



Primary Teachers' Diploma

# Language Module Three

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**Literacy and Language Education Departments**

Prepared by Universities and Colleges of Education in Collaboration with the Ministry of Education,  
Directorate of Teacher Education and Specialised Services, Republic of Zambia



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I remain optimistic that these modules will be helpful to all teacher educators and student teachers in colleges of education and will contribute to improved learning outcomes for learners in Zambian schools.



Mr. Ngosa Kotati

Director Teacher Education and Specialised Services

Ministry of Education

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# Icons in this Module

Icons in this module were developed to visually separate different sections within each chapter of the module and for the reader to easily understand the function of the different sections.

Below are the icons and their meanings.



## **Learning outcomes**

This icon notes the learning outcomes for each chapter.



## **Key terms**

This icon notes the chapter key terms and definitions.



## **Assessment of learning**

This icon notes where there is an assessment of learning for the chapter.



## **Activity**

This icon notes where there is an activity within the chapter.



## **Sample text**

This icon notes where sample text has been included in the chapter.



## **Teacher educator guidance**

This icon notes where additional guidance is included for teacher educators.



## ACTIVITY ICONS

Icons also appear alongside activities in each chapter as a way to signal to the reader the nature of the work involved. All activities should have at least one icon; some activities may have more than icon if multiple stages are involved.

Below are the activity icons and their meanings.



### **Lecturer-led**

This icon notes the activity includes discussion or demonstration led by a lecturer.



### **Small group**

This icon notes the activity requires student teachers to work in small groups.



### **Pairs**

This icon notes the activity requires student teachers to work together in pairs.



### **Independent**

This icon notes the activity requires student teachers to work independently.



### **Written response**

This icon notes the activity requires student teachers to provide a written response.



### **Homework**

This icon notes the activity includes tasks to be completed outside of class.



### **Technology**

This icon notes the activity includes an opportunity to use technology.



### **Higher order thinking**

This icon notes the activity includes an opportunity to use higher-order thinking.



### **Review and connect**

This icon notes the activity includes an opportunity to review previously learnt information and connect it to new information.

## **PREFACE**

**Dear teacher educators and student teachers,**

I present to you the six course modules that have been developed to assist you in the teaching of literacy and language at college level. These modules have been developed to address the perennial challenges of learning resources for students and lecturers at college level. A major challenge particularly at pre-service level has been insufficient teaching and learning materials.

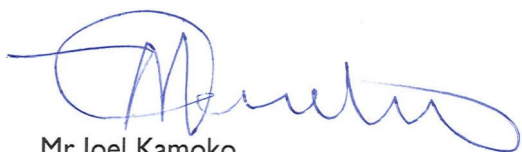
Recent research across Zambia by the Ministry of Education has revealed that while primary school completion rates are increasing (Ministry of General Education 2017), literacy skills of children in lower primary school continue to be low. In fact, the Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA) administered in five provinces in 2021 revealed a decrease in learners' performance in initial reading skills and higher-level reading skills since 2018 (USAID April 2022). With regards to initial reading skills, the study revealed that performance has decreased in oral reading fluency, reading comprehension, listening comprehension, letter sound identification, syllable sound identification, and non-word reading. These findings indicate that reduced performance in initial reading skills has adversely affected performance in higher-level reading skills, evidenced by decreases in average scores for oral reading fluency and reading comprehension since 2018.

One of the factors contributing to these issues is the quality and availability of teaching and learning materials in institutions that offer pre-service teacher education programmes. Based on these findings, the Ministry of Education, with support from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), decided to focus on improving the materials and learning resources available in colleges and universities that train primary teachers.

These modules were written by teams consisting of lecturers from the University of Zambia, Chalimbana University, and colleges of education, with support from staff of the USAID Transforming Teacher Education Activity. The modules are based on the current knowledge about evidence-based approaches to early grade reading and primary grades teaching practices. The modules are freely available and may be shared electronically and produced as needed by institutions.

I urge you all to make use of these modules to improve teaching of all literacy and language education courses in the pre-service primary teacher diploma programmes nationwide. As a teacher educator and teacher myself, I wish you the best in your careers in education as we all strive for excellence in the learning outcomes of our learners in all our Zambian schools.

Best regards,



Mr Joel Kamoko

Permanent Secretary Education Services

Ministry of Education



# Module Learning Outcomes

## CHAPTER 1

**By the end, the student teacher will:**

- 1 define grammar.
- 2 explain the purposes of descriptive and prescriptive teaching of language structure.
- 3 outline the similarities and differences between teaching of language structure in first languages compared with second or foreign language.
- 4 determine how contextualisation is helpful in language teaching.
- 5 describe the four principles of first language teaching.
- 6 explain the knowledge of grammar's relevance and importance to language and literacy.

## CHAPTER 2

**National Syllabus topics & outcomes:**

<b>2.2.2</b> Peer Teaching <b>2.2.2.1</b> Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons	<b>2.3.2</b> Pronouns <b>2.3.2.1</b> Identify and use pronouns <b>2.3.2.2</b> Identify antecedents of pronouns in a sentence
<b>2.3.1</b> Parts of Speech <b>2.3.1.1</b> Demonstrate understanding of all parts of speech in both Zambian languages and English	<b>2.3.5</b> Adjectives <b>2.3.5.1</b> Recognise and use adjectives <b>2.3.5.2</b> Use adjectives to compare objects <b>2.3.5.3</b> Identify and use adjectives to compare more than two objects <b>2.3.5.4</b> Use adjectives to qualify nouns
<b>2.3.2</b> Nouns <b>2.3.2.1</b> Identify and use different types of nouns <b>2.3.1.2</b> Change irregular nouns from singular to plural <b>2.3.1.3</b> Write singular and plural forms of regular and irregular nouns <b>2.3.1.4</b> List nouns according to noun prefixes <b>2.3.1.5</b> Make nouns from verbs	<b>2.3.6</b> Prepositions <b>2.3.6.1</b> Explain the purpose of prepositions in sentences  <b>2.3.14</b> Articles and Determiners <b>2.3.14.1</b> Identify and use articles and determiners correctly.

**By the end, the student teacher will:**

- 1 explain the form and function of nouns, pronouns, adjectives, numerals, locatives, demonstratives, and prepositions of Bantu nouns,
- 2 explain the form and function of nouns, pronouns, adjectives, numerals, demonstratives, prepositions, and determiners of English nouns.
- 3 identify and use nominal parts of speech correctly.
- 4 determine the similarities and differences between Bantu and English parts of speech.
- 5 demonstrate understanding of how nominal parts of speech are taught.
- 6 demonstrate understanding of how nominal parts of speech are assessed.
- 7 apply their understanding of the nominal parts of speech to the development and demonstration of a peer teaching lesson.

