answers belongs to students from second year (18 of 20). Of 20 first year students 17 and all third year students (10 of 10) were able to spot a definition within the given text.

The Chi-Square tests with the language of the text as the independent variable indicated that there was significantly a difference between students' performance (Chi-square = 12.988, $df = 1$, $p < .05$). That is to say that it was statistically significant that students from Xhosa department performed better than those from Linguistics. The predominance of correct answers among students from Xhosa department suggests that identifying a definition produced in the home language is somehow much easier than identifying definitions written in languages other than home languages. However, it is perhaps important to recall from Chapter 5 that the definitional structures were more complex within English textbooks.

6.6 Producing a definition

Students' ability to define concepts was evaluated using Question '3'. Students were asked to first read a given text and then to formulate a definition of the concept elaborated in the passage. Textboxes 6.11 and 6.12 present the passages for both groups:

Textbox 6.11: IsiXhosa passage in which a definition was to be formulated

Funda lo mhlathi ungezantsi uze uphendule umubuzo ulandelayo:

Ukuguqa okanye umdudo omncinci

Ekuseni ngemini yokutshata, abantu baya baye kuthi thande enkundleni- amadoda kwelawo icala nabafazi ngokunjalo. Umtshakazi uphuthunywa ngabafo ababini, eziswe ehamba namabhinqa amane. Enye indoda ihamba phambili ize le yesibini ihambe emva. Umtshakazi lo kunye naba bafazi eza nabo beza begqunyiwe, bafike ke baguqe phambi kwamadoda amakhulu. Wona laa madoda ebeza naba bantu agunyaziswa ukuba makabatyhile ngoku. Hayi ke, mfondini, iimpobole zondle amehlo azo zibuke ubuhle bomtshakazi naba bane ebeza nabo.

(Imvelaphi: Satyo, 'Uphengululo LwesiXhosa: Amabanga 9 nele 10', 1994:47)

Inkcazelo ishwankathela intsingiselo yegama, kwaye yahlula igama kwamanye afana nalo. Funda lo mhlathi ugentla, wandule ubhale isivakalisi esinye apho unika intsingiselo yegama 'ukuguqa' okanye 'umdudo omncinci'?

English translation follows (not provided to students):

Read the following passage carefully and then answer the following question:

Ukuguqa okanye umdudo omncinci

Early in the morning of the wedding day, people will gather and sit in the middle of the homestead and sit arranged by their sexes; men on the one side and women on the other side. Two young men will be sent to get the bride; she will then come out accompanied by four young women. One of the men will walk in front and the second one will be at the back. The bride and the young women that accompany her will come with their heads covered; they will then kneel before the older men. The young men who brought them are then given authority to lift the veils that cover the women. How splendid the sight to behold! People feast their eyes on the beauty of the bride and her four companions.

A definition summarizes the meaning of a concept, and makes it possible to distinguish/differentiate the concept from another related concept. Based on the passage you have just read, write one sentence to define ukuguqa or umdudo omncinci.

Textbox 6.12 has the corresponding question for students from the Linguistics department:

Textbox 6.12: English passage in which a definition was to be formulated

Read the following passage carefully and then answer the question below:

In English, pitch variation creates different intonation patterns. Intonation operates over longer stretches of speech, affecting whole utterances. In other languages, pitch can also distinguish between the denotational meanings (dictionary meanings) of words. Such languages are called tone languages. The example which is commonly given in textbooks is Mandarin Chinese.

A definition summarizes the meaning of a concept, and makes it possible to distinguish/differentiate the concept from another related concept. Based on the passage you have just read, write one sentence to define 'tone language'.

These questions were asked with the intention of evaluating whether or not students were able to succinctly define concepts given in the textbooks by drawing on information provided by authors. Notice, for instance, in the case of English, that all components of the definiens were distributed within the passage. Within the above texts (see textbox 6.11 and 6.12), both definienda (*tone language* and *ukuguqa* ‘to kneel’ or *umdudo omncinci* or ‘slow dance’) are not explicitly stated. The reader is the one with the responsibility of formulating an appropriate definition of his or her own, by selecting words which can explain better the concept *tone language* or *ukuguqa* or *umdudo omncinci*.

Students’ responses were marked, then classified using a categorical nominal measurement scale comprising the following categories: well-formulated or correct definitions; partially correct (or half-correct) definitions; and incorrect definitions. For the English *tone language*, the model definition against which marking and assignment of students’ responses to the above three categories was done, was as follows: “*a tone language is a language within which the variation in pitch can create different intonation patterns to distinguish between the denotational meanings of words*”. For the isiXhosa, the model definition for *ukuguqa* or *umdudo omncinci* was as follows: *ukuguqa or umdudo omncinci lisiko elenziwa ekuseni ngemini yokutshata apho umtshakazi eqgunyiwe eguqa phambi kwamadoda amakhulu agunyaziswa ukuba makabatyhile ngoku ukwenzela ukuba iimpobole zondle amehlo azo zibuke ubuhle bomtshakazi* (ukuguqa or umdudo omncinci is a traditional ceremony taking place in the morning on the day of the wedding whereby the covered bride is presented and gets uncovered while kneeling in front of the elderly men of the groom’s family so that they can appraise her or feast their eyes on her beauty).

A partially correct definition would be one that omitted some information required to sufficiently identify the concept. Examples of definitions categorised as partially correct are presented below:

Example 1:

“Pitch can distinguish between the denotational meanings of words in some languages, they are referred to as tone languages” (A second year student from Linguistics).

Although example 1 included some elements to be contained in a definition of a tone language, this definition was marked as partially correct because of some other elements that are missing. The student, should for example, not omit the fact that the variation or change in pitch is the one that creates different meanings of a word within a tone language. Example 2 below is another definition given by a first year student from Xhosa department:

Example 2:

“Umdudo omncinci kulapho umtshakazi eqgunyiwe nabakowabo abafazana bafike baguqephantsi kwakulomyeni” (Umdudo omncinci is when the covered bride who is escorted by other women goes and kneels in front of the husband’s relatives). This definition was formulated by a third year student from Xhosa department.

Even though the student provided some important elements of the definition of *umdu* *omncinci* (see example 2 above), this definition was not marked as complete because the student did not specify the fact that the bride kneels only in front of the elderly men. The gender was also crucial to this definition as husband’s relatives would include women and kids. In addition, the student left out other important elements such as the purpose of this event which was for the elder men to appraise or recognize the beauty of the bride.

An incorrect definition would be one that would misrepresent the concept, or hardly make it possible for the concept to be identified. With respect to English definitions that were marked as wrong or inaccurate, the following are examples of those definitions:

Example 3:

“Tone language is a language that expresses the denotational meaning of words using tone” (A third year student from Linguistics).

In example 3 above, even though the student was able to give the genus by stating that *a tone language* is a language, this definition was marked as inaccurate because it is partially a circular definition in the sense that it makes use of tone (part of the definiendum) in the definiens. It being circular can be a problem for those readers who would probably have to proceed and look elsewhere for the meaning of ‘tone’. Notice that the concept being defined or the definiendum should not reappear in the definiens (Sweet 2013; Berthoff 1982) because a concept cannot be defined by itself. Other examples include the following:

Example 4:

“Tone language refers to the way spoken words are uttered in different manners” (This was given by a second year student from Linguistics).

Example 5:

“Tone language is the way in which the message comes across to the person in terms of the sound voice” (A first year student from Linguistics).

Example 6:

“Tone language is how language sounds are produced” (A definition given by a second year student from Linguistics).

Examples 4, 5 and 6 above were marked as wrong because they do not at all define what a *tone language* is. The focus of these two definitions was on how people may change their pitch when speaking, communicating or producing sounds and not on how the variation in pitch can, in some languages, create different meanings of words that phonologically would sound alike.

The following examples from Xhosa questionnaire were also classified as wrong:

Example 7:

“*Umdudo omncinci ukuba kukwaziswa komtshakazi*” (Umdudo omncinci is when a bride is presented or introduced). This definition was given by a third year student.

Example 8:

“*Ukuguqa - umtshakazi xa etshata uhamba eguqa phambi komyeni wakhe, apho umyeni wakhe ambone ubuwe bakhe*” (Ukuguqa is when a bride who is getting married goes and kneels in front of her husband, and then the husband sees her beauty). A definition given by a first year student.

In these above examples, even though students were able to give some elements that are related to the correct definition of the word *umdudo omncinci*, this does not define what this concept is. For instance, in example 7 above, where *umdudo omncinci* is defined as ‘when a bride is introduced’, the definition is not clear because there may be other different events within which a bride may be presented. Defining *ukuguqa* or *umdudo omncinci* as such does not really clarify what this concept means. The example 8 above was also marked as wrong because what the student stated was totally different from what is stated in the given text. To be called *ukuguqa* or *umdudo omncinci* the bride has to kneel in front of the elderly men of her husband’s family and not in front of her husband himself.

Another example is the one that was provided by a second year student (see example

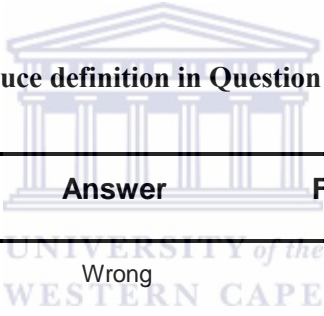
Example 9:

“*Ukuguqa kukuzithoba kwaye kuxhomekeka kwiimeko oziguqelayo ezifana nokuthandaza, ukucela ububele no kuzithoba.*” (Ukuguqa is whereby one kneels as one prays, humbles oneself before a superior or asking in a humble way).

Example 9 above was also marked as wrong because the student lacked the knowledge of linguistic and/or socio-cultural context within which ‘ukuguqa or omdudo omncinci’ is being used or defined. The student did not realise that the definer had assigned another meaning to ukuguqa (normally meaning ‘to kneel’), hence its definition as such.

Table 6.8 presents the results given to Question ‘3’:

Table 6.8: Students’ ability to produce definition in Question ‘3’



Department	Answer	Frequency	Percent
Linguistics (English)	Wrong	42	84.0
	Partially correct	7	14.0
	Correct	1	2.0
	Total	50	100.0
Xhosa (isiXhosa)	Wrong	44	88.0
	Partially correct	6	12.0
	Correct	0	0.0
	Total	50	100.0

Table 6.8 shows that of 100 students from both departments, only one student (1%) from Linguistics department was able to provide a well-formulated definition. This student defined *tone language* as follows:

Example 10:

“Tone language is a language in which pitch variation creates different intonation patterns and also distinguishes between the denotational meanings of words.”

The results further show that only 7 of 49 students from Linguistics and 6 of 50 from Xhosa department were able to provide a definition considered to be partially correct, while a sum of 42 students from Linguistics and 44 students from Xhosa department were not able to provide a correct or a partially correct definition.

Figure 6.6 presents the cross-tabulation results showing which group (Linguistics and Xhosa) and which year of study performed better than the other.

