THE USE OF HISTORY TEXTS IN ISIXHOSA FOR GRADE 11 IN DEVELOPING ACADEMIC WRITING SKILLS ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

By

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DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

The central aim of the study is to present a proposal of how academic literacy development across the curriculum in secondary school can be facilitated through the use of content subject texts in isiXhosa. This is demonstrated by making use of History texts, which can be incorporated in the isiXhosa Home Language (HL) subject for teaching the writing skills of academic texts. The Genre-based approach to literacy development, which has been employed with great success, especially in Australia, over the past thirty years, is assumed in presenting an analysis of the variety of genres exemplified by the History texts. The analyses of genres will be demonstrated by three texts selected from the grade 11 History textbook and the grade 11 assessment question paper, translated into isiXhosa, respectively. For example, genres such as chronological texts in which historical recounts are grouped into and non-chronological genres in which the factorial and consequential explanation genres are grouped under. The schematic structure of the selected genres is identified and related to the language system represented by the systemic functional linguistics. The study makes use of the method of text analysis and written discourse analysis within the genre framework underpinned by systemic functional linguistic for the data collection. The findings demonstrate that that the effective development of knowledge of language in the Home Language class through the use of texts from content subjects can play a crucial role in advancing academic writing skills, for both the Home language and History. Furthermore; the availability of resources in isiXhosa, teachers training and support on the implementation of genre-based approach underpinned by the systemic functional linguistics can enhance the understanding of genres across the curriculum and will in that effect, promote the use of African languages for academic purposes.

OPSOMMING

Die sentrale doelwit van die studie is om 'n voorstel aan te bied van hoe akademiese geletterdheid in die sekondêre skool gefasiliteer kan word deur die gebruik van inhoudsvaktekste in isiXhosa oor die kurrikulum. Hierdie doelwit word gedemonstreer deur die gebruik van Geskiedenisteskte wat geïntegreer kan word in die isiXhosa huistaalvak vir die onderrig van skryfvaardighede van akademiese tekste. Die genre-gebaseerde benadering, wat met groot sukses in veral Australië gebruik is die afgelope dertig jaar, word aanvaar vir die aanbieding van analises van 'n verskeidenheid genres soos vertoon deur geskiedenistekste. Die analises van genres word geïllustreer deur drie tekste wat geselekteer is uit die Graad 11 Geskiedenisteksboek en ook die Graad 11 assesseringsvraestel, vertaal in isiXhosa, respektiewelik. Byvoorbeeld, genres soos chronologiese tekste, waarin historiese herroepings ('recounts') gegroepeer word, en nie-chronologiese genres, waaronder die faktoriale en gevolg-verduidelikings-genres gegroepeer is. Die skematiese strukture van die geselekteerde genres word geïdentifiseer en in verband gebring met die taalsisteem soos gerepresenteer in sistemiese funksionele linguistiek. Die studie maak gebruik van die metode van teksanalise en geskrewe diskoersanalise binne die genre-raamwerk wat onderlê word deur sistemiese funksionele linguïstiek vir dataversameling. Die bevindings demonstreer dat die doeltreffende ontwikkeling van kennis van taal in die Huistaalvak en klasse deur die gebruik van inhoudsvak tekste 'n belangrike rol kan speel in die bevordering van akademiese skryfvaardighede, in sowel die Huistaalvak as Geskiedenis. Voorts, kan die beskikbaarheid van leermateriaalbronne in isiXhosa, onderwysersopleiding en ondersteuning in die implementering van die genre-gebaseerde benadering waaraan die sistemiese funksionele linguistiek onderliggend is, die begrip van leerders van genres oor die kurrikulum heen verhoog, en dus die gebruik van die Afrikatale vir akademiese doeleindes verhoog.

ISISHWANKATHELO

Injongo ephambili yesi sifundo kukuzisa ingcebiso kuphuhliso lolwimi ukuze lube kumgangatho wamaziko emfundo ephezulu, nophuhliso kwiKharityhulum ngokusebenzisa imibhalo kwizifundo ezingundoqo *"content-subjects"*. Oku kuza kuboniswa ngokusebenzisa okubhaliweyo kwimbali (history text), okunokuthi kufundiswe kwigumbi lokufundisa lesiXhosa njengolwimi lweenkobe, ukufundisa izakhono zokubhalwa kokubhaliweyo ukuze kube kumgangatho wamaziko aphezulu ezemfundo ukuya kumaziko emfundo enomsila. Indlela yokufundisa ekuphuhliseni ukufunda nokubhala esekelwe kokubhaliweyo ebizwa ngokuba "yi*Genre- based approach"* neye yasetyenziswa ngempumelelo enkulu, ingakumbi kumazwe afana ne-*Ostreliya,* kwiminyaka engamashumi amathathu eyadlulayo, ibonwa njengeyona isebenzayo ekuhlalutyeni iindidi ezahlukeneyo zokubhaliweyo ezibonakaliswa yimibhalo yezembali.

Ukuphicothwa kwale mibhalo kuza kubonakaliswa ngemibhalo echongiweyo kwincwadi yebanga lethoba (ibakala leshumi elinanye) kwakunye namaphepha ovavanyo eli bakala nathe aguqulelwa esiXhoseni. Umzekelo: okubhaliweyo okubonakalisa indlela yokubhala apho kudweliswa iziganeko, izehlo eziyinyani nezo zifuna ingcaciso ephuhlisa isiphumo okanye isiganeko esithile, njalo njalo. Ubume bokubhaliweyo buza kuphichothwa ngokwendlela ulwimi olume ngayo ngohlobo olukhuthazwa yi*"systemic functional linguistics"*. Esi sifundo sisebenzisa olo hlobo lokuphicotha okubhaliweyo noluquka ukuphicothwa kokubhaliweyo okukhuthazwa yi*genre,* ingakumbi ekuqokeleleni i*datha*. Iziphumo ziphawula ukuba ukuphuhlisa ulwazi olusulungekileyo ngolwimi lweenkobe, lusetyenziswe ingakumbi kwiklasi yolwimi lwenkobe, kunganegalelo elikhulu ekuphuhliseni ukufundiswa kwezakhona zokubhala, nezokuhlalutya okubhaliweyo kwezifundo ezingundoqo "*content subjects"*. Obu budlelane phakathi kwezifundo zolwimi nezo zingundoqo zinganegalelo elikhulu ekuphuhliseni izakhono zokubhala ezikwizinga eliphezulu. Ngapha koko, ukufumaneka kwale mithombo ngesiXhosa, uqeqesho lwabafundisi-ntsapho nokubaxhasa ekufundiseni ngale ndlela ekhuthazwa yi-"*genre ne-systemic functional linguistics*" kunganefuthe elihle kwizifundo jikelele, nakuphuhliso kusetyenziso lweeLwimi zesiNtu njengeelwimi zokufunda nokufundisa kumaziko emfundo enomsila.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my children Siphosethu and Chumani

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

South Africa, like many countries of the world, has made numerous changes in the secondary school education curriculum, including changes which resulted from addressing imbalances in the curriculum of the apartheid regime. The South African Education Department's efforts are directed to transforming the curriculum bequeathed by apartheid, through democracy, and developing a curriculum on values promoted by the constitution (Department of Education (DoE), CAPS 2011). The transformation resulted in the introduction of different curriculum systems. The first curriculum that was introduced to replace Bantu Education was the Outcome-based Education (OBE), (DoE, 1997).

The new curriculum OBE introduced new approaches which were aligned with a learner- centred approach across the various school subjects, and which were called learning areas. (DoE: 2002). The OBE promoted the teaching of language based on levels. These levels are explained as follows. According to the (DoE: 2011), Home language (HL) is the language that learners acquire first. However, many schools do not offer the Home language of some learners but have other languages at school offered at home language level. Furthermore, it states that as a result, the term levels refers to the proficiency levels at which language is offered rather than the level of Home language. The OBE curriculum emphasized that learners come to school with the knowledge of their Home language. This is the language that learners speak, use to interact with others at school and outside the school environment. However, with the level of First Additional Language (FAL), the assumption was that learners did not know the FAL language, hence they needed to acquire it. The OBE curriculum therefore, aimed to develop learners' skills in language, like listening, speaking, reading and writing, including comprehension and thinking skills, at the HL and FAL levels. OBE failed to meet those aims because learners' language skills development envisaged by OBE did not improve.

The DoE: 2011, points out that, the OBE was replaced by the Reviewed National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (RNCS) in 2002, which was again reviewed in 2009, and was known as the National Curriculum and Assessment Policy

Statement (NCS). Challenges with NCS resulted in the introduction of the current Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (ibid). The Curriculum and Assessment policy Statement (CAPS) outlines the content and the skills to be learnt across subjects and across the phases. The CAPS gives direction to learners and teachers on what needs to be done, and the quality and quantity of work to be covered. The direction provided assists learners, teachers and government officials to plan. The view of explicit teaching of language aims to produce learners who are able to use language and literacy skills to advance their writing. The writing skill is one of the skills that are needed across the curriculum. This is the skill that requires learners to practically use certain text organisational skills and language choices to produce different types of texts. CAPS promotes the achievement of the teaching of writing as one of the important skills in language teaching. The learners are required and expected to produce different types of texts from a wide range of resources. These include texts that depict narratives, descriptive, recounts, expositions, factual, biographies and argumentative texts.

The text-based approach is one of the approaches that are advanced by CAPS in promoting writing at schools DoE (2011). The text- based approach is discussed in chapter two, section 2.5. The text-based approach to language teaching is also proposed by the South African education's new curriculum CAPS. The text- based approach promotes the support of learners' writing through the following criteria which assist learners in writing for different purposes. It does not emphasise the correctness of grammar and spelling like the traditional approach, nor does it promote a learner-centred approach, like the constructivist approach. The text-based approach shares the same views with Genre-based approach embedded in systemic functional linguistics (SFL) where, learners' social context is acknowledged hence, their learning is supported through the use of explicit teaching, scaffolding of their writing, exposure to different types of texts and exposure to linguistic resources.

1.2   AIMS AND PURPOSE OF STUDY

The Genre-based approach has been practised in many parts of the world as an approach aiming to contribute to the improvement of language and literacy development. The approach was mainly developed and put into practice through research projects in Australia. The research was largely conducted in Australian schools by the linguistic theorists like Halliday (1978), Martin and Rose (1985), Cope

and Kalantzis (1993), Matthiessen (1995), and many others. The research on the linguistic structure of written texts is available mainly in English, the language of schooling for the Australian schools. In the current study, the research on the linguistic structure is applicable to other languages such as isiXhosa in the South African context. The main purpose of the current study is to demonstrate the significance of the Genre - based approach to language and literacy development, through the analysis of isiXhosa texts extracted from a History text book and the model answers of the Grade 11 History assessment paper. The current study also aims to demonstrate how academic literacy development across the curriculum can be facilitated through the use of content subject texts. This will be illustrated by using History texts, which can be incorporated in the isiXhosa Home Language subject class for the analysis of language systems based on systemic functional linguistics (SFL).

This thesis aims to establish, with reference to History subject texts which have been translated into isiXhosa, that genre pedagogy is one of the pedagogies that expose learners and educators to varied opportunities for explicit writing. The genre-based approach is based on the systemic functional linguistic (SFL) theory. SFL is concerned with how language makes meaning in real social and academic contexts, such as in the isiXhosa Home Language class and in the History class. The view advanced is that the availability of history texts in the isiXhosa home language (HL) can enhance learners' understanding of genres taught in the History content subject. IsiXhosa Home Language, in this regard, can assist learners to understand the Genre-based approach to text-writing used in the content subject History. This is because cognitive development in the HL lays the foundation for the mastering of English as a lingua franca, used in the History class. The scaffolding of learners thus should be in the area of cognitive development in the content subjects. The development of English for History discourse is thus dependent on the development of competences in isiXhosa HL.

The availability of history texts in the isiXhosa HL class gives learners an opportunity to engage with the different genres and the language resources embedded in the texts. It is vital for learners to be able to classify various texts into different genres as a tool for understanding how language is used in different contexts to make meaning. The schematic structure of selected genres such as chronological genres (e.g. the historical recount) and non-chronological genres (e.g. the factorial and consequential

explanation) will be illustrated. A detailed discussion on the schematic structure identified will be related to the discussion on materials and methodology that can be utilised in isiXhosa HL for the purpose of teaching lexical items and discourse semantic properties of texts for communicative or academic purposes. The features of SFL within the genre approach and the language system that makes up the SFL theory will be also be discussed.

The motivation for the analysis of History texts in the HL class is not only about engaging with texts from content subjects, but it is also to encourage learners to engage with texts critically. I will argue that the effective development of the knowledge of language in the isiXhosa HL class in this regard, through the use of texts from content subjects, can play a key role in advancing academic literacy skills in the Home Language as well as through transfer, in English, the second or additional language through which History is taught.

1.3   THEORETICAL APPROACH

This study draws on Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) as a broad framework which is applicable to the analysis of History texts translated to isiXhosa. This approach has been widely used in the discourse analysis of written texts. Genre pedagogy is based on systemic functional linguistics because of SFL's focus on how language makes meaning. The teaching of writing using the SFL can give isiXhosa home language learners an opportunity in demonstrating the power of learning in a home language first, to understand History which is taught in English as a second language better. This means that the social or academic context and the linguistic choices used in writing play a major role in determining the social or academic purpose of written texts. With regard to this theoretical approach, Grabe and Kaplan (1996:49) as well as Coffin (2006:27) point out that SFL explores the role that language plays, how the society uses it in different ways to achieve different purposes, and how the different means of communication are interpreted with regard to the content or theme of the text. Hence it will be possible for a person who reads the texts to develop a better understanding because of understanding the social or academic background from which the text was written.

Coffin (2006:14) states that the interpretation of the texts can result in the classification of the text as a type of genre. Since SFL has a strong functional

orientation, it is an adaptable and flexible resource to use especially for the analysis of written texts. SFL focuses on how language is used in social contexts, rather than describing a system of rules, and on describing the differences in language choices made, with the aim of making written knowledge socially or educationally useful. Pertaining to tracing the relation with the History content subject, the analytical devices of SFL make it possible to describe the discourse with regard to its organisation, grammar elements and lexical patterns. The organisation, grammar elements and the lexical patterns further make it possible to distinguish history discourse from genres used in writing other subjects.

In view of the above theoretical approach of the current study, it is assumed that SFL within the genre approach is concerned with the language system that learners need to acquire in order to develop and participate meaningfully in different contexts. It is also an approach that makes it possible for the integration of writing instruction between subjects like History and isiXhosa. Christie and Derewianka (2008: 6-7) assert that SFL is concerned with how learners and educators are empowered to master the demands of academic writing. This is what the SFL approach aims to achieve at school level and beyond the years of schooling.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The current study aims to address the following research questions:

1. What role or benefit does the genre approach have in literacy and language development, specifically writing, to learners in both isiXhosa home language and History subject classes?

2. How will the teaching and learning strategies employed in the genre approach assist teachers in facilitating the writing development of learners?

3. What types of genres are learners expected to master in the History content subject?

4. What resources are available to enhance learners' understanding of different types of texts in terms of properties of systemic functional linguistics in language literacy skills (writing) in both isiXhosa home language subject and History?

5.   What kind of literacy support do teachers need to implement the subject content and methodology expected of them by the Curriculum Assessment and Policy Statement (CAPS) curriculum?

6.   How can the specifications stated in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement be utilised to facilitate learning and teaching through genre teaching?

1.5 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The main aim of the current study is to demonstrate the significance of the Genre - based approach to language and literacy development, through the analysis of isiXhosa texts selected from a History text book and the model answers of a Grade 11 History assessment paper. The availability of History translated text in the isiXhosa HL class can assist in explicit teaching of the genres expected at school. The study has the following objectives:

- To demonstrate the important role that the social purpose and linguistic resources play in writing development;

- To analyse Grade 11 history texts demonstrating the hybrid of genres and linguistic resources embedded in these texts;

- To demonstrate the relevant strategies of SFL lexico-grammatical to improve learners' writing skills across the curriculum.

1.6 METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

This study will use the method of text analysis and written discourse analysis within the genre framework underpinned by systemic functional linguistics for collecting the text data. Document analysis based on systemic functional linguistics is one of the text-linguistic research methods that are employed in the research as a tool to collect data. It is a method that invokes qualitative text-linguistic analysis. This research also entails the critical analysis of documents related to the study, ranging from text-books, journals, articles, government policy documents and newspapers. The study used texts excerpts from the Grade 11 History textbook, assessment question papers and Department of Education (DoE) documents to collect language in education policy and curriculum data.

1.7   LANGUAGE PLANNING IN EDUCATION

1.7.1 What are language (s) of planning and their purpose in education?

Alexander (2002:116) asserts that language is the main instrument of communication at the disposal of human beings. He, thus, assumes that the languages in which knowledge production takes place are regarded as the languages of power. Kaplan and Baldauf (1997:3) and Liddicoat (2007:23) define language planning as the body of ideas, laws and regulations, change rules, beliefs and practices intended to achieve a planned change in the language use in one or more communities. Language planning is centred on planning the linguistic behaviour of a particular society. Furthermore, Liddicoat (2007:23) points out that language planning and policy documents also form part of the process of education transformation and he offers suggestions of what education can contribute in society. This is one of the reasons why language planning in education policy has literacy development as one of its main objectives. Hence the view obtains that planning for literacy development is not only focused on improving teaching methods but also on engaging with emerging and evolving society. This demonstrates that the diversity in social behaviour including languages presently dominant, and new official languages, must be taken into account in language in education planning.

Luke (1992:1) states that literacy is a social practice and, therefore, aims at moving beyond the ability to encode language to the ability to interpret text messages. It also aims at exposing leaners to cultural beliefs about what it means to be literate. Therefore, language planning for literacy is an approach for raising questions about what literacy is and what it means to be literate. It also allocates status and functions to languages as languages of literacy (Liddicoat, 2007:24). This is an indication that the functions that language represents in the society give power to how the language will be used as the means of communication.

Furthermore, Liddicoat (2007:24) points out that in language planning the development of literacy is linked to decision making about language use in education. This aspect also includes interest in languages in which literacy is to be developed. For literacy to develop, therefore, it depends on the power and status of a particular language in the society. The languages that will be given official language status typically have power in the society.

In contrast, when literacy is associated with the official language, the literacy education of minority languages suffers. In advancing this view, Nicholls (2001:328) states that countries like Australia, where the language of the minority Aboriginal group, was less privileged than the official language, which was English. English in this context had a negative impact on the literacy development of minority children. Hence, there was inequality in the status that was given to languages. Nicholls (2001:340) points out that the inequality played a major role in denying the minority language speakers a linguistic and cultural identity with their immediate environment. Learners were therefore denied an opportunity to be literate in their language and in English. The Education Department of Australia failed to take into account that the minority children receiving tuition in English were non-mother tongue speakers of English, which was the school's official language (ibid). The education department failed to put in place measures to support languages of minority groups.

According to Manyak (2004:130), there are instances where access to literacy occurs through the official language(s). In such cases, learners who are speakers of the official language are seen as underperforming and their linguistic and cultural identities are modified (ibid). This is because the language of teaching and learning is not the home language of these learners hence, their underperformance. The important point in language planning and, specifically, language planning in education is that education needs to be governed by policies which will bring balance in status and usage of the languages of society as well as the official language(s). According to (Tollefson 2002b) cited in Johnson (2013:54) the terms 'language policy in education' and 'educational language policy' are sometimes used interchangeably. This will be reflected in this study, in the discussion of ways in which policies affect the classroom, the school and society.

It is fundamentally the role and responsibility of the government to plan for social development and to have strategies to counter hindrances against these plans. The languages spoken by the locals in their everyday life need to be prioritised and be developed to the desired standard. For example, language planning is conducted for various sectors of government, including educational and non-governmental sectors. All of these sectors need to decide on the language(s) that they intend to use for business purposes. The sector of education needs to take into account the language spoken by the locals and the availability of resources. This point to the role that the

Language in Education policy needs to play to protect the languages of minorities so that they do not fall away and be in danger of becoming extinct.

Language plays a vital role in the communication and development of the nation at global, national and local levels. Shin (2013:53) states that even though there are complications in distinguishing between language and dialects, languages spoken in the world reveal a huge inequality in language dominance as measured by the number of speakers. Conteh and Meier (2014:4) state that the languages shape the identities of who we are and how we relate to the social world. This is why language has different functions, serving different purposes in different contexts.

Kaplan and Baldauf (1997:122-123) state that language in education planning only affects one sector of the society, and that is education. This is because the education sector deals with the 'standard' version of language. This is done irrespective of whether the language is the official 'national' language or the official 'foreign' language (ibid). Hence, the education department in government is able to take decisions and standardise the languages of teaching and learning. In view of the above, a language policy is developed to put into practice the aims and objectives of the Language in Education policy, where one of these objectives is literacy development. Liddicoat (2007:23) states that language planning is far from being satisfactory regarding the goals for literacy as an educational object or of national development. It is a political statement of values which frames the natural engagement in the economic and social world. Hence, Liddicoat (2007) strongly advocates that it does not only enact the development of literacy through educational provision but it also projects what the ideal literate outcome should be (ibid). This means that the Language in Education policy is aligned to the global official language or languages that will make it possible to compete in the global community. This often happens at the expense of the language of the society, or nation that needs to put the planning into practice.

Kaplan and Baldauf (1997:125) state that to develop a language policy is mostly important for the notion of language planning. They believe that language planning incorporates language policy. The language policy takes into account various aspects namely, the languages spoken in a society, the purpose of those languages, the people who speak them, where and when, as well as the motivation for preserving those languages. Johnson (2013:7) states that a language policy is seen

as a mechanism of power which encourage and entrench language hierarchies that privilege dominant groups and denies other groups equal access to political power and economic resources. Hence, language policy and planning is regarded as a top down approach, because the rules and regulations are made by policy makers who expect people on the ground to implement them.

Thus, language policies are often viewed as tools to advantage political groups in a position of power. In advancing views about language education policy, Johnson (2013:53) states that a Language in Education policy is concerned with decisions only about languages and their uses in school. This is so because there are a number of factors that are taken into account as part of language in education implementation plans. These factors also differ from one nation's language needs to the other, depending on the education systems. According to Johnson (2013:53) the Language in Education policy covers a range of areas like, *curriculum policy, personnel policy, materials policy, community policy and evaluation policy.*

Curriculum policy is a policy that is concerned with the notional time and space allocated to the language of instruction. The policy has power in deciding the language that will take status of being the language of instruction. This is where a discussion on the time allocation for all subjects can be conducted, taking into account the needs of the curriculum, and this differs from country to country. Kaplan and Baldauf (1997:129) state that in situations where there are bilingual content language programmes, the curriculum can serve a purpose of increasing the time for language instruction. This, therefore, means that for this study, the language of isiXhosa in the Home language class will be afforded an opportunity to engage with English, the content subject language. A more communicative situation of learning, through the scaffolding of bilingual text engagement will be possible.

Personnel policy: refers to the educators that are trained in policy to be of assistance to the school community, educators and society. The personnel must be fluent in the language of instruction. In the South African context, each Department of Education has officials who have the responsibility to promote the implementation of policy and run workshops to assist schools and new educators. Therefore, the role of being policy personnel is part of the official's responsibility, while at school level, within the School Management Team (SMT) there is someone responsible for monitoring policy matters.

Materials policy: this policy is concerned with the material needs of the school subjects. The content of each language is taken into account when allocating materials. It is also important that the materials must also be in line with the methodology of that particular subject. The language of instruction takes priority. This means that print rich environments are important for the promotion of the language of instruction in and outside the school borders.

Community policy: this policy takes into account the community in which learners and educators live. The parents' body that represents the school is governed by such a policy. This policy also encompasses policy around fundraising ventures which are supported by the community. The last policy area that the Language in Education policy covers is the *policy of evaluation*. This policy plays a role in the evaluation of the whole curriculum including the content, expenditure and profit and all the projects that the language in education officials consider as important for language development. The concept of multilingualism comes as a result of the discussions on, and ways of understanding, the language policy, where the society that the learners come from is multilingual. The role that multilingualism plays in developing a Language in Education policy is an important one.

1.7.2 Multilingual Language in Education Policy

According to de Cervantes (2015:11), Hoffmann and Stavans (2015:3), as well as Willans (2015:228-229), multilingualism is borne out of the contact between speakers of different languages and when there is a change in personal circumstances that places a person in a new linguistic environment. Furthermore, they state that the growing demand for international communication and international influence are some of the factors that have led to a large number of people possessing knowledge of more than one language. Even though Graddol (2006:131) points out that multilingualism are an attribute of the individual, it has a significant presence in the society. Wolfgang von Goethe (2014:135) states that multilingualism is dynamic, therefore the need for literacy and language development is extensive.

In advancing their view about multilingualism, Otwinowska and De Angelis (2014: xiii) point out that multilingualism is generally perceived as a positive phenomenon. They state that there is evidence that having knowledge of two or more languages positively affects cognitive development. Furthermore, Otwinowska and De Angelis

(2014: xiii) state that people and individual countries must be keen to move from a monolingual (when a person knows and speaks one language) to a multilingual (when a person knows and speaks more than one language) conceptualisation of language knowledge, language policy and individual language behaviours.

Given that multilingualism is dynamic, it is, however, of importance to the sector of education. This is because it has a role to play in protecting and maintaining languages, speech communities, identities and linguistic existence. According to Hornberger (2003), the sociocultural context of a multilingual world underpins the relationship between languages and various policy strategies. The strategies are those that can be used to achieve a balance between all languages in a given environment. Multilingualism is of extensive benefit rather than disadvantaging communities.

Multilingual education is defined differently by various scholars, but with commonalities. Skutnabb-Kangas and McCarthy (2008) cited in Willans (2007: 229), propose a sociolinguistics-driven definition. The definition states that multilingual education is based on the use of two or more languages rather than the teaching of the formal aspects of language. Cummins (2007, 2009), Baker and Garcia (2007), and May (2007) cited in Willans (2007: 229), suggest a more sociocultural educational perspective entailing that school subjects should be taught through the medium of two or more languages, which will promote language learning, instead of teaching languages as subject matter. The latter part of multilingual education is what this study aims to promote and support, as one of the suggestions that will assist isiXhosa language learners to understand the linguistic dynamics of History texts. Countries globally have policies that govern their education system; South Africa also has a Language in Education policy which governs the language choices in education. The following section will discuss the South African Language in Education policy (LiEP).

1.7.3 Language in Education Policy (LiEP) in South Africa

The new constitution of the Republic of South Africa states that there are 11 official languages in the country, including Sign Language (Department of Education, 1997). This means that the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) needs to reflect and operate within that model of 11 official languages. In South Africa, the official

languages are not the languages of the majority of its citizens. English is the official language in government and in the education sector, which is common in countries that were historically colonised by Britain. Alexander (2002:175) advances the view that the language of power in the post-apartheid South Africa is undoubtedly English.

This is because the English language still enjoys a higher status in South Africa than any other language. It is important to understand that both the regimes that governed South Africa prior to 1994, did not base their Language in Education policy on African languages. During British rule prior to 1948, English was the official language. British rule came to an end in 1948 and a new regime, the Afrikaans nationalist government, came into power. The introduction of apartheid (1948-1994), which led to legislated development, separated along the racial lines, promoted the use of Afrikaans. The apartheid government came to an end in 1994, and the new Language in Education Policy was adopted in 1997 by the largely African nationalist government. This is the policy on which the current South African language policy choices in education are based. One of the purposes of LiEP is to facilitate an inclusive education policy with regard to the use and learning of languages, and to encourage multilingual education.

According to the LiEP of South Africa, the policy should be seen a means by which the policy for language in education is being developed. It is developed as part of the national language plan. The plan, which integrates sectors of the society, includes physically challenged individuals like the deaf community. The post-apartheid constitution of the Republic of South Africa recognises 11 official languages, namely, Afrikaans, English, Ndebele, Northern Sotho, Sotho, Tsonga, Tswana, Venda, Xhosa and Zulu, in the country including that of South African Sign Language. This means that the (LiEP) operates within a certain paradigm, which is demonstrated below from an extract taken from the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) document (Department of Education, 1997).

1. In terms of the new Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, the government, and thus the Department of Education, recognises that our cultural diversity is a valuable national asset and hence is tasked, amongst other things, to promote multilingualism, the development of the official languages, and respect for all languages used in the country, including South African Sign Language and the languages referred to in the South African

Constitution.

2. The inherited language-in-education policy in South Africa has been fraught with tensions, contradictions and sensitivities, and underpinned by racial and linguistic discrimination. A number of these discriminatory policies have affected either the access of the learners to the education system or their success within it.

3. The new language in education policy is conceived of as an integral and necessary aspect of the new government's strategy of building a non-racial nation in South Africa. It is meant to facilitate communication across the barriers of colour, language and region, while at the same time creating an environment in which respect for languages other than one's own would be encouraged.

4. This approach is in line with the fact that both societal and individual multilingualism are the global norm today, especially on the African continent. As such, it assumes that the learning of more than one language should be general practice and principle in our society. That is to say, being multilingual should be a defining characteristic of being South African. It is constructed also to counter any particularistic ethnic chauvinism or separatism through mutual understanding.

5. A wide spectrum of opinions exists as to the locally viable approaches towards multilingual education, ranging from arguments in favour of the cognitive benefits and cost-effectiveness of teaching through one medium (home language) and learning additional language(s) as subjects, to those drawing on comparative international experience demonstrating that, under appropriate conditions, most learners benefit cognitively and emotionally from the type of structured bilingual education found in dual-medium (also known as two way immersion) programmes. Whichever route is followed, the underlying principle is to maintain home language(s) while providing access to and the effective acquisition of additional language(s). Hence, the Department's position that an additive approach to bilingualism is to be seen as the normal orientation of our language-in-education policy. With regard to the delivery system, policy will progressively be guided by the results of comparative research, both locally and internationally.

6. The right to choose the language of learning and teaching is vested in the

individual. This right has, however, to be exercised within the overall framework of the obligation on the education system to promote multilingualism.

In light of the above paradigm, the interpretation of LiEP based on the notion of research on multilingualism in the South Africa context is noted in points 1, 4, 5 and 6. In all these points LiEP is said to aim at promoting individual and societal multilingualism in education. In point 5 it is interestingly stated that, irrespective of which route is followed, given the notion of multilingual education, the underlying principle is to maintain the home language(s). Alexander (2002) asserts that learners become self-confident and perform at their best when they are able to use the languages that shaped them from childhood. Furthermore, he states that one's mother tongue lays a foundation for all learning, and to be denied the use of one's language is the very meaning of oppression.

The policy states in point 5 that access to effective acquisition of additional languages needs to be provided. This means that it can be possible for isiXhosa home language speakers to have access to History subject texts in isiXhosa, and also have access to the text in English, the medium of instruction which is an additional language in most schools for learners who have an African home language. The possible availability of texts in isiXhosa and English is supported by the notion of bilingualism as articulated by the LiEP in point 5 of the paradigm document. In light of the above, Shin (2013:25) advances the view that bilingualism is a phenomenon that is growing in schools and society in a globalized world.

Bilingualism plays a role in language development globally, but has a limited role in elevating local languages to become languages of power. In light of this, Shin (2013:45) states that globalisation opens up access to international markets and information networks, but, in general, this tends to be harmful to local languages, cultures, and identities. English is a powerful lingua franca whose popularity and widespread usage have been unmatched in history. Shin (2013) states that this is because English is taught in many countries around the world as a compulsory subject along with mathematics and literacy in the societal language.

English as a lingua franca is therefore a force to be reckoned with where local languages are concerned. However, if English can be used in conjunction with local languages it will benefit the learners. Local languages will not have to compete for official status as is the case in many countries like Kenya and South Africa. Hence, Hopewell and Escamilla (2014: 181) state that research indicates that bilingual education, where students are educated in two languages, results in superior opportunities to learn. This view, for the study means that History texts written in English will be made available in the isiXhosa home language class for History content subject. This will mean that learners will engage with the same texts in isiXhosa home language class and in History class where teaching is mainly in English. Thus, learners can engage with the text in their home language, cognitively and will be able to transfer the skills learnt to English, which is used in the History content class.

1.7.4 The role of Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)

The South African education system is based on the curriculum known as the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement which came into effect in January 2011. It was developed from the amendments of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS). Recall the discussion on the curriculum changes including NCS in section 1.1. The CAPS is based on varied principles, such as, social transformation, active and critical learning, high level knowledge and high level skills. For the purpose of this study, only the principle of social transformation is relevant. This principle ensures that the educational imbalances of the past such as, different curriculum and policies for different racial groups and overcrowding are redressed, and that equal educational opportunities are provided for all sections of the population, including along racial lines, mental and physical ability, and vocational training. According to the DOE: FET (2011: 4)

> The CAPS promotes text based teaching using a variety of text. The role of the home language is to provide for language proficiency that reflects the mastery of basic interpersonal communication skills required in social situations and the cognitive academic skills essential for learning across the curriculum.

Literacy development via reading, viewing and writing are highly emphasised skills in CAPS. The policy document notes that learners develop proficiency in reading and viewing a wide range of literary and non-literary texts, including visual texts (DOE, 2011:10). It also states that learners need to recognise how genre and register reflect the purpose, audience and context of texts. For this study the view held is that the curriculum supports the genre approach in teaching reading and writing, as well as the importance of using language structures promoted by SFL. CAPS emphasizes in this principle the use of language as a tool across the curriculum. This accommodates the use of history content texts in the isiXhosa HL class to teach genres which the two subjects have in common.

History as a school subject encompasses content knowledge and skills such as communicative, interpretive, argumentative skills, expressing of opinion and analytical skills. (DOE, 2011:42). They are both demanding and need to be mastered in order to be successful. Learning history encompasses varied writing activities like biographies, recounts and accounts. Thus practice and scaffolding are needed in order for learners to distinguish and master the genres and the linguistic features related to different style of writing.

In conclusion, any language planning process needs to include members of society so that the decisions about official languages reflect the language(s) of the society. The freedom to use one's own language should not be seen as a privilege but as one of the basic human rights. The Language in Education policy has to play the role of promoting relationships between the different language groups that societies comprise of. It is advantageous to take into consideration the powerful impact that home languages of individuals have on cognitive development. Bilingual education, which includes the home language, as in the case of making history texts available, is very important. As a country, South Africa should not privilege foreign languages to the detriment of indigenous languages. The use of English as a lingua franca is necessary, but it should not prevent learners from engaging with texts in their home languages. The resources needed for the promotion of history texts in isiXhosa, including the training of educators, should be accommodated during planning.

1.8   ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter introduces the study and it focuses on the context and the historical background of the study. It provides the aims and the objectives of the study, including the methodology applied in collecting data.

Chapter 2: Genre based research and practice on literacy development across the years of schooling

This chapter will explore the theoretical principles underpinning the genre approach, the approaches prior the adoption of the genre approach and systemic functional linguistics (SFL). The principles that govern the genre approach and SFL will be used in the analysis of the History text translated into isiXhosa. The discussion in this chapter will show how the failure of the traditional and progressivist approaches led to dominance of the genre approach. It will also demonstrate that a functional linguistics analysis can bring about meaning to a context of culture and the context of situation, invoking the linguistic resources employed to achieve that meaning. The genres that are related to language and teaching are briefly highlighted in this chapter. The genres that are related to the History discourse are also highlighted but are discussed in detail in Chapter three and are analysed through the use of actual texts in Chapter four and five, respectively.

Chapter 3: Knowledge of language and grammar in genre based teaching and learning

This chapter will explore knowledge of language and grammar teaching in genre pedagogy and SFL. This chapter is concerned with the vital role that knowledge of language and grammar teaching play in writing-based literacy and language development. The discussion is divided into two parts. The first section is concerned with the genre families that the learners are expected to produce and understand for the school subject History, as well as other genres.

The second part of the discussion is about the role that the functional model of language plays in meaning-making, using the resources found in the language system. The functional model's language system is made up of the three metafunctions. Each metafunction illustrates a different role that language plays and

each will be discussed in detail in this chapter. The metafunctions demonstrate the relationship between the elements of genre analysis namely, the ideational, textual and interpersonal. Each element has features which will also be discussed in detail in Chapter three and demonstrated through the analysis of texts in Chapters four and five.

Chapter 4: A genre based analysis of text from history textbook

This chapter is concerned with the analysis of texts, applying the theoretical elements discussed in both chapters two and three. Three History texts (texts A, B and C) translated into isiXhosa will be analysed. Two of the three texts (A and B) are analysed in Chapter four and one text (C) is analysed in Chapter five. Texts A and B are excerpts from a longer text in the Grade 11 History text book, while text C is from the model answers for the history assessment paper, completed and translated by Grade 11 History educators.

Chapter 5: A genre-based analysis of essay model answers from grade 11, history exam paper 2013

This chapter demonstrates the analyses the model answers from an essay type Paper 1 question of Grade 11, 2013. The analysis of the text through the application of the SFL theoretical elements discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, respectively.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

This chapter presents the conclusions of the study. It examines the significance of the study to the use and teaching of language across the curriculum promoted within the current Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) for both isiXhosa Home Language and the content subject History. The chapter makes recommendations based on the South African educational context, about the role that the school language policy needs to play, the availability of learning materials in at least two languages (i.e. Home Language and English, the language of teaching and learning, for History as content subject). Lastly, the chapter also presents recommendations on the impact of teacher training by the Department of Education.

CHAPTER TWO
GENRE-BASED RESEARCH AND PRACTICE OF LITERACY DEVELOPMENT

2.1   INTRODUCTION

In this chapter of the study the focus will be on reviewing the research literature from a range of perspectives on literacy development. The review of literature is guided by the theoretical underpinnings that led to the development of different approaches to literacy and language development, namely, the Genre-based approach (GBA) and the Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL) approach. Firstly, this chapter examines the background and the considerations of the different approaches prior to the genre-based approach namely, the traditional approach and the progressivist approach, which later became known as the constructivist approach. This part will be followed by a discussion of the distinction between genre and text as concepts and how they relate to literacy and language development. Secondly, the chapter explores the role played by the genre-based approach to teaching literacy and language skills to learners whose home language (HL) is different from the language of teaching and learning (LoLT). Lastly, the chapter discusses the theoretical framework of systemic functional linguistics which directs the study to exploring the significant concepts and methods that educators can adapt to suit their context while providing support to language development of isiXhosa learners to support teaching and learning across the curriculum.

2.2   THEORETICAL VIEWS ON LITERACY AND WRITING DEVELOPMENT

In this section, I examine the broad theoretical views that led to the Genre-based approach. According to Rodgers (2001), Hyland (2002) and Johns (2002), referenced in Derewianka (2003:134), genre-based approaches have brought about a new wave to language teaching. Furthermore, they state that genre has brought about a paradigm shift that is moving towards a more social contextual approach.

The school environment is one space where learners' ability to use language is encouraged and nurtured. This encouragement and nurturing from the teacher has the potential to open up a world of experience for the learners. Derewianka (2003:133) points out that the school environment is a space where teachers induct learners into the linguistic demands of those genres that are important for participation in the school and wider community.

Furthermore (Schleppegrell, 2004:1) states that it is through language that school subjects are taught, and through language that students' understanding of concepts is realised and evaluated in the school context. This view indicates that language proficiency plays a vital role in the pedagogic process. The following section will explore the role which language plays in literacy development during the years of schooling.

2.2.1   Language in literacy development

According to Ortega (2009:1) language is one of the unique capacities that the human species possesses. Ortega further states that language is involved in other functions, including consciousness, sociality and culture. This means that language forms part of a human's daily activity. Learners who are able to speak, write and read in their first languages have a potential to face literacy challenges with confidence (Schleppegrell, 2004:4). She further states that the learners whose language has been used in their social context are well prepared for the requirements of using language at school. It, therefore, indicates that for learners' language to be used effectively at school, it needs to be developed from their immediate home environment.

Language is a tool that supports learning beyond the boundaries of understanding. It affords people with an opportunity to analyse and question other people's writing. This view entails that people engage with a written text. The written text is intended to have benefit to the reader. Hence, the writer writes to, and for, a certain audience. Therefore, literacy in general is an activity that needs to be taught as a skill. Grabe and Kaplan (1996:6) point out that writing abilities are not naturally acquired, they must be culturally transmitted in the entire environment that learners come across. Furthermore, they state that literacy is a socially motivated phenomenon in that its purpose, uses, and values are determined by the society in which literacy skills are practised. This demonstrates that writing is a set of skills to be practised and learned through guidance from someone, a language teacher, with experience.

It is important to be familiar with the cultural background of the writer to understand his/her writing style and the target audience. Grabe and Kaplan (1996) state that literacy is not universal, hence it is a contextualised skill, determined by the society in which it functions. Furthermore, language manifests itself in spoken, signed and

written systems (Ortega, 1999: 2). This leads the study to the discussions on the differences between genre and text as concepts and how on they relate to literacy and language development.

2.2.2   Genres and texts

According to Knapp and Watkins (2005: 13) language is processed and understood in the form of a text, which can be in any meaning-bearing form, for example, a book, a film, an advertisement, a cartoon and newspaper articles. The processes of producing a text reflect the social context of that particular text. Hence, they state that the text is sometimes treated as a product. Genres and texts complement each other concerning the viewpoint of the texts, thus resulting in a close relationship between the two concepts. Paltridge (1996: 237) points out that it is of importance to understand the difference between genre and text, which is useful for literacy and language development. Biber (1988) defines a genre as a category of texts assigned on the basis of the external criteria and situations in which they are used as examples, as discussed above by Knapp and Watkins (2005). The text, on the other hand, represents groupings of texts which are similar in their linguistic form.

According to Knapp and Watkins (2005:29) a text has a communicative function, which can be demonstrated by, for example, greeting between friends, an advertisement or in a film. Furthermore, they state that different types of texts differ in their characteristics, depending on their function. Hence, texts that shape a genre are likely to be culturally recognised and be categorised in different forms, such as narratives, descriptions, exposition and recounts. Knapp and Watkins (2005) state that texts can be categorised into different kinds, for example, literary text, factual texts and media texts. Literary texts use language as a tool for the reader to create images and visualise the text, as in novels and poems. Factual texts play a role in communicating knowledge that is classified and constructed, for example, essays and arguments. Media texts are any of the texts used for communication with larger audience for example, newspapers, broadcasting channels and films (ibid).