## CHAPTER 3

### National Syllabus topics & outcomes:

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <p><b>2.2.2</b> Peer Teaching<br/><b>2.2.2.1</b> Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons</p> <p><b>2.3.1</b> Parts of Speech<br/><b>2.3.1.1</b> Demonstrate understanding of all parts of speech in Zambian languages and English</p> <p><b>2.3.3</b> Verbs<br/><b>2.3.3.1</b> Recognise and use different types of verbs<br/><b>2.3.3.2</b> Identify and use interrogative forms of verbs</p> <p><b>2.3.4</b> Adverbs<br/><b>2.3.4.1</b> Recognise and use adverbs<br/><b>2.3.4.2</b> Use adverbs to qualify verbs in sentences</p> | <p><b>2.3.4.3</b> Recognise and use adverbs of manner, time, quality, frequency, and place<br/><b>2.3.4.4</b> Use other adverbs to modify other verbs</p> <p><b>2.3.7</b> Conjunctions<br/><b>2.3.7.1</b> Use conjunctions to connect sentences</p> <p><b>2.3.8</b> Interjections<br/><b>2.3.8.1</b> Explain the use of interjections in communication</p> <p><b>2.3.11</b> Concord Agreement<br/><b>2.3.11.1</b> Demonstrate concord agreement appropriately in sentences</p> |
|--|--|

### By the end, the student teacher will:

- 1 explain the form and function of verbs in both English and Bantu languages,
- 2 identify and use verbs in English and Bantu languages correctly.
- 3 describe other parts of speech.
- 4 demonstrate understanding of how verbal parts of speech are taught.
- 5 demonstrate understanding of how verbal parts of speech are assessed.
- 6 apply their understanding of verbal parts of speech through the development and demonstration of a peer teaching lesson.

## CHAPTER 4

### National Syllabus topics & outcomes:

- 2.2.2** Peer Teaching  
**2.2.2.1** Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons

### By the end, the student teacher will:

- 1 identify and use different types of phrases, clauses, and sentences in Zambian languages and English.
- 2 distinguish between questions, statements, commands, and exclamations in Zambian languages and English.
- 3 demonstrate understanding of how syntax is taught in Zambian languages and English.
- 4 demonstrate understanding of how syntax is assessed in Zambian languages and English.
- 5 apply their understanding of syntax through the development and demonstration of a peer teaching lesson.

## CHAPTER 5

### National Syllabus topics & outcomes:

#### 2.2.2 Peer Teaching

##### 2.2.2.1 Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons

### By the end, the student teacher will:

- 1 identify and use the various ways of expressing concepts in Zambian languages and English correctly.
- 2 demonstrate understanding of how to teach concepts in Zambian languages and English.
- 3 explain how to assess the expression of concepts in Zambian languages and English.
- 4 apply their understanding of language concepts through the development and demonstration of a peer teaching lesson.

## CHAPTER 6

### National Syllabus topics & outcomes:

#### 2.2.2 Peer Teaching

##### 2.2.2.1 Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons

#### 2.3.9

#### Direct or Indirect Speech

##### 2.3.9.1 Direct or indirect speech

### By the end, the student teacher will:

- 1 explain the differences between direct speech and indirect speech.
- 2 classify speech as direct speech or indirect speech.
- 3 explain how to punctuate direct and indirect speech correctly.
- 4 change direct speech to indirect speech.
- 5 assess direct or indirect speech.
- 6 demonstrate understanding of how direct and indirect speech are taught.
- 7 design a peer lesson demonstration to teach indirect and direct speech.

## CHAPTER 7

### National Syllabus topics & outcomes:

#### 2.2.2 Peer Teaching

##### 2.2.2.1 Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons

##### 3.10.2.1 Translate words, sentences, and short paragraphs from a Zambian language into English and vice versa.

### By the end, the student teacher will:

- 1 define translation.
- 2 demonstrate understanding of the importance of translation to language and literacy teaching.
- 3 demonstrate understanding of how translation is taught.
- 4 demonstrate understanding of how to assess learners' translation skills.
- 5 apply their understanding of translation to the development and demonstration of a peer teaching lesson.

## CHAPTER 8

### National Syllabus topics & outcomes:

#### 2.1.11 Meaning of Approaches, Methods, and Techniques

#### By the end of this chapter, the student teacher will:

- 1 define learner-centred pedagogy.
- 2 demonstrate understanding of the characteristics of learner-centred pedagogy.
- 3 explain the myths associated with learner-centred pedagogy.
- 4 compare and contrast learner-centred pedagogy with teacher-centred pedagogy.
- 5 justify why learner-centred pedagogical practices are effective in the language and literacy classroom.
- 6 develop a learner-centred lesson.
- 7 deliver a learner-centred lesson to peers.

## CHAPTER 9

### National Syllabus topics & outcomes:

#### 2.2.1 Preparation and Planning to Teach Languages

**2.2.1.1** Discuss the importance of planning and preparation in teaching language

**2.2.1.2** Describe the Zambian Education Curriculum Framework (ZECF)

**2.2.1.3** Discuss the use of the school syllabus, schemes of work, weekly forecasts, and lesson plans

**2.2.1.4** Prepare the schemes of work, weekly forecasts, records of work, and lesson plans

#### By the end, the student teacher will:

- 1 discuss the importance of planning and preparation in teaching language.
- 2 describe the Zambian Education Curriculum Framework (ZECF).
- 3 briefly describe the National Literacy Framework.
- 4 discuss the use of the school syllabus, schemes of work, weekly forecasts, and lesson plans.
- 5 prepare a scheme of work, weekly forecast, record of work, and a lesson plan.
- 6 determine how they can apply principles of planning and preparation to their future classroom.



Chapter 1 of Language Module III

# Principles of First Language or Familiar Language Teaching

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# Principles of First or Familiar Language Teaching

## INTRODUCTION

In previous modules, student teachers have learnt about various topics related to first language (L1) and second or foreign language (L2) teaching. Those modules covered topics such as the branches of linguistics, levels of linguistic analysis, Zambian orthography, and some of the most common methods of language teaching. Language Module III concentrates on how Zambian languages—Bemba, Lozi, Nyanja, Kaonde, Luvale, Tonga, and Lunda—are taught. Student teachers will learn how to teach parts of speech and syntax, how to express concepts, how to explain direct and indirect speech, and how translation is used. They will also revisit one of the central components of any primary teacher's classroom: learner-centred teaching.

This first chapter describes how grammar is defined and understood throughout the module, discusses descriptive teaching and prescriptive teaching as two of the main types of L1 teaching, and highlights some of the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 teaching. Finally, it outlines the four principles of L1 teaching that guide the approach of this module, including the importance of teaching L1 grammar.



## 1.1

# Learning outcomes

**By the end of this chapter, the student teacher will:**

- 1 define grammar.
- 2 explain the purposes of descriptive and prescriptive teaching of language structure.
- 3 outline the similarities and differences between teaching of language structure in first languages compared with second, or foreign, language.
- 4 determine how contextualisation is helpful in language teaching.
- 5 describe the four principles of first language teaching.
- 6 explain the knowledge of grammar's relevance and importance to language and literacy.