Figure 6.6: Students’ responses according to their year of study (Question ‘3’)

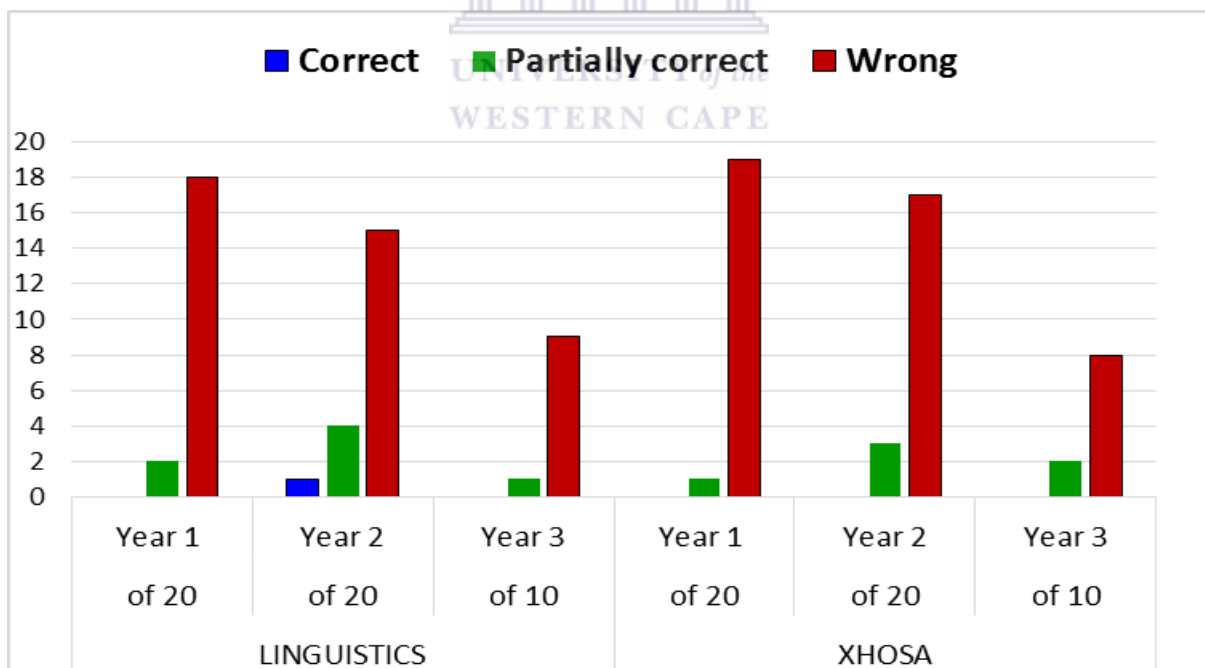


Figure 6.6 indicates that only one student from second year in Linguistics was able to formulate an appropriate definition of the given definiendum (see example 10 above). Of 20

first year students 2 were able to partially define ‘tone language’, of 20 second year students 4 were able to provide a half-correct answer, while of 10 third year students only 1 partially defined the given definiendum. Those who failed to formulate a definition amounted to 18 (of 20) in the first year, to 15 (of 20) in the second year, while those from third year amounted to 9 (of 10). With respect to isiXhosa, the findings show that only 1 of 20 first year students, 3 of 20 second year students and 2 of 10 third year students were able to provide a half-correct answer. Within this department, the remaining students (44 of 50) failed to define *ukuguqa or umdudo omncinci*.

Unlike with previous datasets, Chi-Square tests with the language of the text as the independent variable indicated that the two groups (Linguistics students and Xhosa students) were not significantly different from each other (Chi-square = 2.301, df = 2, p = .316). Both groups are comparable. Within this context, the language of the text (proxy for home language) did not have an effect on how students performed in producing definitions. The findings suggest that students from both departments were not able to structure a definition, hence the need for explicit teaching as recommended by the academic literacies model. The data presented here basically confirms the view made by Henning *et al.*, (2005:91) when they mentioned that “it is not so easy to write a definition”.

Also students’ inability to produce well-formulated definitions confirms Thompson’s (2007) claim stating that defining is a troublesome activity for students. With such findings, it is evident that students from both departments were not able to synthesize, paraphrase and spot the key-words upon which the text was built. The significance of this finding needs to be viewed against the backdrop of the ubiquitous nature of questions requiring students to define in assessment tasks.

6.7 Making a distinction between a definition and a non-definition

With respect to this theme, the researcher aimed to evaluate students' ability to distinguish a definition from definitional metadiscourse, e.g. background to definition or elaboration of definition. What was previously referred to as encyclopaedic definition might in some cases pass for an explanation, and so it is admitted that this task could easily be seen as requesting the students to distinguish between explanation cum encyclopedic definition and other types of definitions. The researcher provided text excerpts, and students were required to identify which text they thought was an explanation, rather than a definition. For Linguistics, the text excerpts were on *schemas*, while for isiXhosa the text excerpts were on *izifanokuthi* (synonyms). Textbox 6.13 presents the isiXhosa task.

Textbox 6.13: IsiXhosa passage in which an explanation was to be identified

Kwezi zivakalisi zingezantsi, khetha eyona nkcazelo/nkcaza ye/zegama 'izifanokuthi'. Bonisa ngo 'X' kwibhokisi.

- i. Izifanokuthi ngamagama athetha into enye okanye anentsingiselo enye okanye eyeleleneyo.
- ii. Athetha into enye kodwa maxa wambi engenakho ukusetyenziswa endaweni enye.
- iii. Zonke ezi zingasentla

English translation follows (but not provided to participants):

Which of the following is or are definitions(s) of the concept of 'izifanokuthi': indicate the answer by writing 'X' in the box

- i. Synonyms are words that have the same or similar meaning.
- ii. They mean the same thing but sometimes cannot be used in the same sentence (or use will depend on context).
- iii. All of the above

Textbox 6.14 presents the English task.

Textbox 6.14: English passage in which an explanation was to be identified

Which of the following would you consider to be an explanation but not a definition?

- i. Schemas (mental knowledge structures that represent some aspects of the world).
- ii. Our schemas are dynamic in the sense that they are not fixed but are constantly revised as we encounter new experiences, acquire new knowledge and adjust our understanding of all aspects of life.
- iii. Schemas refer to the mental knowledge structures in the brain that represent a person's background knowledge of all aspects of life (e.g. what a lecture, lecturer and students are, and how they might interact in a university setting).

Note that these questions were posed to evaluate whether or not students are able to distinguish definitions from non-definitions. The correct responses expected were options 4.ii for both English and isiXhosa questionnaires. Students' responses to Questions 4 are presented in table 6.9 below:

Table 6.9: Distinguishing a definition from an explanation in Question '4'

Department	Answer	Frequency	Percent
Linguistics (English)	Correct	32	64.0
	Wrong	18	36.0
	Total	50	100.0
Xhosa (isiXhosa)	Correct	15	30.0
	Wrong	35	70.0
	Total	50	100.0

As table 6.9 shows, 64% of respondents from Linguistics were able to identify an explanation (that is, the excerpt that was not a definition), while in Xhosa department only 30% of respondents were successful. The findings indicate that, of the total sample size (50 students) from Xhosa department, 35 students provided a wrong answer by selecting options '4.i or 4.iii' instead of option '4.ii'. Most of the students confused the definition of 'izifanokuthi'

(synonyms) with its explanation. Figure 6.7 classifies students' performance on the explanation identification task according to the students' year of study and department:

Figure 6.7: Responses according to students' year of study and department (Question '4')

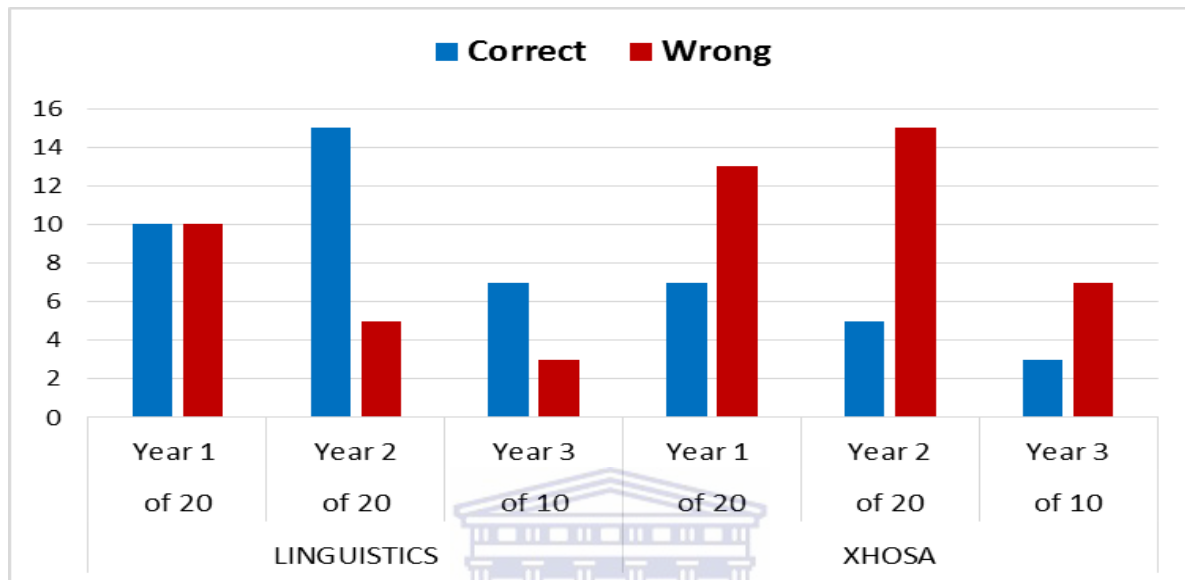


Figure 6.7 shows that a high number (32 of 50) of students from Linguistics department got the answer correct. Of 32 respondents who correctly answered the question, 10 (of 20) were from first year, 15 (of 20) were from second year, while 7 (of 10) were from third year. With respect to isiXhosa questionnaire, 13 of 20 first year students, 15 of 20 second years and 7 of 10 third year students were not successful in distinguishing a definition from an explanation.

The Chi-square tests with the language of the text as independent variable were also administered in order to test whether there was an association between students' performance and language of the text. The Chi-square results showed that the performance of students from Linguistics and the performance of respondents from Xhosa department were significantly different from each other (Chi-square = 10.277, df = 1, p = .001). One can conclude that the language had an effect on how linguistics students performed in the aforementioned question. According to the findings, the majority of students across all years

of study in Xhosa department were not able to make a distinction between a definition and an explanation. The failure to make a distinction between a definition and a non-definition may be due to the lack of basic surface skills such as knowledge of different components of a definition and of how those components are structured and/or organised in a definition. In other words, there is room for basic skills development in academic literacy development. In addition, it may also be due to the fact that students were not exposed to the culture of writing definitions and/or to the fact that they were not aware of what information should be contained in a definition. It could also be the case that the students in the Xhosa department had not, compared to the linguistics students, been exposed to writing containing formalisations of different explanatory sub-genres like definitions, elaborations, and so on.

6.8 Appropriateness of structures introducing definitions

A question on the correctness of structures for introducing definitions (see below) was given to students because of observations by my supervisor that students sometimes introduce definitions using structurally defective lead-ins. Students were given several passages in which definitions were introduced and asked to indicate which passage contained a faulty way of introducing a definition. See textbox 6.15 for the question given to the Linguistics' students and textbox 6.16 for the task given to students from Xhosa department:

Textbox 6.15: English passage in which a faulty way of introducing a definition was to be identified

Which of the following ways of introducing definitions is or are wrong?

- i. According to Hymes, he defined a **speech community** as ‘a group of people who have at least one language variety, and understand and share the rules for using this variety for communication in context.
- ii. According to Hymes, a speech community is defined as ‘a group of people who share at least one language variety, and understand and share the rules for using this variety for communication in context.
- iii. By speech community, Hymes (1972:54) means a community sharing rules or the conduct and interpretation of speech, and rules for the interpretation of at least one linguistic variety.
- iv. None of the above.
- v. All of i – iii above.

Textbox 6.16: IsiXhosa passage in which a faulty way of introducing a definition was to be identified

Kwezi ndlela zilandelayo zokunika inkcazelo, yeyiphi engalunganga:

- i. Ngokuka Hymes, uthi isichasi ligama elithetha into echaseneyo nelinye.
- ii. Isichasi, ngokuka Hymes, ligama elithetha into echaseneyo nelinye
- iii. Isichasi sichazwa nguHymes njengegama elithetha into echaseneyo nelinye
- iv. Ngokuka Hymes, isichasi ligama elithetha into echaseneyo nelinye
- v. Zonke ezi zingasentla
- vi. Ayikho kwezi zingasentla

English translation follows (but not provided to participants):

Which of the following ways of introducing definitions is or are wrong?

- i. According to Hymes, he says that an antonym is a word that means the opposite of another.
- ii. An antonym, according to Hymes, is a word that means the opposite of another.
- iii. An antonym is defined by Hymes as a word that means the opposite of another.
- iv. According to Hymes, an antonym is a word that means the opposite of another
- v. All of the above
- vi. None of the above.