Swales (1990:58) points out that genre literacy puts emphasis on the socio-cultural context as a means of achieving the communicative goal in context. Purcell-Gates, Duke and Martineau (2007:8) advance the view of genre as socially constructed language practice which represents community norms and expectations. This,

therefore, means that genre is mostly concerned with the texts that are intended to achieve a social or academic purpose. Thus, Knapp and Watkins (2005:37) advance the view that genre is based on the social context and the relations, in which the texts are produced, while a text, is based on the notion that the text gives learners access to a language process to construct different kinds of texts. However Purcell-Gate et.al argue that the community norms that genre represents are not static but they change over time to reflect the change in social-cultural needs and context.

From the above discussions and viewpoints it is evident that both genre and text play an important role in communication and in serving certain goals in texts. Genres are the products of different types of text which are classified according to the purpose of the genre. This, therefore, is an indication that there is no clear indication on difference between genres and texts. This is due to the fact that there are texts that have the characteristics of hybrid genres embedded in them, while others might not have all the characteristics to be classified as a certain genre. For example, traces of a recount genre can be found in a narrative text, making that text not purely a narrative. The success in literacy development relating to understanding genres and texts depends on the explicit teaching of grammar.

Hyland (2003: 21) maintains that genre is based on the social purpose of the texts and that the features of similar texts depend on the social context. Knapp and Watkins (2005: 26) advance the view that when the understanding of genre includes grammatical forms, then the genres cannot be seen as product or text type, but as the main set of generic processes, namely, describing, explaining, instructing, arguing and narrating. In order for learners to be able to perform and master these processes the explicit teaching of genre, text and grammatical forms is crucial. Hence, the understanding of functional aspects of grammar is important to the genre approach. The functional aspect of grammar will be discussed in detail in chapter three. The following section will discuss further the failure of the approaches that existed prior to the introduction of the genre approach. It will be followed by a section on the genre-based approach, the approach that brought about a different perspective to literacy and language development.

2.3   APPROACHES PRIOR TO GENRE PEDAGOGY

The following sections 2.3.1 and 2.3.2. focus on the discussion of teaching and learning approaches prior to genre pedagogy. The discussion will be on how these approaches were implemented, the impact they had, and the challenges or criticism about them.

2.3.1   The traditional approach

According to Cope and Kalantzis (1993), Martin and Rose (2007), and Rose and Martin (2012) the traditional approach was based on the idea that the world can be described in terms of facts, rules and regulations. They state that it emphasised the parts of speech and correctness of grammar. This means that mastering parts of speech, for example nouns, verbs and pronouns, including correctness, were important. They state that learners were given frames or patterns to use in producing written tasks. This indicated that writing was not a social activity, and nor was it a personal experience. Furthermore, it means that all pieces of writing produced were meant to control learners' understanding of writing in that they wrote what the teacher told them to write and not what they know or are familiar with.

Cope and Kalantzis (1993:10) argue that the traditional approach promoted teaching of grammar. The traditional approach promoted a phonemic view of language. Teaching and learning was achieved through the use of phonics. This means that learners where introduced to single letters before the whole text. Learners had to spell the letters separately and later connect the letters into the words. Therefore, learners where not exposed to the whole text, and separate letters and words were taught out of context.They further state that the teacher was the centre of information in terms of the traditional approach. As pointed out by Rose (2006:71), the classrooms' authority belonged to the teacher. Thus, teaching and learning was based on rote learning, which meant that learners had to remember what was taught, in the order, it was taught.

Rose and Martin (2012:3) state that those learners who mastered the rules of grammar were the ones who succeed at school. This is why it was important to be attentive in class, or else learners would fail in tests and examinations. This means that non-English learners had a disadvantage. Firstly, they were not familiar with the language of teaching and learning, and, furthermore, they were faced with

memorising what they did not understand. These learners did not succeed. It, therefore, demonstrates that the traditional approach did not take into account the importance of meaning and of the social context. This approach undermined the knowledge that learners brought with them to school.

Cope and Kalantzis (1993:10) state that, because learners had to memorise lessons, they did not make learning a meaningful effort. Learners were not given opportunities to show- case their skills and to think creatively. As a result, learners were introduced only later to texts which were detrimental, because they were still struggling to produce meaningful writings. Therefore, the traditional approach brought about a great dissatisfaction that grew among both teachers and parents. This dissatisfaction led to the rejection of the traditional literacy pedagogy, because its rules did not fit students from diverse social contexts. Learners' writing did not improve, hence the dissatisfaction. The failure of the traditional approach led to the introduction of the progressivist approach which was later changed to the constructivist approach, which is the term that will be used in this study. This brings the discussion of this chapter to the constructivist approach.

2.3.2 The progressivist approach

According to Cope and Kalantzis (1993), and Rose and Martin (2012), the constructivist approach was founded by Dewey and Montessori in the 1970s as an alternative approach to the traditional approach. The constructivist approach promoted individual creativity to the traditional routes of direct instruction. Learning was seen as an individual task, and an educator was seen as the facilitator. It promoted the learners' view of becoming active participants. Teaching and learning was done through the methods known as 'process writing' and the 'whole language approach'. Hyland (2004) states that process writing views learning and knowledge as a process through which learners acquire skills. This is because the fundamentals of the process writing capture the view that the focus on the correctness of grammar affects the free flow of learners' writing (ibid). Constructivists are of the view that process writing helps learners to develop relevant ways to express meaning and the content that they want to express. This approach was seen by educators as a solution to the challenges they were faced with. Furthermore, Hyland (2004) states that constructivists viewed traditional teaching strategies as focused on the correctness of grammar while delaying free flow of learners' writing (Hyland, 2004:7).

Hence, constructivism focused on the learners as the driving force of learning based on their experiences as learners.

Process writing further entails that learners write from using their own creativity and choosing their own topics. Constructivists firmly believed that learners needed to drive their own learning by writing from their own experiences. They believed that learners would be successful when they write (Hyland 2004). Learning, for constructivists, was learner-centred. Since learning was treated as dependent on the learner's own experience, it did not help improve English for non-English speakers, as they could not write because of little or no experience in an English environment.

In support of the view that learners should drive their own learning, Rose and Martin (2012: 2) argue that the constructivist approach promoted reading and writing based on personal experience, and invented spelling instruction. Furthermore, they state that it was not designed to provide access to education for the immigrant learners. Instead, learners were faced with more challenges. For instance, the middle class parents were able to support learning of their children. The immigrant learners did not have resources to support writing at school. They did not have access to reading at home and hence were dependent on reading basic picture books at school. Hence, they produced written texts which only demonstrated one style of writing, which researchers classified as the recount genre.

According to Rose and Martin (2012:3) the text that students produced lacked the social context and did not demonstrate the role that language plays in meaning making. This means that the reason for the text being written was not clear. It also means that it was not clear as to what audience the text was written for. They point out that all learners' texts were written around similar events to which the learners were exposed. Hence, the new learners' writing demonstrated mostly writing about the things they did, showing only the recount of events. The fact that learners produced one style of writing encouraged researchers to find out more about the types of writing which learners needed to master. It was clear that the constructivist approach did not improve literacy skills of non- English learners. The failure of the constructivist approach gave researchers enough reason to want to help these learners.

Bomengen (2010) argues that whole language is a constructivist approach to education. She defines it as a method of teaching children to read by recognising words as whole pieces of language. This means that it does not promote literacy development through learning the letters of the alphabet, nor does it introduce letters before exposure to words or text, like in the traditional approach. The teacher's role is to encourage learners to create their own knowledge and texts from experiences. Furthermore, she points out that the constructivist approach views learning as a cognitive experience unique to each learner's own perspective and prior knowledge. Hence, learners are encouraged to take the lead in learning, in reading and writing from their own experiences.

Cope and Kalantzis (1993:4) point out it was assumed that the most effective learning would take place when it was relevant to the individual, rather than institutionally imposed. This means learning depended on the individual learners, on what he or she wanted to learn about. The teacher's role of teaching was changed to the role of a facilitator. The curriculum needs to emphasize a learner's development, rather than content. Hence, learners were given an opportunity to discover their own style of learning and the teacher's role was to assist learners in achieving that independency. Constructivist approaches supported learning of learners who had access to literate environments, while learners from poor literate environments did not succeed with such learning. Hence, learners from literate environments mostly succeeded at school, but not the ones from less to none literate environments. The latter group of learners mostly produced texts representing recounts of events, containing many spelling mistakes. Learners were therefore not motivated to write, especially since the teacher's roles of teaching, supporting and guiding the learning process were not promoted by constructivist pedagogy.

According to Cope and Kalantzis (1993:5) and Knapp and Watkins (2005:14), learners were mainly responsible for their writing and the teacher was no more than a resource whenever needed by the learner. This resulted in poor texts with poor spelling and grammar, which was not received well by many parents. This demonstrated that learners' language needs to be developed. Knapp and Watkins (2005:14-15) state that many people wanted teachers to return to their previous roles and take charge of teaching. The failure of the progressivist approach in improving the literacy skills of learners demonstrated that learners needed to be guided and be taught by teachers for language development and effective teaching and learning to

take place. The writing produced was an indication that teaching methods, and even beliefs about how learning happens, needed to change.

Cope and Kalantzis (1993: 6) criticise the consequences of the progressivist pedagogy. They argue that the pedagogy demonstrated that students produced texts in only a limited range of written genres, mostly of personal recounts. This demonstrated that personal recounts that were produced were monotonous and repetitive. They express the view that learners were only exposed to one type of text, thus limiting their language development and effective learning. Knapp and Watkins (2005:76) further state that the constructivist literacy pedagogy made little distinction between oral and written language. The pedagogy saw the teaching of grammar and different textual forms as a process that happened automatically when learners engage with each other in class. This unfortunately was not the case, because learners did not demonstrate any understanding of different textual forms in their writing. This also indicated that learners should not be exposed to oral orientated texts only, but to non-oral orientated (written) texts as well.

The constructivist approach was criticized for under-emphasizing the role of teachers. Knapp and Watkins (2005:77) point out that the fact that the teachers' role was not seen as important in constructivist pedagogy came under attack from many education and linguistic researchers. This is because there was no improvement in the literacy skills of learners concerning writing, and only one type of text, that is recount texts, was produced by learners. Knapp and Watkins (2005) argue that, learners needed to be exposed to different genres of written texts, and to engage with these texts through guided instruction by the teacher. This means that learners needed to be taught about the processes of writing through brainstorming, drafting, revising and editing their writing without being explicitly taught the rules of grammar. Martin and Rose (2007: 4) point out that the constructivist theory recognised the importance of learning language from instances in their social context, but they lacked a clearly articulated model of the relations between language system, texts and contexts. This attests to the previous views that constructivist theorists viewed learning as an individual task.

The other criticism to constructivism was related to the perception that the pedagogy was not intended to provide an opportunity for education for the marginalised groups of society. This, therefore, meant that the curriculum did not accommodate the

language challenges of non- English speakers. Learners did not have experience of their new environment and did not get any support to read beyond the basic picture books or write few sentences of recount or observation (ibid). Therefore, the teachers expected too much from these learners with little support provided to them.

Cope and Kalantzis (1993) and Knapp and Watkins (2005) advance the view that the constructivist approach left learners unskilled in many domains of learning. Parents were not in favour of the constructivist approach. There was a need to propose new approach to literacy and language development. This dissatisfaction of teachers led to an advocacy campaign against the constructivist approach. The failure of the constructivist pedagogy led to the implementation of the genre-based approach to literacy development. The Sydney school's project was started. Its aim was to promote teaching strategies that would help learners in succeeding with the writing demands of school. The first step was to design a plan to help disadvantaged learners. Rose and Martin (2012: 2) point out that they designed teaching strategies to help learners in writing the genres expected from them at school. It was also intended to provide learners with skills in literacy and cognitive development. The programme was divided into three different phases between the two school groups, namely English and non-English speaking learners. Three phases of the projects were proposed by Rose (2011: 83), and also by Rose and Martin (2012: 2).

The first phase was known as the *'writing project and language and social power'.* In this phase researchers examined the writings that learners produced. The second phase was known as '*write it right'* project. This is the phase that focused on the kinds of genre that learners were expected to have knowledge of in reading and writing of the genres expected at school. The school expected learners to write various genres, as identified by Derewianka (1990), namely **narratives** which tell a story mostly to entertain, **recounts** which aim to tell what happened, **information reports** which provide factual information, **instructional or procedural** reports, which tell the readers what to do, **explanation texts,** which explain why and how things happened and **expository texts** which present a certain view point. The third and last phase was the *'reading to learn'* project. The above stages paved the way to explicit literacy and language development to assist non-English learners in coping in the new language and school environments.

The section that follows introduces the genre-based approach, as an alternative to progressivist approach.

2.4   THE GENRE BASED APPROACH

2.4.1   Genre pedagogy

Education is one of the fields that have brought about many changes in teaching and learning. These changes were introduced in an attempt to improve the literacy development of all learners at the early stages of development. Hence, there have been many different approaches to literacy development, and the genre-based approach is one of those approaches.

The genre-based approach originated from Sydney, Australia. It was developed as a result of the influx of immigrants who came seeking employment opportunities (Cope and Kalantzis, (1993), Halliday and Hasan, (2006), Martin and Rose, (2007), Christie and Derewianka, (2008) and Rose and Martin, (2012).The influx resulted in the growth of numbers of primary school children from non-English speaking communities, who enrolled in Sydney schools. The teaching and learning in Sydney at the time was in English. This implies that the education system of Australia did not provide for the needs of immigrant children. It did not take into account the social context of the learners and the experiences that they came with. Hence, there was a literacy need for the learners who came from non-English schools, to be accommodated by the school system of Australia.

Johns (2002) states that the genre-based approach emerged as an alternative approach in Sydney schools, since the traditional and the constructivist approaches failed to improve the literacy and language development of non-English learners. Derewianka (2003:135) advances the view that, the genre-based approach puts emphasis on the making of meaning based on the whole text. This, therefore, means that genre is not only concerned with parts of the text, like in the traditional approach, but takes into consideration that meaning accumulates and develops through engagement and exposure to different texts. The situation in the Sydney schools, due to non-English speaking learners enrolled, meant that teachers also needed to use different methods of teaching. Johns (2002), Martin and Rose, (2007) and (2008), Christie and Derewianka (2008) and Martin (2012) state that, due to the challenges that schools were faced with, there was a need for a new literacy

programme. Hence, a literacy programme known as the 'Sydney School' was commenced in 1979. The aim of the project was to address the literacy needs of primary school children in Sydney, including both speakers and non-speakers of English.

Rose and Martin (2012:2) point out that the teaching approach that was used in Sydney at the time of influx of learners was based on the traditional approach. The pedagogy promoted rote learning. This means teaching was based on memorisation of words. Learners were passive in class while the teacher was active. The important thing was for the learners to remember the order of features in the language system. It was important to master grammar rules, and the teacher was the main source of information. Learners who mastered learning being taught through the traditional approach were successful in school. There was definitely a need for a change in the teaching approach. The new learners needed to be assisted to understand English, which was the language of schooling. The need for change also meant that teachers needed to look at other teaching strategies that would benefit the non-English speaking learners.

Rose and Martin (2012:3) state that teachers were unhappy about the fact that learners were not succeeding. Unfortunately, teacher training was also based on the traditional approach strategies discussed in section 2.3.1 and 2.3.2. This entailed that the teacher training approach had to change. The change brought in a new approach to teaching and learning. Furthermore, they state that the project resulted in the formation of the concept of genre as a 'staged goal-oriented social process. They further point out that the genre-based approach emerged as an original approach to literacy teaching (2012: 4). Therefore, the approach was developed as a means of support to non-English learners in acquiring language of schooling and it made explicit how teachers could be of assistance to these learners. This approach promotes a principle of scaffolding to all learners. It is based on the view that all learners have the potential to do their best, at different levels of learning and where support is given. It also promotes instructional support of making use of the learning cycle, which will be discussed in detail in subsection 2.5.1. The following section explores the text-based approach model to language teaching.

2.5   THE TEXT-BASED APPROACH TO LANGUAGE TEACHING

The text-based approach model to language teaching is categorised under the genre-based approach. The introduction of the curriculum cycle paved the way for the introduction of genre pedagogy. The curriculum cycle helped learners engage and understand how a text works and how to write their own texts. Hence, genre shares a close connection with text because it attaches knowledge to that of the social context. The text-based approach to language teaching is also proposed by the South African education department's new curriculum, known as the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), (DBE, 2011). The implementation of the genre approach by teachers in the teaching of writing and language development is likely to demonstrate their understanding, perceptions and approaches that CAPS promotes for teaching writing. An understanding of the teaching model of the genre approach could enable the teachers to meet the diverse writing needs of non-English speaking learners. Therefore, when teachers are able to acknowledge learners' diverse capabilities, they understand the importance of inclusive education stated in the Assessment Protocol (DoE, 2011).

According to Rose and Martin (2012:46, 53) the first thing that researchers who initiated the Sydney school project did, was to build a model of language in its social context, to be used by teachers to plan and deliver writing lessons. They wanted an approach that would benefit all students, regardless of their social background. Hence, the goals of this model were to bring the linguistic nature of students' writing to the fore, to make the teaching of language explicit and to illustrate how texts make meaning. This meant that meanings in a text are referred to as genre, because meaning construes genre (ibid). In support of Rose and Martin (2012), Mohammad (2006:82) pointed out that the text-based approach proposes that writing could be taught by synthesizing the strength of the process and genre approaches in the classroom. Furthermore they point out that this approach could use a text as a model without sacrificing the fundamental elements of other approaches. This meant that, teachers will have an opportunity to expose learners to other approaches in support of the learners' writing needs.

Thus, the genre approach was used in the teaching of writing because it takes into account the social purpose of written text and embraces a range of orientations and practices. These are initiatives that were aligned to genre in assisting the learners to

improve their writing Hyland (2003:18). Rose and Martin (2012:58) state that since learners needed support in their writing, to close the gap between the English and non-English learners, the scaffolding interaction cycle was developed. The introduction of the scaffolding cycle paved the way for the introduction of the curriculum cycle. Rose (2006), as well as Martin and Rose (2007), point out that the scaffolding cycle is underpinned by Vygotsky's (1962) social learning theory. They state that Vygotsky (2006) insisted that learning takes place in the zone between what learners can do independently and that for which they need support. This is known as the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and it is that gap between individuals' ability and what they need support for, to master. This cycle put emphasis on the preparation and elaboration steps in the development of writing. These are steps where the teacher provides the support through the scaffolding (ibid).

According to Rose (2006) learners are guided by the teacher to recognise and use patterns of language. For example, if a learner is given a task to read, the teacher must be certain that the learner is prepared to read with fluency, can comprehend the text, and then the teacher can give support and elaborate on aspects that the learner still needs to master. Rose and Martin (2012:63) point out that Rothery (1996) translated the notion of 'guidance through interaction in the context of shared experience into literacy teaching practice. This guidance, they point out, was reconceptualised as a learning cycle. The curriculum cycle is an appropriate model in the teaching of writing since it aims to help learners engage and understand how a text works and how to write their own texts. The section that follows will discuss the role represented by the teaching or learning cycle in writing instruction.

2.5.1   The teaching and learning cycle

Johns (2002:5) states that the learning cycle represents the support system where teachers first model texts from genre and discuss features and then assist learners to use the skill individually. This is why teachers are encouraged to employ strategies like the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) in scaffolding learning. The ZPD is a Vygotskian view, which views language as a social practice. This means that learning is influenced from the society rather than from an individual. Lantolf (2006a:726, cited in Ortega, 1999: 224), points out that any knowledge and capacity to engage in activity, first starts at the social, then interpersonal and lastly intrapersonal level.

The teaching and learning cycle is an appropriate representation of the process of writing instruction. This is because teachers are able to model writing using it as a tool to improve learners' writing skills. According to Rose (2006), and Rose and Martin (2012), the teaching or learning cycle is made up of three main stages, namely, modelling, joint negotiation and independent construction. The first stage, modelling, entails the teacher explaining the genre to be learnt, its cultural context, characteristics and language features. The second stage, joint negotiation, entails the teacher taking the role of the scribe and writing another text in the same genre together with the class. At this stage the teachers uses the same modelled genre to prepare learners for writing. This is the stage where learners work with the teacher to construct the new text. Learners come up with suggestions and the teacher assists in placing the relevant information where needed. Learners are guided through the writing process and are given opportunities to engage with their peers and the teacher. The third and last stage is independent construction. This is the stage where learners have an opportunity to write their own text imitating the same steps demonstrated by the teacher in stages one and two (ibid).

Rose (2007:7) argues that all three stages entail a progressive growth in skills, where learners are introduced to the content of the genre in practice, while setting the context, which affords learners the opportunity to understand the social purpose of the genre. Furthermore, the purpose of the teaching or learning cycle is for learners to take control of the genre, both in terms of being able to write it and also reflecting critically on its role (ibid). In support of this view, Mthembu (2009:256), states that the teaching or learning cycle is based on the notion that language is best learned where there is support and interaction in the context of shared experience. Furthermore, the cycle contributes to the development of confidence in learners. The main objective of this stage is for students to reflect on what they have learned, write down the shared ideas and be on the route to produce a well-structured text or essay (Martin, 1992). Learners are being prepared to be independent writers.

Figure 1 below represents the stages of the teaching or learning cycle.

Teaching/Learning LTM Mentoring Cycle
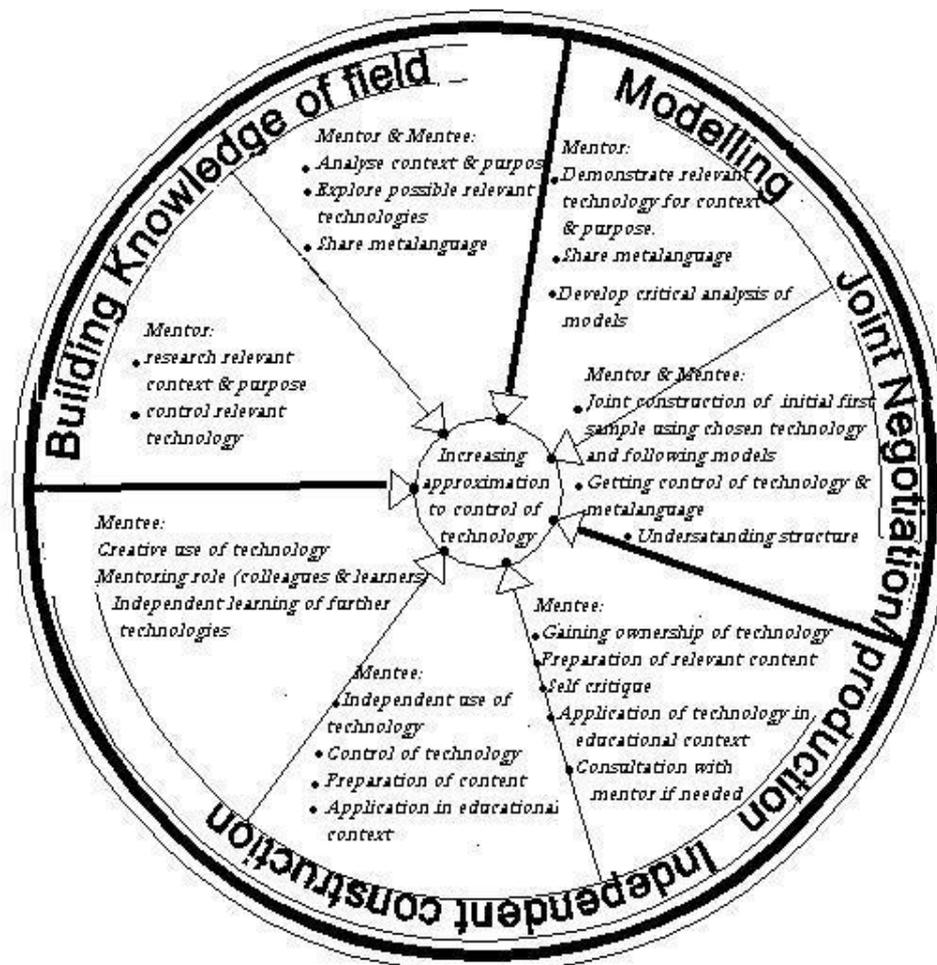
Adapted from *Analysing and Teaching Introductions to Adult Japanese EFL Learners: A Genre-Based Approach, Michael P. Critchley* www.encounters.ip/.../tchnrintros.html. visited 5th October, 2008

Adapted from *Spoken & Written Languae and report writing in the public service, 1994 Feez, S*

Maria Rosa Ochoa, 2008

Figure 1: A representation of a teaching cycle

The use of the above model of writing is an indication that learners do need to be taught writing and the teacher to support learning. The use of the model is based on Vygotsky's learning theory, which puts emphasis on the fact that language is learned through guidance and interaction in the context of shared experiences (Derewianka 2003:134). The notion assumes that learning takes place because teachers construct a supportive scaffold for learners, and withdraw the scaffolding when learners are able to perform the given tasks independently. This means that it takes more than one activity for the learners to understand and master the skill(s) of writing. Rose and

Martin (2012:11-15) point out that the narrowing of students' achievement gap through repeated guided interaction has been demonstrated many times in genre pedagogy. They argue that the teaching of skills or subjects involves teaching through language, while the teaching of literacy involves explicit teaching about language. They point out the importance of understanding how language works. They further point out that students are evaluated based on the knowledge they bring with them to school. In order for the inequality among students to be minimal, students need to be exposed to the same language resources and explicit teaching and learning opportunities to produce the desired learning. The learning cycle is used to assist all learners, thereby minimising the inequalities. It is especially used to prepare learners with poor language skills so that they can succeed in writing genres expected in school (ibid).

Hyland (2003:27) maintains that the genre approach is central to how writers understand, construct and reproduce their social realities because it acts as a social response. The genre writing requires a social context and language features to be used as tools to enrich and improve literacy development (ibid). According to Hyland (2008:543), genre teaching offers learners with a structure to produce text and at the same time it raises awareness of the links between form, purpose and participants' roles in a particular context. According to Tuan Trong LUU (2011) the research demonstrated that the genre-based approach is based on the three stages of the teaching- learning cycle, which has had a great impact on the learners who participated in the research. The learners involved in the project benefited from the use of the teaching cycle.

The cycle acted as a guide and support in understanding key features of genres. For example, the teaching- learning cycle was used in a study conducted in Ho Chi Minh City University of Finance –Marketing, where forty five first year students were invited to take part in an experimental writing class. The participants were taught how to write the biographical recount genre and were later given a task to "write about a famous person" Students were taken through the schematic structure of a biographical recount genre. The structure entails an *orientation, a sequence of events* and *reorientation.* At the end of the research, findings demonstrated that a genre approach based on the three phases of the learning cycle has created a great impact on the students, because more than 80% was successful in gaining control over the key features of the biographical recount genre (Tuan Trong LUU (2011:121).

However, Cope and Kalantzis (1993:2) argue that as much as this approach has brought innovative teaching, the liberal progressivist claimed that genre- literacy entails a revival of transmission pedagogy. They maintain that it seems as though it brings back the formal learning of language facts, as done by the traditional approach. They claim that genre pedagogy advocates transmission pedagogy in the mould of the traditional curriculum, because genre also teaches facts about language. Furthermore, proponents of the genre approach, such as Martin and Rothery (1993) and Cope and Kalantzis (1993), claim that the genre approach is more effective for learners to advance their writing skills in a second language than the constructivist approach which expected learners to write in the foreign language and not be guided by the teachers, but to write from their own experiences.

In further criticising genre pedagogy, Knapp and Watkins (2005:9) argue that genre pedagogy is rigid in classifying text types according to genre, and is based on the features that texts display. They hold this view because some texts have more than one genre and can, therefore, not be easily classified as, for example narrative or recount. Instead, genres need to be seen as multi-textual. However, Christie (1987) and Martin et.al (1987), who were proponents of the Hallidayan perspective, denied this. They asserted that genre knowledge is itself the result of socially situated language practice. It reflects the community norms and expectations which are not static, but change to reflect changing socio-cognitive needs and contexts (Rose and Martin et.al, 1987).

Rose and Martin (2012:18) contend that genre pedagogy has grown from a theory of how speakers use language in social life, which is a functional theory of language, and more explicitly, out of the systemic functional linguistic (SFL) theory which was developed by Halliday (1972) and his colleagues. SFL posits principles, for guiding learners on how to use language effectively across the curriculum. SFL takes into consideration the linguistic mechanisms for analysing genres. Thus, Hyland (2003:24) states that genre pedagogy helps to unite the social and the cognitive because they are central to how writers understand, construct and reproduce their social realities. He also states that as much as the shared sense of genre is needed, it is by no means fixed, discrete or unchanging. This, therefore, means that it is important to empower learners with skills to apply the genre-based approach in more than one context. The following section explores at the language principles of the genre- based approach.

2.5.2 The language principles of the genre-based approach

Bawarshi and Reif (2010:29) state that language is organised according to the manner it is utilised within cultures because the organisation serves a social purpose within that culture. This means that the language choices made in producing a text determine the social context of texts. This is why the genre-based approach is governed by language principles. Martin (1992) cited in Martin and Rothery (1993) argues that the texts produced by learners are all guided by principles. The first principle views language as a system of resources for negotiating meaning or the semiotic system. This means that the genre approach puts emphasis on meaning and how it is constructed through the use of language. The second principle highlights the view that language learning is essentially social. This means that it views language learning as an interactive process, hence it takes into consideration the social context of texts and the importance of the audience for whom the text is written. Thus, Cullip (1999) states that the process of learning happens through negotiation. The negotiation is done with the teachers or care-givers that assist learners. The third principle focuses on the concept of genre. Genre is regarded as an effective device to examine the purpose of writing in different disciplines and the realisation of this purpose in grammar. This, therefore, is an indication that genre is based on text and is staged towards a communicative, social and academic purpose.

Knapp and Watkins (2005:9-21) as well as Martin and Rose (2008:6) further advance the view that genre refers to the language process involved in completing communicative acts using language, and speech acts such as describing and arguing. This process entails using various grammatical resources by learners, which help in the classification of texts into different genres. It is an important stage in learner's writing to be able to demonstrate the text type through the language choices made.

Hyland (2003:22) points out that genre pedagogy aims to (i) understand the ways in which individuals use language in particular communicative situations, and (ii) they employ this knowledge for literacy education. That is why genres are regarded as effective tools in language teaching and development.

Derewianka (1990) points out that there are six genres as mentioned before which are classified according to their primary social purpose. The genres are based on

those proposed by Martin (2002) in the LERN (Literacy and Education Research Network) project. Derewianka (1990) and Cope and Kalantzis (1993) propose that for knowledge about genre to be effective in the classroom, it is important for teachers to model different texts which includes a variety of genres that learners are expected to master. Genres such as the report demonstrate factual texts that describe **what, how** and **why**, and procedure deal with factual texts designed to describe how something is accomplished. Certain genres are viewed as important in encouraging the language development of learners to succeed with schools' writing demands. The genres are different from each other. They depend on the purpose that each one serves and on the language features chosen to make meaning. Consider an explanation about the features and language principle of genres such as those taken from narrative and recount genres. These genres will be discussed in details in chapter three.

The purpose of the narrative text genre is to amuse, to entertain or to instruct. According to Feez and Joyce (1998:24 – 28), the purpose of narratives is to tell stories. Stories show how people react to experiences, and they explore social and cultural values. The perceived structure or design phases of the narrative genre are as follows:

- orientation: this phase introduces the character and information to the reader,
- complication: a reader discovers the problems or challenges with which characters are faced,
- evaluation: this phase usually requires the reader to be sympathetic, or not, towards some of the characters, or the protagonist, and lastly,
- resolution: this is the stage in the narrative where the challenges are solved.

The language features for the narrative genre, specifically, are the simple past tense, past perfect tense or past continuous tense (ibid).

According to Feez and Joyce (1998:4) the purpose of the recount genre is to inform the reading audience about an occasion. It has the following features:

- an orientation stage, where details about the character are given, in summary,
- records of events where all the events that take place are addressed in the order in which they happened, and lastly,

- the re-orientation, where the story is summarised and the main points recaptured.

The language features of the recount genre are past tense and present tense and there is extensive use of pronouns.

Martin and Rose (2008:6-7) point out that as much as genres are guided by language principles, they are also defined as recurrent configurations of meanings, which enact the social practice of a given culture. Therefore, genres are not to be seen as individual, but as to how they relate to one another. The diagram below illustrates the relations amongst genres used in the genre-based SFL to model language as a system of resources for meaning-making.
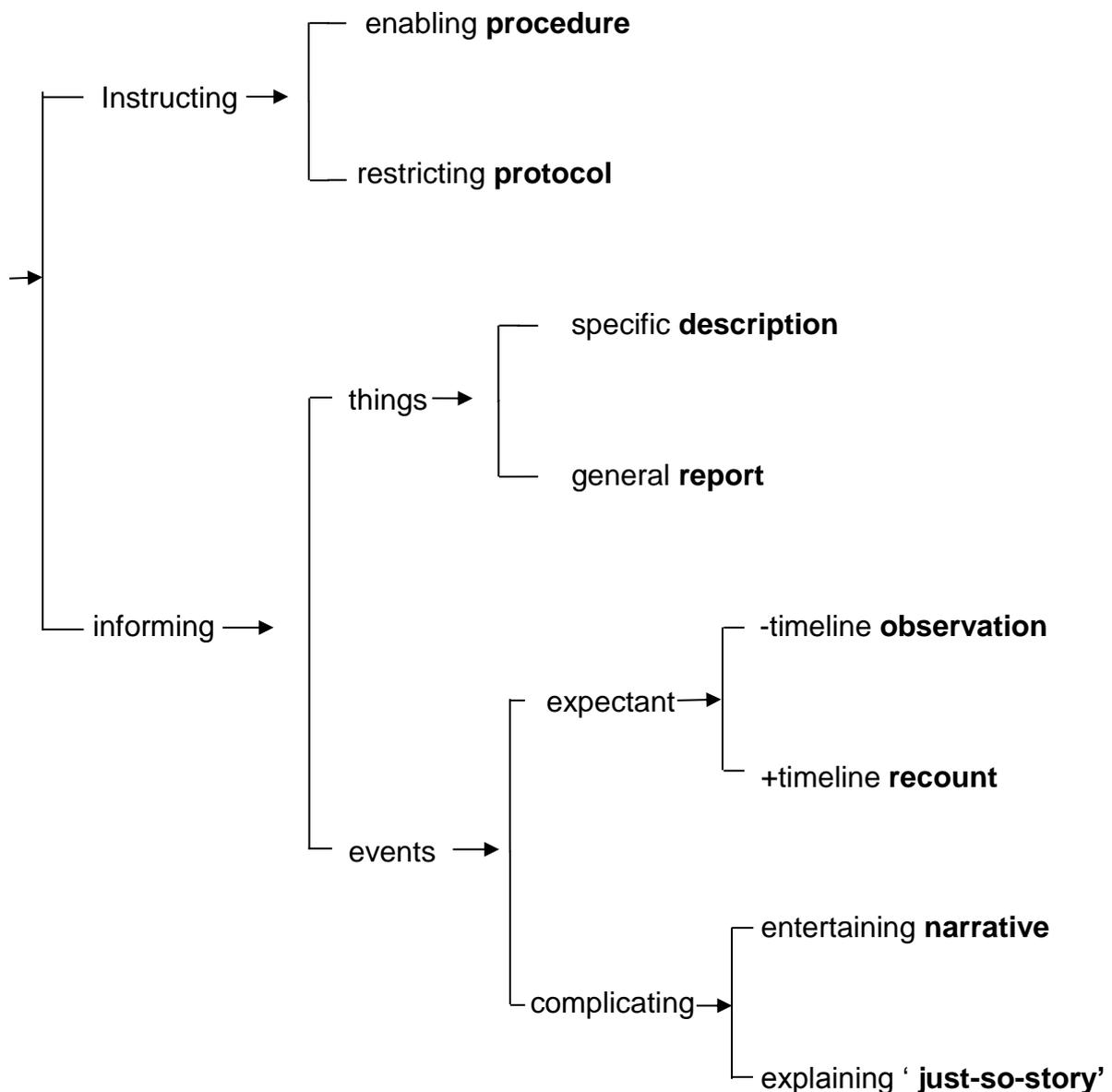
Figure 2:   An approximate map of the 1980s' literacy terrain in Australian primary schools

Figure 2 above demonstrates the relationship that exists among genres and how it can be used to help learners in understanding different genres. This is one of the diagrams used in SFL, to model language as the system of resources in meaning making Martin and Rose (2008:7). Martin and Rose (2008:22) further state that the arrows in the diagram illustrate the system of choices and how different choices lead to other systems. In writing a recount, the first requirement is to be aware of the purpose of the text, which is to inform the addresser. This means that when the learner chooses to write a recount genre, the point of departures is from **informing.** The **events** path follows, which leads to the **expectant** path which completes the recount genre. In a situation where learners write a narrative text, they will also start from **informing**, and then move to narrating **events**, then **complicating** and entertaining which is what narratives do. Martin and Rose (2008) point out that the difference between written texts is demonstrated by the context and the language choices made (ibid). The chosen text path leads to the type of genre that the learner(s) wanted to produce.

The use of the diagram in figure 2 above can be applied in teaching learners to understand the characteristics and options of different genres. The preparation of the learners to understand and master the different genre means that, the teachers must be prepared as well. Thus, it is important for the teachers to be familiar with the relations amongst genres used in SFL to model language as system of resources for meaning Rose and Martin (2012: 10). The diagram can be used to identify and prepare the support for the learners who master the task, and those who struggle. Some learners are better prepared than others. Therefore, this would indicate to the teachers on how they need to prepare for future lessons. The learning cycle discussed earlier in Section 2.5.1 also plays the role of assisting the teacher to support students in their writing. The two support systems can be incorporated for the benefit of both the learners and the teachers.

The next section explores the theoretical framework that supports teaching of writing within the genre-based approach to literacy and language development.

2.6   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.6.1 Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

The study draws on the Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL), an approach which was founded by Halliday (1971), an acclaimed linguist. Christie (1999), as well as Christie and Derewianka (2008:7) point out that the genre-based approach to writing instruction is based on a functional model of language. The functional model is a theoretical perspective that promotes the social constructed nature of language.

According to Hyland (2003:21) SFL is one of the various models of the genre theory approach. Grabe and Kaplan (1996), Christie and Martin (1997), discussed in Hyland (2003), state that the model of genre pedagogy emphasizes the purposeful, interactive, and sequential character of different genres, including the ways in which language is systematically linked to context through patterns of lexico-grammatical and rhetorical features. The SFL approach puts emphasis on the importance of understanding the context and the linguistic demands represented by the context of the learners. This means that it takes into account the language that learners need to master in order to cope meaningfully in different communicative contexts.

According to Christie and Derewianka (2008: 6-7) SFL puts emphasis on how meaning is created in context. Its notion is therefore that the school environment introduces new language demands that learners are not exposed to. That is why it is concerned with the empowerment of learners so that they can acquire literacy skills and learn successfully in such environments. Hyatt (2007:125) points out that Halliday (1985), through SFL, argues that language is a social semiotic system and it makes it possible for people to make sense of the world in which they live. Hence, the genre pedagogy is situated within a social semiotics approach to literacy development which is the Systemic Functional Linguistics.

Unsworth (2002:2) states that SFL aims to give guidance on how the effective teaching of language can be displayed in a social environment like school. Martin and Plum (1997:307) and Macken-Horarik (2002:19) state that SFL allows the use of models of language and the social context provides an opportunity for explicit teaching and learning. Whittaker, O'Donnell and McCabe (2007:1) state that SFL has a profound impact on educational practices through its use of the genre-based literacy approach.

The SFL approach takes into account genres, registers and the social context. Genres promote being explicit about the way language works to make meaning in texts. Derewianka (1990), as well as Cope and Kalantzis (1993), state that genres differ from each other based on their purpose and structure. Martin and Rose (2008: 6-7) advance the view that the relations among genres is used to model language as a system of resources for meaning. They further state that the meaning demonstrates the social patterns of a given culture. This means that the writing of texts is demonstrated through the social purpose, language choices that learners choose to make meaning and the social context. SFL takes into consideration the interpretation of texts based on the difference in tenor (which is concerned with the relationship between people), field (which is concerned with what the participants are talking about) and mode (which refers to the role of language in communication). The text therefore is seen as a tool that attempts to be in conversation with the readers.

SFL is an approach that is able to demonstrate how language is always changing depending on the context. It also helps learners in understanding the different types of texts and the different discourses that school subjects offer. Hence, she states that learning content means learning the language that construe that content as students participate in new contexts of learning (ibid).

Christie (2002), Johns (2002), Hyland (2004) and Schleppegrell (2004) state that SFL provides a means for identifying the grammatical features of a text, so that the relationship of linguistic choices to the situational contexts in which the language is used can be explained in functional terms. SFL supports language teaching that is context based. In support of these opinions, Burns (2001:126) looks at genre from the SFL perspective, stating that the SFL-based genre approach has developed tools to assist language learning and teaching. He further claims that SFL examines the surface structure of a text, this it does by following the generic structure of a text. The schematic structure, he states, is valuable in working out the overall structure of a particular text. Therefore the structure demonstrates that texts differ from one another based on their context and language choices. By learning the schematic structure of a text, learners will understand and engage with different types of texts.

The table 3 below depicts the main properties of SFL theory. These properties will be discussed in details in chapter three.