## Teacher educator's note



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*Learning outcomes should be introduced to student teachers before you begin teaching the lesson's content. Student teachers should understand what is required of them throughout each chapter. Each time you present the content in the chapter, emphasise the learning outcomes that are the lesson's focus.*

*If student teachers have a copy of the student module edition, they may review student outcomes with you. If student teachers do not have a copy, make sure to visually present the learning outcomes to them (e.g. chalkboard). Be prepared to make accommodations for learners with special educational needs.*

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# Instructional materials

- Teacher educator module
- Teacher educator curated materials
- Student module

## Teacher educator's note



*Review materials and be prepared to make accommodations for students with special educational needs.*

*Materials. Review the chapter thoroughly to decide if there are any materials that you have or may find useful to the presentation of the information. Student teachers will need any materials that require application in this chapter.*

*They will also be asked to develop and deliver their own lesson to their peers. Make sure that you are prepared with all materials to help them with this.*

*Students with special educational needs: Before presenting the content in the chapter, make sure you are aware of any accommodations that you may need to make for students with special needs. Depending on the needs of your student teachers, some common accommodations are:*

- *Familiarise yourself with appropriate terms (e.g. 'disability', not 'handicap'; 'deaf', not 'hearing impaired')*
- *Repeat and vary explanations*
- *Ask for clarification of understanding*
- *Create audio-recordings of lectures and course materials*
- *Request Zambian Sign Language interpreters (ideally two per lecture)*
- *Request notetakers*
- *Allow additional time to complete coursework*
- *Include verbal descriptions of visual aids in lecture*
- *Designate front or centre row seating (closest to you) for low vision/hearing learners*
- *Designate appropriate seating for those with physical disabilities to manoeuvre into and out of seats*
- *Face those with low vision/hearing during lecture (do not turn your back to them)*
- *Utilise Universal Design Learning pedagogy*
- *Utilise Eclectic Teaching pedagogy*
- *Increase wait time when asking questions*
- *Increase communication (e.g. e-mail check-ins, office hours, etc)*
- *Translanguage*



## Key terms

### **Descriptive teaching**

An approach to teaching a language as it is used by people without value judgements.

### **Diachronic description**

Changes in language over time. Diachronic analysis can focus on the general evolution of all languages or the evolution of a particular language or dialect.

### **First language teaching**

Teaching of a language that was acquired first. Also called the mother tongue.

### **Foreign language teaching**

Teaching of a language not commonly spoken in the speaker's country.

### **Grammar**

Rules that govern how words combine to form sentences, including morphology and syntax.

### **Prescriptive teaching**

Teaching of a language where learners follow the rules of what is considered to be the 'best way' of using a language. It does not usually use a synchronic study of how a language is actually used.

### **Pedagogical grammar**

Grammar designed to be used in language teaching.

### **Received pronunciation**

The dialect used as a standard for English in the United Kingdom. The language used in academic institutions.

### **Second language teaching**

The formal teaching of either a language acquired after the first language or a foreign language used as an official language in a country, such as English in Zambia.

### **Synchronic description**

An account of a language's structure at present or at a specific moment in the past without considering its historical changes.

### **Theoretical grammar**

The knowledge of a language itself and how people acquire this knowledge.



*Review key terms. You may introduce the key terms together, but make sure to highlight which ones are the focus of each lesson. It is helpful to visually display the key terms (e.g. on the chalkboard) for each class session so that student teachers can refer to them throughout the lesson as needed.*

### Activity 1

**Learning outcomes: 1, 3, & 6**



*Teacher educator's note: Help student teachers connect their prior knowledge or experience with the content.*

Anticipation Guide:

1. Have student teachers read the statements below independently and indicate whether they feel the statement is true or false
2. Explain to student teachers that they will find evidence for whether each statement is true or false during the chapter
3. At the end of the chapter, they will revisit the anticipation guide and decide whether they still agree with their first response
4. If student teachers have a student module, they can complete the chart in their book. If not, display the chart so that student teachers may copy it into their notebooks

Statement	Before: T/F	After: T/F
1. Grammar can be defined as the study of the rules of language and how words are combined into sentences.		
2. Prescriptive language teaching differs from descriptive language teaching because it does not prioritise the standard variety of a language.		
3. The substandard variety of English is referred to as received pronunciation.		
4. Although there are differences between L1 and L2 teaching, these differences do not impact teaching and learning.		
5. One reason to teach the grammar of a L1 is that it may lead to improvements in learners' writing and speaking skills.		

# Descriptive and prescriptive teaching of grammar

## 1.4.1 Defining grammar

Language Modules I and II discussed grammar in relation to theories of language or specific rules of how a language is used. Grammar is understood in various ways (Crystal, 2008). Some people define grammar as everything about language: phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams (2019), for example, define grammar as ‘a speaker’s linguistic competence; what a speaker knows about a language, including phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and lexicon’ (pp. 489). Other scholars restrict grammar to studying how words are combined into sentences and the rules governing this (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992).

### Teacher educator’s note

*Student teachers should have a strong grasp of what phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics are from earlier modules. Still, you may find it helpful to review these terms with them. They may not remember that lexicon is another word for vocabulary.*

This chapter uses the later definition, dealing with grammar in both English and Zambian languages as a means of morphology and syntax.

It is useful to consider the grammar of agglutinative languages, like Zambian languages. In agglutinative languages, most word categories consist of more than one morpheme expressing different meanings or grammatical functions. Verbs in Bantu languages, for example, can be full clauses or sentences. In this case, the difference between morphology and syntax disappears because a word functions as a sentence—hence, a syntactic category.

### Teacher Educator’s Note

*Recall that in chapter 5 of Language Module I, student teachers learnt that Bantu languages were not only agglutinative but also synthetic. This means that they have complex word structures in which two or more morphemes are strung together and that words can be a sentence.*

There are two other types of grammar—theoretical grammar and pedagogical grammar. Theoretical grammar is concerned with the nature of the knowledge of language itself and how people acquire this knowledge of language. Pedagogical grammar is designed for teaching purposes. In this chapter, student teachers will gain insights into how both theoretical and pedagogical grammar apply to teaching and learning different aspects of English and Zambian languages. Below is a brief discussion of how grammar can be approached in teaching.

### 1.4.2 Descriptive teaching of language structure

Descriptive teaching of language structure refers to the teaching of language without value judgements, that is, without saying which way of using language is better (Al-Rushaidi, 2020). In linguistics, the description of the structure of a language as it is used at a specific time is called a synchronic description of language. This is in opposition to teaching how language has evolved or changed over time, which is called a diachronic description of language (Crystal, 2008). For the purposes of this module, student teachers should think of language from a diachronic perspective. Language is dynamic or in flux; however, there are instances where changes are not acceptable to most language users. This leads to language being categorised as standard or non-standard.

#### Teacher educator's note

*You may want to point out to student teachers the root words in synchronic and diachronic.*

*Syn + chron = together + time, so happening at the same time*

*Dia + chron = through + time, so refers to changes over time*

In descriptive teaching, teachers should consider both the standard and non-standard varieties of language used in their community to avoid stigmatising learners. The teacher should help learners speaking 'substandard' or 'non-standard' dialects to use the standard ones. It is also important to recognise that some languages in Zambia have different varieties. For example, Nyanja and Bemba are used in rural and urban contexts; the rural dialect is commonly considered the standard variety, while the urban variation is seen as non-standard. This also applies to English, where the standard variety of English is called received pronunciation. However, other varieties are spoken in England and considered non-standard. In teaching English descriptively, one would be concerned with the language that is standardly accepted by most users of English to ensure that effective communication occurs.