Table 6.10 presents the results of Questions ‘6’ given to students from both Linguistics and Xhosa departments:

Table 6.10: Appropriateness of structures introducing definitions in Question ‘6’

Department	Answer	Frequency	Percent
Linguistics (English)	Correct	7	14.0
	Wrong	43	86.0
	Total	50	100.0
Xhosa (isiXhosa)	Correct	13	26.0
	Wrong	37	74.0
	Total	50	100.0

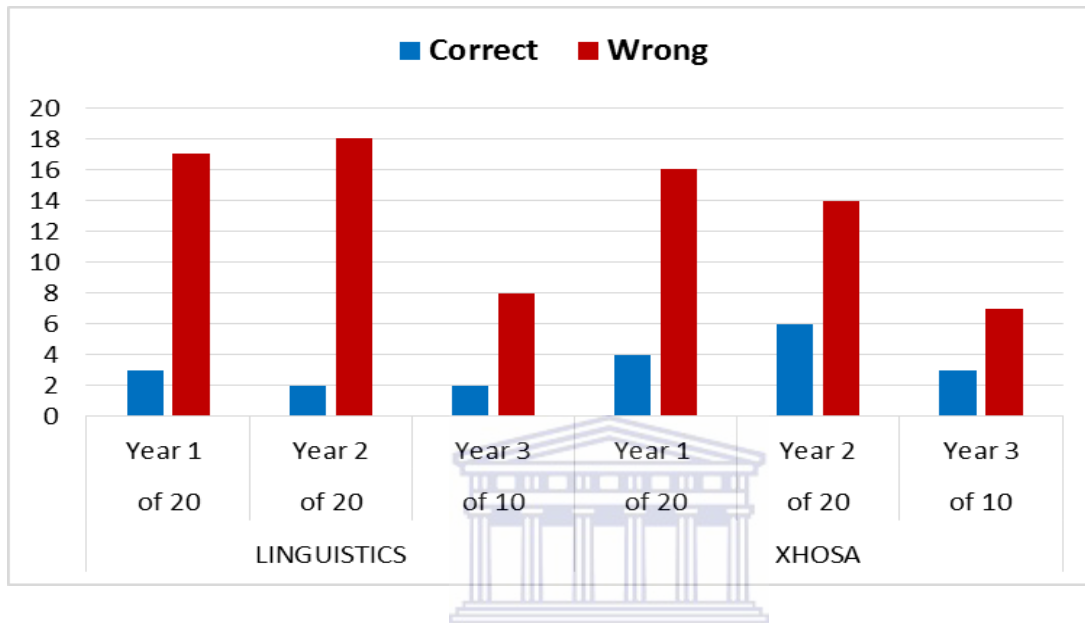
Table 6.10 shows that 86% of students in Linguistics and 74% in Xhosa were not able to identify the definition that was wrongly introduced within the given list. Of 50 students from Xhosa department, only 13 respondents were aware that this structure *ngokuka Hymes, uthi isichasi ligama elithetha into echaseneyo nelinye* (according to Hymes, he says that an antonym is a word that means the opposite of another) is not allowed in isiXhosa. As a preposition that allows the reporting of what someone said, ‘*according to* plus source of information’ cannot be followed by a pronoun representing (again) the source of the information.

The cross-tabulation results presented in figure 6.8 show which group (Linguistics and Xhosa) and which year of study performed better than the other.

Figure 6.8 below suggests that the majority of students in each year of study and across the departments were not able to identify a definition that was wrongly introduced. With respect to the English questionnaire, the findings show that only 3 of 20 first year students, 2 of 20 second years and 2 of 10 third year students were successful. With respect to students from Xhosa department, of the total sample (50), only 4 of 20 first years, 6 (of 20) second year

students and 3 of 10 third year students were able to correctly answer the question by identifying the definition that was wrongly introduced.

Figure 6.8: Responses to Question ‘6’ against students’ year of study and department



The Chi-square tests showed that there was no significant difference between the performances of students from both departments (Chi-square = 1.563, df = 1, p = .211). In other words, those groups are not significantly different from one another because students from both departments did not perform well. The findings suggest that students’ inability to recognize a definition that was wrongly introduced was not attributed to the language in which the questionnaire was written, but to some other factor(s).

6.9 Summary of the quantitative findings

This quantitative study aimed to evaluate students’ knowledge of definitions by means of the questionnaire. In many evaluated cases, the responses to the questionnaire showed that students from Xhosa department performed better than students from Linguistics. As the

chapter has already been quite lengthy, I will use a table rather than text to summarise the findings. See table 6.11.

Table 6.11: Summary of quantitative findings

<i>Questionnaire item/issue</i>	<i>Comparative performance (Linguistics vs. Xhosa students)</i>	<i>Significance (Chi-square tests)</i>	<i>Implications</i>
<i>Identifying a definiendum in a definition</i>	54% of Linguistics students successful vs. 88% of Xhosa students (Question 2.i)	P-value < 0.5 Home language was significant explanation of difference.	Identifying a definiendum shows how academic literacy can be socioculturally shaped, e.g. by the language medium of a text.
	3.6% of Linguistics students successful vs. 75.5% of Xhosa students (Question 5.ii)	P-value < 0.5 Home language was significant explanation of difference in students' performances	Same as above. Language of the text and the task were an advantage to the students from Xhosa department. Apart from the language having an effect on how students perform, there are also many other factors that may lead to students' success or failure in identifying definienda. For instance, if students are used to lexicographic

			<p>definitions, it might make sense that students would choose a single word as a definiendum.</p>
<p><i>Identifying the definiens corresponding to a definiendum</i></p>	<p>44% of Linguistics students successful vs. 66% of Xhosa students</p>	<p>P-value = 0.44 Home language was significant explanation of difference in the students' performance.</p>	<p>Same as above. The ability to link a definiens to its definiendum may have been influenced by the language within which the definition was written.</p> <p>With respect to English, the fact that the definiendum was detached from its definiens might explain why the majority of Linguistics' students failed to identify the definiens.</p>
<p><i>Identifying a definition based on its definator</i></p>	<p>18% of Linguistics students successful vs. 62% of Xhosa students</p>	<p>P-value < 0.5 Home language was significant explanation of difference.</p>	<p>Same as above. The language of the text and task had a positive effect on how students from Xhosa department performed.</p> <p>The findings have shown that isiXhosa corpus has a limited</p>

			number of definitors compared to English. So, students' lack of knowledge of those definitors can also lead to the failure in identifying definitors.
<i>Recognizing or spotting a definition within a text</i>	56% of Linguistics students successful vs. 90% of Xhosa students	P-value < 0.5 Home language was significant explanation of difference	Identifying a definition produced in the home language is somehow much easier than identifying definitions written in languages other than home languages.
<i>Producing definitions</i>	2% of Linguistics students successful vs. 0% of Xhosa students	P-value = .316 The language of the text (proxy for home language) did not have an effect on how students performed in producing definitions	Medium of instruction appears not to have had an influence on producing definitions as an issue of academic literacy, hence the need for explicit teaching as is recommended by the academic literacies model. Students' failure to produce a definition may be due to: - How the text upon which they must draw is

			<p>structured;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Students' lack of knowledge of the components of a definitions (what should be contained in a definition); or - The lack of awareness of the context within which a concept is being used or defined.
<p><i>Making a distinction between a definition and a non-definition</i></p>	<p>64% of Linguistics students successful vs. 30% of Xhosa students</p>	<p>P-value = .001</p> <p>The language medium of the text was significant explanation of difference</p>	<p>Students in Linguistics may have had greater exposure to texts containing different 'clarification' genres (definitions, elaborations) than the Xhosa students. This would confirm the claim in the academic literacies model that literacy practices are socioculturally shaped.</p> <p>Given that the majority of isiXhosa definitions were of lexicographic type, it might be difficult for students to make a distinction between a definition and</p>

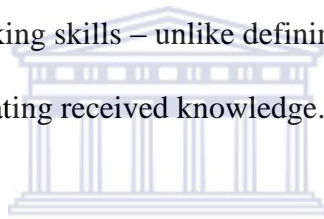
			an explanation. It might also be linked to students' lack of basic surface skills such as knowledge of different components of a definition and of how those components are structured and/or organised in a definition.
<i>Appropriateness of structures introducing definitions</i>	14% of Linguistics students successful vs. 26% of Xhosa students	P-value = .211 The two groups are not significantly different from one another in terms of performance.	Students' inability to recognize a definition that was wrongly introduced was not attributed to the language (English or isiXhosa) in which the questionnaire was written.

The next chapter concludes the dissertation by providing a summary of the findings in relation with each objective and key recommendations for further researches and for further improvements in students' academic literacy development.

7 Chapter Seven: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

This research examined the knowledge around definitions possessed by two groups of students (at the University of the Western Cape) studying isiXhosa and Linguistics respectively, based on relevant tasks they had to perform on isiXhosa and English language textbooks. A rationale for the study was the relative neglect of defining in the research on academic literacy, on the one hand, and, on the other, the observation that defining is a common task students have to perform in the course of their studies. It was noted that, increasingly, studies on academic literacy are focusing on practices and skills believed to be associated with higher-order thinking skills – unlike defining which is believed to be a simple matter of reproducing or regurgitating received knowledge.



As a result of the dearth of studies of definition in academic literacy contexts, little is known of the extent to which definitional knowledge may be central to efforts at developing the overall academic literacy of students. We do not know if the language in which students read academic texts (home language or second/third language) affects their ability to differentiate definitions from non-definitions, or to formulate definitions of concepts. We also observed that our knowledge was rather limited with respect to how different definitional structures affect the ability of students to recognize definitions in their study materials. Following from the foregoing, it is not clear how to intervene in order to make it explicit to students what may be expected of them in terms of defining in their academic work.

Considering these limitations in the existing research, this study was assigned the following objectives:

- To describe the structure of definitions in both the English and isiXhosa language textbooks;
- To assess students' awareness of the existence of different definitional structures in their textbooks;
- To determine the ability of students to identify the concepts being defined in specific passages;
- To assess students' ability to define concepts;
- To evaluate whether students are able to distinguish definitions from non-definitions;
- To evaluate whether students are aware of inappropriate ways of introducing definitions;
- To reflect on how the language of the textbook (home language versus second/third language of the students) impacts on the performance of students in assessments of definitional knowledge; and
- To reflect on how the construct of 'definitions' is an issue within students' academic literacy, and to suggest ways of embedding definitional knowledge into the academic literacy development of students studying in English and in isiXhosa.

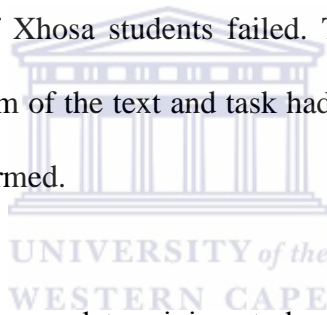
This chapter summarizes the major findings of the study related to each of the first seven objectives, then discusses the eighth objective. The section below summarizes the major findings of this research in order to determine the extent to which the objectives of this research were attained.

7.2 Summary of major findings

Summarized below are the research findings revealing to what extent each objective has been achieved. With respect to the first objective aiming to describe different definitional

structures occurring within the English and isiXhosa textbooks, the researcher qualitatively analysed definitional corpus taken from the aforementioned textbooks. The analysis took into account different structural parameters such as how components of a definition (definiendum, definator and definiens) are structured and organized. The findings presented in chapter 5 (see Table 5.1 to Table 5.7) illustrated that definitions were structured in different and complex ways according to the language or subject field. Findings provided evidence that the way definitions were structured in English was in many respects different from the way they were constructed in isiXhosa. For example, some definitions were provided together with other texts surrounding them. These co-texts included introductory or explanatory background to definition and elaboration or extended explanation. With respect to this, the findings showed that the majority of English definitions were sandwiched between introductory or explanatory background and elaboration or extended explanation, while the majority of isiXhosa definitions were only followed or accompanied (not preceded) by an elaboration or an extended explanation. In addition to this diversity, the components of a definition were structured or organised in different ways. For example, the findings showed that definienda were placed in initial or final position relative to the position of their definientia within the same sentence or clause; and that some definienda were not occurring within the same sentence as their definientia. These structures within which definienda and definientia occur in separate clauses were more dominant in English than they were in isiXhosa. The findings also revealed that the majority of isiXhosa definitions were of the lexicographic type, while the majority of English definitions were of the encyclopaedic nature. IsiXhosa corpus had a limited types of definitors, while the English one went beyond linguistic units by involving punctuation marks. Note that for isiXhosa, the findings showed that inflectional affixes can also serve as definitors. These findings underscored that the practice of definition is not an autonomous phenomenon; rather, it is shaped by a number of factors.