Table 3: The functional model of language

C O N T E X T	CONTEXT OF CULTURE		
	Genres: as social processes for achieving purposes within the culture.		
	CONTEXT OF SITUATION		
	Registers: as particular configurations of the field, tenor and mode		
	FIELD (*subject matter of the topic)*	TENOR (*roles and relationships*)	MODE (*along a continuum from 'most spoken' to 'most written'*)

L A N G U A G E	IDEATIONAL METAFUNCTION	INTERPERSONAL METAFUNCTION	TEXTUAL METAFUNCTION
	Clause level *Experiential metafunction*: The types of *processes* involved in the activity, the *participants* in those processes and the surrounding *circumstances*. **Beyond the clause** *Logical metafunction*: The *logical relationships* between events (e.g. where? When? How? Why?)	**Clause level** Resources for interaction (e.g. the MOOD system: questions, statements, commands, offers). **Beyond the clause** Resources for creating patterns of evaluation and engagement with the audience.	**Clause level** Theme and Rheme (the beginning and end of the clause). **Beyond the clause** Cohesive devices to form the text.

(Christie and Derewianka, 2008: 7)

The above table depicts that the functional model of writing is divided into two parts, namely the contexts part and the language part. The context is also divided into two

aspects, namely the context of culture and the context of situation, while language is divided into three metafunctions namely, ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions. The divisions in the language system need to be understood as a text, which is related and understood within a particular context. This means that, language needs to be understood as a text produced within a context.

Christie (1999) and Hyland (2002) state that when people write texts, language choices are made. The language choices that are made make it possible for the text to be classified. The classification results in getting different types of texts, which are classified as genres. It is because the language choices made for that particular genre involve the context of culture. Genres are therefore, social processes for achieving a particular purpose within the context of culture. This is an indication that culture has an influence in meaning making. The table also demonstrates that what is said or written is also influenced by the situation. Therefore, the figure demonstrates that the text that one produces depends on the context of culture and that of situation, to be meaningful to learners (ibid).

The language used in producing a text is dependent on the social context. This is because it is the social context that makes it possible for learners and the teacher to make a choice regarding which language features to use in producing a text. As discussed above, Table 3 illustrates the importance of understanding context under which the text is produced including the language choices made in meaning making. Christie and Derewianka (2008:8) further state that the language choices that people choose to produce texts differ in their context of situation which is the register. This means that they differ based on the field, tenor and the mode of the written text. Thus, genres differ from each other in structure and language choices.

Christie and Derewianka (2008: 9-10) point out that the difference in context results in different genres. For example, there are story genres like narratives and recounts, history related genres like autobiographical recounts, historical recount and account, explanation genres like sequential explanation and factorial explanation, procedure genres like procedure, report genres like descriptions and classifications, argument genres like exposition and discussion, and text response genres (ibid). All these are examples of the genres that learners will come across in their school life. It is therefore, important for teachers to understand Table 3 as a guide to writing and language development.

Table 3 is not only relevant for language subject teaching but for content subjects as well, and in the case of this study, in analysing history texts.

Christie and Derewianka (2008: 4) point out that the SFL model explains development in terms of the function that language serves in enabling the learner to achieve social goals. They state that when learners start school, they experience challenges that involve all three metafunctions. According to Martin and Rose (2008) and Rose (2011), the context of situation is the link between genre and SFL. The context of situation translates into the three language metafunctions of SFL. Martin and Rose (2008:24) advance the view that SFL interprets the design of language with respect to the ways people use it to live. SFL therefore, takes into account how people use and interpret the language**.**

According to Ravelli (2002) and Martin and Rose (2008), SFL puts emphasis on interpreting and organising the language into three strands of meaning as represented in Table 3 above, namely the ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions. The first strand is the ideational metafunction which is concerned with the manner in which one interprets experiences based on answering questions like **what is going on**, **who is doing what** and **to whom**, **where**, **when**, **why** and **how**. The ideational meaning makes it possible for language to be considered as a means of communication and of exchange between those engage in communication.

The second strand is the interpersonal metafunction which is concerned with negotiating the way of going about in creating social relations among people and how they interact with each other**.** The third, and the last, strand is the textual metafunction which is concerned with information flow. It is concerned with how the information from the ideational and interpersonal metafunctions is distributed in waves through which information flows or moves in a language to form coherent and cohesive texts (Ravelli, 200; Martin and Rose, 2008; Christie and Derewianka, 2008).

Table 3 on SFL also presents teachers with information that they could use to support learners in their writing and language development. It demonstrates that the teaching of writing is based on the context. It forces the person who writes to take into account the person who will be reading the text. This illustrates that written texts consist of language, purpose and linguistic features that give the text meaning. Martin and Rose (2008:29) state that the SFL approach to the three strands of

language is influenced by the fact that it is a functional theory and not a formal one, and so is more concerned with language and social context than language and cognition.The metafunctions will be discussed in detail in Chapter three, where context is described, and in Chapter four, where an analysis of excerpts from history texts will be conducted. However, there are theorists who disagree with how the genre approach is used to differentiate one text from another based on its purpose and language features.

Theorists like Knapp & Watkins (2005:31) challenge the notion that systemic functional linguistics promotes a relationship between context and grammar. They argue that systematic functional grammar widens the distance, because context is not stagnant, it changes over time depending on social factors. The meaning of texts changes according to context and the features or characteristics of texts cannot be categorised or stay fixed. Furthermore, they point out that since language is diverse in a text, it is not easy to develop pedagogic grammar based on the three metafunctions of SFL (ibid). Hence, the diversity of language cannot be restricted. Even though they present the areas of difference, they are however in agreement with SFL's perception that genre is regarded as a staged-goal oriented social process where language is used as tool of communication used in spoken or written texts, which in turn function within a cultural context.

Hyland (2007:151) states that critical theorists criticise the genre teaching for accommodating learners to present types of practice and to the values and ideologies of the dominant culture that valued genres represent. Theorists of genre, however, contend that this argument can be applied to almost all teaching approaches (ibid).

SFL as a theory forms part of other theories which support the scaffolding of learners in understanding the role that language plays in meaning making because it is embedded within genre. One of those theories on which it is based is the socio-cultural theory. The following section will examine the role that socio-cultural theory plays in literacy and language development.

2.7   SOCIO-CULTURAL THEORY

Halliday (2007:153) states that SFL and socio-cultural theories complement each other in that both languages and learning are seen as social phenomena embedded

in specific cultural contexts. The socio-cultural theory which has been mentioned earlier in the study is part of the theoretical framework. It supports the notion that learners need to be supported to be able to do the task independently. Hence, methods like scaffolding and modelling are amongst those implemented in language development. The socio-cultural theory places great emphasis on the role of the teacher, because he or she is regarded as the one who is the "knowledgeable" other (Vygotsky, 1978:86). In this regard, the teacher is seen as someone who is able to guide and drive learning. The knowledgeable other can also be a learner or learners who are advanced than the others.

The socio-cultural theory promotes interaction between those learners with knowledge and those learners with less or no knowledge at all. The guidance or support from the teacher makes it possible for students to achieve higher levels, which might not be possible when the learners work on their own or without support of a teacher. Rose and Martin (2012), as well as Grabe and Kaplan (1999), refer to that support which Vygotsky (1992) calls the 'Zone of proximal development'. The ZPD is concerned with the difference between what a learner can do with the input of the teacher and what the learner knows. They state that ZPD could be achieved through apprenticeship which affords learners with an opportunity to practice their writing skill under the guidance of the teacher or the learner who has some or better knowledge and understanding.

According to Grabe and Kaplan (1996), and Rose and Martin (2012), learners learn forms of writing when they know where they made mistakes. This is also made possible by the fact that writing is modelled and negotiated before individual writing. Therefore, by the time learners write independently they have been exposed to more than one form of writing. The feedback given also strengthens the confidence of learners in writing. This affirms the notion that ZPD aims to close or narrow the learning gap. Therefore, the teachers need to use different forms of inclusive interaction in class at formal and informal levels. The interaction results in the learner's growth. The learner progresses from a level of understanding and doing a task because of teachers' or other learners assistance to the level of completing a task as an individual. This view integrates with the teaching and learning cycle, where stages are used to scaffold learners' writing. Krashen (1981:121) points out that the progression from a modelling stage (where the teachers model writing) to the

independent stage (where a learner is writing on his or her own) is achieved through an explicit teaching or modelling and interaction between learners and educators.

Krashen (1981:60) advanced the view that when informal interaction takes place, learners benefit from it because they have an opportunity to listen and learn from their peers and the teacher. Hence, the socio-cultural theory outlines the process of teaching and learning as oral interaction and creation of knowledge and not just a matter of transmission of ideas (ibid). The theory recognizes and encourages active participation of learners. Knowledge is achieved through team work and sharing of knowledge.

The sociocultural approach is significant to my study because of the methods that it promotes in support of literacy and language development. It is an approach that when combined with the genre approach and SFL, can make a huge contribution in teaching and learning. Learners know that their social context, linguistic background and weaknesses are considered in learning, they know that they have support.

I will employ the genre approach, SFL and the sociocultural approach in an effort to demonstrate the importance of the teaching of home language isiXhosa in this regard, as a basis for understanding History texts, which learners are expected to produce in Grade 11. All of the three approaches discussed in this chapter take into consideration the different cultural and social contexts that learners come from. All three also consider the background knowledge or prior knowledge that learners bring with them to school.

2.8   SUMMARY

This chapter has reviewed research literature from the perspective of different theorists' views on the genre-based approach to literacy development and language teaching. The chapter discussed the criticism of the approaches and how they can be employed in literacy and language development for second language learners. In the chapter that follows, the focus will be on the aspect of knowledge of language and grammar in genre pedagogy. This chapter will discuss the language components of the systemic functional linguistics (SFL) approach and the features of genres in History content subject texts. The research methodology will also be discussed in order to explain how data was collected to fulfil the aims concerning the text analysis presented in this study.

CHAPTER THREE
KNOWLEDGE OF LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR IN GENRE-BASED TEACHING AND LEARNING

3.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter is concerned with the role that knowledge of language and grammar plays in literacy development and language teaching. The discussion is two-fold. The first part of the chapter examines the role that the functional model of language plays in meaning making using the resources found in the language system. The second part of the chapter will focus on the types of the genres related to the history subject that the learners need to be exposed to. The discussion will focus on properties of the functional model of language which has been introduced in section 2.7.1. in table 3 of chapter two. Lastly, this chapter will focus on the genre families that learners are expected to be able to analyse and write for the school history subject and beyond.

3.2   THE SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTIC (SFL) MODEL OF LANGUAGE AS THE BASIS FOR GENRE ANALYSIS

The relationship between the various elements of language is presented in section 2.7.1 in table 3, of chapter two. The diagram represents two segments of language. The first segment represents the context of culture, where genre takes the dominant role. The second segment represents the context of situation, in which the register of language within its social context is emphasized. The functional model of language is drawn from the systemic functional linguistics (SFL) theory. Christie (1999:759) and Scheppegrell (2004:18) point out that the theory represents the view that language is systemic because it offers systems of choices, while it is functional because of the way it is organised, which reveals the purpose for making use of language. Johns (2002:53) states that systemic functional linguistics investigates the way language differs from context to context. Thus, the choices of linguistic resources are significant in realising meaning. Therefore, language has a functional role to play in a text, namely the role of expressing meaning within a specific social context.

Martin and Plum (1997:307) emphasise that the systemic functional linguistics model is centrally concerned with how language is used for meaning making in different contexts. They hold the view that SFL makes it possible for language to be taught explicitly. Macken-Horarik (2002:41) points out that when language has to be taught

explicitly it requires educators and learners to be conscious of the process. She further states that language becomes explicit with repetition and guidance, hence it is important to model, demonstrate and support learning in the early stages of literacy development. According to Knapp and Watkins (2005:13) language is processed and understood in the form of a text. Christie and Derewianka (2008:6) point out that SFL explores languages in terms of the relationship between the meanings being made in a particular context and the linguistic resources which are available to make the meaning, meaningful. The context of culture and that of situation play an important role in the language choices that will be made by the writer based on the social background, audience and situation in which the text is written.

Martin and Rose (2008: 21-30) state that SFL is called a system because it foregrounds the organisation of language as an opportunity for meaning. SFL privileges the perspective on language as sets of resources for making meaning, rather than rules for ordering structures. They state that it is important to analyse the meanings, in respect to meanings for phonology, lexico-grammar and for discourse semantics.

According to Schleppegrell (2004:45), the main feature of functional analysis is that it is designed to account for the usage of language. She defines register as a term for the composition of lexical and grammatical resources which are used to realise meaning. Halliday (1978), as discussed in Schleppegrell (2004:45), defines register as a set of meanings appropriate to a particular function of language. The meaning is guided by the words and structures expressing these meanings. The register thus makes it possible for each subject to be defined, based on its register variation. For example, one can, talk about a history register, and a natural science register. These terms refer to the language that is meaningful to history and natural science respectively, that is, the language specific to these disciplines. It is through the register variation that one can differentiate a history text from a natural science text. She further states that register variation is responsive to differences in the context of situation. The different aspects in the context of situation are termed field, tenor and mode.

Christie (1999: 759), Schleppegrell (2004) and Christie and Derewianka (2008: 7) advance the view that the meanings express the functional nature of language, and that language is theorised in terms of the three metafunctions, that is, the ideational,

interpersonal and textual metafunctions. Their role is to demonstrate the role that the functional dimensions of language display in social contexts. Hence, Schleppegrell (2004) points out that in every clause an experience is created. This means that the experience created by clauses builds a relationship between a writer and a reader to achieve coherence. Furthermore, she argues that the elements in the three areas of grammar are analysed to reveal how language realizes the different contexts through the different grammatical and the lexical choices. With reference to Halliday (1978), Schleppegrell (2004:46), Christie and Derewianka (2008: 7) and Martin and Rose (2008: 11) define the term **field** as an aspect that explores what is happening in the text, the nature of the social action and what the participants are engaged in. The term **tenor** is an aspect that examines who the participants in the text are, their role and the relationships they acquire in interaction with other participants. The last aspect in the context of situation is the **mode**. The term mode examines the part that language plays in a text and the expectations of the participants on the role that language plays. These are aspects that are realised in lexical and grammatical choices. For an example the lexico-grammar means the combination of the choices is understood as interpreting three kinds of meaning which are aligned to field, tenor and mode.

Christie and Derewianka (2008: 7) and Martin and Rose (2008: 11) state that the combination of the three dimensions of situation (field, tenor and mode) create the register of the text. Thus, the aspect of the field is realized in the ideational resources, the tenor is realised in the interpersonal resources, and the mode is realised in the textual resources. The three elements and the resources or metafunctions are tools used to examine the grammatical and discourse features of different kinds of text, from the point of view of the meanings they express.

Christie and Derewianka (2008:9) outline the three metafunctions in more details. They point out that the ideational meta-function of language is concerned with how linguistic elements within the clause and among clauses represent the writer's experience. In addition, the ideational meta-function demonstrates how clauses are combined to interpret logical relationships. The interpersonal meta-function of language represents how elements of the clause create patterns of interaction and evaluation. The textual function of language is concerned with how the beginning of the clause, known as the 'Theme' is used to guide the reader and on how cohesive links are created.

According to Christie (1999:761), Johns (2002: 12) SFL suggests that knowledge of how language works in genres related to school success will enable teachers to guide learners in learning the different genres. Therefore, it is important for teachers to understand how language works. It is important to understand the lexical and grammatical choices that texts manifest. The effective teaching of literacy depends on the understanding of the lexico-grammar in a variety of contexts. Therefore, once an understanding of meaning and linguistic features is realised it will be possible to classify texts into different types or kinds of texts, like a recount, or a narrative. The development in literacy entails an indication that understanding of how language works and the social context that has been mastered.

Christie and Derewianka (2008: 7) point out that there is a relationship between the various resources or elements of language. Therefore, at times a sentence cannot be complete or make sense, if other elements are missing. With reference to Grabe and Kaplan (1996: 135) Halliday and Martin argues that school and teachers tend to reinforce the status quo of success and failure. They state that the school and the teachers do re-enforcement by ignoring the connections between language use and its social purpose. Furthermore, they argue that, schools and teachers often disregard any effort to work with information, hence they are less supportive of the functional role that language plays in making meaning. Schleppegrell (2004: 48) points out that the ideational, interpersonal and textual grammatical elements work at the same time to realise the context of situation of a particular text. Therefore, it is the combination of these elements that realises the different registers. Furthermore, she states that register vary because language is used differently in different context. The following section will discuss the metafunctions of language and the role played by lexical and grammatical choices in making meaning.

3.2.1   The ideational meta-function of language

According to Christie and Derewianka (2008:7) and Schleppegrell (2004: 46) the ideational function of language is the part that is concerned with how the clause represents experiences and how clauses combine to create relationships in a text. Hence, it is divided into two parts, the logical metafunction and the experiential metafunction. The logical metafunction displays the relations between elements while the experiential metafunction displays how experience is organised by language. The understanding of the ideational metafunction is important because it assist learners'

move from the familiar, like home context, to new or unfamiliar contexts. The new or unfamiliar contexts present learners with new literacy demands, hence the need to increase linguistic resources arises. Therefore, the increase in linguistic resources will present   learners with an opportunity to describe experience from the new context. The linguistic resources related to the ideational metafunction are represented in different levels and contexts. The next section discusses the different levels of the ideational metafunction and the role that each level plays in making meaning.

3.2.2 The clause level*: processes, participants and circumstances*

According to Schleppegrell (2004: 48) the topic or subject talked about is represented in the ideational metafunction. The concern at this level is with how language represents one's experiences of the world. Schleppegrell (2004:52) and Christie and Derewianka (2008: 8-12) state that a clause can include a, *process,* which is realised by a verb or verbal group, *participants,* realised by nouns or nominal groups, *and circumstances,* realised by prepositional phrases or adverbs. The following table, **table 1** in Christie and Derewianka (2008: 9) displays six types of processes that are realised through the ideational metafunction.

Table: 1: a*. Processes: Types of Processes*

Process type	Aspect of experience	Example
Material Processes	Doings and happenings in the material world- 'outside experience	*We **went** to the bus.*
Behavioural Processes	Physiological and Psychological behaviour	*The crowd **gasped.***
Mental Process	Process on consciousness' inner experience	*They **realised** that she was right.* (cognition) *I **liked** the beds and the lounge room.*(affect) *We **noticed** that a big wave was coming.* (perception)
Verbal Processes	Process of 'saying' and 'meaning'	*'Stop!' **cried** a commanding voice.*
Relational Processes	Process of 'being' and 'having' creating relationships between elements of experience	*I **was** really excited.* C*ody **had** a kind heart but no money.*
Existential Process	Existing	*In ancient times, there **was** a minotaux.*

Christie and Derewianka (2008:9) point out that processes are usually realised in grammar by verbal groups. Schleppegrell (2002:53) states that different registers draw on different types of processes as they realise different types of texts. This is shown in the diagram above where all the verbs are displayed in bold print. Christie and Derewianka (2008) state that verbal groups can take the form of single item, for example: *they **waited*** or can consist of a number of items, for example: *they **had waited** or they **had been waiting**.* Christie and Derewianka (2008) further state that there are situations where the process is realised in a causative (behavioural) manner, for example: *the changes **brought** by the events of WWII.*

b. Participants

Christie and Derewianka (2008: 10) point out that each process type deals with different sets of participants. Thus, each process type will have its own unique participants. In a material process the main participants are the *Actor* and the *Goal,* as shown in the example in the following table*.*

Table: 2

We	found	a cave
Actor	process: material	goal

The participants can also take another role, that of describing the relational processes. The process which expresses things that are being described is called the *Carrier* and the description is the *Attribute* or an *adjective,* as shown in the example below.

Table: 3

The water	was	flat
Carrier	process: relational (attributive)	attributive

They further point out that participants that are usually realised by the nominal group can consist of a single *headword,* as example, *a dungeon.*

The headword which acts as a carrier can be extended through premodification. For example, *dark* is (a pre-modifier) and *dungeons* is (a headword). It can also be extended through post- modification using an *embedded phrase or embedded clause,* as shown in the following example:

Dark	dungeons	[with creepy cobwebs]
pre-modifier	headword	post-modifier (phrase)

The headword can also act as embedded phrase when they function at the group level and not of ranking clause, as in the following example:

Table: 4

Dark	Dungeons	[[in which experiments were carried out]]
pre-modifier	Headword	post-modifier (clause)

They further point out that in other instances the headword in the nominal group is an adjective, as in the following example:

Table: 5

Extremely	glad	[[to see the Presbyterian church built a couple of years
pre-modifier	headword	later]] post-modifier

They also state that participants can be realised by other grammatical resources. Resources such as embedded clauses, for example, are in relational processes. Also, embedded clauses do not function at the level of clause but function at group level, as in the following example:

Table: 6

An eclipse Participant	*Is* process: relational	*[[when the earth or Moon blocks out the light of the Sun.]]* Participant

c. Circumstances

According to Christie and Derewianka (2008: 11), circumstances provide information about details on the questions, of 'how', 'when' and 'where'. Circumstances are usually realized in the grammar by the adverb groups or the prepositional phrases. The following table displays the common types of circumstances realised through the adverb groups or the prepositional phrases.

Table: 7: Common types of circumstances

Circumstance	example: adverb	example: prepositional phrase
Time	*recently*	
Place	*elsewhere*	*in those days*
Manner	*quickly*	*in the cave*
Cause		*with surprising haste*
Angle		*in honour of their God*
Role		*according to Darlington*
Concession		*as Pharaoh*
Comparison		*despite their many losses*

Christie and Derewianka (2008:11) state that all the three resources (Processes, Participants and Circumstances) form the system of transitivity because they represent experience. It means that the three resources are able to describe the logical relationship that exists between clauses.

3.2.3 Beyond the clause*: Types of clauses and clause combinations*

According to Schleppegrell (2002: 54-55) a logical relationship is an important field variable in the realisation of relationship within texts. She further states that, the kinds of logical meaning contributing to realisation of field involve the relationship of time, consequence, comparison and addition. Christie and Derewianka (2008: 12) describe the relationship between clauses in terms of the degree of interdependency. They point out that a sentence can consist of a single and independent clause. They further state that when two clauses are combined, their relationship can be one of equal status, or unequal status with one clause dominant and the other dependent. This means that as learners use different clauses more, they grow and mature in their writing. Christie and Derewianka (2008) discuss the following examples of *dependency relations between clauses.*

 a. *Dependency relations between clauses*

Christie and Derewianka illustrate the relationship of equal status with the following example:

*The sealed cans are lightly cooked **and** heated.*

They provide the following example which represents the relationship of unequal status with one clause dominant and the other dependent.

*It does not stop growing **until** it reaches the ovary.*

Christie and Derewianka (2008:13) use table 8 below to illustrate the conjunctions relating to the clauses of equal dependency and unequal dependency.

Table: 8

Equal dependency	Unequal dependency
And	while
But	when
So	until
not only...but also	since
either ...or	whereas
and meanwhile	instead of
otherwise	if
and yet	unless
	although
	despite

They further state that dependent clauses can take the form of non-infinitive clauses or non-defining relative clauses. For example, they consider the following non-finite clause.

*The Japanese were kept in Vietnam **to maintain law and order.***
They provide an example of the following non-defining clause:
*Then we heard of this place called Illawarra, **which turned out to be perfect.***

b. *Logical relations between clauses*

According to Christie and Derewianka (2008:14) and Schleppegrell (2002:54-55) logical, relationships are made possible by an initiating clause and an expanding clause, where one clause is the projecting clause and the other is the projected clause. This occurs when one sentence expands the meaning of the other in the clause, creating relationships such as addition, exemplification, cause, time, condition and concession. They provide table 9 below to depict the logical relations between initiating and expanding clauses. In the first clause, the initiating clause is expanded by **when**, which indicates the adverb of time. The second initiating clause is expanded by the conjunction **but.**

Table: 9

Initiating clause	Expanding clause
The Moon doesn't disappear completely	*when there is a lunar eclipse.*
Ultra sounds can pick up abnormalities in the foetus	*but further testing needs to be done to confirm Down Syndrome*

Christie and Derewianka (2008:14) state that a logical relationship is also realised between projecting and projected clauses. The relationship is where one clause projects another as with the process of saying and thinking. They provide the following examples, demonstrating the projecting and the projected clauses.

Table: 10

Projecting clause	Projected clause
He states	*that the fleet is Theran*
We can understand	*that Therans had advanced building and architectural skills.*

Christie and Derewianka (2008:14) point out that more complex combinations of clauses also occur. These clauses involve a variety of relationships of expansion and projection as equal and unequal dependencies, as illustrated in the following example: *He thinks the policy was reasonable in that the Government was cautious after World War 1 and could only fight a war if their dominions supported it.*

They provide the following example representing a complex combination clause*:*

He thinks the policy was reasonable (unequal clause) **in that** *the Government was cautious after World War 1*(equal expanding clause creating a relationship of reason) **and** *could only fight a war-*(unequal clause creating a relationship of addition) **if** *their dominions supported it* (creating a relationship of condition).

In the expanded clause the use of three conjunctions creates different kinds of relationships. For example, the first conjunction **in that** creates a relationship of reason, the second **and** creates a relationship of addition while the third one, **if,** creates a relationship of condition. The use of the logical resources such as conjunction by learners in their writing is an indication of literacy development.

Hence, Christie and Derewianka (2008:14-15) state that the combination of clauses used in spoken situations are mostly joined by the conjunctions ***and, but*** and ***so***. The combination of clauses used in spoken language changes in later childhood and adolescence. The change results because of the various clause and clause combinations that become dominant, as indicated in the expanded clause above (ibid). This means that it is important to expose learners to all kinds of clauses.

3.3   THE INTERPERSONAL FUNCTION OF LANGUAGE

According to Schleppegrell (2002: 58), Veel (2006: 83-85) and Christie and Derewianka (2008: 15) the interpersonal function of language relates to demonstrating the growth in students' use of language as a resource. Hence, they contend that those students are able to establish their presence, engage with different views and possibilities. This therefore indicates that mature students take into consideration the audience they are writing for and what they are writing about. The interpersonal metafunction thus refers to linguistic resources involving the clause and beyond the clause levels. Since, at the clause level the focus is the mood of the speaker or writer, the discussion will be brief and be more concerned about the linguistic resources beyond the clause, which focus on the patterns of evaluation associated with writing.

3.3.1   The clause level: the mood system

According to Christie and Derewianka (2008: 15) and Schleppegrell (2002: 58) the clause level is concerned with communicative resources such as making statements, asking questions and giving instruction. Thus, at this level, it is used more extensively in the mood of communication. In advancing the view Schleppegrell (2002) states that the mood is the grammatical resources concerned with interaction and negotiation between speakers.

3.3.2   Beyond the clause: patterns of evaluation

According to Christie and Derewianka (2008: 15) the level of linguistic resources beyond the clause is focused on the patterns of evaluation which are drawn from appraisal theory (Martin and White 2005). This means that written pieces also express evaluation invoking the appraisal theory. Therefore, the use of appraisal theory makes it possible for use of grammatical resources. Schleppegrell (2002:62)

states that appraisal theory identifies the three grammatical choices for creating the interpersonal meanings. These three choices are, namely, resources for; *passing judgement*; *positioning* the writer with meaning in text, and *modifying* the interpersonal focus of the message. Christie and Derewianka (2008:15) identify three appraisal elements for the interpersonal meanings namely, *attitude*, *graduation* and *engagement.*

The later three are represented below.
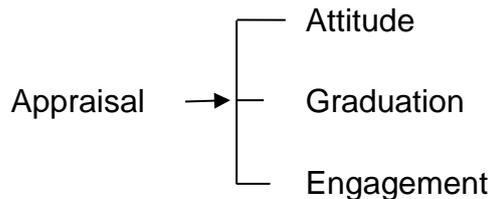
The first element of appraisal is *attitude.* This term is used to express the emotional reaction through *affect*, *appreciation* and *judgement*. The second element is *graduation* and it affords the learners with an opportunity to demonstrate the power of feelings, opinions and judgement. The power can be represented through the use of intensifying verbs. The third element, *engagement,* relates to the resources that make it possible for the writer to establish an authorial presence by taking a position. Christie and Derewianka provide the following examples of how the three resources occur in texts.

a.   *Attitude*- we *were **glad** to set foot on land. Or everyone was **agitated** and **excited***.

b.   *Graduation*- *the murmuring of the crowd was **extremely** intense or the sacrifice at Gallipoli was **enormous.***

c.   *Engagement*- *'Blue Hair Day' is a fantastic book for young children.*

The words in bold print, for example *a* and *b*, represent the emotional reactions and the power of opinion and judgement, while the example in *c* represents the writer's point of view. The patterns of evaluation play an important role in the writing development of learners, hence, it is a level of linguistic resources that teachers need to teach to learners.

According to Christie and Derewianka (2008:19) interpersonal resources enable writers to position themselves. This positioning might lead to the reader aligning or not aligning themselves with certain systems of appraisal. They present the following table representing the appraisal resources used by the writer in an attempt to align the reader with the writer's position.

Table: 11

Appraisal in an exposition on the conditions in Gallipoli
*The conditions in Gallipoli tested the <u>endurance</u> of all involved. Winters were <u>freezing cold and muddy</u> but by mid-year the weather had become <u>extremely hot</u> and soldiers had to <u>suffer plagues of disease carrying flies and fleas</u>. There was <u>never enough water</u> and <u>food was hardly consumable</u>. One soldier, **Ion Idriess**, recalls "I wrapped my overcoat over the tin and gouged out the flies, then spread the biscuit, held my hand over it and drew the biscuit out of the coat. But a lot of flies flew into my mouth and beat about inside. I nearly <u>howled with rage</u>". <u>Worse than this, the hygiene conditions were abominable, toilets were open pits and corpses lay rotting in no-mans-land.</u>*

The key to the table above is as follows:

The double underlined phrases represent *graduation* of attitude, for example in the clauses that begin with, <u>*Winters were freezing cold and muddy*</u> *but.* The *engagement* is realised in the direct speech from the person who is expressing his opinions, as the view point. For example: *One soldier,* **Ion Idriess**, *recalls "I wrapped my overcoat... <u>rage</u>",* in the text. In this example **Ion Idriess** is the one who is expressing his opinions.

The wavy lines represent *judgement*. Christie and Derewianka (2008) provide the following underlined noun as example to represent judgement, *endurance*. The dotted lines demonstrate the use of an *affect*. They provide the following examples, …soldiers gad to *suffer*…and in, *I nearly howled with rage.*

3.3.3 The textual meta-function of language

According to Schleppegrell (2002: 63) and Christie and Derewianka (2008: 18) the textual metafunction entails an important stage in learners' writing development because it affords writers with the opportunities to control the flow of their writing. This means that learners are now ready to produce their independent text, unlike during oral activities where they were supported in the construction of meaning. Learners are more reflective at this stage of their writing because the pieces of writing produced and the contextual factors are influenced by the choices made from the language system (ibid). Therefore, it is important to take note of how the text is developing in regard to the context and the choices from the language system. The flow of the information contributes to the coherence and cohesion of the text.

3.3.3.1   The clause level: Theme and Rheme

Schleppegrell (2002: 67) and Christie and Derewianka (2008: 20) contend that thematic development pertains to one of the textual resources that contribute to differences in the organisation of a text. Furthermore, they point out that learners are faced with the challenge of how to organise their writing to make it available to different readers. Therefore, the notion of theme, according to Schleppegrell (2002) and Christie and Derewianka (2008), helps learners to identify the beginning of the clause. This is because, according to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), the theme of the clause indicates the start of the clause, it is referred to as Theme because it gives a cue to the reader. The rest of the clause which provides new information is called the Rheme (ibid).

The writing process gives writers the opportunity to reflect on how the text is developed. In that process of writing, attention is given to the flow of information from one sentence to the next using a range of choices from the language system. Christie and Derewianka (2008) provide the following illustrations of the beginning and end of clauses:

Table: 12: the starting point (Theme)

Theme	Rheme
A salad spinner	*is a device [[designed to dry lettuce]]*

The Theme, *a salad spinner* is the starting point in the clause. The rest of the clause *is a device [[designed to dry lettuce]]* provides new information and that is known as the Rheme.

Christie and Derewianka (2008) also provide the following example to illustrate the theme, but a preposition *it* is used to start the clause.

Theme	Rheme
It	*consists of a small plastic basket inside a bowl with a lid.*

The illustration in table 13, demonstrates the use of the noun *the lid* which formed part of the previous clause. In this example it is used as the beginning of the clause.

Table: 13

Theme	Rheme
The lid	*has a handle on top...*

Christie and Derewianka (2008:21) state that there are instances whereby a writer can begin the sentence with some other expressions like in the following examples, instead of the subject of the clause, which is referred to as the marked theme. The writer might want to highlight a certain angle of the text and can start writing from any angle other than the subject of the clause. The third sentence displays a prepositional phrase. It also indicates a start other than the subject of the clause, as shown in the example in table 14 below.

Table: 14

Theme	Rheme
As the crack is turned slowly by hand	*the basket spins rapidly.*
To stop the basket spinning	*you can tip the spinner.*
For each turn of the crank and large gear,	*the basket and small gear turns many times.*

3.3.3.2   Beyond the clause: Cohesion

Christie and Derewianka (2008:21-22) explain that in the element of cohesion in language, the shaping of the written text extends beyond the clause. It allows the writer to monitor the organisation of the whole text to ensure coherence. Grabe and Kaplan (1996: 56) state that cohesion is the means available in forms of the text to indicate a relationship that is between sentences or clauses in a text. With reference to Halliday and Hasan (1976), Schleppegrell (2002: 63) and Christie and Derewianka (2008) assert that cohesion refers to the way the way that linkages are made between the text and the physical setting. There are many cohesive devices that are used such as personal pronouns, determiners, relative pronouns, comparative and demonstratives which all help to create cohesion.

Schleppegrell (2002) and Grabe and Kaplan (1996) explain that reference is one form of cohesion by which pronouns such as *this* or *that* refer to elements in or outside the text. The form of reference is divided into two elements, namely, exophoric reference, which refers to items outside of the text and endophoric which refers to items inside of the text. Brown and Yule (1983), Halliday and Hasan (1976, 1989), Hoey (1991), Grabe and Kaplan (1996) and Schleppegrell (2002) further demonstrate that there are various means by which cohesion operates, and that includes reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions and the lexical relationship of repetition and inclusion as well as the use of synonyms or antonyms and collocation.

The following example of a text exemplifies the exophoric reference, that is, items pointing outside of the text. The items are not mentioned by name but pointing words are used and are indicated in **bold**.

Table: 15

Mother and child interaction
Child: What's **this?**...........   **Mother:** Do you want to try **it**?...okay, when you're finished, take out the old leaves   **Child:** is **this** old?   **Mother:** Yeah **it's** pretty old...well you can tell-if **it's** ...bright green **it's** not old.   **Child:** What about **this**? Can I just...?   **Mother:** Yeah, tear the bottom off yeah.   **Child:** Is **that** enough?   **Mother:** How're we going? Yeah **that's** looking pretty good.

The term endophoric reference means that items are pointing inside of the text. According to Christie and Derewianka (2008: 23) in endophoric references no assumptions can be made about shared experiences, because the items referred to form part of the text.

Table: 16: The use of endophoric references

Explanation of how salad spinner works
*A **salad spinne**r is a device designed to dry lettuce. **It** consists of a small plastic basket inside a bowl with **a lid. The lid** has a handle on top, **which** when rotated spins the basket and lettuce inside. Salad spinners work on the principle of gears. The crank on top turns **a gear**, which is connected to **another** gear that turns the basket.*   *As the crank is turned slowly by hand the basket spins rapidly. For each turn of the crank and large gear, the basket and smaller gear turns many times causing the basket to spin faster than the crank. To stop the basket spinning**, you can tip the spinner so that the basket rubs against the wall of the bowl**. **This** provides a large force due to sliding friction that is far from the pivot point of the spinning basket, producing a torque which quickly slows the basket's spinning.*

Halliday and Matthiessen (2004:534) and Christie and Derewianka (2008: 23) state that the writer of the above text used different kinds of cohesive devices. The devices were used to create the relationship within the text. Consider the analysis of the text

and the role that each cohesive device plays. In the first independent clause, the pronoun *it* refers back to the *salad spinner*. The determiner *the* refers back to *a lid*. The relative pronoun *which* refers back to the *handle.* The comparative *another* refers back to the *gear* mentioned previously. The demonstrative *this* refers back to a sequence of clauses, for example, *you can tip the spinners so that the basket rubs against the wall of the bowl.*

They further maintain that the writer of the text creates cohesion through use of the lexical items selected. School children need to be supported in using cohesive devices for advancing literacy development, since the use of cohesive resources presents challenges to students. They state that research conducted in reading development demonstrates that cohesion is a key factor in comprehension. Cohesion, they state, is also important in the development of writing from the early stages of development through to adolescence. Christie and Derewianka (2008) state that learners who are able to understand and apply the elements of textual metafunction in writing will cope in producing a text that is cohesive, coherent and well-crafted.

3.3.4 Grammatical metaphor

Halliday (1999), as discussed in Christie and Derewianka (2008: 24), asserts that a grammatical metaphor is phenomenon that acts as a key indicator of language development from pre-school, to adolescence and beyond. Hyatt (2007:125), on the other hand, argues that grammatical metaphors play a fundamental role in how people represent social reality. For this reason grammatical metaphors are realised as verbal groups, participants are realised as nominal groups and circumstances are realised as adverbs or prepositional phrases. For example, *the basket spins rapidly* will be *the rapid spinning of the basket...* when written as the grammatical metaphor. It is a grammatical metaphor because the verb *spins,* where the action was, has been nominalised and became *spinning.* This then results in a change from a literal everyday meaning to a figurative meaning. Christie and Derewianka (2008) further explain that the 'how' meaning is realised as an adjective in the nominal group *rapid* and the 'what' meaning is no longer a modified a participant in the clause but becomes a post-modifier *of the basket.* It is the application of the SFL that makes it possible for teachers to teach learners in understanding the resources employed in meaning making. They further assert that the use of language resources

of SFL makes it possible for the interaction between form and function to be realised. They emphasize that learners need to be guided in teaching the use of grammatical metaphor. It is because the use of a grammatical metaphor is vital to achievement in secondary school writing. They further argue that the use of grammatical metaphors contributes to the development of knowledge. The use of grammatical metaphors make it possible for the development of argumentation, providing resources for the accumulation, compacting, foregrounding and back grounding of information and evidence so that the argument can move forward. According to Hyatt (2007: 131) a grammatical metaphor has an impact in making a text more lexically dense. This is because it presents the nominalised noun with other parts of speech, whilst as a noun it could stand on its own.

3.3.5 Lexical density

The number of parts of speech in a sentence makes it possible for the identification of the lexical and grammatical items. According to Christie and Derewianka (2008: 27) lexical density is concerned with identifying the different content words in each sentence of a text. These words are classified into parts of speech such as nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. The denseness in the text depends on the number of the lexical items contained in each sentence of the text. The denser the sentence is, the better chances are for one to be engaged in an analysis of more content words and the role they play in making meaning for that particular piece of text. Christie and Derewianka (2008) provide the following example of a denser sentence, and the words in bold represents lexical items.

Then **suddenly** he **remembered** a story which **Christopher Robin** had **told** him about a **man** on a **desert island** who had **written something** in a **bottle** and **thrown** it into the **sea…**

Grammatical items include categories such as articles **the, a,** prepositions in**, on, by,** pronouns **he, him, it,** auxiliary verbs **had** told, **is** playing, conjunctions **and, when**, and demonstratives **this, those.** The use of lexical items is said to occur less in conversations and more in written text (ibid). This means that in writing it is important to be explicit and to give details as much as possible about items in the text. Hence, the denseness of the text is demonstrated in written text.

According to Christie and Derewianka (2008) the lexical density identified in a text can be measured by counting the number of lexical items in a clause. Here are two

examples of a text depicting lexical items. The first displays a lesser number in lexical items in conversational text and the second example depicts the increase in lexical items, in written text.

Table: 17

	Lexical items
Mother: *Do you **want** to **try** it?*	2
*Okay, when you're **finished**,*	1
take out** the **old leaves	3
Child: *Is this **old**?*	1
Mother: *Yeah it's **pretty old**.*	2
*Well you can **tell-***	1
*If it's …**bright green***	2
*It's not **old**.*	1

Table: 18

	Lexical items
i) *As the **crank** is **turned slowly** by **hand***	*4*
ii) *the **basket spins rapidly***	*3*
iii) *For each **turn** of the **crank** and **large gear**, the **baske**t and **small gear turns** many **times***	*9*
iv) ***causing** the **basket** to **spin faster** than the **crank***	*5*

The two examples above demonstrate that the lexical items do increase in written text than in conversational text. Halliday (1985: 61-8) cited in Christie and Derewianka (2008) recommends the counting of lexical items in a text to find out the text's lexical density.

3.3.6 Summary

The functional model of language emanating for the Systemic Functional Linguistics plays an important role in language development. This model enables the analysis of texts that is made of meanings. Each metafunction depicts growth or development in learners' writing. The ideational metafunction represents the nature of knowledge, namely everyday knowledge and academic knowledge, respectively. The interpersonal metafunction represents the experiences and emotions experienced by the writer in different contexts while the textual metafunction represents growth,

maturity and reflection in a written text produced by learners as they move from different phases in education. The following section leads the discussion to the overall generic structure of genres in history as the school subject.

3.4   THE OVERALL GENERIC STRUCTURE OF GENRES IN THE CONTENT SUBJECT HISTORY IN GRADE 11.

The discussions in this section 3.3.6, discusses the genre types that can be identified in a History text. It is noticeable that each content subject has different demands of genre that are related with its content and context. In this section the two families of history genres and the overall generic structure of history texts will be discussed. The generic structure of text segments assist learners and educators to classify the text into the types of genres found in history as a school subject. The interest in history relates to the view that history is a subject which deals with social relationship that exists amongst the communities, where people's lives are shaped and reconstructed over a period of time. Many language components are visible in different history texts and that affords this research with an opportunity to identify different purposes of texts and the social purposes that texts serve.

Coffin (2006: 49- 55), Christie and Derewianka (2008: 88) point out that history has two families of genres which are foundational in history. The first family is for the chronological genres and the second family is for the non- chronological genres. The genres within the first family are further grouped together under recording genres and for the second family they are grouped under explaining and arguing genres. The recording genres are, namely, *recounts, autobiographies*, *biographical recounts and historical recounts and account*. Recording genres are the focus in writing during the early years of schooling because they deal mainly with tasks that need recording, sequence of events and narratives (ibid).