#### Activity 2

#### Learning outcome: 2



*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

1. Pair student teachers together to brainstorm examples of the differences between urban and rural varieties of some Zambian languages and make a list of expressions to support their responses.
2. Ask some volunteers to share their responses. Try to include as many Zambian languages as possible in the discussion. Consider drawing a chart on the board to record student teachers' responses pertaining to each language represented.
3. Bring closure to the discussion by asking student teachers:
  - Why is it important for student teachers to know the differences between urban and rural varieties of Zambian languages?  
*Sample Response: The standard form is usually the rural one they need to know as this is the one that features in examinations later in the system and is the language in books.*

- 
- What is descriptive language teaching's purpose in the classroom?  
*Sample Response: Learners can see the changes in the language when, for example, the dialect they are using in town is compared to the standard dialect.*
  - What are some examples of when a teacher would teach language descriptively?  
*Sample Response: When a teacher uses the discovery method, learners will start from what they know and what they know might be a substandard dialect. Nevertheless, the teacher can use this prior knowledge to demonstrate how they work out language problems.*
- 

### 1.4.3 Prescriptive teaching of language structure

Prescriptive teaching of language structure prioritises the language's standard form. Prescriptive grammar tells speakers 'how they should say something, what words to use, when they need to make a specific choice, and why they should do so' (DeCapua, 2017, pp. 10). In this case, rules of usage are prescribed, and learners are taught what is correct or valued.

In English, for example, one can hear speakers say: *This is the man I gave the book to*. However, purists consider this to be wrong, stating sentences should not end with prepositions. So, it should be said as: *This is the man to whom I gave the book*. Ideas like these were based on the study of Latin, in which sentences could not end in prepositions. Other languages were analysed the same way as Latin, although their grammar was not similar to Latin.

Similarly, as an example in Bemba, young people on the Copperbelt say: *imishishi ishitali* 'long hair'. However, standard Bemba would say *umushishi uutali* 'long hair'. Usually, the standard variety or what is prescribed is the variety used by the educated, powerful people or elites in a speech community. In recent times, however, language plays less of a role in individuals' success in society.

#### Activity 3

#### Learning outcome: 2



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*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

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#### Round Robin

1. Assign student teachers into groups of three or four. Ask them to provide examples of standard and non-standard expressions in Zambian languages and English by completing the chart.
    - a. If student teachers have their own module, they can complete the chart in their book. If not, they can draw their chart on notebook paper. It may be helpful to draw the chart on the board as an example.
  2. After student teachers complete their chart, have them discuss the following questions and then debrief as a whole group:
    - What is prescriptive language teaching's purpose in the classroom?
    - What are some examples of when a teacher would teach language prescriptively?
-

Zambian languages		English language	
Standard	Non-standard	Standard	Non-standard
		<i>Sample Response:</i> Yes Got to do Let me know	<i>Sample Response:</i> Yeah Gotta Lemme know

What is prescriptive language teaching's purpose in the classroom?

*Sample Response: To ensure that learners use only the standard dialect*

What are some examples of when a teacher would teach language prescriptively?

*Sample Response: In cases where some language forms might be considered, for example, as slang or even offensive, the teacher should explain the polite terms. Also, for the written language, the standard form should be preferred.*

## 1.5

# Comparing first language teaching and second language teaching

Children in Zambia start grade 1 when they are seven years old. At this age, they are already fluent speakers of their mother tongues, or first languages (L1). In many instances, learners' L1 will be the language of instruction (LOI) in the first four grades of primary school. For more information on L1 acquisition compared to L2 learning, please review Language Module I.

### Activity 4 >>>

**Learning outcome: 3**



*Teacher educator's note: Help student teachers connect previously taught information with new information.*

#### Think-Pair-Share

1. Ask student teachers to think about the question:
  - What are the similarities and differences between acquiring one's L1 and learning a L2 in school?
2. Pair student teachers together to share their responses with each other.
3. After student teachers have shared, explain to student teachers that this section highlights some of the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 teaching. This question will be revisited later in the chapter in activity 6.

All learners will acquire vocabulary and other aspects of their L1, like pragmatics, after starting school. Additionally, there can be differences in the quality of the language learners acquire at home. Some learners may have been exposed to non-standard forms of their L1, which may be considered unsuitable for a classroom. The classroom teacher plays a part in providing what is desirable in language use and can also assist with the learner's enculturation—helping children learn the norms, values, and customs of their culture usually transmitted through language.

Still, learners should be able to communicate most basic ideas quite adequately in their L1. The same is not true of English, which most learners meet in grade 2 as an oral course. This is particularly the case in rural communities where learners are unlikely to encounter English at home or in the community. This is not to say that learners may not know a few words of English. For instance, borrowed words may be incorporated into the phonology of their L1—terms for utensils 'spoon' and 'fork' may become *supuuni* or *fooloka*. Many Zambian learners will hear English spoken by the teacher for the first time in the classroom. It is a difficult task for these learners to learn English because it is not related to Zambian languages. Learners can reflect on the years they have been learning English and if they are as comfortable in it as in their Zambian language.

## 1.6

# Principles of first language teaching

Most L2 teaching methods assume that learners do not know the language being taught. However, learners do come to school with their L1 already acquired, providing a base of knowledge from which teachers may draw. In planning lessons, teachers can create activities that help learners discover things about their L1. Teachers will not teach learners how to speak the language but rather to become aware of how their language works. This simply means that the teacher should explicitly teach the structure of the learners' L1. When learners develop an awareness of how their languages work, they become more effective speakers and writers in that language.

Teachers should also know that the L1 is acquired in social contexts. Children learn the language as they communicate their desires and feelings with their caregivers. They 'learn how to mean', as Halliday (1975) puts it. Teaching must mirror this by making learners collaborate with friends and classmates. They will learn from each other as well as from the teacher.

Finally, the items being taught themselves also need context. Language is always used in context. Teaching isolated grammatical items without explaining how they function makes language artificial.

From this discussion arise four principles of L1 teaching:

1. Utilise learners' prior knowledge: As much as possible, lessons should start by eliciting the language items that learners already know. For example, a teacher can elicit names of objects in



the familiar language to get a list of nouns and then collaborate with learners to see how nouns are structured.

2. Help learners know how to learn: To ensure that learners have lasting and valuable knowledge of their languages, teachers should help learners discover how their languages work. One strategy is to use the inductive approach to teaching language items (as discussed in Language Module II). Instead of explaining that nouns consist of prefixes and stems, for example, make them compare singular to plural nouns to determine which part of the word indicates the singular and plural idea. For instance:

---

*muntu* [Kaonde]

'person' (singular)

---

*buntu* [Kaonde]

'people' (plural)

---



Careful questioning will help learners see that the two words only differ at the beginning: *mu* (singular) and *ba* (plural). Once learners learn this, they can apply the same thinking to other parts of speech, for instance adjectives with a similar structure to nouns (as discussed in chapter 2).

3. Learning should be conducted as a social activity: Learners should work in groups on various language tasks. When conducted socially, the language activity or experience is more engaging and purposeful. Furthermore, when learners have opportunities to use language with each other, they learn from each other and use language in more dynamic ways. For example, instead of individually completing a worksheet on the parts of a noun, learners can be grouped together where they compare a list of singular and plural noun pairs to determine how nouns are structured.
4. Teaching of language items should be contextualised: Teachers should not present language items in isolation. Grammar items, for example, may be extracted from a reading passage in the day's comprehension exercise. Teachers can draw attention to how the item is used in the text, and then the lesson proceeds with further examples. It is also possible to teach grammar through a listening and speaking lesson.

Exercises in the following chapters are designed to show how these principles can also be used at the college level. Learners will be required to work in groups, discover patterns or rules in their languages, and, importantly, draw upon their prior knowledge of their languages.