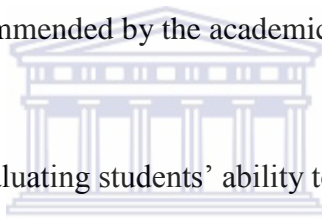
The second objective was on assessing students' awareness of the existence of different definitional structures in the textbooks. With respect to this, the study tested the following: students' awareness of a definiendum and definiens occurring in separate clauses; their knowledge of different types of definitors and ability to spot a definition within a text. With respect to the question requiring students to identify a definiens within a text, the findings showed that 44% of Linguistics students and 66% of Xhosa students were successful. The findings reported in chapter six also showed that 44% of students from Linguistics were not able to recognise a definitional text, while 90% of students from the Xhosa department were successful (see Table 6.7). With regard to the question in which definitions were provided with a range of definitors (see textboxes 6.7 and 6.8), it was discovered that 82% of Linguistics students and 38% of Xhosa students failed. The results from Chi-square tests revealed that the language medium of the text and task had a positive effect on how students from the Xhosa department performed.



With respect to the third objective on determining students' ability to identify the concepts being defined in a text, we saw that, on the two relevant tasks, students (88% and 75.5%) from the Xhosa department performed far better than those from Linguistics (54% and 3.6%). For example, with respect to Question 5.ii given to students from Linguistics, of the total sample (see table 6.4), only one student was able to correctly identify the definiendum. These results provided evidence that the language of the text and the task were an advantage to the students from Xhosa department.

Objective 4 was on assessing students' ability to produce definitions. This objective was addressed as follows: students from both the Linguistics and the Xhosa departments were given text excerpts elaborating on different concepts. They were then required to draw on that

information and come up with a definition. For this purpose, students' definitions were marked as either correct, partially correct or wrong. It was discovered that there was no significant difference between the performances of students from different departments. The findings indicated that of 100 respondents only one student from Linguistics was able to provide an adequate definition. Negative responses showed that some students might not be aware of how to draw on the given information and come up with essential information to be contained in a definition, while others might be unaware of the fact that a concept could be assigned a particular meaning with reference to the context within which that concept is being used or interpreted. One can conclude that the language medium of instruction appears not to have had an influence on producing definitions as an issue of academic literacy, hence the need for explicit teaching as recommended by the academic literacies model.



With respect to objective 5 on evaluating students' ability to distinguish definitions from non-definitions, students were given text excerpts (definitions and definitional metadiscourses), and were then expected to identify which text they thought was an explanation, rather than a definition. The findings presented in table 6.9 indicated that the majority of students from the Xhosa department (70%) were not able to make a distinction between a definition and an elaboration (or non-definition), while for Linguistics, those who failed amounted to 36%. These findings would suggest that students from Linguistics may have had greater exposure to texts containing different 'clarification' genres (definitions, elaborations) than the students from the Xhosa department. This would also confirm the claim, in the academic literacies model, that literacy practices are socio-culturally shaped. Thus, the Xhosa students' underperformance highlights the importance of making explicit different conventions and rules associated with defining concepts.

Objective 6 was on evaluating whether students are aware of inappropriate ways of introducing definitions. With regard to this objective, a task to be performed by students was as follows: students were given a list of passages containing definitions introduced differently, and they were then asked to identify a definition that was wrongly introduced. The findings presented in table 6.10 demonstrated that the majority of students from both Linguistics (86%) and Xhosa (74%) departments were not aware of a definition that was inappropriately introduced. The results from Chi-Square tests revealed that there was no significant difference between the performances of students from both departments. The failure of the majority of students from both departments underlines the academic literacies model's claim of the need for explicit teaching of conventions and procedures associated with each literacy practice or genre.



Objective 7 was on reflecting on how the language medium of the text impacts on the performance of students in assessments of definitional knowledge. This objective was very significant to this research in the sense that it allowed us to evaluate whether or not the home language necessarily enhances students' academic performance of tasks on definitions. In other words, we wanted to know if the language in which students read academic texts (home language /second or third language) affects their ability to differentiate definitions from non-definitions, or to formulate definitions of concepts. Some findings showed that the language medium of a text and the type of a task may have an effect on how students performed (see table 6.11). Other findings (see table 6.8 and 6.10) provided evidence that the language medium of a text appears not to have had an influence on students' performance in terms of defining concepts and recognizing how definitions are introduced within academic textbooks.

In addition, data from Table 6.9 showed that Linguistics students (64%) performed better than those from the Xhosa department (30%) in distinguishing a definition from a non-definition. These findings challenge the idea that the home language always has a positive effect on students' performance. Although we can conclude that the language can have a positive or negative contribution to the students' performance, we cannot ignore the fact that students must first be taught how to do things, hence the need for explicit teaching as the academic literacies model suggests.

Objective 8 was on reflecting on how the construct of 'definitions' is an issue within students' academic literacy, and on suggesting ways of embedding definitional knowledge into the academic literacy development of students studying in English and in isiXhosa. What the findings of this study would suggest is that the construct of a definition is an important and problematic issue in students' academic literacy. This concern was underscored by data showing students not being aware of what definiendum is being defined in a text; their not being able to make a distinction between a definition and an elaboration; their not being able to adequately define concepts; their not being aware of different definitors (or the link between a definiendum and a definiens); their not being able to identify the definiens corresponding to a definiendum; and their not being aware of inappropriate ways of introducing definitions.

The findings also suggested that complex definitional structures might challenge students who were not prepared or consciously exposed to these definitional structures. Knowing the construct of a definition is about knowing that a definiendum can come after the definiens or before it; that a definiendum and its definiens can be in the same or in different sentences; and that a definiendum can be a noun (single or multi-word) or a verb. It is also about

knowing that a definator may go beyond a verb by being a punctuation mark; that verbs other than those identified as relational processes may serve to link definienda to their definientia. In addition, it implies knowing that a definition may be identified as lexicographic, terminological, encyclopaedic or as mixed-type; and that definitions proper may occur with relevant co-texts or be sandwiched between introductory or explanatory background and elaboration or extended explanation. Notice that demonstrating the knowledge of these aspects in a student's life can be in a productive mode (e.g. in writing) or in a receptive mode (e.g. reading or listening). There is therefore a need to propose a pedagogical guide or outline for developing students' knowledge or awareness of different definitional structures. In the next section this aspect of objective 8 is addressed.

7.3 A guide on teaching definitions

Previous sections have demonstrated that in-depth understanding of subject-content and academic performance may be enhanced by students' knowledge of terms and their definitions (see Bourdieu et al., 1995). This observation explains the need to raise awareness around definitions in the academic curriculum. To help to determine how a curricular intervention on definitions could be organized to address all of the problems that students encountered in my study, this study proposes different topics to be taught to university students.

This course can be offered to university students from first year, especially in the first term. Each proposed topic can be taught weekly within the one-hour duration of lectures. It can be embedded in the language or literacy module or in any module in which this knowledge may fit. The main idea of this course would be to mainly make students aware of how definitions

may be structured in different and complex ways, and to provide students with knowledge on how to define. Table 7.1 below outlines different topics that can be taught to students.

Table 7.1: A pedagogical outline on the teaching of definitions

<i>Topic</i>	<i>Expected learning outcomes</i>	<i>Supporting teaching and learning activities</i>
Sensitization	<p>At the end of this topic, students should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Be able to state what a definition is; - Become aware of the importance of definitions in their studies; - Be able to demonstrate knowledge of the functions of definitions as well as knowledge of aspects of the definition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Analysis of past question papers (obtainable from Library) in different modules to identify items requiring students to define; - Discussion on functions of the definition; - Exercises on spotting definitions in textbooks/course readers; and - Exercises on identifying definitions in recorded lecture materials
Structure of the classical definition and types of definitions	<p>Students should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Be able to demonstrate the knowledge of the components of definitions and their various manifestations; - Become aware of the role or function of each component within a definition; - Be able to make the distinction 	<p>The teaching and learning activities should include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Exercises on identifying a definiendum, definator and definiens within a definitional statement; - Presentation on the morphology of definienda; - Exercises on producing

	<p>between the two components of the definiens (<i>proximate genus</i> and <i>specific differentiae</i>) where applicable;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Be able to classify definitional statements in their respective typology; - Be able to distinguish between definitions and non-definitions 	<p>definitions using different types of definitors;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Exercises on identifying the proximate genus and specific differentiae within a definiens; - Exercises on classifying definitions; - Quiz on underlining an elaboration within a definitional statement; and on providing a definition preceded by an introductory background
Position of definitional components	<p>At the end of this topic, students should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Be able to determine how each component is positioned in a definition (in initial or final position); - Be able to identify different scattered definitional components; - Be able to reformulate a definition by regrouping the scattered definitional components (definiendum, definitor and definiens) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Presentation on definitions whose components are placed in different positions; - Exercises on formulating definitions within which definienda are placed in final position; - Exercises on regrouping or rearranging the definitional components scattered across different sentences to formulate a definitional sentence;
Using, understanding, spotting and writing a definition	<p>Students should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Be aware of different formatting styles of definienda within definitions; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Comparative analysis of how definitions are introduced in textbooks; - Exercises on constructing definitions of the given

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Be able to (re)produce definitions drawing on the given information; - Be aware of when they should define in their writing; and - Be aware of how definitions may be introduced in essays and be able to apply that knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> concepts; - Exercises on reproducing definitions by drawing on the given information; and - Writing essays on different topics by including definitions of key terms used in the essays
Context and definitions	<p>At the end of this topic, students should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Be able to demonstrate an understanding of how literacy events, practices and texts socio-culturally shape the manifestations of definitions - Be able to explain how definitions may be structured or interpreted in different domains or contexts; and - Be able to contextually define or interpret a definition of a concept (or to assign a particular meaning to a concept) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A comparative analysis on how definitions are structured in different languages (e.g. English versus isiXhosa or English versus other languages spoken by students); - Discussion on how definitions are structured in different fields of study (language studies versus science studies); - Presentation on how definitions are structured in different textbooks (university versus high school textbooks); - Exercises on redefining concepts with reference to context within which they are being used

Table 7.1 above outlines five different main topics that may be taught to students. The outlining of these topics draws on different issues arising from this study. The table shows that for each topic there are expected learning outcomes, defined by Antia & Antia (2013) as

statements that describe the intended knowledge or competencies that students are expected to have acquired at the end of a course or a lecture. Table 7.1 includes also a range of teaching and learning activities through which the learning outcomes can be attained. Let us now briefly comment on each of the topics.

The first topic: Sensitization

This implies getting an insight into the students' background knowledge on definition. This can be done using different supporting teaching and learning activities as highlighted in table 7.1 above. Some of those activities may require students to state what a definition is, to analyse past question papers (obtainable from Library) in different modules to identify items requiring students to define; and to discuss on the function of a definition (see Section 3.3.3 for more details on the function of a definition). In this stage, the information collected will provide some insight regarding the knowledge of definitions possessed by students and allow the scaffolding of a teaching and learning system to better cater for the needs of students in terms of formulating and understanding definitions in their academic literacy.

The second topic: Structure of the classical definition and types of definitions

This topic is about the three components of a definition, namely, definiendum (or the concept being defined), definiens (or the meaning given to that item) and definator or the link between a definiendum and a definiens (see Section 3.3.4 for more details). At the end of this topic, students are expected to be able to identify each component within a definition, to formulate definitions with a variety of definitors (e.g. verbs and punctuation marks), to state whether a definiendum is a single or a multi-word, and so on. With respect to definiens, students may be requested to state whether or not the definer provided the genus (or the word identifying the broad category to which the concept or item being defined belongs) and different

distinguishers or properties of what is being defined. Given that all definitions are not constitutive of the three components, the topic should also include a section on the types of definitions. This will help to ensure that students are aware of how an encyclopedic definition is different from a lexicographic or terminological one and vice versa (see Section 3.3.2 for the typology of definitions). The knowledge of different types of definitions will also allow students to make a distinction between definitions and non-definitions; facilitate students' awareness and exposure to writing containing formalizations of different explanatory sub-genres like preamble to definitions, definitions, elaborations; and so on.