Coffin (2006) et.al states that the second family of the non-chronological genres includes *site and period studies.* The explaining genres consist of factorial and consequential explanations. The arguing genres consist of expositions, discussions and challenges. These are the genres that learners need to be taught and understand as they progress from earlier to secondary and beyond the years of schooling (ibid).

According to Coffin (2004: 268) and Christie and Derewianka (2008: 6) genres in the school subject history can be analysed in the SFL tradition. It is because SFL regards language in terms of the relationship between the meanings being made in context and the linguistic resources chosen to realise the meaning. The texts in the content history subject are structured to accomplish a certain role. The role can be, for example, that of telling a story, giving an instruction or explaining past events. Hence, different texts display a different start, middle and end (ibid). Furthermore, these texts in school history represent a wide range of genres from the two families of genres mentioned above. This further means that each range of genres is different from the other genres. It is important for learners to be equipped with the skill to identify the differences between the texts based on their context and language resources.

Feez and Joyce (1998), Christie and Derewianka (2008) and Coffin (2008) point out that the different stages of different genres can be identified on the basis of shifts in lexical and grammatical items. Unsworth (2002:245) advances the view that SFL demonstrates that subject areas have their own characteristic language forms. He further states that the form entails distinctive literacy practices. For example, the role of history is to arrange, interpret and generalize from the events of the past (ibid).

Feez and Joyce (1998:61) state that there are a number of reasons why one may want to write about the past. In support of Feez and Joyce (1998), Achugar and Schleppegrell (2005: 301) discuss how different kinds of history texts provide explicit and implicit markings of causality, and bring about different demands for readers. Learners at school engage with different writing tasks that require them to record sequence and narrate. Learners are also expected to narrate, explain and record events in home language subject class. Hence, learners can benefit from literacy development in both home language and history subject genre-based teaching. It is, therefore, important to teach learners these genres to be able to understand and value the discourse of history.

Martin and Rose (2008: 99) support the views expressed by Coffin (2006), Christie and Derewianka (2008) Feez and Joyce (1998) that genres afford learners with an opportunity to reconstruct real or imagined events and evaluate them in time in history. Wignell (1994:364) points out that the genres found in the history subject are texts collected from a range of sources, from collective experiences, individual experiences and site interpretation. This means that history has a set of the most

common genres that are embedded in a text. This is an indication that a standard history textbook needs at least to the two families of genres for learners to be benefit from the school history discourse.

According to Coffin (2006: 67) explanation and descriptive genres are equally important as the recording and arguing genres for both home language and history subjects at school. Christie and Derewianka (2008:114-115) state that when learners have gained the required linguistic resources their writing moves from the first family of genres to the second family. This entails that learners move from writing simple description genres that provide explanation, to writing genres that are based on arguments around historical issues. Hence, the explanation genres represent multiple purposes, like factors and outcomes. It is, therefore, important for learners to be able to explain the past events and give explanations on consequences that are indicated in the events. Wignell (1994:368) points out that factorial explanation text shifts away from what happened to why something happened. It is organised around reason, rather than events. Christie and Derewianka (2008:116) assert that a factorial explanation identifies significant events in history expressed as an outcome. On the other hand, a consequential explanation identifies historical events and explains the event's consequences. They further state that an exposition takes up an issue in history and argue a point of view about it. The factorial explanation genre has a social purpose of explaining past events through the examination of causes and consequences.

Christie and Derewianka (2008: 115-116) emphasize the importance to teachers and learners at school of engaging with genres that exemplify site interpretation and period studies. These are genres that focus on describing a physical location or a period of time. They are taught when the student move from description of site and period to interpretation and explanation. It is, therefore, important that learners need to engage and be exposed to different contexts and language choices in the early years of schooling, so that they can succeed in writing challenging genres likes explanation, arguing and interpretation in the later years of schooling. The following section discusses the discourse structure of the first family of genres, namely the recording genres.

3.5   THE STRUCTURE OF RECORDING GENRES

3.5.1 The overall design of autobiographical recount genres

Feez and Joyce (1998), Coffin (2006), and Christie and Derewianka (2008) refer to the autobiographical recount as a text that retells the events of the writer's life in order to inform and entertain. Autobiographical recounts give information to the readers through the recording of events which help in providing insight into the social, political and economic life of an individual.

Coffin (2006: 50) further states that the social purpose of autobiographical recounts is achieved by moving through two optional stages namely, *orientation and record of events* and one obligatory stage namely, *re-orientation*. Christie and Derewianka (2008: 92) state that recount genres provide students with contexts to develop one of the core literacy skills in school history, namely the skill to select events and arrange them in a chronological sequence. They refer to this genre as *an empathetic autobiography.* A considerable degree of compassion is reflected in a text written by an individual for a particular purpose, including sharing the developmental journey of an individual or a historical figure. The stages following discourse organisational enable learners to write and read autobiographical texts.

3.5.2   The stages that form an autobiographical recount genre

The two optional stages are

- *The orientation:* This is a stage in which a person introduces himself or herself to the readers, locating himself or herself in time and space
- *The record of events:* This is the stage in which events are sequenced as they unfold over time specified by the writer

The third stage is the one that Coffins (2006) states as compulsory, to end of an autobiographical recount genre.

- *The re-orientation:* This is the stage where summary off of the text with comment or expression of attitude is taking place

3.5.3   Language components of an autobiographical recount genre

The language features of an autobiographical recount are, according to Christie and Derewianka (2008: 93), dominated by the use of the following linguistic elements: For

example: *Yesterday we went to the museum. We saw antique bikes and insects, mummy cases and a skeleton.*

- personal pronouns such as *I, we* and *it*, *you*
- immediate past tense, indicated by language components such as *yesterday*,
- the material process verbs in the past tense, for example; *went* and *got*
- the mental process of perception through the use of verbs such as *saw* and *hear,*
- participants which are realised in simple nominal groups.

3.5.4   The overall design of a biographical recount genre

Feez and Joyce (1998), Coffin (2006), Christie and Derewianka (2008) describe the biographical recount as a genre that tells the life story of an important historical figure. The historical figure is evaluated and the historical significance of that particular historical figure is described in emphasizing the significance of their life in a historical era. Coffin (2006: 53) states that the general purpose of biographical recounts for teaching and learning is to provide information about significant historical figures. Wignell (1994) maintains that the biographical recount has a *function* to narrate the events from one's life and is both a secondary and tertiary source of information. The structure of a biographical recount is represented in three stages which are followed by the language components of biographical recount.

Christie and Derewianka (2008: 98-99) refer to the following stages as elements of biographical recount, *identification of a person*, *episodes* and *evaluation.* Even though Christie and Derewianka identify different elements or stages for the biographical recount, the role that each stage or element plays in the writing of the genre is the same as the stages or elements mentioned by other researchers like Coffin (2006) et al.

3.5.5   The three stages that form biographical recount genres

- ***The orientation*** stage refers to the stage where a reader is informed, through the answering of three key questions like, why the person being written about *who*, *when* and *where* did all the events takes place*.* In other words, in this stage a person is located in time and space.

- ***The record of events*** is a stage in which information about the events of the person's life is given, sequenced in time, and organised into segments of the person's life.
- ***The evaluation of person*** refers to the stage in which a person's life is evaluated.

  There are also alternative stages or elements of a biographical recount identified by Christie and Derewianka (2008: 98) namely:
- ***The identification of a person*** refers to the stage in which the person is introduced, and explains the reason why the person is of interest in time and space. It can be used instead of an orientation*.*
- ***Episodes*** are elements which are often recursive since they describe the noticeable episodes from one's life, instead of a ***record of events***. The following stage is optional.
- ***The evaluation*** is a stage element which deals with providing a concluding evaluation of a person's significance and contributions. It is also identified by Feez and Joyce (1998) and Coffins (2006).

3.5.6 Language components of a biographical recount genre

Feez and Joyce (1998: 62) and Christie and Derewianka (2008: 99) discuss the language features associated with a biographical recount. The verbs are predominantly in the past tense. Third person plurals are used as an indication that the writer is writing about other people, *they*. Wignell (1994) highlights the following language features: the use of past tense, ***graduated*** description of events, *in 1609 a **Dutch lens maker experimented with some lenses,*** set rather than sequenced in time, through circumstances: The focus of the text is on an individual historical figure, ***Galileo***. For example, *In 1588 Galileo graduated from the University of Pisa and stayed there to teach mathematics. In 1609 a Dutch lens maker experimented with some lenses. He found out that if the lenses were arranged in a certain order they would magnify and make things seem nearer.*

3.5.7 The overall design of a historical recount genre

Wignell (1994:366) asserts that the *function* of the historical recount genre is that of constructing history. It takes a shift from the individual and move towards collective experience. Feez and Joyce (1998:78-79) emphasise this view and state that in the historical recount genres, events are set over many years, decades and are grouped

into historical periods. For example, *the Industrial revolution, and the Hundred Years'
War,* represents a historical period. Historical recount texts are set in time and
sequenced through circumstances, also in past tense. Feez and Joyce (1998)
provide the following example of a historical recount text. *During the World War 1,
from 1914 to 1918, factories in Europe stopped making the goods needed for trade in
peacetime. Instead they made weapons.* Since focus is on the collective, there is a
balance between events and participants. Feez and Joyce (1998) and Coffin (2006)
support Wignell (1994) and they point out that the stages of historical recounts are
slightly different from other recounts. Historical recounts are about a whole historical
period, *during the World War 1,* rather than about individuals. Coffin (2006:58) further
points out that historical recount are abstract texts. This is because people, places
and events are generalised in historical recount texts. She further points out that
historical recounts are common in school's textbooks, because they assist teachers
to orient learners to the period of history taught in the history class. Historical
recounts are designed in the following three stages.

3.5.8 The three stages that form historical recount genres

- *Background:* This stage summarizes previous historical events*.*
- *Record of events:* This is the stage in which events are sequenced in time
  and
- *Deduction:* The stage in which the historian judges and evaluates the
  significance of the events of the whole history period.

3.5.9 Language components of a historical recount genre

Coffin (2006: 58) asserts that the language features associated with the historical
recount, are nominal groups. The verbs are predominantly in the past tense, people
and events are generalised. The focus of the text is on the interpretation of the past
based on the information gathered from primary and secondary sources. For
example, *during the World War 1 represent nominal groups,* while *stopped* and *made*
represents verbs in the past tense*.*

3.5.10 The overall design of historical account genres

Achugar and Schleppegrell (2005: 301) contend that the historical account's purpose
is to explain the main reason for the events being recounted from the perspective of
the social actors involved in them. Coffin (2006: 58) concurs with Achugar (2005)

et.al, in stating that the historical account genre is significant because past events are recorded as they unfold. Therefore, the social purpose of an historical account is to record and to explain. Christie and Derewianka (2008) and Feez and Joyce (1998) identify the same stages as Coffin (2006).They further point out that the sequenced events are linked to show which events caused other events. Historical accounts are designed in the following three stages.

3.5.11 The three stages that form a historical account genre

- *Background:* This stage which summaries previous historical events.
- *Account sequence:* The stage in which events are accounted for as they unfolded over time.
- *Deduction stage:* The stage in which the historical significance of the events of the recorded events unfolds.

3.5.12 Language components of a historical account genre

According to Feez and Joyce (1998: 90) and Coffin (2006:60) historical accounts are written in the past tense, events are sequenced over time and these events are also explained, resulting in the use of cause and effect to explain the events or circumstances. The conjunctions such as: *because, consequently, therefore, so* are used to explain the cause and effect. Martin and Rose (2008: 115) affirm that verbs and prepositions that realise the cause, for example, *argue, attract, spark* and *in, against and into* are used in clauses to emphasise the cause.

3.6   THE STRUCTURE OF EXPLAINING AND ARGUING GENRES

3.6.1 The overall design of explaining and arguing genres

Feez and Joyce (1998: 114-115), Coffin (2004:270) and Coffin (2006:69) argue that the social purpose of consequential explanations is to explain the consequences or effects of an historical event. This means that a consequential explanation either explains the reason for the outcomes or it explains the consequences of the event. Coffin (2006: 71) advance the view and asserts that in the explanation genres an elaboration of causes or consequences is displayed in writing. Thus, she asserts that causes or consequences are often placed in Theme position. Themes display an account of how meanings are connected in the texts. The Theme positions are

represented through the numeratives like, *one* and connectors like, *finally* which are represented as conjunctive adjuncts in SFL.

According to Coffin (2006:78) and Christie and Derewianka (2008:133) arguing genres require the writer to adopt a position and argue for it or against. This means that the writer need to be able to persuade the reader in that is known as *exposition*. In the case where there is debate taking place, it means that there is *discussion* about the issues and argument as well. Feez and Joyce (1998: 108) emphasise that in the language of explanation, features of linking devices for sequencing, *then,* showing cause and effect, *consequently,* pinpointing location, *at the top,* and being accurate, *water vapour which meets cold air* and technical, evaporation are important. The following stages form explanation and arguing genres.

3.6.1.1 The explaining genres

3.6.1.1.1 The stages that form factorial explanation genre

- *Outcome stage:* This is the stage in which an historical outcome is identified
- *Factors:* The stage which elaborates the cause of historical outcome and
- *Reinforcement of factors:* This stage, which is an optional stage, emphasizes factors evaluated.

3.6.1.1.2 The language features of factorial explanation genre

According to Coffin (2006: 75) and Martin and Rose (2008: 135) language features for the factorial explanation genre include dense nominal groups, third person and reason conjunctions like *if ,* introducing clauses explaining factors. Feez and Joyce (1998: 109) provide the following example of action verbs in the present tense, *came*, which form part of the explanation genres. For example*, the victory of the Greek over the Persians in the Second Persian War during 480-479 BC came about due to many factors. Three vital factors [[determining the victory of the Greeks]] were leadership, naval strength and unity.*

3.6.1.1.3 The stages that form consequential explanation genre

- *Input:* The stage in which a historical phenomenon leading to change is identified

- *Consequences:* this is the stage in which the effects of historical phenomenon are elaborated on. The consequences are stated from the order of most important to least important.
- *The reinforcement of consequences:* This is the stage in which the consequences are reviewed and at times evaluated.

3.6.1.1.4 The language features of the consequential explanation genre

Coffin (2006:75) emphasises the following language features as dominant in consequential explanations: past tense, *was felt, action* verbs, *traced*, conjunctions, *because* and pronouns, *it*. For example, *the Great Depression was an extremely serious economic downturn. It was felt all over the world because the main causes of the Depression can be traced back to a world war.*

3.7   THE ARGUING GENRES

3.7.1   The stages that form the exposition genres

- *Background:* The stage in which the context for the historical issue is given
- *Thesis:* is the stage in which the main arguments and the position are stated
- *Argument:* The stage in which reasons and evidence that support the arguments are tabled
- *Concession or re-enforcement of thesis:* This is the stage in which the argument is verified and accepted based on the tabled evidence and arguments

3.7.2   The language features of exposition genres

Martin and Rose (2008: 122) identify the following language features as dominant in the exposition genres, nominalisation which interpret events, the causal verbs, *results,* which connect events in the clause, for example: *The narrow selection of sources results in a profound ignorance…Britain.*

3.7.3   The stages that form discussion genres

- *Background:* The stage in which the context for the historical issue is given
- *Issues:* The stage in which the alternative interpretations of the past are stated

- ***Perspectives:*** This is the stage in which elaboration occurs invoking the evidence*.*

3.7.4   The language features of discussion genres

Martin and Rose (2008: 139-140) assert that the language features of discussion genre consist of abstract participants, *appeasement* and the language of evaluation, <u>*controversial*</u> *topic*. They emphasise that, in the chosen example, there is little evaluative language, but the double underlined word represents the language of evaluation. For example, *Appeasement was a foreign policy [[employed by the British Government]].* ***In particular,*** *the policy came into prominence with the appeasement of Adolf Hitler prior to the outbreak of the* Second *World War. This* <u>controversial</u> *topic has had historians in debate over many years as to the actual policy of appeasement as it was employed by the British Government, especially by the Prime Minister.*

3.7.5 The stages that form challenge genres

- ***Background:*** The stage in which context for the historical issue is given
- ***Position challenged:*** The stage that outlines the interpretation to be argued against
- ***Argument:*** This is the stage in which explanation of the evidence takes place to counteract the position
- ***Anti-thesis:*** this is the stage where stating of an alternative to the argument interpretation is taking place

Christie and Derewianka (2008: 139) assert that the arguing genres of which historical discussion genres are part, need attention which involves explicit modelling and teaching. This, entails that learners need to critically reflect on the history texts and identify the omissions, biasness and the stereotypes in texts. This implies that learners need to be taught a skill to base their arguments or discussions on facts not only on opinions. Therefore, when learners' writing display features of arguing genres it demonstrates that they have mastered the genre.

3.7.6 The language features of challenge genres

Language features consists of abstract participants, *Australian*, verbs of saying or thinking, <u>*states,*</u> reason conjunctions and use of quotations, ***'Australian…course'***. Coffins (2006:86) provides the following examples, of language features used in the

challenge genres, in which persuasions is used as a strategy to persuade the reader to reject received opinion on the past. Quoted from the New Internationalist, *No.* 253/ *March 1994.* Persuasion is represented by the double underlined verbs.

As James Dunn <u>states</u> 'Australian intelligence agencies were able to monitor the progress of Indonesian military preparations to assault East Timor…and simply chose to let events take their course'

Senator Robert ray <u>claims</u> that this will provide Australia with the opportunity to influence Indonesia in matters of human rights (letter to Amnesty International, 1993). (reporting)

3.8   SUMMARY

The discussion in this chapter has focused on the view that SFL plays a crucial role in literacy and language development at school. When learners are exposed to these foundational skills, taking into account the context and the language choices made from the language system, their writing and literacy skills will improve. The school genres that learners are exposed to in the history subject, are to develop literacy skills such as organising information and in describing details entailed in different texts. The language choices available to learners from SFL make it possible for the learners to write about events in their immediate and distant environment, hence it is important to integrate the teaching and learning literacy skills across the curriculum. Furthermore, Coffin (2006a:47) as discussed in Christie and Derewianka emphasises that the social purpose for writing history is to demonstrate the development in literacy and writing skills. Thus, she suggested that by adolescence the linguistic resources acquired should be displayed. The move from producing simple related and descriptive genres to producing the genres in which explanation of events and arguments around historical issues is demonstrated.

By contrast, some researchers cited in Coffins (2006: 94) like Blanco and Rosa (1997), Kress (1989), among others, who assert that some of the genres like narrative and argumentative are not realistic, in that they illustrate some bias that is hidden. SFL as the approach aims to provide a supportive base of literacy and language development. It can equip learners with the genre knowledge that will equip them to employ successful writing strategies in writing in writing and thus produce different texts of high standards. The next two chapters will demonstrate the use of

SFL in analysis of text excerpts from the history subject textbook of Grade 11 translated into isiXhosa and model answers in isiXhosa from the grades 11 and 12 assessment papers.

The chapter has demonstrated how knowledge of language based on grammar resources in genre-based teaching and learning demonstrates the importance of considering genres as constructions of meaning. The model of systemic functional linguistics, which forms the theoretical underpinnings of the genre-based approach, affords both learners and educators with a variety of linguistic resources, to reason, reflect and to be critical analysts of written texts and of their own writings.

CHAPTER FOUR
A GENRE-BASED ANALYSIS OF TEXT FROM A GRADE 11 HISTORY TEXTBOOK

4.1   INTRODUCTION

The introduction of the genre approach as a means of explicit language teaching afforded language education with an opportunity for writing to be taught across the curriculum, e.g. the reading and writing of different text types in both language and content subjects. This chapter of the study will examine the advantages of using history texts in an isiXhosa Home Language (HL) class to advance the understanding of the genre approach and language systems of systemic functional linguistics, in both subjects. Three history texts will be used for the analysis. The first two texts will be analysed in the present chapter (four), and the third text will be examined in chapter five. The use of three texts aims to show that the genre approach is applicable in the analysis of different types of texts. The first two texts are selected from the Grade 11 history text book, History solutions for all, Grade 11, learner's book and the third text is taken from a Grade 11 assessment paper 2010.

The three texts will be analysed to demonstrate the properties which texts exemplify as regards to the role of SFL, genre, and THE language system. Firstly, the generic structure of the selected text segments and the typical language features that are related to the generic structure will be analysed. Secondly, an analysis will be conducted of the language resources that are predominantly exhibited in segments of history texts with regard to the three metafunctions (the ideational, the textual and the interpersonal metafunctions). The generic structure of texts and the linguistic resources of the language system have been outlined and discussed in detail in Chapter 3. They all play an important role in creating texts with relevant lexical and grammatical devices.

Christie and Derewianka (2008:87), Martin and Rose (2008:99) and Rose and Martin (2012:129) state that history is a study about human beings. Thus, the school subject, history is seen as a collection of unquestionable facts working in a relationship of narrative with significant historical figures. This view demonstrates that history revolves around the everyday life of ordinary people, hence it is possible to engage with history texts in the home language class. The engagement with the texts

at home language class will increase the time devoted in developing writing skills of learners between isiXhosa (HL) and History which is taught in English. The next section will analyse the generic structure and linguistic resources exemplified in two of the three selected history texts.

4.2   THE GENERIC STRUCTURE AND LINGUISTIC RESOURCES OF HISTORY TEXT

Feez and Joyce (1998:61) and Coffin (2006: 44) point out that it is important for a history student to understand how texts are structured in order to produce historical writing that meets the needs of different types of historical enquiry. This means that learners will need to engage with different kinds of texts. Hence, it is important in the South African context, to engage with the texts in isiXhosa learners' home language, since history is taught to them mainly in English, which is the second (or additional) language of the learners. Therefore, the understanding of the analysis of history genres by both teachers and learners will assist learners in developing competence in genres of both language and history subjects, which they are expected to master in school.

Consider, next, two examples of the genre analysis of grade 11 history texts namely, text A and B. The two texts have been translated in isiXhosa and the lines numbered for ease of reference in the analysis that follows.

4.2.1 Text A: Title: Uqhankqalazo luka 1905 (Revolution of 1905).

UQHANKQALAZO LUKA 1905	REVOLUTION OF 1905
IZINTO EZAKHOKHELELA KUQHANKQALAZO LUKA 1905	ISSUES WHICH LED TO THE 1905 REVOLUTION
IZIDUBEDUBE ZABALIMI BELIZWE (IIPHIZENTI)	PEASANT UNREST
(1).iRashiya yenza intshukumo yokuqala ngokwenza inzame zokuphucula mhla yaphelisa ubucaka nobukhoboka ngo1861. Athe akukhululwa amakhoboka abizwa ngokuba	Russia had made its first move towards modernisation when it abolished *serfdom* in 1861. When serfs were freed they became known as peasants.

(5).ngabalimi belizwe (iiphizenti).

Urhulumente wanika iiphizenti umhlaba okwakufanele ukuba bawubhatale kwisithuba esingangeminyaka engaphezu kwama 59. Kwafuneka ukuba nabo bayibhatale irhafu, ngoko **(10).** ke iiphizenti zazikwimeko embi kakhulu engaphezulu kunela xesha babezizicaka. Oku kwabangela uqhankqalazo novukelo ngokungavumelani neemeko zabo. Uvukelo olu lwasekuhlaleni kwaye lalunga lungiswanga **(15.)**ngendlela eyiyo ngokuba amaqela ezopolitiko ayengavunyelwa eRashiya ngelo xesha.

Indlala nesifo sekholera/sotyatyazo sika 1891 zazisa imeko yabalimi belizwe (peasants) **(20).**kwinqwalasela yabantu abaninzi abangamadoda afundileyo aseRashiya. Aba bantu baququzelela amatheko ezopolitiko, awayekhangela iindlela zokuphucula iimeko zephizenti. Ngo 1898 *iRussian Social Democratic* **(25).** *Party* yamiselwa ngabantu ababesuka kumbutho *weMarxist.*Yathi yavalwa umlomo ngoko nangoko ngurhulumente weTsar. ULenin noGeorge Plekhanov babebalulekile kweli qela. Banyebelezisa iphephandaba le*Marxist, Iskra* **(30).** *('iSpark'),* eRashiya. Iimbono zikaMarx zafikeleleka kubalimi belizwe (peasants) abangamahlwempu ababezimisele ekulahlekelweni ludederhu lwamatyala abo.

UKUSEKWA KWEQELA IBOLSHEVIK

Kwinkongolo eyayibanjwe e*Landani* ngo 1903 **(35).** iqela elalibizwa ngokuba *yiRashiya Social*

The state gave the peasants land for which they would have to pay over 59 years. They also had to pay taxes, so in many cases the peasants were worse off than they had been as serfs. This led to unrest and revolts against their conditions. The revolts were local and poorly organised as political parties were illegal in Russia at this time. Famine and a *cholera* epidemic of 1891 brought the position of the peasants to the attention of many of the educated men of Russia. These people organised political parties, which looked for ways to improve peasant conditions. In 1898 the Russian Social Democratic Party was formed by people from Marxist organisations. It was immediately banned by the Tsar's government. Lenin and George Plekhanov were prominent in this movement. They smuggled a Marxist newspaper, *Iskra ('The Spark'),* into Russia. Marx's ideas appealed to the poor peasants who were eager to lose their chains of debt.

THE EMERGENCE OF THE BOLSHEVIK PARTY

At their congress in London in 1903 the

Democratic (yentando yesininzi) lohlukana kubini, laba ngala maqela alandelayo- i*Bolshevicks*, phantsi kobunkokheli buka Lenin, kwakunye ne*Mensheviks* eyayikhokhelwa **(40).**ngu*Julius Martov* kwakunye no*George Plekhanov*. IBolshevick ithetha ukuba 'amadoda esininzi' kwaye i*Menshevick* yona yayithetha ukuba 'amadoda engcuntswana'. Iqela le*Bolshevic*k lalilikhulu kunelo le *Menshevick,* **(45).** amagama wona ayenako ukulahlekisa okanye ukubhidisa. IBolshevick yayifuna iqela elincinane, labazinikeleyo namatshantliziyo afundileyo ababezakukhokhela abantu kwaye banikezele ngobom babo kwiqela lezopolitiko. **(50).**Iqela le*Menshevick* lona lalifuna iqela elikhulu lezopolitiko elalivuleleke kubo bonke abalandeli kwakunye nabo banovelwano.

INkulumbuso ye*Tsar, uVon Plevhe,* wayesazi ukuba abalimi belizwe (peasants) **(55).**babengonwabanga kwaye babengaqhankqalaza nanini na. Kwakhangeleka ngokungathi wathi eyona ndlela yokunqanda uqhankqalazo kukuba kuliwe imfazwe emfutshane neyimpumelelo. Oko kwakunakho, **(60).** wayekholelwa, ukuthabatha iingqondo zabantu zisuke kwiingxaki zabo kwaye babonise inkxaso kwiqela le*Tsar*. Ukuba imfazwe ithabathe ixesha elide, izakuza nezayo iingxaki, nanjengoko bekuzakubanjalo ukuba i*Rashiya* ithe yoyiswa **(65).** kwimfazwe.

IMFAZWE IRUSSO- YASEJAPANI (1904- 1905)

Kungenzeka ukuba kungenxa yale ndlela yokucinga korhulumente weRashiya owayezama

Russian Social Democratic Party split into two sections – The Bolsheviks, under the leadership of Lenin, and the Mensheviks led by Julius Martov and George Plekhavov. Bolshevik means 'men of the majority' and Menshevik means 'men of the minority'. There were more Mensheviks than Bolsheviks, so the names were misleading. The Bolsheviks wanted a small, disciplined party of dedicated and professional revolutionaries who would lead the masses and devote their lives to the party. The Mensheviks wanted a large political party open to all supporters and sympathisers.

The Tsar's chief minister, Von Plehve, was aware that the peasants were unhappy and could revolt at any time. Apparently he said that the only way to prevent a revolution from breaking out would be to fight a short, victorious war. This would, he believed, take people's minds off their problems and rally support around the Tsar. If the war went on for too long it would bring its own problems, just as it would if Russia lost the war.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR (1904-1905)

It was perhaps with this in mind that the Russian government tried to extend its

ukwandisa ifuthe labo kwiKoriya. Yagxumeka iintete zayo *ePort Arthur* kwisithili **(70).**sase*Liaotung Peninsula* indawo eyayiphantsi kwefuthe lwamaJapani. Xa uthi uqwalasela kwimephu yemfazwe *Russo*-Japanese, uzakubona ukuba umzila kaloliwe wathi wenza kwalula phakathi kwe*Khoriya* nePeninsula **(75).**ejikeleze i*Liaotung.* Zombini ezi peninsula zazinezibuko elingenawo umkhenkce, yayiyeyona inomtsalane kwi*Rashiya*. iKoriya nayo yayinomhlaba wezolimo olungileyo.

Kuthe xa uqhankqalazo nezicelo zothetha- **(80).**thethwano zingahoywa, i*Japani* yahlasela ngoFebruwari ka1904. Ama*Rashiya* oyiswa kiimfazwe zonke. Umkhosi waseRashiya watshatyalaliswa wonke kwi*Strait* sase*Tsushima* nge14 kaMeyi ngo1905. Endaweni yemfazwe **(85).** enempumelelo neye xeshana eyayinokumanyanisa i*Rashiya*, uloyiso kulemfazwe eyayingendumasi lwenza iiphizenti (peasants) zanomsindo ngakumbi. Uthotho lwezidube-dube kwakunye noqhankqalazo **(90).**lwagqabhuka kulo lonke lase*Rashiya*.

ICAWA YEMPALALO-GAZI

Ngomhla we-22 kuJanuwari 1905 kwabakho olona qhankqalazo lukhulu. Icawa yempalalo-gazi yathi yaphembelela uqhankqalazo. Igquba labasebenzi ababeqhankqalaza kwakunye **(95).**neentsapho zabo, bephethe imifanekiso

influence into Korea. It seized a base at Port Arthur on the Liaotung Peninsula – an area under Japanese influence. If you look at the map that follows, you will see that the railway lines gave easy access to both Korea and the peninsulas around Liaotung. These peninsulas both had ice-free harbours, which was their main appeal to Russia. Korea also offered good agricultural land.

When their protests and offers to negotiate were ignored, Japan attacked in February 1904. The Russians were defeated in every battle. The entire Russian fleet was destroyed in the Straits of Tsushima on 14 May 1905. Instead of the short victorious war which could unite Russia, the defeat in this unpopular war made the peasants even more angry. A series of riots and rebellions broke out all over Russia.

BLOODY SUNDAY

On 22 January 1905 the greatest revolt took place. Bloody Sunday sparked a revolution. Hordes of striking workers and their families, carrying religious icons (figures representing Christ or one of the saints) and the banners, marched to the

yokholo (imifanekiso imele uYesu okanye omnye wamalungisa) kunye neebhanile, bamatsha baya eWinter Palace eSt Petersburg ukuhambisa uxwebhu lwezikhalazo kwiTsar. Yayingekho iTsar **(100).** kwaye oonogada babengaqinisekanga ukuba mabenze ntoni na. Umkhosi wasebhotwe wadubula wabulala amakhulu amadoda, abafazi kunye nabantwana. Ngenxa yoko kwavuka ifuthe elitsha loqhankqalazo.

UQHANKQALAZO LUKA 1905

(105). Kwakukho uqhankqalazo olungephi emva kwecawa yempalalo-gazi, kodwa iTsar yabanakho ukululawula olo qhankqalazo. Kodwa, waqonda okokuba kufuneka enze into. Kwakufuneka akhethe phakathi kokugcina ulawulo lweRashiya **(110).** ngomkhosi oxhomileyo, okanye aguqule iindlela zokusebenza zikarhulumente abe namalungu asepalamente akhethiweyo kwakunye nomgaqo-siseko athembe ukuba oko kuzakuluphelisa uqhankqalazo. Wayengalithandi **(115).** eli cebo lwepalamente eyonyuliweyo kodwa waboniswa kwathiwa lelona cebo elo. Ngo-Oktobha ka 1905 iTsar yakhupha iManifesto ka-Oktobha. Ezi manifesto zazinamalungelo abahlali, ifrentshayisi ephangaleleyo yokunyula **(120).** ipalamente okanye iDuma kwakunye nesithembiso sokuba awukho umthetho ozakuthi wenziwe ngaphandle kwemvume yeDuma.

I*Manifesto* yayifezekisa injongo kwaye uqhankqalazo nalo lwehla.Abalimi-belizwe **(125).**(peasants) babenqwenela ukuba iDuma ikwazi ukuzisombulula iingxaki zabo. Ukusekwa komgaqo siseko wobukumkani eRashiya kwakulu

Winter Palace in St Petersburg to hand a petition to the Tsar. The Tsar was not there and the guards were unsure what to do. The troops in the palace opened fire and killed and wounded hundreds of men, women and children. A new wave of unrest broke out as a result.

THE 1905 REVOLUTION

There were smaller uprisings after Bloody Sunday, but the Tsar was able to control them. However he realised that he had to do something. He had to choose between keeping his direct control of Russia by armed force, or changing the government structure to have an elected parliament and a constitution and hope that this would end the unrest. He did not like the idea of an elected parliament but was persuaded that it was the only choice. In October 1905 the Tsar issued the October *Manifesto*. The Manifesto provided for *civil liberties*, a wide *franchise* to elect a parliament or *Duma* and the promise that no laws would be made without the consent of the Duma.

The Manifesto achieved its purpose and the unrest died down. The peasants hoped that the Duma would be able to solve their problems. The creation of a *constitutional monarchy* in Russia was

ngquzulwano luka 1905. Imithetho esisiseko yobukumkani baseRashiya yathi (130).yaqwalaselwa kwakhona ukwenzela iDuma indawo. Ukuqwalaselwa kwemithetho kwabangela ukuba kubelula ukwehlisa amandla ayethenjiswe iDuma. Kwangaxesha linye inkqubo yolonyulo yaguqulwa ukwanelisa abo (135).banemihlaba kunye nabo bazizinhanha ngaphaya kwabalimi (peasants) kunye nabasebenzi. Ungquzulwano lokuqala lweDuma norhulumente weTsar lwathi lwachithwa emva kweenyanga ezimbini. Ukuchitwa kweDuma (140). kwakhokhelela kuqhankqalazo olunobundlobongela, kodwa umbuso wakuphelisa oko. IDuma yesiBini yayiyeyona inobudlobongela kuneyokuqala kwaye nayo yachithwa nje emva kweenyanga ezimbalwa. Umthetho omtsha wathi (145). wothulwa ngaphandle kwemvume yeDuma (le yayichithiwe) kwaye lonto yaqinisekisa ukuba iDuma entsha yayiphethwe ngamadla ngendebe-ndala kwaye yakwazi ukuqhubekeka yagqiba ixesha layo kwi-ofisi. Ngeli thuba iqela (150).loqhankqalazo lalisele libhangile uninzi lweenkokheli zalo zibulewe, zibanjiwe okanye ziselubhacweni.

UNXIBELELWANO PHAKATHI KOQHANKQALAZO LUKA 1905 NOLUKA 1917

Indima yeDuma yesithathu ekukhuliseni ukungazinzi kwephizenti (peasants).

Umsebenzi obalulekileyo weDuma yesithathu yayikukhuthaza imfundo. Oku kwathi kwanceda (155). abantu abaninzi bakwazi ukufunda kwaye baxhase ukuhamba kweendaba ezingeyiyo

the revolution of 1905. The fundamental laws of the Russian Empire were *revised* to make place for the Duma. Revising the laws made it possible to reduce the promised powers of the Duma. At the same time the election process was changed to favour landowners and the rich over the peasants and workers. The first Duma clashed with the Tsar's government and it was dismissed after two months. The dismissal of the Duma led to violent protests, but the state crushed them. The Second Duma was probably more radical than the First and was also dismissed after a few months. A new electoral law was *promulgated* without the consent of the Duma (which had been dismissed) and this ensured that the new Duma was dominated by *conservatives* and managed to continue for its full elected term. By now the revolutionary movement had collapsed with most leaders killed, imprisoned or in *exile*.

THE LINK BETWEEN THE 1905 AND 1917 REVOLUTIONS

The role of the third Duma in growing peasant unrest

The Third Duma's most important activity was promoting education. This helped more people to be able to read and support *propaganda* by the Bolsheviks

inyaniso eyenziwa ngabo beBolsheviks namanye amaqela. Yathi yophula namandla ebhunga labahlali awathi enziwa ngeli lixa **(160).** kukhululwa izicaka zamandulo ezazingavunyelwa ukuba zimke kumhlaba ezazisebenza kuwe. Abalimi belizwe (peasants) bahlala bengamahlwempu kwaye nethemba ababenalo lokwahlula umhlaba wabo **(165).**bazizinhanha ukuze bandise umhlaba wabo zange ithathelwe ngqalelo okanye zange ithethwe tu. Abasebenzi kumashishini nabo bafumanisa ukuba ubomi babo bahlala bungebuhlanga nangona ezezimali zathi zaguquka emva **(170).**komnyaka ka1909. Iziphithiphithi kwakunye nogwayimbo zathi zaqhubekeka zaba yinxenye yobom baseRashiya ngaphambi kokuba kuvuke imfazwe yokuqala yomhlaba (World War 1).

and other groups. It had also broken the power of the village community councils that were created when the serfs were freed. Peasants stayed poor and their hope of breaking up the large estates of the nobles in order to increase their land holdings was not addressed. Industrial workers also found that their lives remained miserable despite an economic boom after 1909. Unrest continued and strikes became a feature of Russian life in the years before the outbreak of World War I.

INDIMA EYADLALWA YIMFAZWE YOKUQALA YEHLABATHI EYAKHOKHELELA KUQHANKQALAZO

U-Otto von Bismack, lo wayongamele iPrussian **(175).** kunye nezopolitiko zaseJamani, wagcina amakhonkco obuhlobo neRashiya. Emva kokushiya phantsi isikhundla njengeNgqonyela yaseJamani ngo 1890 la mazwe mabini ohlukana yaze iJamani yakha ubudlelwane neFransi ngo **(180).** 1894. Ukungavani phakathi kweRashiya ne-Austriya (abahlobo abakhulu beJamani) kwaba nefuthe kwiBalkans kwandisa ukungavani phakathi kwala mazwe mabini kwaye baphantse balwa imfazwe ngo 1908 kwakhona ngo1913. **(185).** Ukugwintwa kom Astreliya u-Archuduke Frans Ferdinand ngabo baseBosnian Serb Garvil

THE PART PLAYED BY WORLD WAR I IN THE BUILD UP TO REVOLUTION

Otto von Bismarck, who dominated Prussian and German politics, maintained friendly ties with Russia. After his resignation as German Chancellor in 1890 the two countries drifted apart and Russia made an alliance with France in 1894. The rivalry between Russian and Austria (Germany's close ally) for influence in the Balkans increased the tensions between the two countries and they nearly went to war in 1908 and again in 1913. The assassination of the Austrian Archduke Frans Ferdinand by the Bosnian Serb Gavril Princip led

Princip yakhokhelela i- Australia ukuba ithumele isisongelo kwiSerbia. IRashiya yabonisa inkxaso kwiSerbia ababehambisana nayo, ngokuthi **(190).**ithumele umkhosi wayo ukulungiselela imfazwe.

Urhulumente waseRashiya wayesazi ukuba ukubeka kwabo umkhosi emlindweni kungawacaphukisa amaJamani. Lo nto **(195).**ingakhokhelela ekubeni iJamani ingene kwimfazwe. Umkhosi waseRashiya wawungenawo amandla afana nowomkhosi waseJamani. Ekuqaleni abantu baseRashiya babezixhasa ezi nzame zemfazwe neTsar leyo. **(200).** Kodwa emva kokuba iRashiya yoyisiwe kwimfazwe abantu baseRashiya basokola ngenxa yokushota kokutya namaxabiso aphezulu, babengonwabanga kwakhona. Kuthe xa iTsar isiya phambili ngokwayo edabini ukunika **(205).**umkhomba ndlela kwimfazwe (ngo-Agasti ka1915) nangona yayingenalo uqeqesho lomkhosi, yagxekwa ngokoyiswa kwabo kwimfazwe. Kwakhona wathi akabinalo udumo ebantwini.Iimeko eRashiya zaqinisa ukuba mbi **(210).** kwaye ugwayimbo noqhankqalazo lwakhula kumnyaka ka1916 ukuya ku1917 uqhankqalazo lwabonakala ngathi lungenzeka. Kungatshiwo kuthiwe ukuqala kwemfazwe yokuqala yehlabathi yalumisa uqhankqalazo **(215).** eRashiya, kodwa yathi yalwenza ngokungathi lunganakho ukuphumelela.

UKUTHABATHA KWENXAXHEBA EMMANDLA KWABASEBENZI NAMAPHIZENTI

Kwiiveki zokuqala zomnyaka ka1917 kwakhula

Austria to send an ultimatum to Serbia. Russia showed it supports for its ally Serbia by ordering its army to prepare for war.

The Russian government know that placing their army on alert could upset the Germans. It could even lead to Germany entering the war. The Russian army did not have the strength of the German army. The Russian people also supported the war effort and the Tsar at first. But after Russia was defeated in battle and Russian people suffered as a result of food shortages and rising prices, they were unhappy again. When the Tsar went to the front line of battle to take personal command of the army (in August 1915) despite having no military training, he was blamed for defeats in battle. They once again became unpopular among the people. Conditions within Russia grew steadily worse and strikes and protests increased through 1916 and into 1917. A revolution seemed likely. It can be argued that the outbreak of World War I delayed a revolution in Russia, but it also made it more likely to succeed.

MASS PARTICIPATION OF WORKERS AND PEASANTS

In the first weeks of 1917 dissatisfaction in Russia grew rapidly. Freezing weather

ukongeneliseki eRashiya. Imozulu ebandayo yathi yongeza kwezingxaki zokunyuka **(220).**kwamandla emali nokungqongophala kokutya, uqhankqalazo lwaluqhelekile kwaye abantu baseRashiya babenomsindo ogqithisileyo. Uqhankqalazo kwakunye neendibano ezibonisa ukungoneliseki, imigca emide yesonka kwakunye **(225).** neematshi kwabona amawaka amaRashiya ebonisa ukungoneliseki kwabo kwinto eyaba kukuqala koqhankqalazo ngo 1917.