## Activity 5

Learning outcome: 4



---

*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

---

Pair student teachers together to read the two case studies below and answer the following questions. If student teachers do not have a student module, you need to provide a way for them to read the case studies. Consider printing or copying the text to distribute to student teachers. You could also group student teachers together instead of arranging them in pairs if resources are limited.

Case study 1: Teacher A was teaching a grade 2 class about verbs. He wrote a list of sentences on the board and asked a child to go to the board and underline an 'action' word. The learner underlined words. Some were verbs, and a few were nouns and adjectives. For each sentence, the teacher either accepted the answer or rejected it if it was incorrect. He gave the correct answer for each sentence.

Case study 2: Teacher B was also teaching a grade 2 class about verbs. Teacher B started by asking learner a number of questions to elicit verbs, or 'action words', about their daily routines: When do you wake up? What is the first thing you do when you wake up? What do you do after that? Teacher B then wrote the responses from learners on the board as a text about a learners' daily routine. After which, she asked learners to pick out the words that indicate the actions performed by the child (e.g. wake up, bath, brush, or clean). Teacher B used the words as a starting point for talking about the verb's different morphemes, such as subject markers.

- Which case study featured a teacher using a contextualised approach?  
*Sample Response: The second or teacher B, it starts from learners' experiences.*
  - How did contextualisation made it easier for learners to understand the parts of speech being taught?  
*Sample Response: Because what is being taught is related to what they did and the actions they performed.*
- 

## Activity 6

Learning outcomes: 3 & 5



---

*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

---

1. Alternate the questions between groups of student teachers so that each group takes one question.
    - a. If student teachers do not have a student module, write the questions on the board for reference. Otherwise, they can write their responses into their book.
  2. Student teachers should record their responses and be prepared to share them.
  3. Debrief as a group to close the activity. During this time, student teachers should also record answers to the question that was answered by other groups.
-

## Principles of First Language Teaching

What are the principles of teaching a first or familiar language?	What are the purposes of descriptive and prescriptive teaching of language structure?	What are the similarities and difference between first and second (or foreign) language teaching of language structure?
<i>Sample Response:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>▪ Use learners' prior knowledge</li><li>▪ Teacher learners to learn</li><li>▪ Learning should be social</li><li>▪ Teach language in context</li></ul>	<i>Sample Response: Descriptive shows how language is actually used, while prescriptive teaches rules. Both provide context.</i>	<i>Sample Response: Learners need to learn about the structure of both in a way that includes context and collaboration. However, learners will be more familiar with their L1.</i>

### 1.7

## The importance of teaching the grammar of a first language

There are some language teachers who think it is unnecessary to teach the grammar of an L1. They argue that L1 speakers acquire grammar in their first five years and are most likely to be fluent speakers.

However, what learners have is tacit knowledge of their L1. That is, they understand and use their L1, but they cannot explain it. Even when they notice mistakes or errors, learners with tacit knowledge only may not be able to explain clearly what is wrong with a misspoken sentence or why a correct sentence is 'better'.

Learners need to study their L1 to know how it works. When L1 speakers learn about the grammar of that language, they become aware of how it works and are in better positions to use it more effectively. Learning the grammar of a language also enables them to acquire a metalanguage, that is, the language of talking about language. Metalanguage can be used to talk about other languages and includes terms like 'verb', 'noun', and 'adjective'.

Teaching a Zambian language's grammar is useful in providing insight into how it should be written. Many of the problems people face in writing their L1s result from not knowing how the spoken language is represented in written form. For example, learners may complain about orthographic rules, such as using double vowel letters to represent long vowel sounds or separating words that are spoken

together. These issues are resolved when learners are taught about the structure of their languages. Learners understand, for example, how long vowels come about and the importance of representing them to show differences in the meaning of otherwise identical words such as:

<b>1 (a)</b>	<i>Ukuteka. [Bemba]</i> 'to be soft or jelly like'
<b>1 (b)</b>	<i>Ukuteeka. [Bemba]</i> to govern'



They also understand the concept of a word and how to identify different parts of speech or word classes. Therefore, teaching Bantu grammar helps L1 learners to be better spellers and writers of their own languages. However, Zambian languages have not existed in a written form as long as many languages, including English. It is not easy to understand some of the grammatical aspects of a language without being explicitly taught. Heightening a learner's awareness of their L1's structure can enable them to manipulate it in more creative ways. Insights into how their L1 works can also help learners understand and appreciate other languages.

More importantly, learning about one's language is one of the best ways of appreciating one's culture, as language and education are the most effective tools of cultural transmission. Appreciating one's heritage (of which language and education are indispensable) should be an important component of an educated person's life.

When teaching the grammar of an L1, it is important to learn grammar for these additional reasons:

1. Some homes do not offer children a rich linguistic environment. These learners can benefit from learning their language's grammar.
2. Relying solely on informal learning of grammar poses a danger of exposing learners to incorrect speech, which leads to learning poor grammar. Teaching learners grammar in school is one way of helping learners use the standard form of their language.
3. Teaching the grammar of an L1 can enrich or supplement the learners' knowledge of their L1.
4. Knowledge of grammar can improve learners' sensitivity to language structure. It leads to improvements in writing and speaking styles.
5. Studying grammar enables learners to have some formal basis for appreciating the complex workings of their L1's phonology, morphology, and syntax.

## Activity 7

Learning outcome: 6



---

*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

---

### Think-Pair-Share

1. Ask student teachers to think about the question below. Student teachers should record their responses in their student modules or notebooks if they do not have one.
    - a. Why is the teaching of grammar relevant and important to L1 teaching?  
*Sample Response: All the points above; becoming better writers and speakers, a sign of being educated, and so on.*
  2. Pair student teachers together to share their responses.
  3. Debrief as a group.
- 

## Activity 8

Learning outcomes: 1, 3, & 6



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*Teacher educator's note: Check for understanding.*

---

### Anticipation Guide

1. Ask student teachers to complete the 'After' column of the anticipation guide. (You may choose to have the student teachers share with peers before the answers are discussed as a class.)
  2. When you discuss the answers as a class, make sure to discuss what was incorrect about statements two through four and how they could be rephrased so that they are now true.
    - a. Prescriptive language teaching differs from descriptive language teaching because it prioritises the standard form of a language over substandard forms.
    - b. Received pronunciation is a term used to describe the standard form of English.
    - c. The differences between L1 and L2 teaching have implications for (or impact) teaching and learning.
-

Statement	Before: T/F	After: T/F
1. Grammar can be defined as the study of the rules of language and how words are combined into sentences.		T
2. Prescriptive language teaching differs from descriptive language teaching because it does not prioritise the standard variety of a language.		F
3. The substandard variety of English is referred to as received pronunciation.		F
4. Although there are differences between L1 and L2 teaching, these differences do not impact teaching and learning.		F
5. One reason to teach the grammar of L1 is that it may lead to improvements in learners' writing and speaking skills.		T

## 1.8

# Chapter summary

This chapter provided expectations for Language Module III. It discussed the importance of teaching grammar in an L1, compared the L1 and L2 teaching methods, and proposed principles of teaching a first or familiar language. These principles include:

- Utilise learners' prior knowledge
- Help learners know how to learn
- Learning should be conducted as a social activity
- Teaching of language items should be contextualised

These principles can provide the basis for teacher educators and student teachers to effectively teach a child's first language.

### 1.8.1 About the rest of the chapters in the module

The rest of Language Module III contains chapters on various aspects of Zambian languages and English's structure or grammar. The chapters begin with parts of speech and descriptions of word classes; syntactic structures are described later.