The third topic: Position of definitional components in a definition

This topic is concerned with how each component is structured and positioned within a definition. This requires students to analyze each component to evaluate whether, for instance, a definiendum is placed before or behind its definiens. They may also look at whether or not the definitional components are scattered across different sentences. Example 1 below can serve as a definitional teaching sample in which the definiendum 'communicative competence' was detached from its definiens (underlined):

Example 1:

*"Hymes... argued that knowing how to speak a language required knowing how to use language appropriately in different contexts to show respect, politeness, disagreement, and so on. In other words, it was about knowing how to use the language appropriately to achieve specific communicative goals in context. He referred to this knowledge as **communicative competence**" (Bock, 2014b:8).*

The fourth topic: Using, understanding, spotting and writing a definition

The aim of this topic is to teach students how definitions may be appropriately introduced in writing; and how they can draw on the essential given information and come up with a

definition. This implies first students' knowledge of different definitional components and the application of that knowledge in formulating definitions. Example 2 below can serve as a teaching sample:

Example 2:

*"We can describe the relations between words in semantic fields by using semantic features. Let us take the simple example of stallion and mare. In order to describe the meanings of these words, we have to say that a stallion is a male horse, while a mare is a female [...] This type of approach to semantics is called **componential analysis** or **semantic decomposition**"*
(Bock, 2014c:63-64).

In examples 2 above, the definition of 'componential analysis or semantic decomposition' was not well or explicitly stated because bits of information of the definiens are scattered across different sentences. Thus, students are expected to take on that responsibility to formulate an adequate definition. It would be interesting to see how students process the given information and respond to this reader-responsibility for formulating a definition of *componential analysis*.

The fifth topic: Context and definitions

This topic aims to raise awareness of how definitions may be structured or interpreted in different socio-cultural contexts. The focus is on how different ideological or disciplinary instances may shape the way definitions are structured or interpreted within a particular language. This can be operationalized by letting students compare definitions produced in different languages (e.g. medium of instruction versus students' home language); by analyzing how definitions are structured in different disciplines or field of study (e.g. languages studies versus sciences); by assigning a particular meaning to a concept with reference to the context in which it occurs; and so on.

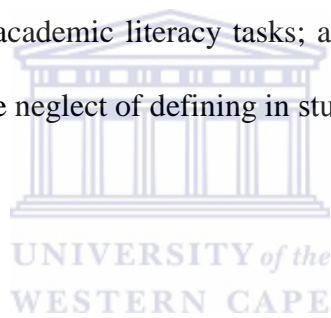
The pedagogical outline proposed above is in line with the academic literacies model which requires the explicit teaching and students' exposure on different academic standards and conventions regulating academic tasks and writing.

7.4 Contributions of the current study and suggestions for future research

Although defining is a common task that students have to perform in the course of their studies, one may argue that there is a gap in research on that instructional verb or performative believed to be a simple matter of reproducing or regurgitating received knowledge. Thus, this study would be useful for different authors, researchers and educational planners because it provides insight into how definitions are perceived or interpreted by students. To be more specific, this study has isolated definition as an issue worthy of attention in the study of students' academic literacy, and has shown that its scope is actually much broader than may have been previously thought. It has also shown the kinds of definitional formats that appear to pose the most challenges to students. In addition, it provided a metalanguage for describing issues many lecturers and students may be facing on this subject, but which they have not been able to put a name to, hence its contribution to teaching and learning. In doing above, the study has brought together two fields that have not traditionally been discussed together, namely academic literacies and terminology. This study may possibly be the first study ever of definitional structures in isiXhosa textbooks, and to compare definitional structures in English and isiXhosa textbooks. Lastly, this study provided evidence from a new and very specific domain that to a large extent performing academic tasks in the home language leads to better outcomes than performing tasks in a second or third language. Although this was the case, this study also provided support for the claim that different academic conventional standards identified sometimes as "ground or hidden rules" (Starfield, 2000:108) should be explicitly taught to students as the academic literacies model

would suggest. It is for this reason that a pedagogical guide to teaching definitions was proposed.

Considering the limitations of the current study on students from Linguistics and Xhosa departments, further research is also needed to verify observations concerning the structural patterns of isiXhosa definitions in relation to English in similar or in different text genres. Other issues that should be investigated should, for instance, include: assessing whether the language used by academic definers (such as lecturers, publishers and authors) is easily accessible to students; assessing how students define across different fields of study; evaluating lecturers' attitudes and perceptions towards students' ability to identify and produce definitions within their academic literacy tasks; and examining what should be the underlying reasons for the relative neglect of defining in students' academic literacy.



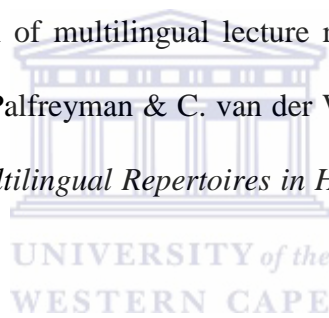
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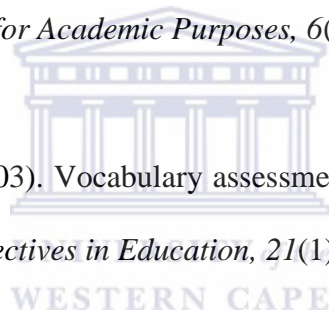
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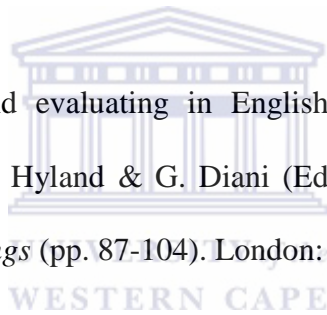
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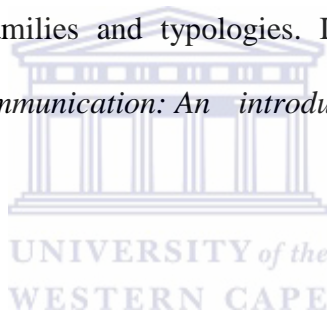
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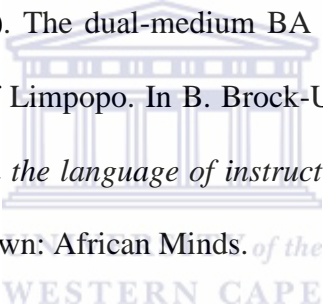


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9 APPENDICES

9.1 Appendix A: The English research questionnaire

Dear Student,

I am Ingabire Clémence, a master's student in the Department of Linguistics. My research aims to assess students' ability to recognize and produce definitions in study materials (e.g. textbooks, course readers, assessment tasks, etc.). I would therefore like to ask you to kindly complete the following questionnaire. The reporting of the data to be obtained will be anonymous. Your participation is voluntary. Thank you so much for your time and support.

A. Personal information

Department :

Year of study:

Home language(s):

English

isiXhosa

Other



B. Research questions

1. Which of the following is or are definitions(s) of the concept of 'language attrition':

Draw a circle/circles around the correct option(s) below:

- i. The process by which language skills become rusty, or even forgotten altogether is known as language attrition.
- ii. Language attrition, a process that occurs naturally in bilingual and multilingual speakers when there is a change in the patterns of language use, and one of the languages is not used as often as it previously was.
- iii. Language attrition: a non-pathological loss in language proficiency that had previously been acquired by an individual.
- iv. Language attrition is described as a non-pathological decrease in language proficiency.
- v. All of the above

2. In the following passage: circle the word(s) that is/are being defined (i) and underline the sentence(s) that define(s) the word(s) you mentioned in 2i above (ii).

Selection is logically seen as the first step towards the **standardization of a language**, even though on some occasions the language selected may already be codified or have great acceptance in its community. This stage entails choosing the dialect to be used as the standard form or picking the dialects which are then unified or harmonized to form the standard language.

3. Read the following passage carefully and then answer the question below:

In English, pitch variation creates different intonation patterns. Intonation operates over longer stretches of speech, affecting whole utterances. In other languages, pitch can also distinguish between the denotational meanings (dictionary meanings) of words. Such languages are called tone languages. The example which is commonly given in textbooks is Mandarin Chinese.

A definition summarizes the meaning of a concept, and makes it possible to distinguish/differentiate the concept from another related concept. Based on the passage you have just read, write one sentence to define 'tone language'.

.....
.....
.....

4. Which of the following would you consider to be an explanation but not a definition?

- i. Schemas (mental knowledge structures that represent some aspects of the world).
- ii. Our schemas are dynamic in the sense that they are not fixed but are constantly revised as we encounter new experiences, acquire new knowledge and adjust our understanding of all aspects of life.
- iii. Schemas refer to the mental knowledge structures in the brain that represent a person's background knowledge of all aspects of life (e.g. what a lecture, lecturer and students are, and how they might interact in a university setting).

5. Read the following passage carefully and then answer the questions that follow:

Studying communication in context means taking note of not only what is communicated, but also of who communicates with whom, in what setting, for what purpose and according to which norms and social conventions; which attitudes and ideologies underlie the communication, and, of course, which languages or language varieties and styles are selected by the speakers as appropriate for the messages they want to communicate.

i. Is the above text a definition? Tick your option

YES

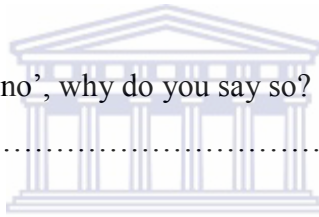
NO

ii. If your answer (above) is 'yes', please write below the concept that is being defined or explained.

.....

iii. If your answer (above) is 'no', why do you say so?

.....



6. Which of the following ways of introducing definitions is or are wrong?

- i. According to Hymes, he defined a **speech community** as 'a group of people who have at least one language variety, and understand and share the rules for using this variety for communication in context.
- ii. According to Hymes, a speech community is defined as 'a group of people who share at least one language variety, and understand and share the rules for using this variety for communication in context.
- iii. By speech community, Hymes (1972:54) means a community sharing rules or the conduct and interpretation of speech, and rules for the interpretation of at least one linguistic variety.
- iv. None of the above.
- v. All of i – iii above.

Thank you so much for your contribution!

9.2 Appendix B: The isiXhosa research questionnaire (imibuzo yophando)

Mfundi othandekayo,

Ndingu Ingabire Clémence, umfundi weMA kwisebe leLinguistics. Uphando lwam lujonga ukuba umfundi uyakwazi na ukubona inkcazelo (yegama) kuncwadi, kwaye uyakwazi na ukubhala/nokunika inkcazelo ngokwakhe. Ngokuzithoba, ndicela uphendule le mibuzo ilandelayo. Ayizukwaziwa ukuba iphendulwe nguwe le mibuzo. Awunyanzelekanga ukuba uyiphendule le mibuzo. Enkosi kakhulu ngenkxaso yakho.

B. Ulwazi lwesiqu

Isebe:

Unyaka wezifundo:

Ulwimi lwasekhaya:

ISingesi

isiXhosa

Olunye

B. Imibuzo yophando

1. Kwezi zivakalisi zingezantsi, khetha inkcazelo yegama 'intloko'. Bonisa ngo 'X' kwibhokisi.

- i. Intloko isenokuba ngumbandela othethela phezu kwawo okanye obhala ngawo.
- ii. Intloko isenokubhekisa kumbandela othethela phezu kwawo okanye obhala ngawo.
- iii. Xa kuthethwa ngentloko kungathethwa ngombandela othethela phezu kwawo okanye obhala ngawo.
- iv. Umbandela othethela phezu kwawo okanye obhala ngawo kuthiwa okanye ubizwa ngokuba yintloko.
- v. Zonke ezi zingasentla.

2. Funda lo mhlathi ungezantsi wandule ukuphendula imibuzo elandelayo:

Olu hlobo loncwadi lubizwa ngeendlela ngeendlela. Abanye bathi ngamaqhina qashi qashi abanye basebenzisa igama lemboleko bathi ngoorayi rayi (oorayirayi). Le ndlela yokubiza olu hlobo loncwadi isekelwe kwindlela ekuqalwa ngayo xa kusenziwa amaqhina la. Iqhina qashi qashi okanye orayirayi luhlobo **loncwadi lwemveli** oluqulethe umbuzo okanye impendulo. Iimpindulo zamaqhina la ziba ziimpindulo ezamkelwe ngokusesikweni sisizwe eso saloo maqhina (oko kukuthi isizwe eso samaqhina lawo enziwayo).