INDIMA KATROTSKY KUQHANKQALAZO

ULev Davydovich Bronstein, ngulo wathi waziwa ngokuba nguLeon Trotsky, wayekwinkomfa **(230).**ka1903 apho umbutho oyiRashiya Social Development wathi wohlukana khona. Wathi waxhasa amaMensheviks. Wayengumqhankqalazi ozimiseleyo noqinisekileyo. UTrotsky wabuyela eRashiya ngo **(235).** 1905 kwaye wajoyina iqela elitsha elalibizwa ngokuba yiPetrograd Soviet. Aba yayingoceba abonyulwe ekuhlaleni apho esixekweni. UTrotsky lo wathi waba ngusihlalo walo mbutho ngoDisemba kodwa imisebenzi **(240).** yakhe kweli qela yakhokhelela ekubeni abanjwe kwaye aphindiselwe kwilizwe lakowabo. Ngethuba lokuba selubhacweni eVienna,uTrotsky waqala ukubhala iphepha lasekuhlaleni lentando yesininzi ngeelwimi ezimbini zaseRashiya, **(245).**elalibizwa ngokuba yi*Pravda* ('Inyaniso'). Lalijolise kubasebenzi baseRashiya kwaye lathutyeleziswa eRashiya. Laba nendumasi phakathi kwabasebenzi kwezoshishino.uTrotsky wahlala elubhacweni de kwaba semva kokuqala

added to the problems of inflation and food shortages; strikes were common and Russian people became increasingly angry. Strikes and demonstrations, bread queues and marches saw thousands of ordinary Russians show their dissatisfaction in what was to be the first of the revolutions of 1917.

TROTSKY'S ROLE IN THE REVOLUTION

Lev Davdovich Bronstein, who became known as Leon Trotsky, was at the 1903 conference where the Russian Social Democratic Party split. He sided with the Mensheviks. He was a dedicated and determined revolutionary. Trotsky returned to Russia in 1905 and joined the newly formed Petrograd Soviet. This was the local elected council of workers in the city. Trotsky became its chairman in December but his activities in this council led to his arrest and **deportation**. During his exile in Vienna, Trotsky started writing a bi-weekly Russian language social democratic paper called *Pravda ('Truth')*. It was aimed at Russian workers and smuggled into Russia. It became popular among industrial workers.Trotsky stayed in exile until after the outbreak of the revolution in March 1917, when he returned to Russia. During his years in exile he expanded on Marx's theory of

(250). koqhankqalazo ngoMatshika1917, xa wayebuyela eRashiya. Ngelixesha eselubhacweni wazikhulisa ngolwazi lwengcingane kaMarx engoqhankqalazo olungagungqiyo. UTrotsky wabonisa ukuba xa abo **(255).** bazizityebi bethe babhukuqwa ngabo bodidi oluphantsi (proletariat), babanakho abasebenzi ukwenza ilizwe eligqibeleleyo elalithenjiswa bubukomanisi. Wathi ukubuyela kwakhe eRashiya, uTrotsky waxhasa uLenin waze **(260).** wabalisekela lakhe. Kwathi nje emva kokugqabhuka kwemfazwe iSt Peterburg yanikwa igama elitsha elithi Petrograd, ukwenzela ukuba livakale kakhulu njengesiRashiya kancinci njengesiJamani. Ibhunga labasebenzi lasekwa **(265).** ngo 1905 laqhubekeka laxhasa iBolshevik. UTrotsky wakhawuleza waba ngusihlalo welibhunga, elathi laziwa ngokuba yiPetrograd Soviet. Ethubeni waqala ukusebenza wakhokhela umkhosi wonobomvana. Ngo 1918 imfazwe **(270).**yagqabhuka eRashiya phakathi komkhosi oBomvu nabo baMhlophe, umkhosi owenziwa ngabalandeli beTsar, iMensheviks nabanye ababengaphesheya koLenin kunye nezimvo zakhe. Abamhlophe babencediswa yiBrithani, **(275).** IFransi ne-United States yaseMelika. Emva kokuba umkhosi wonobomvana waphumelela imfazwe, uTrotsky waba nguMphathiswa wezangaphandle.

IFUTHE LENGCINGANE YOQHANKQALAZO KALENIN

Asinakho ukuqiniseka ngokupheleleyo **(280).**ngobungakanani befuthe likaTrotsky

permanent revolution. Trotsky showed that only when the *Bourgeoisie* had been overthrown completely by the proletariat, could the workers create the ideal world that communism promised. Once he was back in Russia, Trotsky supported Lenin and became his second-in-command. Soon after the outbreak of the war St Petersburg had been renamed Petrograd, to make it sound more Russian and less German. The workers' council created in 1905 continued to support the Bolsheviks. Trotsky soon became Chairman of this council, which became known as the Petrograd Soviet. Later he started and led the Red army. In 1918 a war broke out in Russia between the Red army and the Whites, an army made up of supporters of the Tsar, the Mensheviks and others who were against Lenin and his ideas. The Whites were helped by Britain, France and the United States of America. After the Red army won the war, Trotsky became Foreign Affairs Commissar.

INFLUENCE ON LENIN'S REVOLUTIONARY THEORY

We cannot be sure to what extent Trotsky influenced Lenin's theories. However, we know that he influenced the practicalities

kwiithiyori/ingcingane zikaLenin. Nangona kunjalo, siyazi ukuba wabanefuthe kwizinto eziphathekayo zokulungiselela uqhankqalazo kunye nengxoxo namajamani emvakoko. Ngo **(285).**1915 wabanakho ukufumana inkxaso kaLenin ukunqanda iyantlukwano kumasoshiyale ayengayifuni imfazwe. Le nto yanceda ekugcineni amazwe aphesheya esibini, *(Second International)*, awayeyingumbutho **(290).**wokuqhubekeka uhambise ubukomanisi kwilizwe jikelele. Njengosihlalo wePetrograd Soviet ngo 1917, uTrotsky ngoyena owaqinisekisa impumelelo yokuthathwa kwamandla olawulo kaNovemba nokuthabathela kuye umkhosi.	of planning the revolution and negotiations with the Germans afterwards. In 1915 he managed to get Lenin's support to prevent a split in the socialists opposing the war. This helped to maintain the Second International, which was a movement to spread communism around the world. As Chairman of the Petrograd Soviet in 1917, Trotsky was the one who ensured the success of the November seizure of power and the winning over the military.

The following section 4.2.1.1 will demonstrate with reference to the text above, the types of genre that are found in the text.

4.2.1.1 Types of genres: overall generic structure of text A's genre segments

The above text exhibits a range of genre segments generally found in a history text. The genre segment in lines 1 to 28, represents a historical recount, in that arguments are presented in a sequential explanation through *background* and *record of stages*, as discussed in Chapter 3. Historical events recount phases in time with detailed recounts of events. The events provide a recount of a historically significant record, exemplified in the text on the **Revolution of 1905**.

The genre segment in lines 1 to13 exemplifies the background stage of the historical recount about how Russia made its first move towards modernisation when it abolished serfdom in 1861.Further background is given in the segment about the information concerning the time when the serfs were freed, when they became known as peasants. In lines 6 to 11 a description is given of the treatment of the state of peasants and how the state's action resulted in unrest and revolt. The segment in lines 13 to 17 explains that, because political parties were illegal in Russia, revolts were poorly organised.

The genre segment in lines 18 to 30 demonstrates the record of stages about the sequence of events which led to the 1905 revolution. In lines 18 to 24 events are narrated about how the famine and cholera epidemic of 1891, brought awareness of the conditions of the peasants to the attention of educated people in Russia, and what those people did, to look for ways to help the peasants. The segment in lines 24 to 26 exhibits the events leading to the formation of political party in 1898 by people from the Marxist organisation. The segment in line 27 explains how prominent people like Lenin Plekhanov smuggled a newspaper to Russia. The genre segment in lines 29 to 33 explains how the ideas represented by the paper appealed to the poor peasants and how eager they were to get rid of their debts.

The genre segment in lines 34 to 41 represents another stage in that it describes the events of 1903 that happened in London, where the Russian Democratic Party split into two parts, namely the Bolsheviks, led by Lenin and Mensheviks led by Julias Martov. The segments in lines 46 to 52 describes what the Bolsheviks wanted, which was a small disciplined party of professionals, while the Mensheviks on the other hand, wanted a large political party which welcomed everyone. In lines 53 to 56 an account is given about Von Plehve, who was the Tsar Minister, and who was aware of the unhappiness of the peasants and that they could revolt at any time. The segment in lines 56 to 59 gives an explanation of what the minister said about how a short, victorious war can prevent a revolution from breaking out. In lines 60 to 65 an argument presented by the Tsar explains how he believed that people would forget about the revolt and that support for him would grow, but that he realised that if the war went on for a long time there would be problems, especially if Russia lost the war.

The segment in lines 66 to 84 represents a further stage in the record of events stages in that it describes the factors which led to the Russo Japanese war of 1904 to1905 and the outcome of the war. In lines 71-74 an event is described that, because of the easy access via the railway lines, Russia seized a base at Port Arthur under the guidance of the Japanese. In lines 75 to 78 an explanation is demonstrated about how Russia, managed to seize the base because the harbours were ice free and Korea offered good agricultural land. The segment in lines 79 to 80 presents the sequence of events that took place when the Japanese protested and offers were ignored by Russia. For example, in February 1904, when Japan attacked, the Russians were defeated in all the battles. In 1905 on 14 May the Russian fleet was

defeated at the Straits of Tsushima. In line 84 - 90 the explanation displays the negative impact of the war which divided Russia, instead of bringing the unity which the Tsar hoped for. Furthermore, the explanation demonstrates that the defeat made the peasants even angrier, which resulted in a series of riots and rebellions that broke out all over Russia.

The genre segment in lines 91 to 99 represents a further stage in the record of stages by recounting the events that led to the Bloody Sunday. The events are recounted, where it is stated that on 22 January 1905 the greatest revolt took place, when a large number of striking workers and their families marched to the Winter Palace in St Petersburg to hand a petition to the Tsar. In lines 99 to 101 an explanation is given that the Tsar was not present to receive the petition, hence the guards did not know what to do. The segment in lines 101 to 104 describes the event about how troops at the palace opened fire and killed and wounded strikers, which resulted in the breaking out of unrest.

The genre segments in lines 105 to 107 represent another stage in explaining the events leading to the 1905 revolution, which commenced after Bloody Sunday. In lines 107 to 116, an explanation is given of how the Tsar was able to control a smaller uprising, but he realised a change needed to happen of either keeping his control of the Russian armed forces or change the government structure to have an elected parliament and a constitution. Lines 117 to 118 record an event which happened in October 1905 when the Tsar issued a Manifesto which was known as the October manifesto. The segment in lines 118 to 122 explains the role played by the manifesto, which was to provide civil liberties and a franchise to elect a parliament or Duma, having the consequence that no law will be made without the consent of the Duma. The segment in lines 123 to 124 explains that the manifesto achieved its purpose that led to the ending of the unrest. Lines 124 to 131 explain the hope that the peasants had of how their problems would be solved by the Duma, which led to the revision of the Russian Empire laws to make place for the Duma.

The genre segment in lines131 to137 demonstrates a further stage in the record of event stages in which an explanation is given about the election process which was changed to favour landowners and the rich over the peasants and the workers. Lines 137 to 142 recount the events as they unfolded, demonstrating that the first Duma clash with the Tsar was dismissed after two months. This dismissal led to violent

protests but these were crushed. In lines 142-144 an explanation is given about the second Duma which emerged after the first one was dismissed, and which was more radical than the first one, but which was also dismissed after a few months. In lines 144 to 149 further explanation is given about a new electoral law that was promulgated without the consent of the Duma. This was done to ensure that the new Duma was dominated by the conservatives for its full elected term. In lines 149 to152 an explanation is given of the revolutionary movements that had collapsed and most of the leaders killed, imprisoned, or having gone in exile.

The genre segment in lines 153 to 154 represents a further stage in the record of events stage in that it explains the role of the third Duma and the growing peasant unrest. In lines 154 to 158 an event is explained that, third Duma's role was to promote education, which helped more people to be able to read and support propaganda by Bolsheviks and other groups. In lines 158 to 167 an account is given about how the third Duma broke the power of the village community councils. It is further demonstrated that peasants stayed poor and their hopes of breaking up large estates in order to have larger land holdings were not addressed. In lines 167 to 173 an account is given about the fact that industrial workers found their lives remained miserable, despite the rise in the economy after 1909. It is further explained that unrest and strikes became daily life of Russia before the outbreak of World War 1.

The genre segment in lines 174 to 176 represents a biographical recount which presents argument in stages of *orientation and record of stages.* In an orientation stage a historical figure is presented by the name of Otto von Bismarck, where an explanation is given about how he dominated Prussian and German politics and managed to keep ties with Russia.

 In lines 176 to 180, an explanation is given of how, after Otto von Bismarck's resignation in 1890 as a German Chancellor, the two countries drifted apart and Russia made an alliance with France in 1894. The segment in lines 180 to 184 represents a stage of the record of events in that it describes the events which demonstrate the increase in rivalry between Russia and Austria that almost lead to war between 1908 and 1913. Lines 185 to 188 represent a further stage in the recount of events about a historical figure where an explanation is given about the assassination of the Austrian Archduke Frans Ferdinand by the Bosnian Serb Gavril which resulted in Austria sending an ultimatum to Serbia. The segment in lines 188 to

191 presents an explanation of how Russia supported Serbia by ordering its army to prepare for war.

The genre segment in lines 192 to 196 represents a further stage in the recount of events stages in that it describes the actions of the Russian government and how that led to Germany being dissatisfied and decided to take part in the war. In lines 196 to 199 an explanation is given about how the Russian army did not have the strength of the German army and how people of Russia supported the war and the Tsar. Lines 200 to 202 further represent a record of events in that it explains what happens after Russia was defeated in the battle and people suffered because of shortage of food and rising prizes. The segment in lines 203 to 208 further describes what happened when the Tsar went to the front line battle in 1915 and how he was blamed for defeats in battle.

The genre segment in line 208 to 212 represents a further stage in the record of events stages in that it describes how the Tsar became unpopular and how the conditions within Russia became worse with the increase of strikes and protest increasing during 1916 and 1917. Lines 213 to 215 demonstrate an argument about the outbreak of World War 1 which resulted in a delay of revolution in Russia. Lines 217 to 222 represent an explanation of the problems with which Russia was faced during the first week of 1917 when the weather was freezing, inflation and food shortages occurred, and strikes that made people very angry.

The genre segment in lines 228-278 exemplifies a biographical recount, which presents the argument in stages of *orientation* and *record of stages*. The segment in lines 228 to 231 demonstrates features of the orientation stage in that the information about a historical figure known as Lev Davdovich Bronstein, who was later known as *Leon Trotsky,* is sequenced in time as he was one of the people who were at the 1903 conference where the Russian Social Democratic Party split. The segment in line 233 to 238 provides a recount of events around the life of Trotsky, where further explanation is given about how dedicated and determined he was, and how he returned to Russia in 1905 to join the newly formed Petrograd Soviet which was the locally elected council of workers in the city. The segment from lines 238 to 241 represents a stage in the record of events stages in that it describes the events around Trotsky's life about how he became the chairperson of the Petrograd Soviet in December of 1905, and how his activities led to his arrest and deportation.

The segment in lines 242 to 248 presents information about his actions while in exile, like starting a bi-weekly Russian language social democratic paper known as Pravda, meaning the 'Truth', which was aimed at Russian workers and was smuggled into Russia and was very popular amongst industrial workers. The genre segment in lines 248 to 251 represents a next stage in describing the event in his life when he stayed in exile until after the outbreak of the revolution in March 1917 and returned to Russia. Lines 251 to 258 represent an explanation of how Trotsky expanded on Marx's theory of permanent revolution while he was in exile, and how he demonstrated that when the Bourgeoisie had been overthrown by the proletariat then workers will be able to have the ideal world that communism promised. The segment in lines 258 to 264 represents a further stage of the biographical recount of events stages in that it describes the events around Trotsky's life about how, once he was in Russia, he supported Lenin and became his second-in-command, and St Petersburg which was renamed Petrograd to make it sound like German after the outbreak of the war.

The genre segment in lines 264 to 265 represents a further stage in the record of events stages in that it explains how the workers council of 1905 continued to support the Bolsheviks. Lines 266 to 269 represent a next stage in the biographical recount of events in that it present information about how Trotsky became the chairperson of the council, which was later known as Petrograd Soviet and started and led the Red army. Lines 269 to 274 present the information about how the war broke out in Russia in 1918 between the Red army which supported the Tsar and the White army, known as the Mensheviks, and all those who were anti-Lenin and his ideas. Lines 274 to 278 represent an explanation about how the White army were helped by Britain, France and the United States of America, and despite that the Red army won the war and Trotsky became Foreign Affairs Commissar. The segment in lines 284 to 291 conveys the information that in 1915 Trotsky managed to get the support of Lenin to prevent split in the socialist opposing the war. Further explanation is given about how the support helped to maintain the Second International, which was a movement to spread communism around the world. The segment in lines 291 to 294 represents a further stage in the recount of events stages in that it further gives information about how Trotsky ensured the success of the November seizure of power and the winning over the military.

Characteristic language components

In the above text segments, language components demonstrate the appropriate use of grammar and lexis at sentence level for expressing language of time and cause and effect. Each genre demonstrates a range of language components. It is possible to classify a text as a specific genre because of the language components that have been used in that particular text. Feez and Joyce (1998:62-93) identify language components demonstrated by the biographical recount genre, namely, the past tense, the third person, where pronouns like he, him, his or she and her respectively are used. Historical accounts are also written in the past tense, events are sequenced as they unfold over time by making use of words such as reason conjunctions *like because, consequently, therefore, so*; verbs like *resulted in*, *caused, led to*, also form part of the language component of historical accounts and nouns like the *result*, which are linked by cause, also form part of language component of historical accounts. These language characteristics that are found in historical recount play an important role in guiding the learners to identify and write historical recount texts.

In summary, the above text illustrates a range of genre types such as biographical and historical recounts, with the respective stages that are characteristics of each of the genres. The text displays a dominant genre of historical recounts since it appears more than once in the analysis, and that is a typical representative of history texts. All the genre stages representing historical recounts like background, record of events and deduction are dominant in the text analysed, which makes it possible to classify it as dominantly a historical recount. However, there are segments in the text where one genre is dominant and the other is salient, but overall both biographical and historical recounts dominate. The following section (4.2.1.2) will demonstrate the role played by the ideational metafunction in meaning-making.

4.2.1.2 Linguistic resources representing meaning and meaning relationship

Resources from the language system, namely the lexicon, sentence-level and text-level grammar, discourse grammar and semantics are important systems in the genre analysis of texts, relating primarily to meaning-making in a text. The role played by the ideational metafunction is discussed below.

4.2.1.2.1 Ideational metafunction

The above text, **The Revolution of 1905,** exhibits a variety of linguistic resources, i.e. choices from the language system which create certain ideational meanings. (See chapter three, where the ideational metafunction was discussed.) The ideational metafunction is concerned with how linguistic elements within the clause and among the clauses represent the experience (as regards subject field) of the writer. In this subsection selected sentences are analysed in terms of the logical and experiential metafunctions distinguished in the ideational metafunction of the language system. In addition, the phenomena of grammatical metaphor will be examined subsequent to the discussion of the experiential metafunction of the language system.

In terms of types of logical metafunction of the isiXhosa language system the above text exemplifies a wide range of clause types and clause combinations that create particular ideational meanings and logical relationships among clauses, such as addition, exemplification, cause, time and concession. Furthermore, in terms of the experiential metafunction for each clause, the realisation of the linguistic resources realising processes, participants and circumstances will be analysed. Consider the following sentences from the longer text, for illustration of the logical metafunction analysis.

Sentence 1: Lines 1-3

iRashiya yenza intshukumo yokuqala ngokwenza inzame zokuphucuka xa yaphelisa ubucaka nobukhoboka ngo1861. (*Russia had made its first move towards modernisation when it abolished serfdom in 1861.*

In terms of the logical metafunction of the isiXhosa language system, the sentence in lines 1 to 3 displays a single independent or dominant clause, containing dependent clauses realising a variety of logical relationships.

The dominant clause **iRashiya yenza…**(*Russia had made*) takes an independent clause complement **ngokwenza…**(towards/ by doing) which contains the verb phrase **phucula…**(*modernise*), which also takes a dependent complement clause **xa yaphelisa…**(*when it abolished*).The dominant clause **iRashiya yenza…***(Russia had made)* combines with an independent clause **ngokwenza…**(*towards/ by doing*)

containing a verb **yaphelisa…***(abolished)* which itself takes a dependent verb complement... **ngokwenza inzame… ngo1861** *(towards modernisation…in 1861)***.**

In terms of the experiential metafunction, the verb in verb phrase **yenza** (made) realises a material process. The participant **iRashiya…** (Russia) in the clause with the verb phrase **yenza** realises an actor participant while **intshukumo…** (move) realises the goal participant. The head noun **intshukumo** (move) is post-modified by a possessive phrase **yokuqala…** (first), which realises a circumstance of time. The dependent clause **ngokwenza…**(towards/ by doing) introduced by the preposition **nga** realises the logical meaning relationship of manner to the preceding clause. The verb **yenza** (it made) realises a material process. The actor participant **iRashiya** is implied. The noun phrase **inzame** (moves) realises the goal participant of the verb in the verb phrase **ngokwenza.** The head noun in the noun phrase **inzame** is post-modified by a possessive phrase containing an infinitive verb phrase. The infinitive verb in verb phrase **zokuphucula** (modernisation) takes a dependent clause **xa yaphelisa…**(when it abolished) introduced by conjunction **xa** (when), representing a logical relationship of time. The verb in the verb phrase **yaphelisa…**(it abolished) realises a material process.The actor participant in the verb phrase **yaphelisa** is realised by Subject Agreement prefix (Agr.S) **ya** which represents the pronoun referring to **iRashiya**. The goal participant of the verb in verb phrase **yaphelisa** is realised by conjoined noun phrase **ubucaka** and **ubukhoboka** (*serfdom*) with the conjunction **na,** realising a relationship of addition and a circumstance of time.

Sentence 2: In lines 46-49

*I****Bolshevick*** **yayifuna iqela elincinane, labazinikeleyo namatshantliziyo afundileyo awayezakukhokhela abantu kwaye banikezele ngobom babo kwiqela lezopolitiko**. *(The Bolsheviks wanted a small, disciplined party of dedicated and professional revolutionaries who would lead the masses and devote their lives to the party).*

With regard to the logical metafunction of the isiXhosa language system, the above sentence in lines 46-49 illustrates a dominant clause containing a number of clauses that function as modifiers of the noun phrase participant **iqela elincinane…**(*small party)*, which realises the goal participant of the verb in the verb phrase **yayifuna...**(*wanted*).

In terms of the experiential metafunction, the above sentence displays a variety of linguistic resources that represent the experience of the writer in terms of the subject content or topic concerning process, participants and circumstances. The noun phrase complement of the verb phrase **yayifuna…**(*wanted*) is a conjoined phrase of **iqela labazinikeleyo… namatshantliziyo…***(party of dedicated and professional revolutionaries)*. The head noun **iqela** *(party)* is modified by the adjective **elincinane…**(*small)* which describes the size of the noun, and a relative clause modifier **labazinikeyo…** (*of those dedicated*).The conjunct **na** links a conjoined noun phrase within the goal participant of the verb in the verb phrase **yayifuna…** *(Bolshevicks wanted).* The head noun **amatshantliziyo …**(r*evolutionaries*) takes two clauses as post-modifiers. It further expands the meaning of the relative clause **afundileyo…** *(professional)* by another relative clause **awayezakukhokhela…***(who would lead)*. The clause introduced by the conjunction **kwaye** *(and further)* realises an equal dependency relationship with the relative clause **awayezakukhokhela***…(who would lead)*. The verb in the verb phrase **yayifuna** realises a mental process. **IBolshevick** is an actor participant, and the goal participant is **iqela elincinane**.

The relative clause verb contained in the possessive phrase **labazinikeleyo…** (*of those who are dedicated)* represents a behavioural process. **Namatshantliziyo...** *(revolutionaries*) is a compound noun post-modified by a relative clause **afundileyo…**(*professionals)* which expands the meaning of the relative clause **afundileyo** with by the Subject agreement prefix (Agr.S) **a.**

The second modifying relative clause **awayezakukhokhela…** contains a verb in the verb phrase which realises a behavioural process. The noun phrase **abantu** is the goal participant in the relative clause **awayezakukhokhela…** The verb in the verb phrase **banikezele…**(*devote*) is an equal dependency clause with **awayezakukhokhela…,** realising a behavioural process. The actor participant is represented by the subject concord in **banikezele…** The verb in the verb phrase **banikezele…** is post-modified by two prepositional phrases **ngobom babo** and **kwiqela lezopolitiko** *(in the political party)* which realises the circumstances of manner and place.

Sentence 3: Line 62-65

Ukuba imfazwe ithabathe ixesha elide, iza kuza nezayo iingxaki, nanjengoko bekuzakubanjalo ukuba i*Rashiya* ithe yoyiswa kwimfazwe. *(If the war went on for too long it would bring its own problems, just as it would if Russia lost the war).*

In terms of the logical metafunction of the isiXhosa language system, the sentence in lines 62-65 displays a variety of clauses of unequal dependency. This sentence also exemplifies various kinds of participants, processes and circumstances at the clause level in terms of the experiential metafunction.

The clause **is Kuze Nazaro iingxaki…** *(it would bring its own problems)* represents the main or dominant clause. This clause appears as an independent clause representing the initiating clause. This independent clause is preceded by a dependant clause introduced by the conjunction **ukuba…***(if)* representing a logical relationship of condition to the event of bringing problems expressed in the independent clause. The independent clause is also followed by a dependant clause introduced by a conjunction **nanjengoko** … **kwimfazwe** *(just as it would …in the war)* representing a meaning relationship of comparison to the event of bringing problems expressed in the independent clause. The compound past tense predicate in the dependant clause **bekuza kuba njalo …***(just as it would)* takes a dependant clause complement introduced by a conjunction **ukuba** *(if)* realising, a logical relationship of condition to the predicate in the preceding clause.

In terms of the experiential metafunction in the independent clause with the future tense phrase **iza kuza…**(it would bring) represents a material process. The actor participant of the verb in the verb phrase **iza kuza** *(it would bring)* is represented by the Subject agreement prefix (AgrS), which represents the pronoun of **imfazwe** *(the war)*. The future tense verb in the verb phrase **iza kuza …***(it would bring)* in the independent clause takes a prepositional phrase complement **nezayo iingxaki…***(its own problems)* realising the goal participant of the verb in the preceding clause. The head noun **iingxaki…***(problems)* in the noun phrase representing the goal participant, is pre-modified by the phrase **nezayo…***(its own)* with the preposition **na**.

In the dependant clause in the compound future tense with the adjectival predicate **bekuzakuba njalo** the subject concord **ku** is impersonal. The dependant clause introduced by **ukuba…***(if)* contains a deficient verb phrase in the passive **ithe**

yoyiswa…*(it lost)* that realises a material process. The subject noun phrase **iRashiya…** *(Russia)* is the goal participant. The verb phrase **ithe yoyiswa…***(it lost)* takes a prepositional complement **kwimfazwe…***(in the war)* representing the circumstance type of place, in relation to the event of being defeated. In the dependant clause introduced by the conjunction **ukuba… elide** *(if…too long)* the verb in the verb phrase **ithabathe ixesha…** *(went on for long)* realises an existential process.

The noun phrase **imfazwe…***(war)* realises the theme participant. The noun phrase **ixesha elide** *(too long)* expresses the circumstance of time in the process of taking, within the noun phrase **ixesha elide**. The head noun is post-modified by an adjective **elide…***(long)* realising an attribute of time of the head noun.

Sentence 4: Lines: 84-88

Endaweni yemfazwe enempumelelo neyexeshana eyayinokumanyanisa i*Rashiya*, uloyiso kule mfazwe eyayingendumasi lwenza iiphizenti (peasants) zanomsindo ngakumbi. *(Instead of the short victorious war which could unite Russia, the defeat in this unpopular war made the peasants even more angry).*

With regard to the logical metafunction, the clause **uloyiso… ngakumbi** *(defeat)* in lines 84-88 occurs as the independent dominant clause. The clause **Endaweni** …**iRashiya** *(instead…Russia)* occurs as a dependant clause realising a logical relationship of contrast to the event of the independent clause. Both independent and dependent clauses contain a number of dependent clauses. The noun phrase in **endaweni yemfazwe…***(instead of the war)* is post-modified by three relative clauses namely **enempumelelo, neyexeshana** and **eyayinokumanyanisa.**

The relative clause **enempumelelo** *(victorious)* contains an associative predicate realising an attributive relationship to the head noun. The second relative clause **neyexeshana…** (*of the short*) is conjoined to the preceding relative clause by the conjunction **na.** Furthermore, the third relative clause **eyayinokumanyanisa…** *(which could unite)* also contains an associative predicate, with the prepositional **na** in the remote compound past tense realising the logical relationship of attributive in **endaweni yemfazwe…**

In terms of the experiential metafunction, represented in the independent clause **uloyiso…**(*defeat*) the verb in the verb phrase **lwenza…**(*made*) realises a material process. The noun phrase **uloyiso…** is the theme participant in the independent clause. Furthermore, the noun **uloyiso** is also a grammatical metaphor, of which both the actor and the goal participants are implied. The prepositional phrase **kule mfazwe…**(*in this war*) occurs as a post-modifier of the noun **uloyiso** realising the circumstance of place.

The head noun in the prepositional phrase **kule mfazwe…** is post-modified by a negative relative clause with an associative predicate, in the remote compound past tense. The consecutive complement clause **zanomsindo…**(*they were angry*) also contains an associative predicate. The consecutive complement clause of the verb in the verb phrase **lwenza…**(*made*) contains an associative predicate **zanomsindo…**, realising the logical relationship of result to the event expressed in the preceding clause. The associative predicate **zanomsindo…** is followed by the conjunction **ngakumbi** (*more*) realising a circumstance of emphasis.

Sentence 5: Lines 101-103

Umkhosi wasebhotwe wadubula wabulala wonzakalisa amakhulu amadoda, abafazi nabantwana. (*The troops in the palace opened fire and killed and wounded hundreds of men, women and children*).

The sentence in line 101-103 displays clauses of equal depencency. The clause **umkhosi…nabantwana** (*the troops…children*) is an independent dominant clause. The dominant clause contains three consecutive clauses denoting action **wadubula, wabulala** and **wonzakalisa…** (*opened fire, killed and wounded*). Furthermore, the nominal group **amadoda…**(*men*) is conjoint by a conjunction **na**, realising the logical relationship of addition.

In terms of the experiential metafunction, the noun phrase **umkhosi…**(*troop*) is post-modified by a possessive phrase **wasebhotwe…** (*in the palace*) realising a meaning relationship or circumstance of place. The verbs in the verb phrases in the consecutive mood **wadubula**, **wabulala, wonzakalisa** realise behavioural processes. The processes are post-modified by **amakhulu…** (*hundreds*) realising an attribute. The verb in the verb phrase takes a goal participant **amadoda** (*men*),

abafazi *(woman)* **nabantwana** *(and children).*The noun phrase **umkhosi** represents an actor participant.

Sentence 6: Lines 153- 154

Umsebenzi obalulekileyo weDuma yesithathu yayikukukhuthaza imfundo. *(The Third Duma's most important activity was promoting education).*

The above sentence in lines 153-154 represents an independent clause **yayikukukhuthaza** …**imfundo** *(promoting…education),* which has a nominal predicate with a sentential agreement subject in the remote past tense of which the infinitive **ukukukhuthaza…***(promoting)* occurs as the noun phrase in the nominal predicate.

In terms of the experiential metafunction the nominal predicate **yayikukukhuthaza** realises a material process. The theme participant is **umsebenzi…wesithathu** *(activity…third).* The nominal infinitive in the nominal predicate **yayikukukhuthaza** has an object noun phrase which realises the goal participant. The head noun **umsebenzi** in the subject phrase realising the theme participant is post-modified by a relative clause **obalulekileyo…** *(which is important)* and a possessive phrase **weDuma** realising attribute. The head noun in the possessive phrase **weDuma** is post-modified by a possessive phrase **yesithathu** realising an attribute.

In summary the ideational metafunction, through its components of the logical and experiential metafunctions, exemplifies a variety of linguistic resources. The linguistic resources that are displayed in the isiXhosa text provide learners with the opportunity and the exposure to genre-based linguistic analysis that is related to meaning-making. The above text demonstrates how the logical and the experiential metafunctions that manifest the isiXhosa linguistic elements within the clause and among the clauses represent the experience of the writer. The following section deals with the second metafunction namely the textual metafunction, within the genre analysis approach informed by systemic functional linguistics.

4.2.1.2.2 Textual metafunction

According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) the textual metafunction encompasses all of the grammatical systems responsible for the logical flow of a text. These systems assist in producing texts that are coherent within themselves and within the

context of situation. This means that the textual metafunction relates to producing texts that are appropriate in terms of: (i) structural properties, which involves making choices based on the ordering of elements in the clause and (ii) non-structural properties, which involves making choices that create cohesive relationships between the elements in the clause. It is, therefore, important for the writer to have a clear point of departure, known as the theme in a sentence. The information that follows after the point of departure is known as the rheme. The theme and the rheme are also exemplified in these history texts. Consider the examples from text A. The sections 4.2.1.2.2.1 and 4.2.1.2.2.2 below will both demonstrate types of sentences that illustrate the elements of the textual metafunction at the clause and beyond the clause levels, respectively.

4.2.1.2.2.1 The *clause level: Theme and Rheme*

Example 1 represents the point of departure and new information

Lines 27- 28

Isiqalo (theme)	ulwazi olongozelelweyo (rheme)
uLenin noGeorge Plekhanov	*babebalulekile kweli qela.*

Example 1

A proper noun is used as the point of departure. A pronoun can also be used as a point of departure. Consider the following example.

In terms of the isiXhosa language system *ba* in *ba*nyanzelekile is the subject agreement of noun class 2 which represents the pronoun, for the two nouns in the noun phrase *uLenin noGeorge* **Plekhanov babebalulekile kweli qela**.

Isiqalo (theme)	ulwazi olongozelelweyo (rheme)
Banyebelezisa	*iphephandaba leMarxist, Iskra ('iSpark'), eRashiya.*

Example 2 represents an instance of where a topic can be moved from being part of the rheme to be the theme. Consider the following example:

Oku kwabangela uqhankqalazo **novukelo** *ngokungavumelani neemeko zabo.*

The expression *novukelo,* introduces the next clause, it now acts as a theme not as part of the rheme, as it did in the previous clause.

Isiqalo (theme)	Ulwazi olongezelelweyo (rheme)
Uvukelo	*olu lwalusekuhlaleni kwaye lalungalungiswanga ngendlela eyiyo ngokuba amaqela ezopolitiko ayengavunyelwa eRashiya ngelo xesha.*

Example 3

The beginning of the sentence is not always represented by a noun phrase topic, but at times a writer might choose to begin with a prepositional phrase, *iza kuza …*(**it** would bring).

Isiqalo (theme)	Ulwazi olongezelelweyo (rheme)
iza kuza nezayo iingxaki	*nanjengoko bekuzakubanjalo ukuba iRashiya ithe yoyiswa kwimfazwe.*

4.2.1.2.2.2 Beyond *the clause:* Cohesion

This section discusses the grammatical and lexical devices that create the link between clauses to achieve the meaning expressed by the writer. Consider the following sentences which demonstrate properties of cohesion.

Sentence 1: 174-180

u-Otto von Bismarck, lo wayongamele iPrussian kunye nezopolitiko zaseJamani, wagcina amakhonkco obuhlobo neRashiya. Emva kokushiya phantsi isikhundla njengeNgqonyela yaseJamani ngo 1890 la mazwe mabini ohlukana yaze iRashiya yakha ubudlelwane neFransi ngo 1894. *(Otto von Bismarck, who dominated Prussian and German politics, maintained friendly ties with Russia. After his resignation as German Chancellor in 1890 the two countries drifted apart and Russia made an alliance with France in 1894).*

In terms of the textual metafunction, the segment in lines 174 to 180 demonstrates linguistic resources that create grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is realised in line 174, in the use of anaphoric reference in the

demonstrative pronoun first position **lo…***(who)* which refers back to the noun phrase **u-Otto von Bismarck**. Similarly, the personal pronoun in the remote past tense verb phrase ***wa**gcina…(maintained)* also points back to the noun phrase **Otto von Bismarck**. Cataphoric reference is represented in line 178, in the demonstrative pronoun **la** pointing to the class 6 noun **amazwe...***(countries)*.The use of the cohesive device of reference exemplifies the occurence of substitution cohesion. In lines 175 and 176, conjunctive cohesion is demonstrated in the co-ordinating conjunction of addition **na** *(and),* and the conjunction of comparison **njenga** *(like).*

The realisation of lexical cohesion is demonstrated in line 176, where the compound noun **neRashiya…***(with Russia)* is repeated in line180, in the noun phrase **iRashiya…***(Russia).* The noun phrase **amakhonkco obuhlobo ...***(friendly ties)* in line 176, is synonymous to the clause **yakha ubudlelwana...** *(made an alliance)* in line 179. Opposites are exemplified in the remote past tense verb phrase **yohlukana...** *(drifted)* and the remote past tense verb phrase **yakha ubudlelwane...***(made an alliance).*In line 176, the use of collocation is displayed in the noun phrase occurring with a possessive noun **amakhonkco obuhlobo...***(friendly ties).*

Sentence 2: Lines 153- 158

Umsebenzi obalulekileyo weDuma yesithathu yayikukukhuthaza imfundo. Oku kwathi kwanceda abantu abaninzi bakwazi ukufunda kwaye baxhase ukuhamba kweendaba ezingeyiyo inyaniso eyenziwa ngabeBolsheviks namanye amaqela. (*The Third Duma's most important activity was promoting education. This helped more people to be able to read and support propaganda by the Bolsheviks and other groups).*

In terms of the textual metafunction, the segment in lines 153 to 158 displays linguistic resources that create grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. In line 154 the compound past tense verb clause in the remote past tense **yayikukukhuthaza (***was promoting)* refers back to the head noun **umsebenzi** *(activity).* In line 154 the demonstrative first position pronoun **oku** *(this)* demonstrates anaphoric reference in that it refers back to the information in the previous sentence. Exophoric reference is represented in line 154, in that the demonstrative pronoun **ngabe** *(by the)* points, to the class 1a noun **Bolsheviks**.

The use of reference illustrates the occurrence of substitution cohesion **ngabe** *(by the)*. In lines 155 and 157, conjunctive cohesion is demonstrated in the co-ordinating conjunctions of addition **no, kwaye, na** all representing *(and).*The verb **funda** *(read)* is repeated in the noun **imfundo** *(education)* and in the infinitive verb **ukufunda** *(to read)***.**

The realisation of lexical cohesion is exemplified through repetition which is demonstrated in line 154 where the compound past verb phrase yayikuku**khuthaza** *(it was to promote)* is a synonym to the remote past tense verb phrase kwa**nceda** *(it helped)***.** In line 155, collocation is displayed in the noun phrase occurring with an adjunct **abantu abaninzi** *(many people)* and in **ukuhamba kweendaba** *(propaganda).*

Sentence 3: Lines 228- 236

uLev Davydovich Bronstein, ngulo wathi waziwa ngokuba nguLeon Trotsky, wayekwinkomfa ka1903 apho umbutho oyiRashiya Social Democratic wathi wohlukana khona. Wathi waxhasa amaMensheviks. Wayengumqhankqalazi ozimiseleyo noqinisekileyo. uTrotsky wabuyela eRashiya ngo 1905 kwaye wajoyina iqela elitsha elalibizwa ngokuba yiPetrograd Soviet. *(Lev Davdovich Bronstein, who became known as Leon Trotsky, was at the 1903 conference where the Russian Social Democratic Party split. He sided with the Mensheviks. He was a dedicated and determined revolutionary. Trotsky returned to Russia in 1905 and joined the newly formed Petrograd Soviet).*

In terms of the linguistic resources associated with the textual metafunction, the segment in lines 228 to 236 exemplifies linguistic resources that create grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is exemplified in line 228, in the use of anaphoric reference in the first position demonstrative copulative **ngulo...***(who)* **which** refers back to noun phrase **uLev Davydovich Bronstein.** In line 231 substitution is displayed by the use of the personal pronoun **wa**thi *(he sided)* which refers to the noun phrase **Leon Trotsky**. In line 235, where the co-ordinate conjunction of addition **kwaye** *(and further*) is used to conjoin two clauses.

The realisation of lexical cohesion is demonstrated in lines 231 and 238, where the verb **thi** *(say, do)* is repeated to create emphasis on the person who changed his name. In line 233 a synonym is displayed in the clauses **ozimiseleyo** *(determined)*

and **noqinisekileyo** *(dedicated)* which are similar in meaning. In line 235, collocation is represented in the combination of the noun and adjective **iqela elitsha** *(newly formed Petrograd Soviet)*.