It should be noted that there are similarities and differences between English and Zambian languages. For example, definitions of the parts of speech apply to both, but the exact forms differ. In some cases, some parts of speech might not be found in either English or Zambian languages; the module will not discuss those elements. Conversely, some information is applicable to both languages; in those instances, examples may be provided when discussing one language, and, to avoid unnecessary repetition, not discuss in other languages. For example, when discussing types of nouns, translations should help understand what these types are in the other language(s).

Unfortunately, it is not possible to illustrate every grammatical point with examples in each of Zambia's seven regional languages. We advise that teacher educators and student teachers use the translations from examples when the language used is not the regional language of their area. The idea is to see how the structure item is represented in the regional language compared to the one used in the text. In some cases, the structures will be very similar because all Zambian languages belong to the same Bantu family of languages.

For example, in most Bantu languages, *-el-* or *-il-* is added to the verb to express the idea of 'doing something for another'. This is called the applicative extension. In the languages below, this is what we see using the same verb 'to buy':

<b>2 (a)</b>	<i>-lek-el-a (lekela)</i>	<i>[Lozi]</i>
	'buy for'	
<b>2 (b)</b>	<i>-shit-il-a (shitila)</i>	<i>[Bemba]</i>
	'buy for'	
<b>2 (c)</b>	<i>-gul-il-a (gulila)</i>	<i>[Nyanja]</i>
	'buy for'	



As can be seen from example 2, the words meaning 'to buy' are different but the applicative extension is the same. In Bemba and Nyanja *-il-* is used because the vowels in the verbs are both high so the vowel on the extension must correspond to that /i/. The *-el-* in Lozi is a result of the mid vowel in the verb /e/. This correspondence between vowels in the verb root and the extensions is called vowel harmony. In Bemba, for example, if we have a verb with a mid-vowel /o/, we use the *-el-* extension.

<b>3</b>	<i>Bomb-el-a (Bombela)</i>	<i>[Bemba]</i>
	'work for'	



Student teachers should use the English translation, 'to buy for' and translate that into their regional language. In this way, they can see what differs and what is similar across languages.



## Assessment of learning

1. Why do you think it is important for teachers of L1s to be guided by the principles of L1 teaching?
2. How familiar are you with other Zambian languages? What implications does this have for you when you enter your first classroom?
3. Evaluate the purposes of descriptive and prescriptive language teaching. When are these teaching approaches appropriate in the classroom? Provide an explicit example.
4. Learners come to the classroom with varying language experiences and abilities. This presents immediate challenges for teachers. What is one way that a teacher could be prepared to teach language in a multilingual classroom?

## 1.10

## References

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Chapter 2 of Language Module III

# Nominal Word Classes

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# Nominal Word Classes

## INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the word classes (also known as parts of speech) associated with the noun phrase in English and Zambian languages. Among these are:

- Nouns
- Pronouns
- Adjectives
- Demonstratives
- Numerals
- Prepositions
- Articles
- Determiners

The chapter will discuss the forms and functions of each of these word classes in English and Zambian languages. The chapter will also present a demonstration lesson of how to teach one of these parts of speech.

## Teacher educator's note



*Review previously learnt information. Begin by asking: What is the meaning of form and function in language?*

*Sample Response: Form refers to actual language structures such as nouns, verbs, pronouns, or phrases, and how they are put together according to the rules of the language. Function deals with how the language is used in issuing commands, making requests, and so on. Some of the language teaching methods learnt in previous courses focus on form over function or vice versa while others consider both as equally important.*



## 2.1

# Learning outcomes

### Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

#### 2.2.2 Peer Teaching

2.2.2.1 Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons

#### 2.3.1 Parts of Speech

2.3.1.1 Demonstrate understanding of all parts of speech in both Zambian languages and English

#### 2.3.2 Nouns

2.3.2.1 Identify and use different types of nouns

2.3.1.2 Change irregular nouns from singular to plural

2.3.1.3 Write singular and plural forms of regular and irregular nouns

2.3.1.4 List nouns according to noun prefixes

2.3.1.5 Make nouns from verbs

### By the end of this chapter, the student teacher will:

- 1 explain the form and function of nouns, pronouns, adjectives, numerals, locatives, demonstratives, and prepositions of Bantu nouns.
- 2 explain the form and function of nouns, pronouns, adjectives, numerals, demonstratives, prepositions, and determiners of English nouns.
- 3 identify and use nominal parts of speech correctly.
- 4 determine the similarities and differences between Bantu and English parts of speech.
- 5 demonstrate understanding of how nominal parts of speech are taught.
- 6 demonstrate understanding of how nominal parts of speech are assessed.
- 7 apply their understanding of the nominal parts of speech to the development and demonstration of a peer teaching lesson.

### Teacher educator's note



*Learning outcomes should be introduced to student teachers before you begin teaching the lesson's content. Student teachers should understand what is required of them throughout each chapter. Each time you present the content in the chapter, emphasise the learning outcomes that are the lesson's focus.*

*If student teachers have a copy of the student module edition, they may review student outcomes with you. If student teachers do not have a copy, make sure to visually present the learning outcomes to them (e.g. chalkboard). Be prepared to make accommodations for learners with special educational needs.*

## Instructional materials

- Teacher educator module
- Teacher educator curated materials
- Student module

### Teacher educator's note




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*Review materials and be prepared to make accommodations for students with special educational needs.*

*Materials. Review the chapter thoroughly to decide if there are any materials that you have or may find useful to the presentation of the information. Student teachers will need any materials that require application in this chapter. They will also be asked to develop and deliver their own lesson to their peers. Make sure that you are prepared with all materials to help them with this.*

*Students with special educational needs: Before presenting the content in the chapter, make sure you are aware of any accommodations that you may need to make for students with special needs. Depending on the needs of your student teachers, some common accommodations are:*

- *Familiarise yourself with appropriate terms (e.g. 'disability', not 'handicap'; 'deaf', not 'hearing impaired')*
  - *Repeat and vary explanations*
  - *Ask for clarification of understanding*
  - *Create audio-recordings of lectures and course materials*
  - *Request Zambian Sign Language interpreters (ideally two per lecture)*
  - *Request notetakers*
  - *Allow additional time to complete coursework*
  - *Include verbal descriptions of visual aids in lecture*
  - *Designate front or centre row seating (closest to you) for low vision/hearing learners*
  - *Designate appropriate seating for those with physical disabilities to manoeuvre into and out of seats*
  - *Face those with low vision/hearing during lecture (do not turn your back to them)*
  - *Utilise Universal Design Learning pedagogy*
  - *Utilise Eclectic Teaching pedagogy*
  - *Increase wait time when asking questions*
  - *Increase communication (e.g. e-mail check-ins, office hours, etc)*
  - *Translanguage*
-

## Key terms



### Adjective

A word that describes nouns or pronouns.

### Article

A word used before a noun to show if its identity is known to the reader.

### Augment

The first vowel on a noun class prefix in some Bantu languages. A copy of the vowel in the prefix. Also known as an initial vowel or pre-prefix. [Example: umu](#)

### Concord

Grammatical agreement in terms of number (singular or plural) and person (first, second, or third) between words, such as between nouns and adjectives

### Demonstrative

A type of pronoun that point to things or refer to time without naming it

### Locative

A preposition form expressing the position of things in relation to each other.