(Imvelaphi: Satyo, Zotwana, Yapi, Gxilishe & Dikeni, 'Sasinoncwadi Kwatanci', 1993:39)

- i. Bhala eli/loo magama achazwayo kulo mhlathi ugentla.

- ii. Krwela umgca phantsi kwesivakalisi esichaza eli gama lichazwayo kulo mhlathi ugentla.

3. Fundisisa lo mhlathi ulandelayo:

Ukuguqa okanye umdudo omncinci

Ekuseni ngemini yokutshata, abantu baya baye kuthi thande enkundleni - amadoda kwelawo icala, nabafazi ngokunjalo. Umtshakazi uphuthunywa ngabafo ababini, eziswe ehamba namabhinqa amane. Enye indoda ihamba phambili ize le yesibini ihambe emva. Umtshakazi lo kunye naba bafazi eza nabo beza begqunyiwe, bafike ke baguqe phambi kwamadoda amakhulu. Wona laa madoda ebeza naba bantu agunyaziswa ukuba makabatyhile ngoku. Hayi ke, mfondini, iimpobole zondle amehlo azo zibuke ubuhle bomtshakazi naba bane ebeza nabo.

(Imvelaphi: Satyo, 'Uphengululo LwesiXhosa: Amabanga 9 nele 10', 1994:47)

Inkcazelo ishwankathela intsingiselo yegama, kwaye yahlula igama kwamanye afana nalo. Funda lo mhlathi ugentla, wandule ubhale isivakalisi esinye apho unika intsingiselo yegama 'ukuguqa' okanye 'umdudo omncinci'?

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.....
.....

4. Kwezi zivakalisi zingezantsi, khetha eyona nkcazelo/nkcaza yegama ‘izifanokuthi’.

Bonisa ngo ‘X’ kwibhokisi.

- i. Ngamagama athetha into enye okanye anentsingiselo enye okanye eyeleleneyo.
- ii. Athetha into enye kodwa maxa wambi engenakho ukusetyenziswa endaweni enye.
- iii. Zonke ezi zingasentla

5. Funda lo mhlathi ungezantsi uze uphendule imibuzo elandelayo:

Into eyayingekho kule mfundo yemveli lubhalo; yonke into yayithethwa ngomlomo ibhaleke ezingqondweni, ize ke izizukulwana ezingaphambili ziyidlulise kwezilandelayo. Njengoko sekuchaziwe kwisahluko sokuqala apha ngentla, le mfundo yemveli yayinalo uncwadi, lwaye olu ncwadi njengolu lwanamhlanje, lwalunayo iprozi (naprozi iprozi le ibalisayo - narrative prose). Ziintsomi ezi ke ezo. Imbangi yokuba kuthiwe umntu wenza intsomi xa exoka, kukuba uninzi lwalamabali abalisa ngezinto ezingenakwenzeka nangamazwe angekhoyo nangezilwanyana ezingekhoyo. Nakubeni kunjalo ke kambe, iintsomi ezi ngamabalana amafutshane angumfuziselo onqatyisiweyo wobomi boluntu, nenjongo yawo ikukuqulunqa nokunqwanqwada isimo somntu, nokuzoba ububanzi bemihlaba ehanjwa ziingcinga zomntu ekuzingeleni izisombululo zokuchaza iimfihlelo zendalo, kwakunye nokuqaqambisa izenzo zobuqhawe zamaqhawe namaqhawekazi esizwe.

(Imvelaphi: Satyo, Zotwana, Yapi, Gxilise & Dikeni, ‘*Sasinoncwadi Kwatanci*’, 1993:10)

- i. Ingaba zikhona iinkcazelo kulo mhlathi ungentla?

Ewe

Hayi

- ii. Ukuba impendulo yakho ngu ‘Ewe’, nceda ubhale ngezantsi le/ezi zinto zichazwayo.

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.....

- iii. Ukuba impendulo yakho ngu ‘Hayi’, kutheni usitho?

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.....

6. Kwezi ndlela zilandelayo zokunika inkcazelo, yeyiphi engalunganga:

- i. Ngokuka Hymes, uthi isichasi ligama elithetha into echaseneyo nelinye.
- ii. Isichasi, ngokuka Hymes, ligama elithetha into echaseneyo nelinye
- iii. Isichasi sichazwa nguHymes njengegama elithetha into echaseneyo nelinye
- iv. Ngokuka Hymes, isichasi ligama elithetha into echaseneyo nelinye
- v. Zonke ezi zingasentla
- vi. Ayikho kwezi zingasentla



Enkosi kakhulu ngenkxaso yakho!

9.3 Appendix C: List of English definitions

Source: Language, Society and Communication: An introduction (A textbook edited by Bock & Mheta, 2016)

N ^o	Definitions	Page
1	<p>...a different approach ... which views communication as the product of interaction between people, namely the interactive approach. This approach recognises that communication is far more complex than the simple sending and receiving of messages from one person to another. It shifts attention onto the importance of context and the role of interpretation in the communication process. It recognises that what the receiver brings to the communicative event (in terms of his or her background knowledge) is as important for the creation of meaning as the message that the sender formulates and sends. Further, it proposes that texts and messages are jointly constructed by all participants in the communicative event and that these participants constantly 'read' each other, anticipate each other's responses and shape their messages accordingly. In addition, it argues that very little of what we say is ever completely original: whether we are aware of it or not, we are continuously responding to things that have already been said, either in that context or in society more generally.</p>	2-3
2	<p>... Studying communication in context means taking note of not only what is communicated, but also of who communicates with whom, in what setting, for what purpose and according to which norms and social conventions; which attitudes and ideologies underlie the communication, and, of course, which languages or language varieties and styles are selected by the speakers as appropriate for the messages they want to communicate.</p>	6
3	<p>Signs are <i>made</i> and <i>remade</i> rather than used and sent, argues Kress. In other words, signs do not have an existence independent of their use in communication and they cannot simply be used as one might use a tool. According to Kress, rhetors use whatever semiotic resources are available to them in their environment to make meaning: every time they communicate, they make meaning by selecting signs, framing them</p>	45

	<p>according to their purpose, and interpreting them in terms of their contexts of communication.</p> <p>In this sense, signs are not sent from sender to receiver, but are constantly made and remade (transformed) through a process of framing and interpretation.</p>	
4	<p>Parole, however, refers to any action of speaking (or using language). Thus parole refers to the actual instances of language in use – when language is used for real communicative purposes.</p>	59
5	<p>Terms of address and colour terms are examples of semantic fields. A semantic field contains words which form systems by means of different types of meaning relations between them. The terms in the system get their meaning from their relation to other terms. Other examples of semantic fields are <i>professions, mammals, pieces of furniture, flowers and clothing</i>.</p>	63
6	<p>Relations between words in a semantic field can also be described in terms of hierarchies. The broader concepts are at the top, with the most specific ones at the bottom. For example, dog is a type of animal, more specifically a canine. We will say that in this case animal is the superordinate, ...</p>	64
7	<p>Phonetics can be defined as the branch of linguistics which examines the inventory and the structure of the sounds of language as speech.</p>	85
8	<p>There are two main approaches to the study of the sounds of language: articulatory phonetics and auditory/acoustic phonetics. In articulatory phonetics, linguists, more specifically phoneticians, examine how speech sounds are produced by the human speech organs; in other words, which parts of the body we use to articulate the different sounds.</p>	85
9	<p>... We can also study how sounds are perceived by the ear. This is the area of auditory phonetics. Phoneticians can rely on their trained hearing to classify particular sounds they hear quite precisely.</p>	85
10	<p>Most speech sounds are made with air coming out of the lungs: we take air into the lungs then expel it. These are called egressive pulmonic sounds. You can feel this for yourself when producing a sentence while holding your hand in front of your mouth: you should feel warm air touching your hand. This warm air is coming out of your lungs: the airstream is thus egressive (literally: ‘coming out’) and pulmonic (‘from the lungs’).</p>	85-86

11	The airstream coming from the lungs then passes through a number of chambers or filters known as the vocal tract .	86
12	Now put your fingers in the same position and say [v] as in <i>voice</i> . You will not only hear a slight buzzing noise but you will also feel that there is vibration in your larynx. Sounds produced with vibrating vocal folds- in other words, when the vocal folds open and close very rapidly when the air is coming upwards from the lungs- are called voiced .	87
13	For the production of aspirated consonants, there is a period of voicelessness between the release or burst of consonant and the beginning of voicing for the following vowel. This period of voicelessness, often described as an <i>h</i> -like sound or a puff of air, is called aspiration .	87-88
14	The term ‘bilabial’ comes from a combination of the elements ‘bi’(from Latin) which means ‘two’ (as in bilingual, bisexual) and the element ‘labial’(also from a Latin word meaning ‘lip’), thus ‘bilabial’ is the speech sound produced when both lips come together and touch each other. For instance, pay attention to what happens when you pronounce the initial sounds of the English words <i>pear</i> [p], <i>bear</i> [b] and <i>mother</i> [m].	89
15	The speech sounds [j], [w], and [r] as in <i>yes</i> , <i>water</i> and <i>raw</i> are called <i>central approximant</i> : the airstream is not blocked or hindered by the articulators, which only change the shape of the vocal tract.	98
16	The term ‘lateral’ is used to describe something that relates to the sides of something [...]. In phonetics, lateral sounds are produced by raising the tongue in the oral cavity but without causing an obstruction and while letting the air escape along the sides of the tongue. The various varieties of [l] in the languages of the world are lateral consonants.	98-99
17	The [ɮ] is a lateral click . It is produced by sucking air in between the side upper teeth and the side of the tongue. It is the sound we make when spurring on a horse or the clucking sound made when calling chickens.	101
18	Monophthongs (vowels in which tongue shape and lip shape remain constant during the articulation).	103
19	In English, pitch variation creates different intonation patterns. Intonation operates over longer stretches of speech, affecting whole utterances. In other languages, pitch can also distinguish between the denotational	108-109

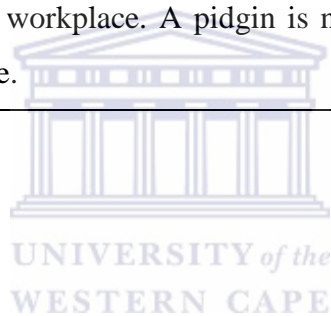
	meanings of words. Such languages are called tone languages . The example which is commonly given in textbooks is Mandarin Chinese.	
20	An example of a well-known speech disorder is stuttering, which often involves the repetition of sounds, syllables or words, as in p-p-p-please or she's got a - got a - got a - b-b-book.	110
21	Words such as tick and pick or veer or beer are minimal pairs in English, while pad ('road) and pat ('a stalemate in chess') are minimal pairs in Afrikaans. A minimal pair comprises two forms or words with distinct meanings that differ by only one segment found in the same position in each of the two forms. It is used as a basic test for a sound's distinctiveness and the minimal pair test is the key principle of phonemic analysis.	122
22	Length is a feature of sound that has a distinctively extended duration compared with other sounds. Thus, length also conveys part of the meaning of a word and can also be used to distinguish meaning in a set of words.	125
23	[...]. As linguists, we say they are different phones which represent the same phoneme. [...] We therefore say that the two variants [p ^h] and [p] are allophones of the phoneme /p/ in English. The term <i>allophone</i> comes from Greek and literally means 'other sound' (allo = other, phone = sound).	127
24	Complementary distribution refers to the fact that the contexts in which the allophones of a phoneme appear can never be the same. This implies that allophone X cannot occur in the same context in which allophone Y would occur. For example, aspirated [p ^h] can never occur in the same context as unaspirated [p].	130
25	A sound is said to be context free when it cannot be conditioned by context – that is, when its occurrence is not determined by the context in which it appears. Thus /r/ and /l/ in ciNyanja can be described as context-free phonemes.	130
26	The coda involves the consonants occurring after the vowel in a syllable.	135
27	There are a number of processes in the phonology in which one segment influences the nearby segment, making it more like it. This kind of influence is known as assimilation . To put it in other words, we refer to assimilation when a segment becomes more like the neighbouring sound with regard to one or more of its phonetic features.	140