Sentence 4: Lines 260-268

Kwathi nje emva kokugqabhuka kwemfazwe iSt Peterburg yayinikwe igama elitsha elithi Petrograd, ukwenzela ukuba livakale kakhulu njengesiRashiya kancinci njengesiJamani. Ibhunga labasebenzi lasekwa ngo 1905 laqhubekeka laxhasa iBolshevik. uTrotsky wakhawuleza waba ngusihlalo welibhunga, elathi laziwa ngokuba yiPetrograd Soviet.*(Soon after the outbreak of the war St Petersburg had been renamed Petrograd, to make it sound more Russian and less German. The workers' council created in 1905 continued to support the Bolsheviks. Trotsky soon became Chairman of this council, which became known as the Petrograd Soviet).*

In terms of the textual metafunction the segment in lines 263 demonstrates linguistic resources that create a range of devices that exemplify grammatical cohesion. In line 264, for example, the pronoun in the remote past verb phrase **ya**nikwa *(it was)* demonstrates anaphoric reference as it points back to the noun phrase **iSt Peterburg.** Hence, this pronoun is used as substitution for the noun phrase. Lines 263 and 266 display comparative reference in the use of comparative conjunctions in the comparatives in the phrase, **kakhulu njengesiRashiya kancinci njengesiJamani** (*more Russian and less German*)**.**

The realisation of lexical cohesion is demonstrated in lines 236 and 240, where the noun phrase **Petrograd** is repeated a number of times. In line 263 an antonym is expressed through the adverbs of manner **kakhulu** no**kancinci** *(more and less).* In line 264 an instance of collocation is demonstrated in the modified descriptive possessive noun phrase **ibhunga labasebenzi** *(worker's council)*.

Sentence 5: Line 268- 278

Ethubeni waqala ukusebenza kwaye wakhokhela umkhosi wonobomvana. Ngo 1918 imfazwe yagqabhuka eRashiya phakathi komkhosi oBomvu nabo baMhlophe, umkhosi owenziwa ngabalandeli beTsar, iMensheviks nabanye ababengaphesheya koLenin kunye nezimvo zakhe. Abamhlophe babencediswa

yiBrithani, iFransi ne-United States yaseMelika. Emva kokuba umkhosi woonobomvana waphumelela imfazwe, uTrotsky waba ngumphathiswa wezangaphandle (Foreign Affairs Commissar). *(Later he started and led the Red army. In 1918 a war broke out in Russia between the Red army and the Whites, an army made up of supporters of the Tsar, the Mensheviks and others who were against Lenin and his ideas. The Whites were helped by Britain, France and the United States of America. After the Red army won the war, Trotsky became Foreign Affairs Commissar).*

In terms of the textual metafunction, the segment in lines 268 to 278 displays various linguistic resources that create grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. In line 268, grammatical cohesion is demonstrated in the use of anaphoric reference through the personal pronoun in the verb phrase **wa**qala *(he started)* which refers back to Trosky in the previous segment. In line 240, cataphoric reference is displayed in the use of the subject agreement in the remote past tense verb phrase **ya**gqabhuka *(it broke)* which points back class 1a noun **imfazwe** *(war).* In line 272 ellipsis is exemplified in the omission of class two noun **abantu** *(people),* which is expressed by the class two prefix in the phrase **nabanye** *(others).* In line 272 the co-ordinate conjunction **na** *(and)* occurs, conjoining noun phrases.

The realisation of lexical cohesion is demonstrated in lines 269, 270, 271 and 276 where repetition is displayed through the use of the noun **umkhosi** *(army).* Antonym is realised in line 271 where the noun denoting colours **obomvu** *(red)* and **omhlophe** *(white)* are used. In line 275 an instance of collocation is demonstrated in the use of pair of noun phrases **United States yaseMelika** (United States of America).

Sentence 6: Lines 279- 294 ellipsis

Asinakho ukuqiniseka ngokupheleleyo ngobungakanani befuthe likaTrotsky kwiithiyori/ngcingane zikaLenin. Nangona kunjalo, siyazi ukuba wabanefuthe kwizinto eziphathekayo zokulungiselela uqhankqalazo kunye nengxoxo namajamani emvakoko. Ngo1915 wabanakho ukufumana inkxaso kaLenin ukunqanda iyantlukwano kumasoshiyale ayengayifuni imfazwe. Le nto yanceda ekugcineni amazwe aphesheya esibini, *(Second International),* **awawungumbutho wokuhambisa ubukomanisi kwilizwe jikelele. Njengosihlalo wePetrograd Soviet ngo1917, uTrotsky wayengoyena wayeqinisekisa**

impumelelo yohlaselolwamandla kaNovemba nempumelelo yomkhosi. *(We cannot be sure to what extent Trotsky influenced Lenin's theories. However, we know that he influenced the practicalities of planning the revolution and negotiations with the Germans afterwards. In 1915 he managed to get Lenin's support to prevent a split in the socialists opposing the war. This helped to maintain the Second International, which was a movement to spread communism around the world. As Chairman of the Petrograd Soviet in 1917, Trotsky was the one who ensured the success of the November seizure of power and the winning over the military).*

In terms of the textual metafunction, the segment in lines 279 to 294 displays a variety of linguistic resources that create grammatical and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is realised in line 282, through the use of anaphoric reference in the third person pronoun in the verb phrase **wa**banefuthe (*he influenced*) referring back to the noun **Trotsky**. Substitution is realised in the use of anaphoric reference where the personal pronoun in **wa**banefuthe stand in the place of the noun **Trotsky**. In line 284 the co-ordinate conjunction **na** *(and)* is used to join the two noun phrases in **ne**ngxoxo **na**majamani, locative noun kaNovemba and the noun in **ne**mpumelelo respectively.

The realisation of lexical cohesion is demonstrated in lines 280 and 291 where the noun **Trotsky** is repeated. Collocation is realised in lines 285 and 291 in the use of the prepositional phrase **ngo1915** and **1917,** respectively. The section that follows will demonstrate the isiXhosa linguistic resources relating to the interpersonal metafunction in meaning making.

4.2.1.2.3 The interpersonal metafunction

Example 1: Lines 30-33

Iimbono zikaMarx zafikeleleka kubalimi belizwe abangamahlwempu *ababezimisele* **ekulahlekelweni ludederhu lwamatyala abo.** *(Marx's ideas appealed to the poor peasants who were eager to lose their chains of debt).*

In the above example in lines 30 to 33 the attitude dimension of the interpersonal metafunction is displayed in that a judgement of behaviour is expressed. This is done through the use of ababe**zimisele**…(those who are *eager)* demonstrating an emotional engagement with the subject matter, namely the peasants, in this case.

Example 2: Lines 13-17

Uvukelo olu lwalusekuhlaleni kwaye lalungalungiswanga *ngendlela eyiyo* **ngokuba amaqela ezopolitiko ayengavunyelwa eRashiya ngelo xesha.** *(The revolts were local and **poorly** organised as political parties were illegal in Russia at this time).*

The sentences in lines 13 to 17 demonstrate the use of graduation in that the judgement of how the revolts were organised is expressed through the use of an intensifying adverb **ngendlela eyiyo…(***poorly).*

There is no evidence from the text segment of an instance where the writer needs to position themselves in favour or against a certain point of view. Therefore no relevant example is available to demonstrate the engagement system of the interpersonal metafunction. The following section will demonstrate how the content words namely, nouns, verbs, adjectives and some adverbs that are displayed in the history text create lexical density.

4.2.1.2.4 Lexical density

The analysis of lexical density in the following example, aims to demonstrate the number of lexical items in a sentence. Christie and Derewianka (2008: 27) point out that in oral conversation fewer lexical items are used, because there is no need to be explicit, as is the case required in writing. Consider the following example

Example: Lines 93–99

Igquba labasebenzi ababeqhankqalaza kwakunye neentsapho zabo, bephethe imifanekiso yokholo (imifanekiso imele uYesu okanye omnye wamalungisa) kunye neebhanile, bamatsha baya eWinter Palace eSt Petersburg ukuhambisa uxwebhu lwezikhalazo kwiTsar. *(*Hordes of striking workers and their families, carrying religious icons *(figures representing Christ or one of the saints) and the banners, marched to the Winter Palace in St Petersburg to hand a petition to the Tsar).*

The following table demonstrates the number of lexical items in lines 84 to 89.

	Lexical items
Hordes of **striking workers** and their **families**,	4
carrying religious icons (**figures representing**	5
Christ or **one** of the **saints**) and the **banners**,	4
marched to the **Winter Palace** in **St Petersburg**	3
to **hand** a **petition** to the **Tsar**.	3

This brings the view of lexical density of the genre analysis of the isiXhosa discussion on the language system displayed in Text A to the next section on the analysis of Text B.

4.3   THE GENERIC STRUCTURE AND LINGUISTIC RESOURCES OF HISTORY TEXT B

4.3.1 Text b: title: ukusekwa kobuzwe (origins of nationalism)

UKUSEKWA KOBUZWE	ORIGINS OF NATIONALISM
(1).Igama elithi 'isizwe'kudala lasetyenziswa ukusuka kwizigidi zeminyaka engamashumi anesithathu. Intsusa yalo ithetha iqela labantu abathi (5).bazalelwa kwingingqi enye kwaye bathi bafundiswa ukuba babe neembono kwanokubona izinto ngendlela efanayo.	The word 'nation' has been used since the thirteenth century. It originally meant a group of people who were born in the same area and were therefore thought to have the same ideas and outlook.
Ubuzwe yimbono yokuba yinxalenye encedisayo ekubumbeni ilizwe (10).ngokwezopolitiko. Bukwanayo nendima yamasiko nezithethe, eboniswa kwindlela abantu abathi baziphathe ngayo ekuhlaleni, nakwizinto	Nationalism is an idea of belonging that helps to shape a country politically. It also has a cultural aspect, reflected in the way people organise themselves socially and express themselves, for example, through dance, language, religion and sport. Big events bring different groups

abazenzayo, umzekelo, imidaniso, ulwimi **(15).**abaluthethayo, iinkolo kwakunye nezemidlalo. Iziganeko ezinkulu zidibanisa amaqela ohlukeneyo phantsi kwenjongo enye, kube negalelo ekuziveni uyinxenye yelo qela kunye **(20).**nomanyano.

Abantu abakholelwa kubuzwe babelana ngezi mpawu:

- Ulwimi olunye
- Iinkolo efanayo

(25). Ukubhiyozela amaqhawe amanye

- Babelana ngamava adlulileyo babelane ngethemba lekamva elizayo
- Babelana ngenkcubeko ,

(30).umzekelo umculo, nezemidlalo

- Imvakalelo emandla yamaqela enongquzulwano
- Ukrokreleko kwabangaphandle

INTSUSA YOBUZWE YABUMINI E-EUROPE

Kuthathe ixesha elide ukuba igama elithi ' **(35).**ubuzwe' lisetyenziswe kwezopolitiko. Igama laqala ukusetyenziswa kwezopolitiko ngethuba le *French Revolution*, xa abahlali base*Fransi* bevukela ukumkani uLouis XVI. **(40).**iFransi yayingelilo lizwe lentando yesininzi, ngoko ke isininzi sabantu

together under the same banner, contributing to feelings of belonging and unity.

People who believe in nationalism usually share the following characteristics:

A common language

- The same religion faith
- Celebration of the same heroes
- Sharing a common past as well as future aspirations
- Sharing common cultural interests, for example music, sport and recreation
- Strong feelings of group cohesion
- Suspicion towards outsiders.

THE MODERN ORIGINS OF NATIONALISM IN EUROPE

It took a long time for the word 'nation' to be used in a political sense. The term was first used in a political way during the French Revolution, when the citizens of France rose up against King Louis XVI. France was not a democracy, so the majority of 'ordinary people' in France did not have the right to vote to change the government. These people acted to

'abaqhelekileyo' eFransi babengenalo ilungelo lokuvota ukuze baguqule urhulumente. Aba bantu bashukumela (45).kutshintsho lwendlela ilizwe labo elaliphethwe ngayo, kwaye babesebenzisa igama elithi 'the *French nation*' 'isizwe samaFrentshi' elibhekisele 'kubantu abaqhelekileyo'. (50).Igama elithi 'ubuzwe' laqala ukubhalwa ngexesha *leFrench Revolution. iFrench Revolution* nayo yayiqala imbono yokuba abantu kufuneka bazilawule bona. Lo nto yathi yenza (55).intsusa yentando yesininzi yabumini.

iFrench Revolution yaba negalelo elikhulu kwilizwe ngokubanzi. Abantu kwamanye amazwe baqala bakholelwa ukuba nabo banganelizwi kwindlela (60).amazwe abo ayelawulwa ngayo. Abantu nabo baqala bafuna ukudityaniswa nabanye abantu abayeleleneyo kubo-abantu ababelana ngolwimi olunye, ilifa, inkcubeko (65).nembali. Oko kwabonakala kwimeko yaseJamani (Germany) nase Italy. Kuzo zombini ezi meko, amathandazwe asebenza nzima ukumanya inani elithile lamazwana ukuze (70).abe lilizwe elinye nelinamandla.

Ilizwe esilibiza ngokuba yi-iTali namhlanje lalingekho ngaphambi komnyaka ka 1861. Ngaphambi koku,

change the way the country was ruled, and they used the term 'the French nation' to refer to the 'ordinary people'.

The term 'nationalism' first appeared in print during the French Revolution. The French Revolution also developed the idea that people should govern themselves. This formed the basis of modern democracy.

The French Revolution had an enormous impact on the rest of the world. People in other countries began to believe that they could also have a say in the way their countries were governed. People also began to want to be united with other similar people – people who shared the same language, heritage, culture and history. This was especially seen in the cases of Germany and Italy. In both cases, nationalists worked hard to unify a number of states into one larger, more powerful state.

The country we call Italy today did not exist before 1861. Before this, there had been a number of states that spoke

kwakukho inani lamazwana awayethetha (75).isiTaliyana kwaye ayenenkcubeko eyeleleneyo nelifa, kodwa ayelawulwa ngokwahlukeneyo. Amanye awo ayephantsi kolawulo lobukumkani be-Astro- Hungarian Empire. (80).Amathandazwe abandakanya iGuiseppe Garabaldi kunye neCount Camillo di Cavour) asebenza nzima ukudibanisa lamazwana ukuba abe lilizwe elinye. Oku kwenzeka ngo 1861. (85).Ngokunjalo, iJamani (Germany) yayingekho phambi komnyaka ka 1871. Elona lizwe ekwakuthethwa kulo isijamani kakhulu kwakuyi Prussia, kwaye ingqonyela yayo, u-Otto von (90).Bismarck, wasebenza ukudibanisa lamazwana ukuba abe yiJamani (Germany). iJamani (Germany) yalwa iimfazwe ezintathu kwilinge lomanyano.

UBUZWE KUNYE NOVUKELO LWAMASHISHINI

uVukelo lwaMashishini yayindlela (95).apho iBritani (Britain) yaguqula khona indlela eyayivelisa ngayo impahla. Ngaphambili, isimo sezimali saseBritani (Britain) sasisekelwe kwinzululwazi ngolimo. Ngoku, sathi sagxininisa (100).ekuveliseni impahla. Abantu abaninzi babesebenza emakhaya okanye kwindawo ezincinane zokusebenzela. Njengokuba amashinini ethabatha indawo nangakumbi elizweni, iimpahla (105).zaziveliswa kwimizi emikhulu

Italian and had a similar culture and heritage, but were ruled separately. Some of them were under the control of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Nationalists (including Giuseppe Garibaldi and Count Camillo di Cavour) worked hard to unite the states into one country. This happened in 1861.

Similarly, Germany did not exist before 1871. The largest German-speaking state was Prussia, and its chancellor, Otto von Bismarck, worked to unify the states into one Germany. Germany fought three different wars in the process of unification.

NATIONALISM AND THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Industrial Revolution was a process in which Britain changed the way it produced goods. Previously, Britain's economy had been based on agriculture. Now, it became based on production of goods. Many people had worked at home or in smaller workshops. As the country became more industrialised, goods were produced in large factories. The way goods were produced also change: factories used machines to speed up the production, so more goods were

yoveliso. Nendlela iimpahla ezaziveliswa ngayo nayo yaguquka: imizi yoshishini yasebenzisa oomatshini ukukhawulezisa imveliso, ngoko iimpahla **(110).**ezininzi.zaziveliswa ngexesha elingephi/ msinya. Abantu bafudukela ezidolophini ukuze babekufutshane nendawo abasebenza kuzo, indlela yokuphila yabantu abaninzi yaguquka. **(115).**Basebenza iiyure ezinde kwishifti kwimizi yoshishino, kwaye babebhatalwa umvuzo ngokweeshifti ezisetyenziweyo.

Ushishino lweza nenkonzo yezothutho esebenzayo, unxibelelwano **(120).**namandla.ombane okwathi ekuhambeni kwexesha kwenza ubomi balula kubantu abaninzi. Ushishino lwancedisa ekusasazeni iimbono ngobuzwe. Imveliso yemizi yoshishino **(125).**yayifuna abasebenzi abafundileyo. Abavelisi babenokuphumelela kuphela kwilizwe elikhuphisanayo ukuba babeqhubekeka ngokwanda. Oko kwakuthetha ukuba abasebenzi **(130).**kwakufuneka basebenze ngesantya esiphezulu, ngubuchule kwaye bakwazi ukuvelisa izinto ezintsha. Oko kwakuthetha ukuba kufuneka abantu abaninzi abafundileyo babefuneka **(135).**nanjengoko imizi yemveliso yabanokuntsokotha kakhulu. Nanjengokuba imigangatho yokufunda inyuka, abantu abaninzi kwabalula

produced faster. People moved to the cities to be closer to their workplaces, and most people's way of life changed. They worked long hours in shifts at factories, and were paid in wages for the shifts worked.

Industrialisation brought about more efficient transport, communication and electrical power which in the long run made life simpler for the majority of the people. Industrialisation helped to spread nationalistic ideas. Factory production needed a literate workforce. Manufacturers could only survive in a competitive world if they were constantly expanding. This meant that workers needed to be fast, sophisticated and innovative. This in turn meant that more literate people were required as industries became more complex organisations. As literacy levels rose, more people could be reached by the written word than before. Nationalists were able to spread their message more easily.

Industrialisation also called for bigger markets. This contributed to imperialism

ukufikelela kubo ngokubhaliweyo
(140).kunangaphambili.
Amathandazwe**.**abanakho ukuhambisa
imiyalezo nje ngokulula.
Ushishino lwathi lwahlaba ikhwelo
kwimakhethi ezinkulu. Oko
(145).kwabanegalelo kwinkqubo
yokwandisa umbuso kwamanye amazwe
nokufumana neeKoloni. Inkqubo
yokwandisa umbuso yindlela enendleko
kubuzwe, ngoba amazwe athimbe
(150).amanye amazwe kufuneka
andise**.**ubuzwe bawo ngaphaya kwemida
yawo. iiKoloni zaqala eyazo indlela
yokuqhankqalaza, eyayibhekiselele
kubuzwe babo- zange bamkele umbosu
(155).welizwe abangalaziyo nabantu
balo, babefuna olwabo ulawulo/
ukuzilawula bona.

UKUSUNGULWA "*KWEMIDDLE CLASS*"

uVukelo lwaMashishini lwaba negalelo
ekusungulweni *kwemiddle class.*
(160). Ngokwanda kwenani labantu
abafundileyo, kwangokukhawuleza bathi
banyuka nakumazinga sekuhlaleni.
Imiddle class yathi yakhokhela
ekuhambiseni ubuzwe kwaye bathi
(165).bancedisa ekuqinisekiseni
abasebenzi ngendzuzo yobuzwe. *iMiddle
class* yayivame ngokunikeza umkhomba
ndlela kubuzwe. Abantu abakwi*middle
class* babethabatha inxhaxheba
(170).kubuntatheli, kwaye amaphepha

– countries expanding and acquiring
colonies. Imperialism is an expansive
from of nationalism, as the colonising
country spreads its nationalistic ideas
beyond its borders. The colonies then
started to develop their own form of
resistance, based on a sense of
nationalism – they rejected the rule of a
foreign country and people, and wanted
to rule themselves.

THE RISE OF THE MIDDLE CLASS

The Industrial Revolution also contributed
to the rise of the middle classes. The
more people became literate, the faster
they moved up the social scale. The
middle classes took the lead in spreading
nationalism and they helped to convince
working class people of its benefits.
Middle classes tend to give direction to
nationalism. People from the middle
classes were often involved in journalism,
and newspapers and journals were used
to spread the ideas of nationalism.

By the end of the nineteenth century in

neejenali zazisetyenziswa ukuhambisa iimbono ngobuzwe. Ekupheleni kwezigidi ezilishumi elinethoba leminyaka kwihlabathilamashishini, ubuzwe **(175).**ngenene babangumbutho owaziwayo. Kwindawo zabantu jikelele kwakulula ukubona ngeFlagi yesizwe, umhobe wesizwe, iiholide zesizwe, uncwadi kunye nemibongo **(180).**yobuthandazwe. Yasasazwa kumaphephandaba, awayefunda nangaphezulu ngabo bafundileyo.	much of the industrial world, nationalism had become a truly popular movement. In the public sphere it was easily recognisable through national flags, national anthems, national holidays, patriotic literature and poetry. It was spread through newspapers, which were increasingly read by more and more literate people.

The generic structure of the text above is discussed in detail in the following sections, to demonstrate the structure of the genres and the linguistic resources of the isiXhosa language system from the systemic functional linguistics view evident in the text.

4.3.1.1   Overall generic structure of text segments

The generic structure and linguistic resources of the above history text exhibit various genre types in the different segments, including that of autobiographical recounts, biographical recounts, historical recounts and historical accounts. The genre segment in this text on **origins of nationalism** represents the generic structure and linguistic resources exemplified in the historical recount because a historical period is described. The arguments in the historical recount are presented in a sequential explanation through three stages namely; *the background, record of stages and the deduction stage.* The details on historical recount genres are discussed in more detail in chapter three.

The genre segment of the above text is analysed as follows. The segment in lines 1 to 33 represents the background stage of the historical recount about the origins of nationalism and its meaning in demonstrating the kind of characteristics of people who believed sharing, it entails having a common language, the same religion, and common cultural interests like music, sport and recreation.

The genre segment in lines 34 to 38 represents a record of stages in that it describes the time it took for the word 'nation' to be used in a political sense. In line 35 further explanation is given on how the word was first used in politics during the French Revolution, when the citizens of France rose up against King Louis XVI. In lines 39 to 44 an explanation is given about France not being a democracy, hence that so many people did not have the right to vote to change government. Further explanation follows about how people acted to change the way the country was ruled and how they used the term 'the French nation' to refer to the 'ordinary people'. A further explanation is given in line 50 about how the term 'nationalism' first appeared in print during the French Revolution. The segment in lines 56 to 61 represents a further stage in the record of events stages in that it describes how the French revolution developed the idea that people should govern themselves, and how that view made an impact on the rest of the world where people started to believe that they also have a say in their countries' governance.

The segment in lines 61 to73 presents another stage in describing how hard nationalist worked to unify a number of states into one larger and more powerful state, including Italy, which did not exist before 1861, and Germany which also did not exist before 1871. Germany was led by Otto von Bismarck who worked hard to unify states into one Germany and had to fight three different wars to be victorious. The segment in lines 97 to 103 presents further explanation in that the industrial evolution was a process and Britain changed its way of producing goods. Further explanation follows about how Britain's economy was based on agriculture which changed to production of goods. Lines 103 to 114 represent a further stage in the record of events stages in that it describes what people did during the time of industrialisation, where many worked at home or in smaller workshops, as the country became more industrialised. Hence, the goods were produced in large factories, where machines were used to speed up production, and goods were produced faster.

The genre segment in lines 114 to 117 demonstrates further a stage in the record of events stages in that it demonstrates the impact that industrialisation had on people. Hence, people moved to the cities to be closer to workplaces and that brought about change in people's lives. In lines 117 to 120 further explanation follows about how people worked long hours in shifts at factories, and how they were paid for the shifts that they worked for. Lines 121 to 125 represent another stage of records of stages in

that it points out things industrialisation brought such as, efficient transport, communication and electrical power which made the life of people better. The segment in lines 125 to 128 further explains how industrialisation helped in the advocacy of nationalistic ideas, because factory production needed literate workers. Further explanation follows in lines 128 to 139 about how manufactures could survive in a competitive world if they were constantly expanding and how that indicated that workers needed to be fast, sophisticated and innovative. Hence, literate people were needed because industries became complex organisation.

The genre segment in lines 140 to 150 further explains how the rise in literacy levels during industrialisation helped to reach as many people as before, as a result nationalist were able to spread their messages and this resulted to the development of bigger markets which contributed to imperialism and acquiring colonies. Further explanation follows in lines 150 to 158 about how expansive imperialism is as a form of nationalism, because colonising countries spread their nationalistic ideas beyond their borders. The spread beyond the borders led to the resistance and the rejection of the foreign country's rules.

The genre segment in lines 161 to 162 represents a stage on the record of events in which the rise of the middle class came about because of the industrial revolution. Lines 163 to 166 describe the impact that education had on people, and how literate people, moved quicker to the social scale**.** Lines 166 to 170 explains an action that was taken by middle class people when they took the lead in spreading nationalism and how they convinced the working class people of its benefits. Lines 170 to 176 explain the role that played by middle class concerning giving direction to nationalism, and how people from the middle class were often involved in journalism and in newspaper, which were the sources used to spread the ideas of nationalism. The genre segment in lines 177 to 184 represents another stage of record of events on what happened by the end of the nineteenth century when nationalism was a popular movement in the public domain. Further explanation follows on how easy it was to recognise ideas of nationalism through national flags, anthems, holidays, patriotic literature and poetry. Lines 185 to 187 explain the event of how nationalism was spread through the newspapers, and the readership increased as more literate people read newspapers.

The genre segment in lines 177 to 187 exemplifies a deduction stage in that an evaluation of the significance of events that took place is represented. The event in this instance concerns the rise of the middle class, the symbols that represented the class such as flags, national anthems and holidays, which were visible. The use of newspapers to spread the word also increased the role of the middle class, and, since the newspaper was mostly read by literate members of the community the events of this historical period were publicized**.**

4.3.1.1.1 Characteristic language components

 The following characteristic language components are displayed in the text above which represents a historical recount. According to Feez and Joyce (1998:88) as mentioned in chapter 3, the following language components found in this text, include verbs in past tense, and remote past tense is dominant. Action verbs are represented, time conjunctions, time phrases, specialist words for periods of time like, origins of nationalism, industrial revolution, the rise of middle class.

The above text illustrates a variety of genre types with the respective stages that are characteristics which differ from each genre. The lexical and grammatical properties of the text above will be examined in detail in section below (4.3.1.2) on the ideational metafunction.

4.3.1.2   Linguistic resources representing meaning and meaning relationships

4.3.1.2.1 The ideational metafunction

The above text exhibits a variety of linguistic resources, i.e. choices from the isiXhosa language system which create certain ideational meanings. Recall that the ideational metafunction is concerned with how linguistic elements within the clause and among clauses represent the experience of the writer in terms of the subject content of topic, and clause combinations construe the logical relationships among clauses. In this subsection selected sentences are analysed in terms of logical and experiential metafunction of the ideational metafunction of the isiXhosa language system. In addition, the phenomenon of grammatical metaphor will be examined, subsequent to the discussion of the experiential metafunction of the language system.

In terms of types of logical metafunction of the language system the above text exemplifies a range of clause types and clause combinations that create particular ideational meanings and logical relationships amongst clauses such as addition, exemplification, cause, time, and concession.

Sentence 1

Lines 1-3

Igama elithi 'isizwe'kudala lasetyenziswa ukusuka kwizigidi zeminyaka engamashumi anesithathu. *(The word 'nation' has been used since the thirteenth century).*

In terms of the logical metafunction of isiXhosa's language system, the above sentence in lines 1-3 represents a dominant clause which is independent. In terms of the logical metafunction, the clause displays a remote past passive verb in the verb phrase **lasetyenziswa…**(*has been used*), realising a material process. The actor participant is implied. **Igama elithi …** (*the word*) is the theme or goal participant of the passive verb, in the verb phrase **lasetyenziswa…** (*has been used*) while the actor participant is implied. The verb in the verb phrase **lasetyenziswa…** (*has been used*) takes a complement clause, realizing a time relation to the event of 'was used'. The complement clause introduced by the conjunction **ukusuka** (*since*) is a circumstance relation, realizing time. The conjunction **ukusuka…**(*since*)is followed by a prepositional phrase **ku** containing a noun phrase denoting the numeral **kwizigidi …anesithathu...** (*the thirteenth century*).

The head noun in **kwizigidi…***(*century) **is** post-modified by a possessive phrase **zeminyaka…***(years)*.The head noun in this prepositional phrase is post-modified by a nominal predicate **engamashumi…** The head noun in the latter nominal predicate is post-modified by a relative clause containing an associative predicate with a preposition **na.**

Sentence 2

Lines 8-10

Ubuzwe yimbono yokuba yinxalenye encedisayo ekubumbeni ilizwe ngokwezopolitiko. (Nationalism is an idea of belonging that helps to shape a country politically).

With regard to the logical metafunction, the sentence in lines 8-10, represents an independent clause, which contains a nominal predicate **yimbono…**(*is an idea*) realised as a copulative verb phrase. The verb in the verb phrase **yimbono…** (*is an idea)* is in the present tense, a characteristic of explanation genres. Furthermore, **yimbono** (*is an idea*) realises a relational process of 'being' in relation to the subject noun phrase **ubuzwe…** (*nationalism*), which occurs as a theme participant. It also has relationship of 'being' with the noun in the nominal predicate **yimbono** (*is an idea*).

In terms of the experiential metafunction, the noun in the noun phrase **yimbono...** (*is an idea*) is post-modified by a possessive clause introduced by conjunction **yokuba***…(of that)* which itself contains a nominal predicate **yinxalenye…** (*it is a part),* realising a relationship of being, since the noun in the nominal predicate **yimbono** is in relationship of being with the noun in the nominal predicate **yinxalenye***…(it is a part).*

The noun in the nominal predicate **yinxalenye** *(it is a part of)* is post-modified by a relative clause, realising an attribute. The locative infinitive **ekubumbeni** (*to shape*) realises a circumstances of (abstract) place. The actor participant of the infinitive verb in the locative infinitive **ekubumbeni** (*to shape*) is implied at the level of the clause **ubuzwe** (*nationalism*), understood as **imbono** in the preceding clause. The noun phrase **ilizwe** (*a country)* occurs as the goal participant of the verb in the locative infinitive **ekubumbeni** (*to shape*)**.** The prepositional phrase **kwezopolitiko** *(politically)* represents an abstract circumstance of place in relation to the verb in the verb phrase **ekubumbeni...** (*in shaping*).

Sentence 3

Lines 40-44

**iFransi yayingelilo lizwe lentando yesininzi, ngoko ke isininzi sabantu '
abaqhelekileyo' eFransi babengenalo ilungelo lokuvota ukuze baguqule
urhulumente.** (France was not a democracy, so the majority of 'ordinary people' in
France did not have the right to vote to change the government).

The sentence in lines 40 - 44 exhibits two clauses of unequal status relationship. The
main, or initiating clause, is the dominant clause is **iFransi**… **yesininzi**
(*France…majority*). The dependent clause, which is an expanding clause, is
introduced by the conjunction **ngoko ke isininzi …urhulumente** (*so the
majority…the government*), realises a logical relationship of reason to the main
clause.

In terms of the experiential metafunction, the main (or the dominant) clause contains
a negative nominal predicate **yayingelilo…** (*did not have a right*) realising a
relational process of being, in which the country **iFransi…** (*France*) is brought into
relation with the noun phrase **ilizwe…** (*a country*), a nominal predicate in the remote
compound past tense. The noun phrase **iFransi** (*France*) appears as a subject of the
nominal predicate. It is a theme participant of this predicate, as is the noun phrase
lizwe… (*a country*) in the nominal predicate. The head noun in the noun phrase
ilizwe … (*a country*) is post-modified by a possessive predicate **lentando**… (*of
democracy*), realising an attribute. The head noun in the possessive phrase
lentando (*of democracy*) is in turn post-modified by a possessive phrase **yesininzi…**
(*majority*) of number, realising an attribute. The dependent clause introduced by the
reason conjunction **ngoko ke…**(*so*) contains associative predicate with the
preposition **na** in the negative remote compound past tense, realising a relational
process of (*having*). The subject noun phrase **isininzi …** (*majority*) of the associative
predicate, as well as the noun phrase in this associative predicate **ilungelo …** (*the
right*) are theme participants.

The head noun in the noun phrase **isininzi** (*majority*) is post-modified by a
possessive phrase **sabantu…**(*people)*, realising a specific attribute of the head noun,
which is in turn post-modified by a relative verb clause **abaqhelekileyo…**(*those who
are ordinary*). The verb in this relative clause is post-modified by locative noun

eFransi (*France*), realising a circumstance of place. The head noun **ilungelo** (*the right*) in the noun phrase of the associative predicate **sasingenalo** (*did not have*) is post-modified by a possessive phrase containing an infinitive verb **lokuvota…** (*to vote*) realising attribute. The associative predicate in the past tense **sasingenalo …** takes a dependant clause introduced by a conjunction **ukuze** (*to*), realising a logical purpose clause to the infinitive verb in **lokuvota** (*to vote*) to the process of not having the voting right.

The verb in the verb phrase **siguqule…**(*to change*) expresses a material process. The actor participant of this verb is represented by the subject agreement prefix (AgrS), realising the pronoun of the first person plural. The noun phrase **urhulumente** (*the government*), realises the goal participant of the verb in the verb phrase **siguqule** (*change*).

Sentence 4

Lines 111-114

Abantu bafudukela ezidolophini ukuze babekufutshane neendawo abasebenza kuzo, kwaye indlela yokuphila yabantu abaninzi yaguquka. (People moved to the cities to be closer to their workplaces, and most people's way of life changed).

In terms of the logical metafunction of the isiXhosa language system, the above sentence consists of two independent clauses joined by the co-ordinate conjunction **kwaye** (*and*). The clause **abantu…kuzo** (*People… their workplaces*) is the initiating clause. The clause following the co-ordinate conjunction **kwaye** is an expanding clause representing a logical relationship of addition to the preceding independent clause. In the first independent clause **abantu…kuzo** (*people… their workplaces*), the conjunction **ukuze …kuzo** (*so that… their workplaces*) introduces a dependent clause, realising a logical relationship of purpose to the process of migrating to town expressed in the verb phrase **bafudekela…** (*they migrated*).

In relation to the experiential metafunction, the remote past tense verb in the verb phrase **bafudukela…**(*moved*), realises a material process. The verb in the verb phrase takes an actor participant **abantu** (*people*) as subject. The locative noun phrase **ezidolophini** (*the cities*), realises circumstance of place in relation to the process of migration. The verb phrase **babekufutshane** (*they were close*),

introduced by the conjunction **ukuze,** is a copulative verb phrase, realising a relational process. The theme participant is represented by the subject concord **ba-,** class 2 pronoun, in relation to the location of being near, in this descriptive predicate. The locative predicate **kufutshane** (*closer*) in this descriptive predicate takes a prepositional phrase complement **neendawo** (*cities*), denoting an attribute of being near.

The locative **kufutshane** (*closer*) in the locative copulative predicate verb phrase **babekufutshane** (*they were close*), takes a prepositional phrase complement **neendawo …kuzo** (*cities…workplaces*), containing a relative clause **abasebenza** (*who worked*)**.** The verb in the relative clause verb phrase **abasebenza** (*who worked*) realises material process. The theme participant is represented by the subject concord **ba-,** referring to noun class 2 pronoun. The locative prepositional phrase **kuzo** (*their*) denotes a circumstance of place in relation to the process of working.

In the second dependent clause **indlela …yaguquka**, (*way…changed*) the verb in the remote past tense verb **yaguquka** (*changed*)**,** realises a behavioral process. The verb in the verb phrase **yaguquka** takes a theme participant **indlela …yabaninzi** (*people's way*) as a subject. The head noun **indlela…** (*way*) of this theme participant is post-modified by two possessive phrases, of which the first contains a possessive infinitive verb phrase **yokuphila…** (*of life*) and the last one is **yabantu…** (*of people*). The head noun in the possessive phrase **yabantu…** (*of people*) is post-modified by an adjective **abaninzi…** (*many*), realising a relation of attribute.

Sentence 5

Lines 115-117

Basebenza iiyure ezinde kwishifti kwimizi yoshishino, kwaye babebhatalwa umvuzo ngokweeshifti ezisetyenziweyo. (They worked long hours in shifts at factories, and were further paid in wages for the shifts worked).

The above sentence exhibits a variety of dependency relationships. In terms of the logical metafunction of the isiXhosa linguistic resources, this sentence consists of two independent clauses of equal status relationship, joined by the conjunction **kwaye…** *(and further)*. The independent clause preceding the conjunction **kwaye…**

represents the initiating clause. The independent clause following the conjunction **kwaye…** realises the expanding clause.

In terms of the experiential metafunction of the isiXhosa linguistic resources, the verb in the remote past tense verb phrase **basebenza…** (*they worked*) denotes a material process. The actor participant of this material process denoted by the verb in the verb phrase **basebenza …**(*they worked*), is realised by the subject agreement prefix (AgrS) **ba,** representing the class 2 pronoun. The verb in the verb phrase **basebenza…** (*they worked*) takes a noun phrase complement **iiyure ezinde …**(*long hours*) , realising a circumstance of time. The verb in the remote past tense verb phrase **basebenza…** (*they worked*) is in further post-modified by two prepositional phrases with a preposition **ku**- namely; **kwishifti** (*in shifts*) and **kwimizi yoshishino** *…(at factories).*

The prepositional phrase **kwi-shifti** (*in shifts*) realises an (abstract) circumstance of place. The prepositional phrase **kwimizi yoshishino** (*at factories*) also realises a circumstance of place. The head noun in the noun phrase **iiyure ezinde** *(long hours)*, is post-modified by an adjective **ezinde** *(long),* realising an attribute of time. The head noun in the prepositional phrase **kwimizi yoshishino** *(at factories)* is post modified by a possessive phrase denoting attribute. In the independent clause **babebhatalwa…** (*were paid*), following the conjunction **kwaye…** (*and*) the passive verb in the remote compound past tense, realises the material process. This passive verb has two theme participants.

The subject agreement prefix (AgrS) **babe,** representing the class two pronoun occurs as theme participant. The noun phrase **umvuzo** (*wages*) occurs as an object is also a theme participant. The verb in the remote compound past tense verb phrase **babebhatalwa…** (*were paid*), is post-modified by a prepositional phrase **ngokweshifti** …(*in shifts*), realising a circumstance type of angle. The head noun in this prepositional phrase **ngokweshifti…** *(in shifts)* is post-modified by a passive relative clause verb **ezisetyenziweyo…** *(worked)* denoting an attribute. The perfect tense passive verb in this relative clause has a theme participant realised by the subject agreement prefix (AgrS) **ezi** – and its actor participant is implied.

Sentence 6

Lines 126- 128

Abavelisi babenokuphumelela kuphela kwilizwe elikhuphisanayo ukuba babeqhubekeka ngokwanda. (Manufacturers could only survive in a competitive world if they were constantly expanding).

In terms of the logical metafunction of the Xhosa language system, the above sentence consists of one independent clause and one dependent clause introduced by the conjunction **ukuba**…*(if).*This independent clause **ukuba**…*(if)* realises a relationship of condition to the process represented by the predicate in the main clause.

In terms of the experiential metafunction, the main clause exemplifies an associative predicate **babenokuphumelela**…*(they could only survive*), with a copulative verb in the remote past tense taking, a prepositional phrase complement with an infinitive verb **nokuphumelela**…(*can survive*). This associative predicate expresses a relational process of ability. The remote compound past tense verb phrase **babeqhubekeka** (*they were constantly progressing*) in the dependent clause introduced by the conjunction **ukuba** (*if*) represents, a relational process of the state of progressing.

The subject of the associative predicate **babenokuphulelela abavelisi…**(*manufacturers could only survive*) is the theme participant. The associative predicate **babenokuphulelela…** (*could survive*) takes an adjunct complement **kuphela…** *(only)* denoting, a circumstance type of manner. This associative predicate is in addition post-modified by a prepositional phrase with **ku** containing a relative clause **kwilizwe elikhuphisanayo**…(*in a competitive world*). This prepositional phrase represents a circumstance type of abstract place to the relational process denoted by the associative predicate. The subject agreement prefix (AgrS) in verb phrase **babeqhubekeka** (*they were constantly*) represents the class 2 pronoun in **babe…** (*they could*), which refers to the main clause subject **abavelisi…**(*manufacturers*). The verb in the remote compound past tense verb phrase **babeqhubekeka…** *(they were constantly*) is post-modified by a prepositional phrase **ngokwanda…** (*expanding*), realising a circumstance of manner.

The next section will discuss the properties of the textual metafunction at the clausal level and beyond the clause level.

4.3.1.2.2 The Textual metafunction

The above text displays a variety of linguistic resources, i.e. choices from the isiXhosa language system which create certain textual meanings. Recall that the textual metafunction is concerned with how monolingual texts are written. These are the texts constructed by individual writers. In this subsection selected sentences are analysed in terms of the textual metafunction at the clause and beyond the clause levels. Consider the following example where the beginning of the clause is used as a point of departure.

4.3.1.2.2.1 The *clause level: Theme and Rheme*

Example 1: Lines 8-10

The noun **ubuzwe…**(nationality) is the point of departure, from **yimbono**…that indicates the rheme, in other words, new information.

Theme	Rheme
Ubuzwe	yimbono yokuba yinxalenye encedisayo ekubumbeni ilizwe ngokwezopolitiko.

Example 2: Line 10-15: The same starting pattern is observed through the use of the pronoun **bu**kwanayo… (**it** also has) representing **ubuzwe …** (nationality) is the theme.

Theme	Rheme
Bukwanayo	nendima yamasiko nezithethe, eboniswa kwindlela abantu abathi baziphathe ngayo ekuhlaleni…

Instances occur where the writer can begin with an independent clause or a prepositional phrase.

Consider the following example where the point of departure is the dependent clause.

Example: Lines 111-114

Abantu bafudukela ezidolophini ukuze babekufutshane neendawo abasebenza kuzo**,** kwaye **indlela yokuphila yabantu abaninzi yaguquka.** (People moved to the cities to be closer to their workplaces, and most people's way of life changed).

Theme	Rheme
indlela yokuphila yabantu abaninzi yaguquka	kwaye abantu bafudukela ezidolophini ukuze babekufutshane neendawo abasebenza kuzo.