### Nominal group

A group of words associated with a noun.

### Nominal part of speech

A word class that performs different roles in a noun phrase within a sentence.

### Noun

A naming word that refers to a place, thing, person, or idea.

### Noun phrase

A word or a group of words that have a noun or pronoun as the head and perform the functions of a noun in a sentence.

### Object

A part of a sentence that receives the action of the verb.

**Prefix**

An affix that comes before a word to express various grammatical or semantic meanings, such as the number, person, negation, or tense.

**Preposition**

A word that indicates the position or direction of things in a sentence.

**Pronoun**

A word used in the place of a noun to avoid repetition.

**Subject**

A word that refers to the noun or pronoun that performs an action.

**Suffix**

An affix that comes at the end of a word to express grammatical or semantic meanings

**Teacher educator's note**

---

*Review key terms. You may introduce the key terms together, but make sure to highlight which ones are the focus of each lesson. It is helpful to visually display the key terms (e.g. on the chalkboard) for each class session so that student teachers can refer to them throughout the lesson as needed. Be prepared to make accommodations for learners with special educational needs.*

---

## Nominal parts of speech in Zambian languages

The word noun comes from the Latin word *nomen*, which means ‘a name’. A noun has traditionally been defined as a word that names a person, thing, or place (DeCapua, 2017, pp. 30). However, this definition is unsatisfactory because some nouns, such as ‘honesty’, are not people, places, or things. Honesty is an abstract idea. Thus, nouns may be subclassified as concrete nouns or abstract nouns. Concrete nouns represent material things, and abstract nouns represent immaterial concepts.

There are other ways to differentiate between nouns. Crystal (2008) explains that because of the vagueness of words like ‘name’ and ‘thing’, some linguists define words using *formal and functional* criteria based on morphology and syntax. In other words, a noun can also be identified by its morphological form (its shape) and its syntactic roles (what it does in a sentence). This chapters consider the form and function of nouns first in Zambian languages and then in English.

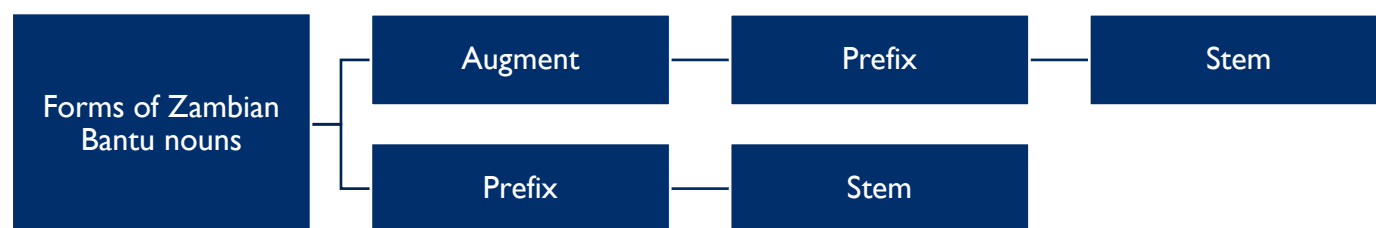
### Teacher educator’s note

*Consider emphasising nouns conveying other abstract ideas, such as time, love, fear, and courage.*

#### 2.4.1 The form of nouns

Nouns in Zambian Bantu languages have one of the two forms: augment + prefix + stem and prefix + stem (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1 Two forms of Zambian Bantu nouns



As seen in example 1(a), nouns in some Zambian languages, like Bemba, have an augment (also called a pre-prefix). An augment is an initial vowel that appears before the noun’s prefix and stem. Tonga also has nouns with augments (such as *i* in *i + muntu* ‘person’); although these appears to be optional—they may be used or omitted. All the other six regional languages do not have nouns with augments.



Their nouns are formed by a prefix and stem, as seen in example 1(b).

<b>1 (a)</b>	augment	prefix	stem		
	<i>u</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>ntu</i>	<i>(umuntu)</i>	<i>[Bemba]</i>
	'person'				
	<i>a</i>	<i>ba</i>	<i>ntu</i>	<i>(abantu)</i>	
<b>1 (b)</b>	prefix	stem			
	<i>mu</i>	<i>tu</i>	<i>(mutu)</i>	<i>[Lozi]</i>	
	'person'				
	<i>ba</i>	<i>tu</i>	<i>(batu)</i>		
	'people'				



There is no one general function of the augment in Bantu languages. Augments are associated with different things in different languages. For instance, an augment could be used with nouns that are referential or definite (Van de Velde, 2019).

In terms of its shape or form, often the augment's vowel is a copy of the vowel in the prefix. This repetition is seen in the Bemba example 1(a). Conversely, other languages have an invariable, or unchanging, augment for both animate and inanimate entities. Example 1(b) shows an invariable augment in Tonga.

Prefixes are grammatical inflections that express number and noun class within Bantu nouns. Number refers to whether something is singular (one) or plural (more than one). Words that form part of the noun phrase must agree with the head noun in number:

<b>2 (a)</b>	<i>mutu yomutelele</i>	<i>[Lozi]</i>
	'tall person'	
	<i>batu babatelele</i>	
	'tall people'	
<b>2 (b)</b>	<i>umuntu umutali</i>	<i>[Bemba]</i>
	'tall person'	
	<i>ba + tu (batu)</i>	
	'tall people'	



In example 2(a), the Lozi adjective *yomutelele* 'tall' begins with *yo* (which serves as an additional prefix) and then the prefix *mu*. *Mu* agrees in number (singular) with the noun prefix *mu* in *mutu*. Similarly, the plural noun *batu* agrees with the plural adjective *babatelele*. Note again the additional pre-prefix *ba*. prefix *mu* in *mutu*. Similarly, the plural noun *batu* agrees with the plural adjective *babatelele*. Note again the additional pre-prefix *ba*.

The Bemba example in 2(b) is simpler. *Umntu* and *umutali* both begin with the singular noun prefix *umu*. In this instance, *umu* shows that both noun and adjective are singular. The same is the case between the plural noun and adjective. Agreement between the noun and other word categories in the noun phrase is called concord.

The final part of Zambian nouns, the stem, is the meaning carrying part or core of the noun. In example 2(a), the stem is *telele*, while in 2(b), the stem is *tali*.

### 2.4.2 Identification of nouns

Nouns can be identified by their form and by the way they are used in sentences—their syntactic positions. Nouns in Bantu languages appear in subject and object positions in sentences. These syntactic terms will be discussed fully in chapter 4. However, for the purposes of this chapter, the subject is defined as the thing or person that performs the action of the verb; the object is the thing or person receiving or affected by the verb's action.

- 
- |          |   |
|----------|---|
| <b>3</b> | <i>Mutale aaliipaya akoni</i><br>'Mutale killed a small bird' |
|----------|---|
- 



*Mutale* and *akoni* are nouns. *Mutale* is the subject of the sentence as he performs the action of the verb, *-ipaya* 'kill'. *Akoni* receives the action of the verb and is, therefore, the object of the sentence.

Within a noun phrase, the noun usually appears first and is the head. All other words that modify the noun follow it.

- 
- |          |   |
|----------|---|
| <b>4</b> | <i>abaana aba batatu abafiishi abatali</i><br>'These three tall black children' or literally 'Children this three black tall' |
|----------|---|
- 



In example 4, *abaana* is the noun of the noun phrase. *Aba*, *batatu*, *abafiishi*, and *abatali* modify it. Zambian languages are said to be headfirst in noun phrases because the noun comes first in the phrase.