28	...we define vowel coalescence as a phonological process in which vowels cause each other to change. The common process of vowel coalescence in most Bantu languages occur at the boundaries between words. This phenomenon usually occurs when two adjacent vowels cause each other to change or sometimes to shorten.	142- 143
29	Linguistic typology, a subfield of linguistics that classifies languages into types based on their morphological/structural similarities.	149
30	Next we consider the units that words consist of and which still have lexical or functional meaning, namely morphemes .	151
31	Bound roots are those morphemes that have lexical meaning when they are attached to other bound morphemes to form words or sentences in Bantu languages. They cannot stand alone as separate words (e.g. <i>-ntu</i> ‘person’ in isiXhosa).	155
32	When we deal with the formation of words or the process by which new words enter a language, we are interested in word formation or lexical morphology , therefore we can say that this branch of morphology, as the term suggests, deals with the formation of new words.	167
33	When there is a change or shift in the function of a word, for example when a noun comes to be used as a verb or vice versa, this process of word formation is known as conversion . It is also known as category change or as functional shift .	173
34	[...], words move from one language to another. This happens when speakers of a particular language use words from other language(s) which become part of their vocabulary. In this way, words in one language find their way into another as new words. This process of word formation is known as borrowing .	174
35	The term ‘agglutinating’ is derived from the Latin word <i>agglutinare</i> , which means ‘to glue together’, therefore, [...] an agglutinating language is a language in which morphemes tend to ‘glue’ together in a sequence. In these languages each morpheme typically represents a single unit of meaning.	177
36	Syntax is the linguistic discipline which studies how sentences are formed according to certain rules. The word comes from the Greek <i>syn-taxis</i> , which	183

	means ‘the putting together in order, arranging’.	
37	Phrases can thus be broken down into smaller units which have different functions. [...] Head – the word around which the phrase is built.	196
38	The isiXhosa clause actually contains only a verb structure. IsiXhosa is said to be a pro-drop language. This refers to languages that allow for the non-appearance of the subject and object NPs (noun phrases) because their main features are retrievable from inflectional affixes like subjectival and objectival concords. In the verb structure <i>ba-</i> is a subjectival concord that will have the features [+human], [+plural], among others.	209
39	All over the world, children often acquire two languages at the same time from birth; this process is referred to as <i>bilingual first language acquisition</i> or <i>simultaneous bilingualism</i> .	226
40	Chomsky proposed that the ability to acquire language is innate or genetically predisposed; all we need in order to acquire language is to be exposed to it. [...] According to the innateness hypothesis, all children are born with the ability to acquire language, and all have some inborn knowledge of the universal principles which are common to all languages. In other words, they are all born with a ‘blueprint’ or universal grammar for language.	229
41	[...], researchers were interested in determining whether bilingual children could keep separate each of the linguistic systems they were acquiring, or whether they had a merged system. They advanced the <i>unitary language system hypothesis</i> that proposed that bilingual children go through a stage where the two linguistic systems are merged and that they only manage to separate the two systems around the age of two or three.	236- 237
42	<i>Semantic underextension</i> occurs when children use a word for only a restricted set of meanings. For example, an isiXhosa-speaking child might use the word <i>imoto</i> to refer only to the family car without realising that it can be used for other cars.	245

43	One of the first researchers to systematically capture the differences between child and adult language learning was Eric Lenneberg, who formulated the so-called Critical Period Hypothesis . This hypothesis holds that if a person learns a language before the end of a specific time window, or a so-called critical period, then that person will end up with native-like command of the language (that is, proficiency similar to native speakers of the target language). According to the Critical Period Hypothesis [...] automatic acquisition from mere exposure to a given language seems to disappear after this age [puberty], and foreign languages have to be taught and learned through a conscious and labored effort.	264
44	An individual is said to have instrumental motivation if he or she learns an L2 language with the intention of finding a job or earning money, furthering career prospects, passing exams, fulfilling professional demands or assisting his or her children with bilingual schooling. [...] instrumental motivation is thus utilitarian or functional in nature...	271
45	[...], <i>cross-linguistic influence</i> was identified as the process by which knowledge of one language influences knowledge and use of another language. <i>Cross-linguistic influence</i> occurs naturally in language attrition, so that effects from the L2 can be seen in the attriting L1, and effects from the L1 can be seen in an attriting L2	284
46	Perceptive tests are different [...] the attriter is asked to make decisions or judgements about written or audio-recorded linguistic samples. A typical example of a perceptive test is the so-called <i>grammaticality judgement test</i> , where the attriter listens to a series of sentences, some of which are grammatically correct (e.g. <i>The key is in the box</i>) and some of which are grammatically incorrect (e.g. <i>The key are in the box</i>). The task of the attriter is to decide which of the sentences are grammatically correct and which are not.	285
47	Scholars usually use a set of semantically and phonetically similar words to establish the hypothesis of common origin [...] The technical term for these common words is cognates , or words that are genetically related in the sense that they are descended from the same ancestral root or word.	316
48	Selection is logically seen as the first step towards the standardisation of a	336

	language, even though on some occasions the language selected may already be codified or have great acceptance in its community. This stage entails choosing the dialect to be used as the standard form or picking the dialects which are then unified or harmonised to form the standard language.	
49	Do you sometimes judge people as ‘better’ because they speak a ‘better’ kind of language? Such judgements are indicative of a third Western language ideology, namely an ideology of language purism , which stipulates that ‘good’ usage is characterised by the use of the ‘pure’ variety, usually viewed as the standard variety without any language mixing or slang...	353
50	A pidgin is usually understood to be a language which includes a mix of the languages of people who need to communicate with one another in specific limited contexts like the workplace. A pidgin is never the home language (mother tongue) of people.	363



9.4 Appendix D: List of isiXhosa definitions

Source (imvelaphi): <i>Uphengululo LwesiXhosa: Amabanga 9 nele 10</i> by Satyo (1994)				
N ^o	Definitions (Inkcazelo)		Translation into English	P
	DEFINIENDU M	DEFINITOR + DEFINIENS		
1	Intondo	ubuhlanti obakhiwa bakuba butshisiswe obudala kunye nezindlu kwakuba bekuweleke umninimzi. Obu buhlanti bakhiwa enkundleni ngoku ukuze ingcwaba elo lomntu lowo libe sezantsi kwalo. Kusetyenziswa kwalaa maxhanti madala.	a type of a kraal that is built after the head of the family dies and the house and the old kraal are burnt down and intondo is built to replace it. This type of kraal is built in the field so that the grave of the deceased could be next to it. They use the same pillars.	35
2	Umzi wasengcwabeni	lo ngumzi wabantu abalinde ingcwaba lenkosi	this is a house where people keep watch over a chief's grave.	35
3	Iinkomo zesitsununu	ziinkomo phaya kwaBhaca ebezihlonitshiwe. Inkomo yesitsununu yinkomo engamithiyo ebisithi inkosi imi phambi kwesizwe sayo iyibethe emqolo itsho ivele ibele ngoko nangoko kusengwe ubisi lokwenza iyeza.	They are cows that were respected in the Bhaca clan. Inkomo yesitsununu is a cow that did not get pregnant, and whose back would be beaten by a king, standing in front of his people, so that the cow could give (produce) breast milk that is used for medicine.	35-36
4	Ukubika	kukuhambisa iindaba zokuba ubani kabana ubhubhile.	It is to carry the message across that someone has passed away.	36
5	Inkomo yezila	yinkomo exhelela ukukhumbuza ngokufa kothile, enikwa imbeko yakhe.	is a cow that is slaughtered in remembering someone in order to pay respect to that person.	36

6	Ibhokhwe yokuhlamba izandla	ixhelwa emva komngcwabo, ityiwe ngakumbi ngabo bebesebenza besimba nokumba.	a goat slaughtered after the funeral, especially by those who were digging the grave	36
7	uphehlelelo	kukwamkelelwa kwiphungulelo labakwaKristu ngamanzi. Kanti ke ibisaya kuba yindlela yokungnisa ebukhosini ngeentlobo ezine zamazazi: elengwe (lobukhalipha), elemvu (lobulali), elengonyama (lamandla) elikagqoloma (lobutyebi). Lento ibisenziwa kunyana wenkosi.	It is welcoming into Christianity using water. It was a way of introducing a king by either one of four ways of blood, of a tiger (bravery), of a sheep (mildness or kindness), of a lion (power) and of another wild beast (wealth). This was done to a king's son (prince).	36
8	Ukwaluka	ukungena esuthwini kwenkwenkwe, ngaloo ndlela ibe ke ingeniswa kwinqanaba lobudoda.	going to the hut where a boy is going to transition into manhood through circumcision process.	36-37
9	Inyama yamahlwempu	yintamo le ebisisigxina senyama enokutyiwa ngabantu abangamahlwempu.	is a neck that was consistently given to poor people.	37
10	Ukufukutha	kukutya inyama iluhlaza	It is eating raw meat.	37
11	Amasi	lubisi oluthe lwenziwa ukuba luvuthwe, lube nengqaka kutyiwe ngalo okunye ukutya okufuna ukuvutywa.	Is spoilt milk, it is creamy and it is used for eating other foods.	38
12	Ukuhlonipha (Feminism)	kukungawabizi amagama athile okanye izandi ezithile phantsi kokubonisa imbeko kooise kumntu ongumendi.	It is the process of not using certain words or sounds to show respect to the father-in-law (and the male in-laws). She (the bride)	38

		Uye kufuneke ahlale ethwele, ayicezele nenkundla yalo mzi.	must always have a shawl, and keep a distance when she walks in front of her in-laws' house (she must not walk in the middle of the homestead where it is believed the ancestors reside).	
13	Udlolo (sterile)	umntu obhinqileyo ongafumani bantwana okanye inkomo okanye igusha ekwanjalo.	a woman that cannot give birth to a child or a cow or a sheep that cannot bear a child.	39
14	Ulutsha (youth)	isifana nesintombazana. Kule mihla ke sekubhekiswa nakubafundi abakwizikolo se Mfundo ePhakamileyo kunye nee Yinivesithi.	a young man or a young woman. These days, it also refers to the students attending higher education and universities.	39
15	Inkomo yomtshato	yinkomo yesibini le exhelwa emini emaqanda ngosuku lwesibhozo intombi ingene. Le ke yalatha ukuba intombi le ikulungele ngoku ukutshata.	is a second cow that is slaughtered during the 8 th day after the young woman has entered Intonjane (an initiation stage or ritual Xhosa women go through before marriage). This cow indicates that the young woman is ready for marriage.	40
16	Ukuhlamba	lisiko lokukhululela uyise womntwana othile ukuba akasenatyala ngemisebenzi yomntwana lowo wakhe. Le nto nke ibisenziwa phakathi kwemilowo nabamelwana xa umntwana sithe isimo sakhe esingendawo sagqitha umkhondo naye engeva kuyalwa.	is a tradition stating that the father who has raised the child is no longer responsible for the insolent behavior of his child. This was done before the extended family and neighbors when the child's bad ways were too much to bear and he/she wasn't taking advice from anyone, especially his/her elders.	40