4.3.1.2.2.2 Meaning beyond the clause: Cohesion

The following section exemplifies the elements of language in a sentence, to demonstrate the role of Cohesion. Cohesion has been discussed in chapter 3 section 3.3.2.2. Recall, Christie and Derewianka (2008:21-22) asserts that the elements of cohesion in language, demonstrates the shaping of the written text which extends beyond the clause. Furthermore, Halliday and Hasan (2006) state that texts achieve their communicative events through the use of cohesive elements. Therefore, the cohesive elements create a link between the complex and the abstract elements of the texts. There are many cohesive elements which are used such as, the personal pronouns, the determiners, the relative pronouns, the comparatives, the demonstrative, the references, substitutions, ellipsis's, conjunctions, the lexical relationship of repetition and inclusion, synonyms or antonyms and collocations Grabe and Kaplan (1996) and Schleppegrell (2002).

Example 1

Sentence 1: 1-10

Igama elithi 'isizwe'kudala lasetyenziswa ukusuka kwizigidi zeminyaka engamashumi anesithathu. Intsusa yalo ithetha iqela labantu abathi bazalelwa kwingingqi enye kwaye bathi bafundiswa ukuba babe neembono kwanokubona izinto ngendlela efanayo. Ubuzwe yimbono yokuba yinxalenye encedisayo ekubumbeni ilizwe ngokwezopolitiko. *(The word 'nation' has been used since the thirteenth century. It originally meant a group of people who were born in the same area and were therefore thought to have the same ideas and outlook. Nationalism is an idea of belonging that helps to shape a country politically).*

In terms of textual metafunction the segment in lines 1 to 10 demonstrates the linguistic resources that create grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. In line 5 anaphoric reference is exemplified in the subject agreement in the passive verb **ba**zalelwa *(they were born)* referring back to the possessive noun in the noun phrase **labantu** *(of people).* In line 4 a substitution is realised in the demonstrative pronoun **yalo** *(of it)***,** which stands in the place of the noun **igama…***(the word).* In line 5 a co-ordinating conjunction **kwaye** (*and*) is further used to join the two clauses.

The realisation of lexical cohesion is displayed in line 6 and 8, where the noun **imbono** *(an idea)* is repeated, in the noun phrase **neembono** *(ideas)* and **yimbono** *(is an idea,)* respectively. Collocation is realised in lines 2 and 3 in the phrase **kwizigidi zeminyaka engamashumi anesithathu**.

Sentence 2: 10-20

Bukwanayo nendima yamasiko nezithethe, eboniswa kwindlela abantu abathi baziphathe ngayo ekuhlaleni, nakwizinto abazenzayo, umzekelo, imidaniso, ulwimi abaluthethayo, iinkolo kwakunye nezemidlalo. Iziganeko ezinkulu zidibanisa amaqela ohlukeneyo phantsi kwenjongo enye, kunegalelo ekuziveni uyinxenye yelo qela kunye nomanyano. *(It also has a cultural aspect, reflected in the way people organise themselves socially and express themselves, for example, through dance, language, religion and sport. Big events bring different groups together under the same banner, contributing to feelings of belonging and unity).*

With regard to the textual metafunction, the segments in lines 10 to 20 demonstrate linguistic resources that create grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is realised in line10 through the use of anaphoric reference in the pronoun representing subject agreement of class 14 in the phrase **bu**kwanayo *(it),* which refers back to the previous noun u**bu**zwe (*nationalism).* In line 18, the cohesive device of ellipsis is realised where the clause **zidibanisa amaqela** *(join different groups)* has been represented in the clause **kunegalelo** *(it is contributing)* to the feelings of belonging. Cataphoric reference is realised in line 19, in the demonstrative pronoun **yelo** *(of belonging)* pointing to the class 5 noun **iqela.** In line 16, conjunctive cohesion is displayed in the co-ordinating conjunction of addition **na** *(and).*

The realisation of lexical cohesion is demonstrated in line 17 where the semantic reference of the class 6 noun **amaqela** *(groups)* is repeated in line 19 in the class 5 noun **iqela** *(group).* The use of collocation is demonstrated in line 11 in the conjoined noun phrase **yamasiko nezithethe** *(cultural aspect).*

Sentence 3: Lines 34 - 49

Kuthathe ixesha elide ukuba igama elithi 'ubuzwe' lisetyenziswe kwezopolitiko. Igama laqala ukusetyenziswa kwezopolitiko ngethuba le *French Revolution***, xa abahlali base***Fransi* **bevukela ukumkani uLouis XVI. iFransi yayingelilo lizwe lentando yesininzi, ngoko ke isininzi sabantu ' abaqhelekileyo' eFransi babengenalo ilungelo lokuvota ukuze baguqule urhulumente. Aba bantu bashukumela kutshintsho lwendlela ilizwe labo elaliphethwe ngayo, kwaye babesebenzisa igama elithi 'the** *French nation***' 'isizwe samaFrentshi' elibhekisele 'kubantu abaqhelekileyo'.** *(It took a long time for the word 'nation' to be used in a political sense. The term was first used in a political way during the French Revolution, when the citizens of France rose up against King Louis XVI. France was not a democracy, so the majority of 'ordinary people' in France did not have the right to vote to change the government. These people acted to change the way the country was ruled, and they used the term 'the French nation' to refer to the 'ordinary people').*

In terms of the textual metafunction the segment in lines 34 to 49 exemplifies linguistic resources that create grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is exemplified in line 36 in the use of anaphoric reference where the noun **igama** *(word)* refers back to the noun **ubuzwe** *(nation).* Cataphoric reference is used in line 44 in the use of a demonstrative **aba** *(these)* pointing to the class two noun (**a)bantu** *(people).*The use of the conjunction **kwaye** *(and further)* in line 46 displays the co-ordinating conjunction*.*

The realisation of lexical cohesion is depicted in lines 35 and 37, in the use of repetition in the locative noun **kwezopolitiko** *(in political matters).* Synonym is realised in line 43 in the use of the past tense verb **baguqule** *(they changed)* and in line 45 in the use of the .....**kutshintsho** *(to change).* The use of collocation is realised in line 40 in the descriptive possessive phrase **lentando yesininzi** *(of democracy).*

Sentence 4: Lines 57- 70

Abantu kwamanye amazwe baqala bakholelwa ukuba nabo banganelizwi kwindlela amazwe abo ayelawulwa ngayo. Abantu nabo baqala bafuna ukudityaniswa nabanye abantu abayeleleneyo kubo - abantu ababelana ngolwimi olunye, ilifa, inkcubeko nembali. Oko kwabonakala kwimeko yaseJamani (Germany) nase Italy. Kuzo zombini ezi meko, amathandazwe asebenza nzima ukumanya inani elithile lamazwana ukuze abe lilizwe elinye nelinamandla. *(People in other countries began to believe that they could also have a say in the way their countries were governed. People also began to want to be united with other similar people – people who shared the same language, heritage, culture and history. This was especially seen in the cases of Germany and Italy. In both cases, nationalists worked hard to unify a number of states into one larger, more powerful state).*

In terms of the textual metafunction the segment in lines 57 to 70 exemplifies linguistic resources that create grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is realised in line 65, through the use of anaphoric reference in the demonstrative sentential person pronoun **oko** *(this),* which refers back to infinitive passive verb clause **ukudityaniswa** *(to be united).* Cataphoric reference is demonstrated in line 63 in the use of the locative pronoun **kubo** *(to them)* which points to the class two noun **abantu** *(people).* In line 63 the use of a comparative word **abayeleleneyo** *(those who are similar)* to the class two noun **abantu** *(people),* referring to people in other countries who shared same language, heritage culture and history with them. In line 60 the use of substitution is demonstrated in the use of a demonstrative pronoun **abo** *(they)* that stands in the place of the noun abantu *(people).*In line 65 a co-ordinating conjunction **ne**mbali joining the nouns **inkcubeko** and **imbali** is realised.

The realisation of lexical cohesion is exemplified through repetition which is demonstrated in the frequent use of the noun **abantu** *(people)* in lines 57, 61, 62 and 63, respectively. The occurrence of synonyms is demonstrated in lines 62 and 69 through the use of the infinitive passive verb **ukudityaniswa** *(united)* and in the infinitive verb **ukumanya** *(unify)* which have similar meanings. In line 67 the use of collocation is illustrated in the locative phrase **kuzo zombini ezi meko** *(in both cases).*

Sentence 5: Lines 71- 84

Ilizwe esilibiza ngokuba yi-Italy namhlanje lalingekho ngaphambi komnyaka ka 1861. Ngaphambi koku, kwakukho inani lamazwana awayethetha isiTaliyana kwaye ayenenkcubeko eyeleleneyo nelifa, kodwa ayelawulwa ngokwahlukeneyo. Amanye awo ayephantsi kolawulo lobukumkani obuqulathe amanye amazwe olwalusaziwa ngokuba bubukumkani be-Astro-Hungarian. Amathandazwe abandakanya iGuiseppe Garabaldi kunye neCount Camillo di Cavour) asebenza nzima ukudibanisa lamazwana ukuba abe lilizwe elinye. Oku kwenzeka ngo 1861. *(The country we call Italy today did not exist before 1861. Before this, there had been a number of states that spoke Italian and had a similar culture and heritage, but were ruled separately. Some of them were under the control of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Nationalists (including Giuseppe Garibaldi and Count Camillo di Cavour) worked hard to unite the states into one country. This happened in 1861).*

In terms of the textual metafunction of genre analysis, the segment in lines 71 to 84 exemplifies linguistic resources that create grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is realised in line 76 through the use of anaphoric reference in the verb phrase **aye**lawulwa *(were ruled)* referring back to the diminutive noun **amazwana** *(states).* In line 76, conjunctive cohesion is depicted in the conjunction of reason **kodwa** *(but),* introducing the clause that the states were ruled separately.

The realisation of lexical cohesion is demonstrated in lines 74 and 83 where the diminutive noun **lamazwana** *(of small states)* is repeated. An antonym is realised in lines 77 between the adverb **ngokwahlukeneyo** *(separately)* and the infinitive passive verb **ukudibanisa** *(to unite).* In line 73, collocation is depicted in the preposition phrase **ngo-1861** *(in 1861)* where these two words occur together frequently. In line 81 and 82 meronony is realised in the use proper nouns, where the nouns happen in whole part like, **iGuiseppe Garabaldi kunye neCount Camillo di Cavour** *(Giuseppe Garibaldi and Count Camillo di Cavour).*

Sentence 6: Lines 94 – 114

uVukelo lwaMashishini yayindlela apho iBritani (Britain) yaguqula khona indlela eyayivelisa ngayo impahla. Ngaphambili, isimo sezimali saseBritani

(Britain) sasisekelwe kwinzululwazi ngolimo. Ngoku, sathi sagxininisa ekuveliseni impahla. Abantu abaninzi babesebenza emakhaya okanye kwindawo ezincinane zokusebenzela. Njengokuba amashinini ethabatha indawo nangakumbi elizweni, iimpahla zaziveliswa kwimizi emikhulu yoveliso. Nendlela iimpahla ezaziveliswa ngayo nayo yaguquka: imizi yoshishini yasebenzisa oomatshini ukukhawulezisa imveliso, ngoko iimpahla ezininzi. Zaziveliswa ngexesha elingephi/ msinya. Abantu bafudukela ezidolophini ukuze babekufutshane nendawo abasebenza kuzo, indlela yokuphila yabantu abaninzi yaguquka. *(The Industrial Revolution was a process in which Britain changed the way it produced goods. Previously, Britain's economy had been based on agriculture. Now, it became based on production of goods. Many people had worked at home or in smaller workshops. As the country became more industrialised, goods were produced in large factories. The way goods were produced also changed: factories used machines to speed up the production, so more goods were produced faster. People moved to the cities to be closer to their workplaces, and most people's way of life changed).*

In terms of the textual metafunction, the segment in lines 94 to 114 exemplifies linguistic resources that create grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is realised in 94 in the use of cataphoric reference, in which a nominalised verb **uvukelo** *(revolution)* points to the possessive noun phrase **lwamashishini** *(of industry).* Substitution is exemplified in line 96 in the use of pronoun in the remote past tense verb phrase **e**yayivelisa *(it produced)* which replaces the proper noun **iBritani** *(Britain).* In line 113, the use of conjunction is realised in the use of **kwaye** *(and further)* which demonstrate conjunction of addition, to the noun phrase beginning with **indlela yokuphila**...*(way of life...)* In lines 97 and 100, the use of comparison is realised through the use of adverbs of time **ngaphambili** *(previously)* and **ngoku** *(now)* respectively.

The realisation of lexical cohesion is demonstrated in the use of repetition in lines 101 and 111, respectively through the use of class two noun **abantu** *(people).* The use of antonyms is exemplified in lines 101 and 102, in the use of a descriptive adjective **abaninzi** *(many)* and another descriptive adjective **ezincinane** *(small ones),* where they demonstrate the opposite of each other. The use of collocation is demonstrated in line 94 in the use noun phrase **uVukelo lwamashishini** *(industrial revolution)* at the beginning of the phrase*.*

The following section aims to demonstrate the role played by the interpersonal metafunction beyond the clause level.

4.3.1.2.3 The interpersonal metafunction

Christie and Derewianka (2008: 15) assert that the interpersonal metafunction is drawn from the Appraisal theory, which forms part of SFL in which texts are assessed based on the attitude, graduation and engagement which people make. The following sections will demonstrate role of the interpersonal metafunction in making meaning, recall, the discussions in chapter 3, section 3.3.1.2.

4.3.1.2.3.1 *Patterns of evaluation:* beyond the clause

Example 1: Line 56-57

iFrench Revolution yaba negalelo elikhulu kwilizwe ngokubanzi . *(The French Revolution had **an enormous** impact on the rest of the world).*

In lines 56 to 57 the appraisal is demonstrated in a form of graduation. This is because a judgement is made in the use of the carefully selected lexical item, like in the adjectival phrase **elikhulu…***(enormous)* describing the size of an impact that French Revolution had.

Example 2: Line 154-157

Zange bamkele umbosu welizwe abangalaziyo nabantu balo, babefuna olwabo ulawulo/ ukuzilawula bona. (*They **rejected** the rule of a foreign country and people, and wanted to rule themselves).*

In line 154 to 157 attitude is demonstrated in a form of judgement where the expression of emotional reaction is demonstrated in the use of a verb phrase **zange bamkele…** *(They did not accept)* because people did not want to be ruled by a foreign country.

Lexical density

The table below tabulates the number content words represented by the phrase in lines 1 to 7 below. The number of content words is known as the lexical items. These

are words which represent nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Lexical density is measured by counting the number of lexical items.

Example 1: Line 1-7

Igama elithi 'isizwe'kudala lasetyenziswa ukusuka kwizigidi zeminyaka engamashumi anesithathu. Intsusa yalo ithetha iqela labantu abathi bazalelwa kwingingqi enye kwaye bathi bafundiswa ukuba babe neembono kwanokubona izinto ngendlela efanayo. (*The word 'nation' has been used since the thirteenth century. It originally meant a group of people who were born in the same area and were therefore thought to have the same ideas and outlook).*

The following table demonstrates the number of lexical items manifested in lines 1-7.

	Lexical density
The **word 'nation'** has been **used** since the **thirteenth century**. **It originally meant** a **group** of **people** who were **born** in the **same area** and were therefore **thought** to have the **same ideas** and **outlook**	5 5 5 1

The above table demonstrates the lexical density of the phrase, where each lexical item is bolded. The bolded lexical items represent the density found in a text.

4.4   SUMMARY

The chapter provides a summary on the generic structures and the linguistic resources examined in texts A and B. The theoretical underpinnings of the genre-based approach and SFL have been demonstrated through the use of isiXhosa translated texts. The two chosen texts, text A, **Uqhankqalazo luka 1905** and text B, **Ukusekwa kobuzwe**, demonstrate the presence of a hybrid of genres found in both texts. The two texts display mainly the generic structures of a historical recount since it appears more than once in the analysis. Historical recounts are typically the representatives of history texts. The arguments in the historical recount genre are presented through the background and record of stages. However, there are more generic structures found in the different segments of text B. The detailed discussion on the generic structure and linguistic resources of school history genres has been discussed in chapter 3.

The linguistic resources displayed in texts A and B represent meaning and meaning relationships. The linguistic resources display the role that each of the three metafunctions from the language system represents. For example, the clause below demonstrates the choices made from the language system, in which ideational metafunction is created. **Igama elithi ubuzwe kudala lasetyenziswa ukusuka kwizigidi zeminyaka engamashumi anesithathu.** In terms of the isiXhosa language system, the use of a remote past passive verb is displayed in the verb phrase **lasetyenziswa…** *(has been used),* where **la**, which is pronounced as **laa,** longer pronunciation, is used to demonstrate something that happened long ago. The use of past tense verbs and those verbs in the remote past is dominant in the historical genres. The analysis of the above texts, asserted that the generic structures and linguistic resources for literacy and language development are applicable in the isiXhosa texts. The availability of bilingual texts as displayed by the two texts, complemented with explicit teaching of isiXhosa can benefit the content subject which is taught in English. Thus, it is important for teachers to understand how to effectively teach the skill to identify the generic structures and language features embedded in different texts.

The skill to apply the knowledge of genre and the language systems is important. The realisation of the role of genres in isiXhosa is fundamental in communicating the knowledge about genre and language as a resource for writing. The analysis of both texts has illustrated that when resources are available, used comprehensively and proficiently, learners' writing skills can be developed in terms of both their language awareness of genre structure in isiXhosa and their knowledge construction of content subjects like history.

CHAPTER FIVE
THE GENRE ANALYSIS OF A MODEL ANSWER TEXT
FOR HISTORY ASSESSMENT QUESTION
PAPER GRADE 11 (2013).

5.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to analyse genres and language resources that are predominantly found in segments of the Grade 11 history assessment question papers of 2013. The analysis in this chapter follows the same format as that in Chapter four. Firstly, the segments of generic structure of the selected assessment paper will be analysed as well as the language features that are related to the generic structure. Secondly, an analysis of the use of resources in the language system will be conducted. The text chosen for the analysis demonstrates how the genre approach and the isiXhosa language resources are exemplified in different types of texts. The analyses presented aims to illustrate how learners and educators engage with assessment papers and identify the genres in the text. The analysis demonstrates that the use of such text is a resource that can further enhance learners' understanding of genre and systemic functional linguistics in literacy and language development across the curriculum.

5.2   THE GENERIC STRUCTURE AND LINGUISTIC RESOURCES IN GRADE 11 HISTORY ASSESSMENT ESSAY TYPE QUESTIONS

Topic of the text: discuss how Stalin managed to convert Russia from a backward agricultural state into an advanced industrial state by 1939.

The analysis of generic structure demonstrates how a history text exhibits the organisation of different types of genres to create the appropriate meaning. Engagement with the texts to the genres exhibited in it can assist learners and educators to understand the interaction between genres and the linguistic resources. Sub-sections **5.2.1.1 and 5.2.1.1.1** will present the analysis of text C.

5.2.1   Translated essay type questions for grade 11 paper 1, 2013

Text C: An analysis of history assessment paper model answers of grade 11, 2013

<u>Umbuzo 1</u>	<u>Question 1</u>
Xoxa ukuba uStalin wakwazi njani ukutshintsha iRashiya eyisusa kuhlobo lwezolimo olwalusemva eyisa kwinkqubo ephucukileyo yeemizi yemveliso ngo 1939.	**Discuss how Stalin managed to convert Russia from a backward agricultural state into an advanced industrial state by 1939.**
1.Ngexesha lolawulo lukaLenin, iRashiya zange iphuhle ifikelele kumgangatho owawulindelekile. IiPolisi zoqoqosho ezimbini i*War Communism* kunye ne*New 5.Economic Policy* ezathi zaqalisa emva kotshintsho lorhulumente zajongana nemiceli mingeni emininzi, eziquka imfazwe yobukhaya eyaqhambukayo phakathi koMkhosi Obomvu kunye **10**.noMkhosi omhlophe. uStalin wamoyisa uLenin kwaye ngoko nangoko waqalisa ukwazisa iipolisi zoqoqosho ezabizwa ngokuba zizicwangciso zeminyaka emihlanu. Kungezi **15**.zicwangciso eyathi iRashiya, yazama, ukuyiphucula imeko yayo yezoqoqosho.	During the reign of Lenin, Russia did not develop to the expected extent. The War communism and the New Economic Policies introduced after the revolution were faced with a lot of challenges, including the Civil War that broke out between the Red Army and the White Army. Stalin succeeded Lenin and immediately started the introduction of his economic policies which were called the Five year plans. It is through these plans that Russia, partially, improved its economic condition.
Esokuqala isicwangciso seminyaka emihlanu sasijolise ekuvelisweni kwamashishini amakhulu, ulwakhiwo **20**.lwefektri, nasekuphuhlisweni kwendlela ezintsha kwezothutho. Ukwenziwa kwematshini zolimo nako kwathi kwaphuculwa kwakhiwa	The First Five year plan was aimed at the development of heavy industries, building of factories and the development of new transport systems. The manufacturing of agricultural machinery was also increased and more factories were established, like tractor factories at

amashishini amaninzi njengamashishini
25.okuvelisa iiteletele kwisixheko
i*Stalingrad* neshishini lokwakha iimoto
eMoscow.

Iidolophu ezinkulu zathi zaqalisa
ukwakhiwa. Injongo yako konke oku
30.yayikukubonelela abantu abaninzi
baseRashiya ababengasebenzi.
Amafama azizityebi ayebizwa ngokuba
ziKulaks ayechasane nokukumanyana.

Axolele ukuzixhela izilwanyana zabo
35.kwaye azitshabalalisa nezivuno
kunokuba anikezele ngazo kudityaniso
lolimo. Le nto yakhokhelela
ekunqongophaleni kwenyama, imveliso
zobisi nezengqolowa. Ukuxhathisa
40.kwephizenti kwasonjululwa ngendlela
engathandekiyo kuba zaye zabulawa
okanye zathunyelwe kwiinkampu
zokohlwaya. Kangangamawaka amabini
abantu basweleka baza abanye
45.banqatyelwa ilungelo kwifama zabo.
Indlela zikaStalin zophuhliso limo
zayezaphanza waza wanyanzeleka
ukuba asijonge ngokutsha isicwangciso
sakhe sokunyanzelisa ukulima kunye
50.kwephizenti.

Isicwangciso sesibini seminyaka
emihlanu saqhubekeka ngogxininiso
kuphuhliso lwamashishini amakhulu,
kodwa ngoku ingqwalasela yaba

Stalingrad and motor factories at
Moscow.

Large cities were established. The aim of
all this was to accommodate a large
number of the unemployed Russians.
Farms were collectivised. The rich
farmers known as Kulaks were opposed
to collectivization.

They would rather slaughter their animals
and destroy their crops than make them
available for collective farming. This
resulted in a shortage of meat, dairy
products and grain developed. The
resistance of these peasants was
handled roughshod and they were either
murdered or sent to punishment camps.
Approximately two million people died
and some were deprived of their farms.
Stalin's agricultural reforms failed and he
was forced to revise his plan to force
collective farming on the peasants.

The second five year plan continued with
the emphases on the development of
heavy industries, but now the
concentration was on the production of
consumer goods. When the rise of Hitler
in Germany started, the emphasis
change to the production of ammunition

55.sekuveliseni izinto eziza kusetyenziswa ngabathengi. Kwathi ukuqala kokunyukela kulawulo kukaHitler eJamani, ugxininiso lwatshintsha lwaba sekuphuhliseni kwezixhobo ukuze **60.**babhekelisele kude ugrogriso lwamaNazi aseJamani. Le nto yakhokhelela ekuvelisweni kwezinto ezikumgangatho ongaphucukanga. Impumelelo yayisekwakhiweni **65.**kwemizi-mveliso kwakunye nemigodi nasekuphuculeni ezothutho.

Ukudityaniswa kunye kwefama kwaphuculwa namafama anikezela ngesiqingatha semveliso **70.**kurhulumente kwaye azigcinele enye ukuze akwazi ukuzityisa. Amafama ngoku atsho akwazi ukuba nezindlu ezizezawo kwakunye neezitiya zeziqhamo nemifuno. Ifama **75.**ezilawulwa ngurhulumente nazo zaphuhliswa ezazisebenza njengemizimveliso eyayinabasebenzi abafumana imivuzo nomanejala alawulayo. Usetyenziso lwezichumisi, **80.**iimatshini zokulima nendlela zalamaxesha zolimo zaphuculwa ngexesha lesicwangciso sesibini seminyaka emihlanu.

Esesithathu isicwangciso seminyaka **85.**emihlanu sona saba kukuqhubekeka kwezicwangciso zokuqala ezibini.

in order to ward off the threat of Nazi Germany. This led to the production of poor consumer goods. Achievement was on the establishment of factories and mines as well as modernization of the transport system.

Collectivisation was improved and farmers had to hand over a quota of their production to the state and retain the rest of for their own consumption. Farmers could now own their houses as well as their fruit and vegetable gardens. State farms were also developed which operated like factories with workers paid the wages and managers operating. Use of fertiliser, agricultural machinery and modern agricultural practices was improved during the second five year plan.

The third five year plan was basically the continuation of the first two plans. Unfortunately the Second World War broke out and that resulted in the great attention being paid to the production of ammunition and weapons. The plan ended because Russia entered the war.

Stalin partially succeeded in his economic policies, because there were shortages in them, to transform Russia into an independent and efficient

| Ngelishwa yaqalisa imfazwe yesibini yehlabathi nto leyo eyakhokhelela ekubeni ingqwalasela eninzi inikwe **90.**imveliso yeembumbulu iibomu nezixhobo zemfazwe. Isicwangciso safikelela esiphelweni ngoba iRashiya yathabatha inxhaxheba kwimfazwe.

UStalin waphumelela noko kwipolisi **95**.zakhe zokuphucula ezoqoqosho, ngoba kwabakho ungqongophalo kuzo, ekuguquleni iRashiya ibe lilizwe elizimeleyo kwezoqoqosho ukusukela ngo 1928 ukuya ku 1939. | economy from 1928 to1939 |

5.2.1.1 Types of genres: overall generic structure of text segments from history text

The above text exhibits a range of characteristic genre segments from a history text. The genre segment in lines 1 to 99, exemplifies a historical account, in that historical events are presented in stages through the background and account of stages. The text below presents the writing in isiXhosa of a model answer to the essay type question from the National South African history assessment paper grade 11, 2013, Question 1. This text relates to the assessment of how Stalin managed to convert Russia from a backward agricultural state into an advanced industrial state by 1939. The following paragraph begins with the analysis of the overall generic structure to demonstrate stages of genres embedded in this text.

The genre segment in lines 1 to 10 represents the background stage of the historical account relating to the events of how Stalin managed to change Russia from being an agricultural state to being an advanced industrial state by 1939. Further background is presented about the challenges that arose for the new policies, including the Civil War that broke at that time. In lines 10 to 14, an explanation is given about how Stalin immediately started to introduce a five year plan of economic policies after he had succeeded Lenin.

The genre segment in lines 17 to 50 demonstrates an account of events stage, in which the five year plan is explained. In lines 17 to 21 the account is given about the aims of the first five year plan, which was concerned with the development of heavy industries, buildings of factories, and the development of new transport systems. In lines 22 to 27 an account is presented of how the manufacturing of agricultural machinery was increased and more factories were established. The new factories included a tractor factory in Stalingrad and motor factories in Moscow. The segment in lines 28 to 31 exemplifies a further stage of the account of events in that an explanation is given on the reason for the establishment of larger cities, which was to accommodate a large number of unemployed Russians.

The segment in lines 34 to 37 further gives an explanation about the consequences of collectivization that the government wanted to promote, which led farmers to slaughter their animals and destroy crops, rather than making them available for collective farming. The segment in lines 37 to 39 gives an explanation of the consequences of destroying the animals and crops, namely the shortage of meat, dairy products and grain. The genre segment in lines 39 to 43 gives an account of stages of the results of resistance of the peasants, specifically which due to the resistance peasants were either murdered or sent to punishment camps. In line 43 further explanations are given about the two million people who died and those who were deprived from their farms, due to their resistance.

The segment in lines 51 to 53 exhibits an account of stages leading to the second five year plan, which emphasised the development of heavy industries. The segment in lines 56 to 61 explains the events that took place when Hitler rose in Germany. It states how the emphasis changed to the production of ammunition in order to strengthen the power of Nazi Germany. The genre segment in lines 64 to 71 represents an account of stages in that an explanation is given on how the five year plan promoted the idea of collectivisation so that farmers could hand over their production to the state. Furthermore, an explanation is given in lines 79 to 83, on how the use of fertilisers, agricultural machinery and modern agriculture was improved during the second five year plan. It is further explained in lines 84 to 91, about the five year plan of Stalin, that only three year plans were implemented because of the start of the Second World War, and that more attention was given to the production of ammunition and weapons.

The genre segment in lines 91 to 93 demonstrates and account of events in that the background is given as to why the five year plan had to be stopped or changed, namely for the reason that when the war broke out, Russia had to take part in the war. A further explanation is given in lines 94 to 99 about how Stalin partly succeeded in his five year economy plan of transforming Russia, partly because there were shortcomings in the plan to transform Russia from 1928 to 1939, hence Stalin partly succeeded in his plan. In the following section the characteristic language components are discussed in relation to the analysed genres from text C.

5.2.1.1.1 The characteristic language components

The language components of the text demonstrate the use of grammar and words at sentence level determines the language of time and cause and effect. Each genre demonstrates different language components. Learners are able to classify a text as a certain a genre because of the language components that appear in that particular text. Feez and Joyce (1998:62- 93) examine the characteristic language components demonstrated by the biographical recount genre, namely, the past tense, the third person, where words like *he, him, his* or *she* and *her* are used, respectively. It is noted that historical recounts are (i) written in the past tense, (ii) sequence events in time, and (iii) evaluate events. Historical accounts are also written in the past tense, events are sequenced as they unfold over time by making use of words such reason conjunctions *like because, consequently, therefore, so*; verbs like *resulted in*, *caused, led to*, typically form part of the language components of an historical account and nouns like the *result*, which are link by cause, also typically form part of the language component of an historical account. These characteristic language components that are found in historical recounts can be taught to learners to enable them to identify and write historical recount texts effectively.

In summary, the above text illustrates a range of genre types, such as biographical and historical recounts, with the respective stages that are characteristic for each genre. The text displays the dominant genre of historical recount in that it appears more than once in the analysis. All the genre stages representing the historical recount, namely background, record of events and deduction are dominant in the text analysed, hence it possible to be classify this text as predominantly a historical recount.

The lexical and grammatical properties of the text above will be examined in detail in section 5.2.1.2 below in the analysis of the ideational metafunction.

5.2.1.2 Linguistic resources representing meaning and meaning relationships

Language resources play an important role in the analysis of a text. Christie and Derewianka (2006: 7) point out that the resources of the language system cluster into three *metafunctions* which have been discussed in detail in the previous chapters. These metafunctions are (i) the *ideational* metafunction, relating to how language is used to represent our experience, and the relationships between aspects of experience, (ii) the *interpersonal* metafunction, relating to how language is used for interaction with other people, and (iii) the *textual* metafunction, relating to how language is used in forming coherent and cohesive texts. These language resources were discussed in detail in chapter three. The following section is based on the analysis of the ideational metafunction.

5.2.1.2.1 Ideational metafunction

A text exhibits a variety of linguistic resources, from the language system which create certain ideational meanings, as discussed in chapter three. In this subsection, selected sentences are analysed in terms of the logical and experiential metafunction of the ideational metafunction of the isiXhosa language system. In addition, the phenomenon of grammatical metaphor will be examined, subsequent to the discussion of the experiential metafunction of the language system.

In terms of the logical metafunction of the isiXhosa language system, the above text exemplifies a range of clause types and clause combinations that creates particular ideational meanings and logical metafunction relationships among clauses, such as addition, exemplification, cause, time and concession. Furthermore, in terms of the experiential metafunction, for selected clause processes, participants and circumstance will be analysed. For this purpose six sentences have been selected from the longer text. The following sentences present an analysis of the ideational metafunction of the isiXhosa language system.

Sentence 1: Lines 1-3

Ngexesha lolawulo lukaLenin, iRashiya zange iphuhle ifikelele kumgangatho owawulindelekile. *(During the reign of Lenin, Russia did not develop to the expected extent).*

In terms of the logical metafunction concerned with types of clauses and clause combinations of the isiXhosa language system, the sentence in lines 1 to 3 displays two clauses of equal status. The first independent clause is **ngexesha…iphuhle** *(during…develop)*, introduced by a prepositional phrase adjunct of time **ngexesha…***(during)* realising a logical relationship of time. The independent clause is followed by a co-ordinate clause realising a relationship of equal status with the subjunctive verb phrase **ifikelele…owawulindelekile** *(expected extent).*

In terms of the experiential metafunction, the independent clause **ngexesha… iphuhle** *(during…develop)* contains a complex deficient verb phrase with the deficient verb **zange** *(did not)* taking a subjunctive verb clause complement. This complex verb phrase realises a material process. This complex verb phrase further takes an actor participant **iRashiya…***(Russia).* The prepositional phrase **ngexesha…lolawulo likaLenin** *(during… reign of Lenin)* realises a circumstance of time in relation to the complex verb phrase **zange iphuhle...***(did not develop).* The noun phrase in the prepositional phrase **ngexesha…***(during)* is post-modified by a descriptive possessive phrase **lolawulo…lukaLenin** *(reign...of Lenin)* which illustrates the use of grammatical metaphor in that the action is nominalised as a class 11 noun and the actor participant Lenin occurs in possessive phrase that modifies the noun in **lolawulo…***(the reign).*

In the second clause **ifikelele…***(developed)* the verb in the verb phrase realises a material process. The agreement subject prefix (Agr S), represents a class 9 pronoun which refers to **iRashiya…***(Russia)* in the preceding clause. The prepositional phrase **kumgangatho…***(to the extent)* realises an abstract circumstance of place in relation to the subjunctive verb phrase **fikelele...** *(developed).* The noun in the prepositional phrase **kumgangatho…***(to the extent)* is post-modified by a relative clause with a verb in the remote compound past tense **owawulindelekile...** *(the expected extent).*

Sentence 2: In lines 10- 14

uStalin wamoyisa uLenin kwaye ngoko nangoko waqalisa ukwazisa iipolisi zoqoqosho ezabizwa ngokuba zizicwangciso zeminyaka emihlanu. *(Stalin succeeded Lenin and immediately started the introduction of his economic policies which were called the Five year plans.)*

With regard to the logical metafunction of the isiXhosa language system, the above text in lines 10-14 illustrates two clauses that are in a relationship of equal dependency. The first clause is **uStalin wamoyisa uLenin…***(Stalin succeeded Lenin),* and the second clause of equal dependency is **ngoko…emihlanu** *(immediately…five years)* is introduced by the conjunction **kwaye…**(*and further*). The first co-ordinating clause **uStalin…***(Stalin)* is an initiating clause and second clause of equal dependency represents an expanding clause introduced by conjunction **kwaye…**(*and further*) realising relationship of addition.

In terms of the experiential metafunction, the above text displays a rich variety of linguistic resources that represent the experience of the writer in terms of the subject content field or topic concerning processes, participants and circumstances. The verb in the clause **wamoyisa…***(he succeeded)* realises a material process, this material process is associated with two actor participants' **uStalin…***(Stalin)* and Theme participant **uLenin…***(Lenin).* The second clause of equal dependency introduced by conjunction **kwaye** *(and)* contains a variety of imbedded clauses. The verb in the verb phrase **waqalisa…***(started)* takes an infinitive compliment clause, which together with the verb in **waqalisa…***(he started)* realises material process.

The subject concord, AgrS, prefix in the verb phrase **waqalisa …***(he started)* represents the actor participant referring to **uStalin…***(Stalin)* in the preceding clause. The noun phrase **iipolisi…emihlanu…***(policies…five years)* represents the goal participants of the process, realised in the verb phrase **waqalisa…ukwazisa…***(he started…introduction)*. The head noun in the noun phrase **iipolisi...**(*policies)* is post modified by a descriptive possessive phrase **zoqoqosho…***(economic),* of which the head noun realises a grammatical metaphor, in that the action in trading is nominalised and a relative verb clause contains a past tense passive verb **ezazibizwa...***(which were called).*

The verb in the relative past tense verb **ezazibizwa...***(which were called)* is post-modified by a prepositional infinitive phrase **ngokuba…emihlanu** *(which…five years)* of which the copulative verb **ba** takes a nominal complement, in **sisicwangciso...** *(plan).*The noun in the nominal predicate **sisicwangciso…***(plan)* is post-modified by a possessive phrase **seminyaka emihlanu** *(five years).* The head of possessive phrase **seminyaka…***(year)* is post-modified by a numeral adjective **emihlanu.** The clause introduced by **kwaye…***(and further)* is modified by a sentential adverbial **ngoko nangoko.**

Sentence 3: Line 17-21

Esokuqala isicwangciso seminyaka emihlanu sasijolise ekuvelisweni kwamashishini amakhulu, ulwakhiwo lwefektri, nasekuphuhlisweni kwendlela ezintsha kwezothutho. *(The First Five year plan was aimed at the development of heavy industries, building of factories and the development of new transport systems.)*

With regard to the logical metafunction of the isiXhosa language system, the above sentences in lines 17-21 consist of one independent clause. In terms of the experiential metafunction, the whole clause is modified by the sentential adverbial realized as an infinitive in the relative possessive **esokuqala…** *(the first).* The verb in the verb phrase **sasijolise…***(aimed)* realises a material process. The noun phrase with the deverbative head **isicwangciso…emihlanu** *(five year plan)* takes an actor participant, understood as the policy, controlled by human action which implements the policy. The verb in the verb phrase **sasijolise…***(aimed)* realises a material process, and furthermore is modified by a circumstance of abstract place, in the conjoined noun phrase **ekuvelisweni…kwezothutho...** *(development…transport system).* This conjoined noun phrase exemplifies a number of instances of grammatical metaphor in the noun phrase **ekuvelisweni…amakhulu** *(development…heavy),* noun phrase **ulwakhiwo…***(building)* and in the noun phrases **nasekuphuhlisweni…***(and the development)*, in that these noun phrases in that the action is a nominalised infinitive, for an example in **ekuvelisweni…***(at the development)* and in the phrase **nasekuphuhlisweni...***(and the development).*

The theme participant of the locative infinitive **ekuvelisweni** is realised as a possessive phrase **kwamashishini…***(of factories).* Similarly the theme of the

process in the abstract noun class 11 **ulwakhiwo…***(building)* is realised as descriptive possessive phrase. The theme participant of the process expressed in the infinitive **nasekuphuhliseni…***(and the development)* is similarly realised as a possessive phrase **kwendlela...***(systems).*

The noun in the possessive phrase **kwamashishini amakhulu…***(heavy industries)* is post-modified by an adjective and similarly noun in infinitival possessive phrase **kwendlela…***(systems)* is post-modified by an adjective **ezintsha…***(new).* Furthermore, it is post-modified by a prepositional phrase **kwezothutho…***(transport)* which is grammatical metaphor. The actor participant varies noun phrases in the conjoined noun phrase is unexpected hence implicit. The noun in the noun phrase **isicwangciso…emihlanu…***(plan…five)* is post-modified by a descriptive adjective **emihlanu...***(five).*

Sentence 4: Lines: 34-37

Axolele ukuzixhela izilwanyana zabo kwaye azitshabalalisa nezivuno kunokuba anikezele ngazo kudityaniso lolimo. *(They would rather slaughter their animals and destroy their crops than make them available for collective farming.)*

With regard to the logical metafunction of the isiXhosa language system, the above sentence in lines 34-37 consists of two clauses of equal status, namely the initiating clauses **axolela…zabo…***(they would rather),* and the expanding clause **asitshabalalisa…lolimo** *(they destroyed…farming)* joined by conjunctive **kwaye...** *(and further).* The third clause represents an expanding clause and is introduced by conjunction **kunokuba...***(than)* realising a logical relationship of circumstance of comparison.

In terms of the experiential metafunction of the isiXhosa language system, the verb in the initiating clause **axolela… zabo…***(they would…their),* realises a behavioural process and takes an infinitival verb compliment **ukuzixhela...***(to slaughter)* which realises a material process. The theme participant of the verb in the verb phrase **axolela...***(they would rather)* is represented by the subject agreement concord (AgrS), representing the class 2 pronoun. The patient participant of the verb in the infinitive **ukuzixhela...***(to slaughter)* is the head noun in the diminutive noun phrase **izilwanyana...zabo** *(their...animals).* This head noun is post-modified by the

possessive phrase **zabo...** *(theirs)* containing a pronominal class 2 referring back to the pronoun participant of the verb in the verb phrase **axolela...***(they would rather).*

In the second clause, introduced by conjunction **kwaye...** *(and further),* the verb in the verb phrase **asitshabalalise...***(they destroy)* realises a material process. The actor participant of this process of destroying is denoted by the verb in the verb phrase **asitshabalalise...***(destroy)* is represented by the class 6 (AgrS) **a,** which refers to class 6 pronoun in the initiating clause with the verb phrase **axolela...***(they would rather).* The theme participant **izivuno** of the material process of destroying expressed in the verb phrase **asitshabalalise...***(they destroy)* appears in the prepositional phrase with a preposition **na.** The verb in the verb phrase **asitshabalalise...***(destroy)* has a dependent clause introduced by the conjunction **kunokuba...***(than)* realising a circumstance of comparison in relation to the verb in **asitshabalalise...***(destroy).*

The verb in the verb phrase **anikezele...lolimo...***(make them available)* realises a material process. The actor participant of this verb is represented by the subject agreement concord AgrS representing the pronoun which refers to the class 2 pronoun in the initiating clause **axolela...***(they would rather)***.** The verb in the verb phrase **anikezele**...(*make them available*) is post-modified by prepositional phrase **ngaso** realising an abstract circumstance of manner in relation to the process of freely giving denoted by the verb in **anikezele...***(make them available).* The verb in the verb phrase **anikezele...***(make them available)* is further post-modified by prepositional phrase **kudityaniso lolimo...***(collective farming)* realising an abstract circumstance of place.

The noun in this prepositional phrase **kudityaniso lolimo...***(collective farming)* represents grammatical metaphor in that the verb stem from which the noun in **kudityaniso...***(collective)* is derived, denotes a material process. The theme participant of this process is realised in a descriptive possessive phrase **lolimo...** *(of farming)*, of which the head noun in **lolimo...***(farming)* also illustrates grammatical metaphor. Both the theme and actor participants of the verb stem which has been nominalised in the grammatical metaphor **lolimo...***(farming)* are implied.

Sentence 5: Lines 79-83

Usetyenziso lwezichumisi, iimatshini zokulima nendlela zalamaxesha zolimo zaphuculwa ngexesha lesicwangciso sesibini seminyaka emihlanu. *(Use of fertiliser, agricultural machinery and modern agricultural practices was improved during the second five year plan).*

With regard to the logical metafunction of the isiXhosa language system, the above sentences in lines 79-83 illustrates one dominant clause. With regard to the experiential metafunction, the verb in the remote past tense passive verb phrase **zaphuculwa…***(was improved)* realises a material process of improving the ways of farming. The complex co-ordinate subject noun phrase of the clause **usetyenziso...***(use)* zolimo, represents the theme argument of the passive verb in **zaphuculwa.** This noun phrase consists of three co-ordinates noun phrases namely **usetyenziso lwezichumisi iimatshini zokulima…** *(use of fertiliser, agricultural machinery)* and the noun phrase **nendlela zala maxesha zolimo…***(and modern agricultural practices)* which is introduced by conjunction **na...***(and).* The prepositional phrase **ngexesha...emihlanu…***(during…five year)* realises a circumstance of time in relation to the material process **zaphuculwa...***(was improved)* The head noun in the prepositional phrase **ngexesha…***(during)* is post-modified by a descriptive possessive phrase **lesicwangciso...***(plan).* The head noun in this descriptive possessive is in turn post-modified by a possessive phrase **sesibini...emihlanu…** *(second …five)* realising the ordinal number **isibini…***(second)* of which the head in turn is also post-modified by descriptive possessive phrase **seminyaka emihlanu…** *(five year)* denoting an ordinal number, realising the circumstance of time.

The co-ordinate class 11 subject noun phrase **usetyenziso...zolimo…***(use of cultural)* realises a grammatical metaphor in that the class 11 noun is the nominalisation of the verb stem of **sebenzisa...***(use).* The theme argument of the verb stem from which **usetyenziso…***(use)* is derived is realised in the descriptive possessive phrase **lwezichumisi...***(fertilisers).* The head noun in the second co-ordinate noun phrase **iimatshini zokulima…***(agricultural machinery)* is post-modified by a descriptive possessive **zokulima...***(agricultural).*

In the third co-ordinate noun phrase **neendlela...zolimo…***(agricultural practices)* the head is post-modified by a descriptive possessive **zala maxesha…***(modern)* denoting time, and another descriptive possessive phrase **zolimo…***(agricultural)* which contains a grammatical metaphor in the class 11 noun **ulimo...***(agriculture)*. For the grammatical metaphor **usetyenziso…***(use),* the agent participant of the process denoted by the verb, from which **usetyenziso…***(use)* is derived, is implied. Likewise, the agent participant of the process of farming denoted by the verb from which the grammatical metaphor in **ulimo…***(agriculture)* is derived, is implied.

Sentence 6: Lines 94- 99

UStalin, waphumelela noko kwipolisi zakhe zokuphucula ezoqoqosho, ngoba kwabakho ungqongophalo kuzo ekuguquleni iRashiya ibe lilizwe elizimeleyo kwezoqoqosho ukusukela ngo 1928 ukuya ku1939. *(Stalin partially succeeded in his economic policies, because there were shortages in them, to transform Russia into an independent and efficient economy from 1928 to1939.)*

In terms of the logical metafunction of the isiXhosa language system, the above text segment in lines 94-99 exemplifies a variety of clauses and clause combinations of equal and unequal dependency. The clause **uStalin… ezoqoqosho…***(Stalin …economy)* is an independent clause which is the initiating clause. The conjunction **ngoba…***(because)* introduces an expanding dependent clause **kwabakho… 1939** *(there were…1939)* creating a relationship of reason with the preceding clause.

In terms of the experiential metafunction the independent clause **uStalin… ezoqoqosho…***(Stalin…economy),* has a remote past tense verb phrase **waphumelela…***(succeeded…)* which realises a material process. The noun phrase **uStalin…***(Stalin)* is an agent participant in the initiating clause. The verb in the verb phrase **waphumelela…***(succeeded)* is post-modified by a prepositional phrase **kwiipolisi…zokuphucula…***(in policies to improve)* which realises a circumstance of (abstract) location. The head noun in the prepositional phrase **kwiipolisi…zokuphucula…***(in policies to improve)* is post-modified by a possessive phrase **zakhe…***(his)* and descriptive infinitive possessive phrase **zokuphucula…***(to improve).* The verb in the verb phrase **zokuphucula…***(to improve)* realises a material process. The noun in the prepositional phrase **kwiipolisi…***(in policies)* appears as a human-controlled causal participant of the verb in the descriptive possessive phrase

zokuphucula…*(to improve).* The noun phrase **ezoqoqosho…***(economic matters)* occurs as the theme participant of **zokuphucula...***(to improve).*

The verb in the verb phrase **kwabakho ungqongophalo…***(there were shortages)* realises an existential process. The clause **kwabakho…***(there was)* a copulative verb phrase, in the remote past tense realises an existential process, this copulative verb phrase **kwabakho…***(there was)* is post-modified by a prepositional phrase which realises an (abstract) circumstance of place. This verb phrase is, in addition, post-modified by a locative infinitive verb phrase **ekuguquleni…1939…***(to transform…1939).* This locative infinitive, which post-modifies the copulative verb phrase **kwabakho…***(there was),* contains a verb which realises an existential process, taking a dependent subjunctive clause with a nominal predicate **ibe lilizwe elizimeleyo…***(to be independent).* The head of this nominal predicate is post-modified by a relative clause **elizimeleyo** …*(independent)* realising a circumstance of manner. The nominal predicate **ibe lilizwe…***(to be a country)* is further post-modified by a prepositional phrase **kwezoqoqosho…1939…***(economy…1939)***,** which realises an abstract circumstance of place.

In summary, the ideational metafunction of the isiXhosa language system as examined in this section, through its components of the logical and experiential metafunctions exemplifies a variety of linguistic resources. The linguistic resources that are displayed in the isiXhosa text segment of the history assessment paper model answer, affords educators and learners the opportunity to put SFL theory into practice in the reading and writing of history texts. The above text illustrates the properties of both the logical and the experiential metafunction in the analysis of texts. The analyses of the logical and the experiential metafunctions have demonstrated how the linguistic elements within the clause and among the clauses represent the experiences of the writer. The next section analyses the properties of the textual metafunction of the isiXhosa language system.

5.2.1.2.2 The textual metafunction

According to Christie and Derewianka (2008: 20) the textual metafunction is concerned with the role that contextual factors play in influencing the choices made by the writer from the language system. Thus, it concerns the choices of the writer at

the clause level and beyond the clause levels of a text. Consider the following examples which demonstrate the use of theme and rheme at the clausal level.

5.2.1.2.2.1 The *clause level: Theme and Rheme*

Example 1: Lines 32-33

Amafama azizityebi ayebizwa ngokuba ziKulaks ayechasane noku kumanyana. (*The rich farmers known as Kulaks were opposed to collectivization).*

Lines 32 to 33 represent the theme which is the point of departure in the sentence, with the use of noun **amafama.** The information that follows beginning with the copulative phrase **azizityebi** signals new additional information to the theme.

Isiqalo (theme)	ulwazi olongozelelweyo (rheme)
Amafama	*azizityebi ayebizwa ngokuba ziKulaks ayechasane noku kumanyana.*

Example 2: Lines 34-37

Axolele ukuzixhela izilwanyana zabo kwaye azitshabalalisa nezivuno kunokuba anikezele ngazo kudityaniso lolimo. *(They would rather slaughter their animals and destroy their crops than make them available for collective farming).*

In example two in lines 34 to 37 the same structure as in example one is exemplified. The only difference in this instance is that the theme is a pronoun, not a noun. The pronoun **a** in **a**xolela refers to the noun in the noun phrase **amafama**. This pronoun represents the point of departure of the writer in the sentence.

Isiqalo (theme)	ulwazi olongozelelweyo (rheme)
Axolele	ukuzixhela izilwanyana zabo kwaye azitshabalalisa nezivuno kunokuba anikezele ngazo kudityaniso lolimo.

Example 3: Lines 46- 50

Indlela zikaStalin zophuhliso-limo zayezaphanza waza wanyanzeleka ukuba asijonge ngokutsha **isicwangciso** sakhe sokunyanzelisa ukulima kunye kwephizenti. *(Stalin's agricultural reforms failed and he was forced to revise his plan to force collective farming on the peasants*).

Line 51-53

Isicwangciso sesibini seminyaka emihlanu saqhubekeka ngogxininiso kuphuhliso lwamashishini amakhulu…, *(The second five year plan continued with the emphases on the development of heavy industries…)*

Lines 46 to 50 represent an instance of where a topic has been moved from being part of the added information to being the starting point of the clause. In lines 46-50 the noun in the noun phrase **isicwangciso…***(plan)* is part of the rheme, whereas in lines 51 to 53, the same noun is used as a point of departure in the next clause. This means that the noun has changed roles from being part of the added information to being the point of departure of a sentence. This is demonstrated in the following example:

Isiqalo (theme)	Ulwazi olongezelelweyo (rheme)
Indlela zikaStalin	*zophuhliso limo zayezaphanza waza wanyanzeleka ukuba asijonge ngokutsha* **isicwangciso** *sakhe sokunyanzelisa ukulima kunye kwephizenti.*
Isicwangciso	*sesibini seminyaka emihlanu saqhubekeka ngogxininiso kuphuhliso lwamashishini amakhulu…,*

Example 4: Lines 96-99

Kwabakho ungqongophalo kuzo ekuguquleni iRashiya ibe lilizwe elizimeleyo kwezoqoqosho ukusukela ngo 1928 ukuya ku1939. *(There were shortages in them to transform Russia into an independent and efficient economy from 1928 to1939.)*

The sentence in lines 96 to 99 demonstrates that the beginning of the sentence is not always represented by simple straight-forward topic, but at times the writer might choose to start with a dependent clause in the theme position. The following example demonstrates this property, in that the expanding dependent clause **kwabakho… 1939** *(there were…1939)* appears at the beginning of the sentence.

Isiqalo (theme)	Ulwazi olongezelelweyo (rheme)
Kwabakho	*ungqongophalo kuzo ekuguquleni iRashiya ibe lilizwe elizimeleyo kwezoqoqosho ukusukela ngo 1928 ukuya ku1939.*

Example 4 also represents what Halliday and Matthiessen 2004:67, as discussed in Christie and Derewianka (2008:21), refer to as a marked theme. They state that the marked theme refers to instances where the starting point is not the subject of the clause. The use of the different initial element is also an indication of maturity in writing. This brings the discussion to the analysis of the textual metafunction at the beyond the clause level. This is the level of analysis where text cohesion and coherence are analysed to determine the language choices made by the writer of the text. The next sections examine the textual metafunction at the beyond the clause level.

5.2.1.2.2.2 Beyond the clause: Cohesion

Sentence 1: 3-10

IiPolisi zoqoqosho ezimbini i*War Communism* **kunye ne***New 5 Economic Policy* **ezathi zaqalisa emva kotshintsho lorhulumente zajongana neengxaki ezininzi, eziquka imfazwe yobukhaya eyaqhambukayo phakathi koMkhosi obomvu kunye noMkhosi omhlophe***. (The War communism and the New Economic Policies introduced after the revolution were faced with a lot of challenges, including the Civil War that broke out between the Red Army and the White Army).*

In terms of the textual metafunction of the isiXhosa language system, the segment in lines 3 to 10 exemplifies linguistic resources that create grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is realised in line 6 through the use of anaphoric reference in the remote past tense verb **zajongana…** *(were faced)* which

refers back to the noun phrase beginning with **iipolisi…** *(policies).* In line 3 in the use of cataphoric reference in the class 10 noun **iipolisi…** *(policies)* refers to the possessive modifying noun phrase **zoqoqosho…** *(economic).* In line 9 and 10 comparison realises cohesion between the (*red army)* and the *(white army).* In line 4 conjunctive cohesion is demonstrated in the use of the conjunction **kunye…***(and).* The realisation of lexical cohesion is exemplified in line 9, through a repetition which is exemplified in the noun phrase **umkhosi…** *(army)* which has been used a number of times*.*

Sentence 2: 17-21

Esokuqala isicwangciso seminyaka emihlanu sasijongise ekuvelisweni kwamashishini amakhulu, ulwakhiwo lwefektri, nasekuphuhlisweni kwendlela ezintsha kwezothutho. *(The First Five year plan was aimed at the development of heavy industries, building of factories and the development of new transport systems).*

In terms of the textual metafunction the segment in lines 17 to 21 exemplifies linguistic resources that create grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is realised in line 18, through the use of anaphoric reference in the use of the pronoun in the remote past tense verb phrase **sa**sijongise**...***(it* was aimed*)* refers back to the noun phrase **isicwangciso...**   *(plan).* Cataphoric reference is realised in line 17, in the relative possessive phrase **esokuqala...** (the first) pointing to the noun phrase **isicwangciso...**(*plan).* In line 18, the use of pronoun in the remote past tense verb phrase **sa**sijongise**...***(it* was aimed*)* represents substitution, in that it refers to the noun phrase **isicwangciso...***(plan).* In line 20 conjunctive cohesion is demonstrated in the use of the conjunction of addition **na** in the noun phrase **nasekuphuhliseni...** *(and the development).* The realisation of lexical cohesion is manifested in line 17, in the use of the collocation realised in the noun phrase with the numeral adjective **seminyaka emihlanu...***(five year).*

Sentence 3: 37-45

Le nto yakhokhelela ekunqongophaleni kwenyama, imveliso zobisi nezengqolowa. Ukuchasana kwephizenti kwasonjululwa ngendlela engathandekiyo kuba zaye babulawa okanye zathunyelwe kwiinkampu zokohlwaya.Kangangamawaka amabini abantu basweleka baza abanye

banqatyelwa ilungelo kwifama zabo. *(This resulted in a shortage of meat, dairy products and grain developed. The resistance of these peasants was handled roughshod and they were either murdered or sent to punishment camps. Approximately two million people died and some were deprived of their farms).*

In terms of the textual metafunction of the isiXhosa language system, the segment in lines 37 to 45 exemplifies linguistic resources that create grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is realised in line 41, in the use of anaphoric reference in the personal pronoun **za**ye…*(they* were*)* which refers back to the noun phrase **iphizenti...**(*peasants).* In line 37, cataphoric reference is demonstrated in the use of demonstrative pronoun **le…***(this)* which refers to the noun **into...***(thing).* In line 41, the use of the personal pronoun **za**ye…*(they)* represents substitution of the noun phrase **iphizenti...***(peasants).* The use of the demonstrative pronoun representing the class 10 subject agreement **za**bo**...***(their)* also used as a substitute for the noun phrase **ifama**. In line 42, conjunctive cohesion is represented in the use of conjunction of comparison **okanye...***(either).* The realisation of lexical cohesion is exemplified in line 43 in the use of the collocation occurring in the noun phrase **kangangamawaka amabini**... *(approximately two million).*

Sentence 4: 51-58

Isicwangciso sesibini seminyaka emihlanu saqhubekeka ngogxininiso kuphuhliso lwamashishini amakhulu kodwa ngoku ingqwalasela yaba sekuveliseni izinto ezizakusetyenziswa ngakumbi ngabathengi.Kwathi ukuqala kokunyukela kulawulo kukaHitler eJamani, ugxininiso lwatshintsha lwaba sekuphuhliseni izixhobo ukuze babhekelisele kude ugrogriso lwamaNazi aseJamani. *(The second five year plan continued with the emphasis on the development of heavy industries, but now the concentration was on the production of consumer goods. When the rise of Hitler in Germany started, the emphasis change to the production of ammunition in order to ward off the threat of Nazi Germany.)*

In terms of the textual metafunction of the isiXhosa language system, the segment in lines 51 to 58 exemplifies linguistic resources that create grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is manifested in line 60, in the use of anaphoric reference in the personal pronoun **ba**bhekiselele...*(they ward off)* pointing back to the noun phrase **abalimi** *(farmers)* mentioned in previous paragraph. The

use of cataphoric reference is manifested in line 58, in the noun phrase **ugxininiso...**(the emphasis) pointing forward to the pronoun of the remote past tense verb phrase **lwatshintsha...** (change). In line 54, conjunctive cohesion is displayed in the use of conjunction **kodwa...**(but).

The realisation of lexical cohesion is exemplified through repetition which is exemplified in line 52, where the noun phrase **ngogxininiso...**(with emphasis) is repeated in line 58 in the noun phrase **ugxininiso...**(emphasis). In line 53 antonym is demonstrated between the use of the noun phrases in **kuphuhliso lwamashishini** (production of consumer goods) and the use of **kuphuhliso lwezixhobo**...(production of ammunition) in line 59. In line 53, the use of collocation is displayed in the noun phrase occurring with an adjective **lwamashishini amakhulu**...(heavy industries).

Sentence 5: 66-74

Ukudityaniswa kunye kwefama kwaphuculwa namafama anikezela ngesiqingatha semveliso kurhulumente azigcinele enye ukuze akwazi ukuzityisa wona. Amafama ngoku atsho akwazi ukuba nezindlu ezizezabo kwakunye neezitiya zeziqhamo nemifuno. (Collectivisation was improved and farmers had to hand over a quota of their production to the state and retain the rest of for their own consumption. Farmers could now own their houses as well as their fruit and vegetable gardens).

In terms of the textual metafunction of the isiXhosa language system, the segment in lines 66 to 74 exemplifies linguistic resources that create grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is manifested in line 70, in the use of anaphoric reference in the possessive pronoun **azi**gcinele**...** (they retain) referring back to the noun **amafama. ..**(farmers). Cataphoric reference is demonstrated in line 66, in the infinitive passive verb phrase **ukudityaninswa...**(collectivisation) refers forward to the noun phrase **kwefama...**(farmers). In line 70, substitution is manifested in the use of the possessive pronoun **azi**gcinele...(they retain), instead of using the noun **amafama...**(farmers). In line 68 a conjunctive cohesion is displayed in the use of co-ordinating conjunction **na...**(and). The realisation of lexical cohesion is exemplified in lines 70 and 71, where the noun phrase **amafama...**(farmers) is repeated. In line 71, the use of collocation is realised in the noun phrases

zeziqhamo…*(of fruits)* occurring with a conjunctive noun phrase **nemifuno...***(fruit and vegetable).*

Sentence 6: 84 - 91

Esesithathu isicwangciso seminyaka emihlanu sona saba kukuqhubekeka kwezicwangciso zokuqala ezibini. Ngelishwa yaqalisa imfazwe yesibini yehlabathi nto leyo eyakhokhelela ekubeni ingqwalasela eninzi inikwe imveliso yeembumbulu, iibomu, nezixhobo zemfazwe. *(The third five year plan was basically the continuation of the first two plans. Unfortunately the Second World War broke out and that resulted in the great attention being paid to the production of ammunition and weapons).*

In terms of the textual metafunction of the isiXhosa language system, the segment in lines 84 to 91 exemplifies linguistic resources that create grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is manifested in line 85 in the use of anaphoric reference in the demonstrative pronoun **sona...***(it)* which refers back to the noun phrase **isicwangciso...** *(plan).* In line 84, cataphoric reference is exemplified through the use of adjectival phrase **esesithathu...***(the third)* which refers forward to the noun phrase **isicwangciso...***(plan).* The demonstrative pronoun **sona...***(it)* in line 85, also demonstrates substitution for the noun phrase **isicwangciso...***(plan).* In line 85 and 88, conjunction is demonstrated in the use of conjunction **nto leyo...***(and that).*

The realisation of lexical cohesion is exemplified in line 87, where the noun phrase **imfazwe ...***(war)* is repeated in line 91, in the possessive noun phrase **zemfazwe...***(of the war).* In line 84, the use of collocation is demonstrated in the noun phrase occurring with an adjective **seminyaka emihlanu...***(five year plan).* The following section investigates the interpersonal metafunction of linguistic resources in meaning making in texts.

5.2.1.2.3 The interpersonal metafunction

The interpersonal metafunction is divided into the clause level and beyond the clause level respectively. It represents the appraisal theory system of linguistic resources. The appraisal theory is concerned with the evaluations that people make and how these evaluations can be improved and the resources used to demonstrate the

individuals authority, Christie and Derewianka (2008:15). Thus appraisal is concerned with three types of linguistic resources, namely attitude, graduation and engagement. These three resources can be taught to learners to enable them to categorise written work by using the appraisal system and the interpersonal metafunction of the language system. The appraisal system and its components have been discussed in detail in chapter three sections 3.3.1.2. The focus for this text will be on the analysis for beyond the clause, as stated in chapter four section 4.2.1.2.3.

5.2.1.2.3.1. Beyond the clause: *patterns of evaluation*

 Example 1: Lines 10-14

uStalin wamoyisa uLenin kwaye ngoko nangoko waqalisa ukwazisa iipolisi zoqoqosho ezabizwa ngokuba zizicwangciso zeminyaka emihlanu. *(Stalin succeeded Lenin and immediately started the introduction of his economic policies which were called the Five year plans.)*

The analysis of the appraisal related graduation is demonstrated in lines 10 to 14, where the intensifying adverb of time **ngoko nangoko …** *(immediately)*, which describes the verb *started,* is used. It demonstrates how soon Stalin started with his economic policies.

Sentence 2: Line 34-37

Axolele ukuzixhela izilwanyana zabo kwaye azitshabalalisa nezivuno kunokuba anikezele ngazo kudityaniso lolimo... *(They would rather slaughter their animals and destroy their crops than make them available for collective farming.)*

The resource of attitude is demonstrated in lines 34-37 in affect, where an expression of emotional reaction is demonstrated. It is demonstrated through the use of **axolela…** *(they would rather)* which shows affect, of how unhappy the farmers where that they would rather lose their stock than share it.

The engagement resource of appraisal system is not evident in text C. No instance occurs in the text where the writer construes an authorial presence, nor is there an instance where the writer takes a particular position whether for or against other participants in the texts. The exposition types of texts do demonstrate the use of

engagement but this text is not taken from an exposition type of text. The next section presents an analysis of the number of lexical items present in individual sentences in the history text.

5.2.1.2.4 Lexical density

Lexical density aims to manifest the number of lexical items such as nouns, verb, adjectives and adverbs in a text. The table below tabulates the analysis of lexical density which is exemplified by the phrase in lines 51 to 56. Christie and Derewianka (2008: 27) point out that there are more lexical items in writing than in oral conversation. Consider the following example

Line 51-56

Isicwangciso sesibini seminyaka emihlanu saqhubekeka ngogxininiso kuphuhliso lwamashishini amakhulu, kodwa ngoku ingqwalasela yaba sekuveliseni izinto eziza kusetyenziswa ngabathengi. (*The second five year plan continued with the emphases on the development of heavy industries, but now the concentration was on the production of consumer goods).*

This table demonstrates the number of lexical items manifested in lines 51-55.

	Lexical items
Isicwangciso sesibini seminyaka emihlanu	4
saqhubekeka ngo**gxininiso** ku**phuhliso**	3
lw**amashishini amakhulu,** kodwa ngoku	2
ingqwalasela yaba seku**veliseni izinto** eziza	3
kusetyenziswa ngabathengi.	2

The next section presents a summary of the analysis of the grade 11 assessment paper's generic structure, language components and linguistic resources conducted in this chapter.

5.3   SUMMARY

The main findings concerning the generic structure of the text analysed in this chapter assert that text C mainly demonstrates the historical account genre because

the historical events are presented in stages that are applicable to the historical account. There are two stages, namely the background of events, and the account. Historical events are summarised in the background stage. Each unfolding event is interpreted in the account stage. The historical account genres are significant in writing in that they help the writer to make causal links between the events. The links are demonstrated through the use of the linguistic resources of the isiXhosa language exemplified in the text. The language features of time as well as of cause and effect are demonstrated through the choice of words such as, **ngexesha lolawulo lukaLenin…** *(during the reign of Lenin…)*. This is a feature of time which refers to the era when Lenin was in power. **Utshintsho kwiipolisi zakhokhelela kwimfazwe yobukhaya…** *(The change in policies caused an outbreak of the civil war in Russia).* The chosen phrase encompasses that which demonstrates the generic structure and the linguistic resources of the historical genres. The translated text has demonstrated that the genres and the linguistic features asserted in SFL are appropriate for use in the isiXhosa language.

The analyses of different translated history texts in isiXhosa demonstrated the generic features and the language sources in history texts. The analysis of the above text, labeled C, demonstrated that the development in literacy and language can benefit from explicit teaching, using relevant content subject texts. Teachers' understanding of how texts are embedded within a combination of genres can facilitate the teaching of texts across the curriculum. Thus, the content subject text can be made available in isiXhosa. Learners can conduct the text analyses in their home language. The analyses presented above demonstrate that the linguistic resources of the metafunctions and their role as realized in isiXhosa are fundamental in communicating knowledge about genre and language skills by learners. The analysis of text C has demonstrated that when resources are available and are used extensively and efficiently, learners' writing skills can be developed effectively in terms of both their language awareness of genre structure in isiXhosa and their knowledge construction of subject content, since these two are facets of academic writing and literacy development.

CHAPTER SIX
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

6.1   INTRODUCTION

The previous two chapters were concerned with the analysis of the two texts in isiXhosa from a Grade 11 history textbook and a model answer of an essay-type assessment question paper of Grade 11. In this chapter, I present a broad perspective of the impact and the benefits of engaging with History subject texts in isiXhosa for use in the isiXhosa home language (HL) class. The genre approach explored is employed in the analysis of the genres found in the History texts for use in the isiXhosa home language class. The previous chapters presented research insights into the genre-based approach and its underlying systemic functional linguistics theory for isiXhosa history texts. In chapters Two and Three the discussion focused on the theoretical underpinnings of the genre-based approach, systemic functional linguistics, and the linguistic features exemplified in the texts analysed. In chapter Four, the application of these theories was demonstrated using two selected texts, translated into isiXhosa, from the Grade 11 History textbook. In chapter Five a model answer in isiXhosa of an essay question from the assessment paper of Grade 11 was analysed. The analysis of all the history texts in isiXhosa done in the study was in line with Christie and Derewianka's (2008) view of the functional model of language.

The conclusions outlined below are based on the analysis of the three texts and the theoretical underpinnings of the genre-based approach developed from systemic functional linguistics. Finally, I consider recommendations to address the need to have content subject texts available in the isiXhosa home language (HL) subject, for the teaching and learning of genres in English and isiXhosa across the curriculum. The final remarks in this chapter, concern recommendations that address the literacy and language development by the genre-based approach as it emerged from systemic functional linguistics.

The findings presented in this study are based on the following research questions which were stated in chapter one:

1.   What role or benefit does the genre approach have in literacy and language development, specifically writing, to learners in both isiXhosa home language and History subject classes?

2.   How will the teaching and learning strategies employed in the genre approach assist teachers in facilitating the writing development of learners?

3.   What types of genres are learners expected to master in the History content subject?

4.   What resources are available to enhance learners' understanding of different types of texts in terms of properties of systemic functional linguistics in language literacy skills (writing) in both isiXhosa home language subject and History?

5.   What kind of literacy support do teachers need to implement the subject content and methodology expected of them by the Curriculum Assessment and Policy Statement (CAPS) curriculum?

6.   How can the specifications stated in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement be utilised to facilitate learning and teaching through genre teaching?

6.2   FINDINGS

The research conducted in this thesis presents the following findings with regard to the six research questions posed in chapter One.

In regard to question 1, the analysis of the text in isiXhosa, demonstrated the genre features in the History texts for example of a biographical recount. This means that learners can be taught the features of the genre and the language systems in their home language, isiXhosa, in which they best, comprehend and conceptualise concepts.

In regard to question 2, the study argued that, teachers could use the translated isiXhosa texts and model answer for implementing the strategies of the teaching and learning cycle, discussed in section 2.5.1 and for the application of Vygotsky's notion of the Zone of proximal development (ZPD) to facilitate the writing development of learners.

In regard to question 3, the study demonstrated that hybrid forms of genres occur that learners need to be taught in History. For example, narratives, historical recounts, historical accounts and exposition are genres that learners are expected to master through their schooling years.

In regard to question 4, the study gave evidence that resources such as textbooks, magazines and newspapers are available and supported for use by CAPS. Since, the present available resources or materials are in English, there is a need to translate such materials to isiXhosa to benefit the learners who are home language speakers of the isiXhosa language.

In regard to question 5, the study indicated that the South African CAPS has the aim of assisting educators with planning and teaching. It is explicit about the type (s) of texts that learners need to engage with across the school phases. Thus, teachers have the support of the curriculum and of successful research results from countries where the genre-based approach as it developed from SFL has been implemented successfully.

In regard to question 6, the study explored the specifications which are phase specific, indicating that they guide educators concerning the types and number of genres to which learners need to be exposed. The specifications assist to ensure progression of genres learnt across the phases of schooling.

The findings presented here, based on the three texts analysed in chapters Four and Five, indicate that the genre-based approach can play a significant role in the improvement of literacy and language development in secondary school. The most important aspect is the explicit teaching of lexical and grammatical language properties which are required for effective writing of different texts. IsiXhosa is a very different language to English in respect to the linguistic resources used in producing texts. It is easier for learners to identify the aims and the objectives of the written history texts, if there is support through the teaching and learning of genre texts in isiXhosa, their home language.

The segments of history genres and the isiXhosa language resources formed the core of the analysis presented in this study. The language metafunctions described by Halliday (1978) have been applied to all three isiXhosa texts. The language metafunction that was used least is the interpersonal metafunction invoking appraisal

and graduation. The contributing factor to the minimal use of graduation may relate to the fact that the selected texts were mostly narrating past events, hence the views of the writer were limited or did not appear at all.

In South Africa with its multilingual population learners' participation can be enhanced through the use of bilingual history texts in an African language and English, the educational lingua franca. The South African Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement and the language-in-education policy promote the use of bilingual texts, the use of languages across the curriculum, and the use of different kinds of texts from different sources. Explicit teaching of lexical and grammatical properties is also promoted through the use of bilingual texts because it affords educators and learners the opportunity to explore and analyse texts in their home language, isiXhosa, the concern of this study, and in English, their second/additional language.

6.2.1 The educational implications of the genre-based approach

The genre-based approach to literacy and language teaching is based on the explicit teaching of language within context, assuming the relationship between the context and language is demonstrated in a text form. This approach provides teachers with the linguistic resources for explicit language teaching and learning. The research questions formulated for this study demonstrated the significance of the genre-based approach to literacy and language teaching for Grade 11 learners through the analysis of History texts translated into isiXhosa. IsiXhosa in this study was used, assuming it is a home language of learners. English, on the other hand, is officially the language through which History as a content subject is taught in South Africa, and is also an additional language of the learners who have an African language, like isiXhosa, as home language. The generic structure of content subject history texts is generally applicable in isiXhosa texts as well. The benefit of applying the genre-based approach and SFL for History texts, translated for the isiXhosa home language class, constitutes the main concern of this study. The use of bilingual English and isiXhosa teaching in this context can assist learners in understanding and writing history, which is mainly taught in English because it is mainly the language of teaching and learning of content subjects in South Africa in schools that (predominantly) have learners whose home language is an African language, such as isiXhosa.

The genre-based model theorises language in terms of the relationship between the meanings expressed in a particular context and the linguistic resources which realize those meanings (Christie and Derewianka, 2008:6-7). The model considers the linguistic elements relating to the role that the context and the language use plays in writing and in the analysis of written texts. The context is viewed at two levels, namely that of culture and that of situation, respectively. Genres are represented as social processes constructed to achieve a certain purpose of written texts within a specific culture. The cultural context represented within systemic functional linguistics is regarded as having a fundamental role in shaping meanings (Coffin, 2006: 27). The context of the situation demonstrates the register as a particular outline of the field, tenor and mode. The language is demonstrated through the use of the resources available in the language system which is classified into the three metafunctions discussed in Chapters Two and Three, respectively, i.e. the ideational, textual and interpersonal metafunctions.

In this study of genre-based text analysis of History texts in isiXhosa, Halliday's (1978) SFL theory and other genre study researchers' views in the field of linguistics were employed. The theory demonstrated its significance for the holistic analysis of texts. The detailed analysis of history texts which were translated into isiXhosa was presented to demonstrate how genre pedagogy based on systemic functional linguistics can be utilized for isiXhosa literacy and language teaching. Gouveia (2006), cited in Whittaker et.al., asserts that the genre- based approach to language teaching is not a way to design or develop and implement a school curriculum, but it is a response to changing views of language and language learning. This study indicated that by using isiXhosa History texts to expose isiXhosa home language learners in genres can contribute to develop the materials and to change views about the role of home language in education. The home language plays an important role in the cognitive development and in the transference of skills, from the known the HL language to the new or language of teaching and learning, which is English in this regard.

The use of isiXhosa history texts and the model answer from the Grade 11 assessment paper demonstrated how explicit teaching of linguistic properties can enhanced the learners' understanding of the History genres that they need to master. With regard to the genre-based analysis of the isiXhosa language resources, it was

demonstrated that the genre-based approach makes it possible for teachers to teach texts for content subjects analysed according to specific genres.

The analysis and the classification of the selected texts is in chapters Four and Five were done with respect to Feez and Joyce's (1998) and Coffin's (2006) proposals about the typical generic structures and language components are used in the writing of content subject genres such as historical recounts. This was displayed through the identification of the features of the generic stages embedded in the particular texts analysed.

The generic features of a *historical recount* were identified for the isiXhosa texts in the classification of the genre. The *historical recount* genre has the various stage features: The *background* is the stage that gives the summary of prior historical events that were significant. The *record of events* is the stage where events were recorded as they unfolded in the texts. The *deduction stage* is the stage that the historical significance of all the recorded events is explained (Coffin, 2006:27-28). The typical language features for historical recounts, as proposed by Feez and Joyce (1998) include the use of past tense, third person narration, the use of time phrases to signify the beginning, middle and the end.

Learners who can explain different types of texts (genres), in terms of their linguistic features, which include the generic structure and language resources employed, have an understanding of the features of the genre-based linguistic analysis of content subject texts. The study also aimed to invoke the resources of the isiXhosa language system that were discussed in Chapter Three and to demonstrate in Chapter Four the analysis of three isiXhosa history texts. In Chapter Three the knowledge of language and isiXhosa grammar in genre pedagogy based on systemic functional linguistics was explored. Chapter Three demonstrated the role of the knowledge of language and grammar in the linguistic analysis of the isiXhosa language system involved in writing. The generic structure of genre types in history was discussed. The study focused on the role that the functional model of language plays in meaning-making, using the resources of the isiXhosa language system. The functional model's language system is made up of the three metafunctions. Each metafunction is concerned with a different role that language plays in meaning-making. The metafunctions represent the relationship between the three meanings of

genre analysis, namely the ideational, textual and interpersonal metafunctions. Each metafunction is concerned with meaning at the clause or beyond the clause level.

Chapter Four presented a discussion on the analysis of texts employing the theoretical elements discussed in both Chapters Two and Three. Three history texts in isiXhosa (texts A, B and C) were used for the analysis. Two of the three texts (A and B) were analysed in Chapter four and one text (C) was analysed in Chapter Five. Texts A and B were both extracted from longer texts in the Grade 11 History text book, while text C represented model answers, answered and written in isiXhosa by Grade 11 history educators. The following texts were examined and analysed in the study:

- **Text A: Uqhankqalazo luka 1905** (Revolution of 1905).
- **Text B: Ukusekwa koBuzwe** (Origins of Nationalism)
- **Text C: The analysis of a model answer of an essay question in the history assessment paper Grade 11 (2013)**

The genres analysed in this study demonstrated how the texts in isiXhosa can be used as a resource in the home language class, taking into account the social purpose of texts. The use of texts in the teaching of isiXhosa home language constitutes one of the ways promoted in this study in the advancement of bilingualism, in that the texts can be made available in two languages for the purpose of teaching and learning. The isiXhosa content subject texts can be used in the home language classroom while both English and isiXhosa can be used in the history subject classroom for the purpose of bilingual teaching and learning.

The relationship between the views advanced in this study and its significance to the teaching of writing is confirmed in the South African Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) document. The CAPS curriculum promotes the use of language as a tool for learning across the curriculum. The CAPS Further Education and Training (FET) Grade 10-12 (2011:13) stated that:

> Language is a tool for thought and communication. It is also a cultural and aesthetic means commonly shared among a people to make better sense of the world in which they live. Learning to use language effectively enables learners to acquire knowledge, to express their identity, feelings and ideas, to interact with others, and to manage their world. It also provides learners with a

rich, powerful and deeply rooted set of images and ideas that can be used to make their world other than it is; better and clearer than it is. It is through language that cultural diversity and social relations are expressed and constructed, and it is through language that such constructions can be altered, broadened and refined.

The discussion of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) illustrate how genre-based theoretical underpinnings can play a role in the development of writing skills of learners and the educators. The ability of the isiXhosa home language teachers in applying relevant and effective writing instruction is particularly important for the guidance and support of learners. Learners need to receive guided teaching to achieve an independent stage where they are able to apply critical analysis of their own writing. This means that when learners are exposed to teaching methods that consider texts holistically and critically, their writing will develop effectively. The learners will, therefore, be able to question and critique the text based on the context and the language resources used in these texts. They will also be able to question the purpose of the text and the audience that the texts are written for.

In the South African Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), text (or genre) based teaching, including the use of a variety of texts from different languages and subjects, is promoted. This curriculum further states that it is important for learners to recognise how genre and register reflect the purpose, audience and context of texts. The use of the language system as a tool to enrich teaching and learning is also emphasized. Teachers of both languages, in the case assumed in this study, isiXhosa and English need to be equipped to use in an accountable way these two languages. IsiXhosa home language speakers can purposefully engage with content subject texts in their home language. This will assist the learners in the mastery of academic literacy skills. Their cognitive-academic skills that are essential for understanding other subjects, like the content subject of history, can develop effectively. Hence it is stated by the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement for Further Education and Training (CAPS FET) (2011:14) Grade 10-12 document that, at the Home language level, the emphasis is on the teaching of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. The explicit teaching of these skills will empower learners in functioning in their immediate social and academic surroundings and beyond. Therefore, learners who have been taught through genre-based teaching to read texts will be equipped for academic success. These genre-based linguistic skills will

enable learners, in their learning of both languages and content subjects, to explain phenomena, to report on events, to describe, to entertain, and to explain the stance that they take in the texts, that is, in expositions.

6.3   RECOMMENDATIONS

In light of the findings discussed above, the following general recommendations are suggested:

The teacher's role of imparting knowledge to learners needs to be supported by the Department of Education (DoE) on ongoing bases to ensure the continuity in the implementation of CAPS. The Department of Education promotes collaborations between schools to enhance language and teaching strategies. Hence, the need to put measures in place like the implementation of strategies such as the Literacy and Numeracy strategies (LitNum) which aims to improve the performance of learners in academic literacy (reading and writing) and in numeracy.

This study makes the following specific recommendations:

- The successful implementation of the CAPS, and the genre- based approach including systemic functional linguistics strategies are dependent on teacher training (isiXhosa and English) and the support from the departmental officials at national and local levels in South Africa;
- The Department of Education and all sectors that produce teaching and learning resources need to liaise with each other and discuss with educators, the need to have bilingual texts, representing a variety of genres;
- Teachers and language practitioners who translate texts to the home language of learners (isiXhosa) need to get incentives to work harder and produce quality texts. This would mean that they are responding positively to the changing views on bilingual language education.

6.4   PROSPECTS OF FURTHER RESEARCH

The genre-based approach to academic literacy and language teaching is recommended as an effective approach to be used across the curriculum and across the school phases. This study limited its focus to the two subjects, History and isiXhosa home language. Future research for the South African context, in particular for the African languages, can focus in other content subjects like, Sciences,

Geography. Such research will add value to the standard and the development of African languages in the area of genre-based teaching and learning.

6.5   CONCLUSION

The genre-based approach to literacy and language development requires a detailed analysis of language, a theory of context, the relationship between context and language. It is a systemic approach to language learning and teaching, having evolved alongside the systemic functional linguistic theory (Gouveia 2006: 186). The genre-based approach embedded in SFL is an effective approach for teaching literacy and language development at the school levels and beyond. Through the use of approaches such as the genre-based approach learners can be equipped with the competence to learn through their home language and acquire knowledge needed for being able to analyse and classify academic texts effectively in English, their second (or additional) language.

The genre-based approach was successful in improving academic literacy development in countries like Australia where it was initially implemented. This approach informed the South African Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), but considerable work remains in comprehending and implementing the aims and objectives of the approach. The South African Department of Basic education needs to put measures in place to support the South African Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement. Teacher trainers also need to understand the properties of genre and its relevance to the curriculum. Educators in the home language should explicitly use language as a tool to support the bilingual teaching and learning of content subjects. The department of education has a role to play in encouraging parents, teachers and learners through advocacy campaigns to insist on the use of their home languages in education. The DoE needs to emphasise that the South African Constitution and the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) support bilingualism and multilingualism in education. It is, therefore, in terms of linguistic rights that the use of African languages in education it should be promoted.

Finally, the study has provided reasons to support the view that isiXhosa home language learners and teachers can successfully use isiXhosa as a language of learning and teaching in conjunction with English in a bilingual history class. The arguments of the importance of focus on systemic functional linguistic which

underpins genre is significant for the promotion of African languages as languages of teaching and learning in South Africa, in all grades of schooling. It is against this background that this study supports and encourages the use of the genre-based approach to support bilingual teaching and learning in content subjects and the promotion of writing in African languages across the curriculum throughout the years of schooling.

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