17	Umnqayi	le kwakusithiwa yintonga yamathamsanqa eyayisaya kuphathwa ngumnumzana xa esekuhama-hambeni phakathi kohlanga. Umnqayi lo ubuphathwa nasemidudweni, xa kusiyiwa kwendiswa.	this was called a stick of luck that a gentleman carried with him when visiting other nations. This stick was carried in many social events such as dances organized by women and at weddings.	40
18	Ukufunga	yindlela umntu ebebonisa ngayo inyaniso yakhe ethe sululu. Umntu ke ubefunga uyise nonina nomafungwashe wakokwabo.	is a way a person showed his/her absolute truth. The person would swear on his father, mother, and his/her first born sibling that has to be a girl..	40
19	Inggithi	kukunqunyulwa kwelungu lokuqala lika cिकिकाने kungenjalo lo mnwe wesibini. Loo nto ke yenziwa ngesitshetshe esibizwa ngokuba yingadla. Imbangi yoku ke lisiko laloo mzi.	it is cutting off the top part of the pinky finger or the ring finger. This is done using a sharp blade called Ingadla. This was done because it is a family tradition.	41
20	Umvambo	sisivana esenziwa ngabom ngengadla apha esifubeni umntu eyenzela ukuhomba loo nto. Zenziwa ke zibe ludederhu oluhle kunene ezi ziva.	it is a cut that people do intentionally on the chest area using a blade called Ingadla to decorate their chests. It is similar to tao in our day. The cuts are made in such a way they are decorative on the chest.	41
21	Isithembu (polygamy)	isiko lokuzeka abafazi abaninzi.	a tradition of marrying multiple women	41
22	Iminyanya/ izinyanya (ancestors)	ngabadala bomzi abangasekhoyo kwimeko leyo yabo abathi baphinde	they are old people of the house that are deceased and that come back to be part of the family.	42

		babekho ngayo phakathi kweentsapho zabo.		
23	UQamata (GOD)	nguyena mlawuli nomDali wezinto zonke. Kungoko namaKristu anamhlanje asathi xa ethandaza uThixo athi Qamat' Ophezulu.	he is a creator and a controller of everything. That is why Christians today when they pray say Qamata ophezulu (Our Father in heaven).	42
24	Ukuphupha izulu	kuthethwa ukuphupha impundulu yona ntaka kukhololelwa ukuba ihlala emafini.	means to dream of impundulu, a bird believed to stay in the clouds.	42
25	Ukuphupha umlambo	kuthethwa ukuphupha uHili yona ndoda kukholelwa ukuba ihlala ezingcongolweni emlanjeni.	Means to dream of uHili, a man believed to stay in the river.	42
26	Isivivane	yindawo ekuphoswa kuyo amatye ngabahambi, injongo ikukuba bakhunjulwe, bathanyusanqelwa kwiihambo zabo ngooyisemkhulu.	Is a place where people who are leaving or moving throw stones with the intention of being remembered and getting luck from ancestors.	42
27	Igqirha (a traditional doctor)	ngumntu ofunde amayeza esintu okunyanga izifo ebantwini.	Is a person who studied traditional medicine to heal people.	43
28	ugqirha (a doctor)	Ngumntu ofunde ngala mayeza esiLungu kwizikolo zale mihla, afunde ngamayeza okunyanga izifo ngezifo ebantwini naye.	These are people who studied western medicine in today's schools.	43
29	Isivula-mlomo	esi ibisisipho ebisikhutshwa ngoonozakuzaku xa bevula umcimbi weengxoxo ngentombi ecelwayo. Esi	This was a gift given to the bride's family by the negotiating team of the groom before the negotiations can begin. This gift has now been	45

		siphon ke ngoku sesithathelwe indawo yibhulanti le kuthiwa sisazi- mzi.	replaced by a bottle of brandy that is given to men.	
30	Isivumo	yibhokhwe le ixhelwa xa oonozakuzaku beze okwesibini, bezisa ikhazi. Ingumqondiso wokwamkelwa komfana lo ucelelwa intombi, esamkelwa kunye nekhazi elo alobola ngalo.	it is a goat that is slaughtered for people who are coming to ask for a bride's hand in marriage, they bring the bride price (cows for lobola). This is proof that their request for the hand of the young woman in marriage has been accepted as well as the bride price.	45
31	Inkomo yenyanyiso	Yinkomo ekhutshwa ngoonozakuzaku ukuqinisekisa ukunyaniseka kwabo ngaloo mba bazele wona wokucela.	It is a cow that the negotiators give to the family to prove that they are serious about their request.	45
32	Inkomo yamabhayi okanye inkomo yokuthwala	Yinkomo ekuhlawuliswa yona xa ubani ethe wathwala intombi, engekayi kubeka isavenge sokuqala sekhazi.	Is a cow that is paid by the abductees after they have abducted a girl, before paying the first installment of the bride (cows that are paid for lobola).	45
33	Isiphemba- mlilo	le yintlawulo evela eludulini xa luze kucela umlilo. Kaloku lunikwa yonke into iluhlaza, kodwa lungawunikwa umlilo, kulindelwe ukuba luze kuwucela.	This is a payment from the wedding guests that have accompanied the bride when they have come to request for the fire. They were usually given everything uncooked, but without something to kindle the fire with, so that they (uduli) will come back and ask for the kindle.	46
34	Iintsimbi zamankazana	sisipho esiza nomendi.	Are gifts that come from the bride.	46

35	Umathula- ntabeni (umvakocango)	yibhokhwe exhelelwa ukwamkela abantu boduli.	It is a goat that is slaughtered for the people who will accompany the bride.	46
36	Inkomo yemphuthulo okanye yenquthu	Le yinkomo enyanisweni eyiyeyokhulamba inyala lokuthi kanti niyabula ningaqondi nje.	This is a cow that is slaughtered to make right after you discover that you have been sinning without knowing/realizing it.	46
37	Ukuguqa okanye umdudo omncinci (ukuguqa = to kneel, umdudo = slow dance)	Ekuseni ngemini yokutshata, abantu baya baye kuthi thande enkundleni- amadoda kwelayo icala nabafazi ngokunjalo. Umtshakazi uphuthunywa ngabafo ababini, eziswe ehamba namabhinqa amane. Enye indoda ihamba phambili ize le yesibini ihambe emva. Umtshakazi lo kunye naba bafazi eza nabo beza begqunyiwe, bafike ke bazuqo phambi kwamadoda amakhulu. Wona laa madoda ebeza naba bantu agunyaziswa ukuba makabatyhile ngoku. Hayi ke, mfondini, iimpobole zondle amehlo azo zibuke ubuhle bomtshakazi naba bane ebeza nabo.	Early in the morning of the wedding day, people will gather and sit in the middle of the homestead and sit arranged by their sexes; men on the one side and women on the other side. Two young men will be sent to get the bride; she will then come out accompanied by four young women. One of the men will walk in front and the second one will be at the back. The bride and the young women that accompany her will come with their heads covered; they will then kneel before the older men. The young men who brought them are then given authority to lift the veils that cover the women. How splendid the sight to behold! People feast their eyes on the beauty of the bride and her four companions.	47
38	Idyasi kabawozala	Ngeli thuba lichazwe gentla ke umtshakazi nabakhaphi bakhe babeka isipho esaziwa ngokuba yidyasi kabawozala.	During the time mentioned above, the bride and her company puts a gift known as Idyasi kabawozala (the coat of the father in-law).	47

		Ekubekeni kwabo esi siphobasephantsi kokubukwa zezi mpobole.	After giving this gift they are still being looked at/appreciated by these men.	
39	Ukudlisa amasi	Kukuthi ngosuku lwesine emdudweni (emtshatweni) umutshakazi enzelwe eli siko limnceda kwezi zinto zilandelayo: ukwaziswa kwakhe kwizinyanya zalo mzi, umtshakazi lo kunye nenzala yakhe banikwa ibango namhla kulo mzi kunye nazo zonke izinto zawo; namhlanje ke uyavunyelwa umutshakazi ukuba angadla Kumasi elikhaya.	It is tradition performed on the fourth day after the wedding that helps the bride in the following: her introduction to the ancestors of the family, the bride and her offspring are given a right/claim in this family and all its things or belongings; today the bride is allowed to eat amasi in this home.	47
40	Ulwimi	Yintetho yabantu okanye uhlanga oluthile, umzekelo, lulwimi lwamaXhosa.	Is a language belonging to a group of people or a race, for instance Xhosa language.	53
41	Izifanokuthi (synonyms)	ngamagama athetha into enye okanye anentsingiselo eyeleleneyo. La magama ke thetha into enye kodwa maxa wambi engenakho ukusetyenziswa endaweni enye, oko kukuthi elinye alingeze lisuselwe elinye, ize intsingiselo yalo ntetho isale isafezekile.echaseneyo naleyo yenziwa zizifanokuthi okanye izithethantonye.	are words that have the same or similar meaning. These words have the similar meaning but cannot always be used in the same context. That means that one word cannot be used to replace one another without compromising the meaning.	56
42	Oomabizwafane	la ke amagama abizwa	Are words that have similar	

	(homonyms)	ngokufanayo kodwa izinto athetha zona wona zahlukile.	pronunciation but have different meanings.	
43	Isiconko/ ingxoxo	kokubhaliweyo ngeprozi okuthi kujongane nokuchaza umbandela othile, kudize iimbono ezithile (iingcamango ezithile), okanye kuzame ukusenza samkele ingcamango ethile ngentloko leyo ibichazwa.	is what is written about a prose that also concerns a particular subject, it shares particular opinions or tries to make us accept opinions about the main character.	85

Source (imvelaphi): *Sasinoncwadi Kwatanci* by Satyo, Zotwana, Yapi, Gxilishe, & Dikeni (1993)

44	Uncwadi	Kaloku eli gama lithi 'uncwadi' lithetha olubhaliweyo	This word 'uncwadi' refers to the written form of literature.	2
45	Uncwadi lwemveli	Luqaqamba ngokuba <i>luncwadi olududwayo</i> . Xa sithetha ngoncwadi olududwayo sithetha ukuthi luncwadi olubonakaliswa ngokwenziwa ngumqambi okanye abaqambi phambi kwabantu ababukeleyo. Luphawu oluphambili olu lokuba olu ncwadi lwenzelwe ababukeli ngumqambi okanye abaqambi.	Uncwadi lwemveli is also known as luncwadi olududwayo. When we speak of luncwadi olududwayo, we speak of uncwadi that seems to have been created or written in front of the audience or the watching cloud. This is a leading or main characteristic that this type of literature is prepared for the audience. Uncwadi depends on the main character.	2
46	Iintsomi	Eli gama lithi 'intsomi' lisetyenziswa esiXhoseni libhekiselele kwiindidi ngeendidi zeembalana	This word referred to 'intsomi' in isiXhosa refers to various types of fictional stories.	4

		zobuxokixoki.		
47	Iqhina qashi qashi/urayirayi	Olu hlobo loncwadi lubizwa ngeendlela ngeendlela. Abanye bathi ngamaqhina qashi qashi abanye basebenzisa igama lemboleko bathi ngoorayi rayi (oorayirayi) [...] iqhina qashi qashi okanye urayirayi luhlobo loncwadi lwemveli oluqulethe umbuzo okanye iimpendulo. Iimpendulo zamaqhina la ziba ziimpendulo ezamkelwe ngokusesikwani sisizwe eso saloo maqhina (oko kukuthi isizwe eso samaqhina lawo enziwayo).	This type of literature can have different names. Mostly people call them riddles or brain teasers [...] A riddle is a type of literature that is based on the tradition of first asking the question before the answer can be revealed. The answers of the riddles are generally or traditionally accepted by the particular language group that develop the riddle (meaning the native origin of the riddle).	5
48	Izibongo zomthonyama	Eli gama lithi <i>izibongo</i> lisukela kwesi senzi sithi <i>ukubonga</i> . Sivele apho esi sibizo sithi izibongo. Ukubonga ke kukuphuphuma kweenkephula zamazwi anokulandaumnombo neembali ngomntu okanye into. Kuloo mpuphuma yamazwi kunokuconywa kugxekwe.	This word 'izibongo' is derived from the verb ukubonga. That is where this noun comes from. Ukubonga is to verbalize or use words that can tell the history of someone or something. These excessive words can be used to praise or condemn someone or something.	5-6
49	Ukubuya	Oku kuphinda-phinda akudali mdintsi kubantu bako. Kanti kuya kwala sekungaseni ubone	This repetition does not make the song boring to the singers. Often when dawn approaches you will find there are other lyrics that have	76-77

		<p>kusetyenziswa amazwi angamanye. Kuthiwe ke ingoma iyabuyarwa okanye kutshintshwa amazwi okanye kuyakhawuzeliswa okanye kucothoziswa okanye kuthotywe okanye kunyuswe ilizwi.</p>	<p>been added. It is said that they change their voices; they sing faster, they sing slower, they lower their voices, they raise their voices and they keep repeating some parts of the song.</p>	
50	Ukutsala	<p>Abantu bayo ke ingoma yakwaNtu bakholelwa ekubeni mayibuywe kade. Oko kuyibuya kade ke kuthiwa kukutsala.</p>	<p>People who sing believe in prolonging some lyrics of the song. That is called ukutsala.</p>	77