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*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

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1. Pair student teachers together to answer the following questions:
    - How are Zambian nouns formed? Provide an example in your first or familiar language.  
*Sample Response: In Tonga, nouns are formed by the addition of a prefix to a stem (e.g. mu-simbi 'girl' and ba-simbi 'girls'. The stem is simbi, the prefix mu/ba.)*
    - What is the function of nouns?  
*Sample Response: Nouns function as subjects and objects in sentences.*
  2. Review the answer with student teachers and clarify as needed.
- 

### 2.4.3 Noun classes

Nouns in Bantu languages are classified into genders based on their shared prefixes. For example, nouns which have the prefix *mu* or *umu* are in class 1; the plurals for these, *ba* and *aba*, are in class 2 (See Table 2.1). Membership to a class requires that the noun has the same concord (agreement) features as the adjectives that follow. For example, in Bemba, the prefix in *umuti* 'tree' agrees with the adjective prefix *uu-* as in *uutali* 'tall'. This is not the same for nouns in class 1 where *umu*, for example, *umu-ntu* 'person' agrees with *umu* in the adjective, *umu-tali* 'tall person'. Therefore, nouns like *umuti* cannot be in the same class as *umuntu*, they are in class 3 and their plural forms in class 4 *imi-ti* 'trees'.

Table 2.1 lists noun classes in the seven regional languages of Zambia. The numbering of the classes is based on Meeussen's (1967) reconstruction of the ancestral Bantu language, Proto-Bantu. Some prefixes may have different forms and nouns may also appear without a prefix. For example, *kolwe* 'monkey' [Bemba] has no prefix. Across all Zambian languages, proper nouns do not have prefixes. Only the most common prefix for each class is included in Table 2.1, and there are exceptions. In some Bantu grammars, proper nouns are shown as a subsection of class 1 and a corresponding class 2. Additionally, some prefixes may have different forms.

Table 2.1 Noun classes in *Zambian Bantu languages*

Class	Nyanja	Tonga	Bemba	Kaonde	Lunda	Luvale	Lozi
1	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>u-mu</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu-</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu</i>
2	<i>a</i>	<i>ba</i>	<i>aba</i>	<i>ba</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>va</i>	<i>ba</i>
3	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>umu</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu</i>
4	<i>mi</i>	<i>mi</i>	<i>imi</i>	<i>mi</i>	<i>nyi</i>	<i>mi</i>	<i>mi</i>
5	<i>Li</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>lli</i>	<i>ji</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>li</i>	<i>li</i>
6	<i>ma</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>ama-</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>ma</i>
7	<i>chi</i>	<i>ci</i>	<i>ici</i>	<i>ki</i>	<i>chi</i>	<i>ci</i>	<i>si</i>
8	<i>zi</i>	<i>zyi</i>	<i>lfi</i>	<i>bi</i>	<i>yi</i>	<i>vi</i>	<i>bi</i>
9	<i>n</i>	<i>lu</i>	<i>ln</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>n</i>
10	<i>n</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>ln</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>ji</i>	<i>li</i>
11	-	<i>lu</i>	<i>ulu</i>	<i>lu</i>	<i>lu</i>	<i>lu</i>	<i>lu</i>
12	<i>ka</i>	<i>ka</i>	<i>aka</i>	<i>ka</i>	<i>ka</i>	<i>ka</i>	<i>ka</i>
13	<i>ti</i>	<i>tu</i>	<i>utu</i>	<i>tu</i>	<i>tu</i>	<i>tu</i>	<i>tu</i>
14	<i>bu</i>	<i>bu</i>	<i>ubu</i>	<i>bu</i>	<i>wu</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>bu</i>
15	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>uku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>
16	<i>pa</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>pa</i>	<i>pa</i>	<i>ha</i>	<i>pa</i>	<i>fa</i>
17	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku-</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>
18	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu-</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu</i>

Nouns in one class have plural forms in another class. For example, class 1 is used to indicate singular nouns while class 2 is the accompanying plural class, as seen in example 2(a). Indeed, each singular noun class can be paired with a plural noun class. By pairing the singular with the plural noun class, Bantu languages have the following pairs:

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<b>5</b>	1/2, 3/4, 5/6, 7/8, 9/10, 10/11, 10/6, 11/10, 12/13, and 14/6.
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Classes 16 through 18 are known as locative classes. Their prefixes indicate location, that is, the positions or directions of things or people relative to each other.

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<b>6</b>	<i>panzubo</i> [Kaonde] 'at the house'  <i>munzubo</i> 'in the house'  <i>kunzubo</i> 'to the house'
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#### 2.4.4 Types of nouns

Nouns are classified as common nouns when they do not refer to a specific thing but are general names of things. In contrast, proper nouns specify individual things or people. For instance, *mutengo* 'tree' is a common noun, while *Zambezi*, *Sililo*, and *Peter* are proper nouns for individual people. Unlike common nouns, proper nouns are always written with capital letters at the beginning.

Nouns can also be countable (*munyamata* 'young man', *anyamata* 'young men' [Nyanja] or uncountable (*meema* 'water' [Kaonde])). Some uncountable nouns are also abstract nouns as they convey ideas in the mind (*chikondi* 'love' [Nyanja]). In addition, some nouns are called collective nouns because they refer to a collection of items (*ibumba* 'crowd' [Bemba] is a collective noun for a collection of people).

Table 2.2 gives examples of noun classes and what they are associated with. For example, abstract nouns are generally in classes 14 and 6; diminutives nouns are often found in classes 12 and 1; and augmentatives (indicating a large size) and pejoratives (indicating a negative connotation) are found in classes 7 and 8.

Table 2.2 Semantics of the noun classes in Zambian Bantu languages

Gender	Associated with	Examples
Class 1 / 2	human classes/proper names	<i>mutu/batu</i> 'person/people' [Lozi] <i>Nyambe</i> [Lozi]
Class 3 / 4	vegetation/long objects	<i>umuti/imiti</i> 'tree/trees' [Bemba]
Class 5 / 6	liquids/fruits	<i>Meema</i> 'water' [Kaonde]
Class 7 / 8	pejorative/augmentative/languages	<i>cintu/zyintu</i> 'big thing/things' [Tonga]
Class 9 / 10	animals	<i>inseke</i> 'hen' [Tonga]
Class 11 / 10	uncountable/abstract nouns	<i>lusekeelo</i> 'joy' [Kaonde]
Class 12 / 13	diminutives	<i>kabwa/tubwa</i> 'small dog/small dogs' [Tonga]
Class 14 / 6	abstract ideas	<i>butu</i> 'humanity' [Lozi]
Class 15 / 6	body parts/infinitives	<i>Ukuulu/amoolu</i> 'leg/legs' [Bemba]

## Activity 2

## Learning outcome: 3



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Group student teachers together according to their shared first language (L1). Depending on the size of the groups, you may have to make multiple groups of the same language.
2. Ask student teachers to provide a list of nouns from their L1 which are found in each of the gender classes. If student teachers have a student module, they can complete the chart in their book. Otherwise, they can draw the chart in their notebook. It would be helpful to draw the chart onto the board to organise student teachers' responses.
3. After student teachers have completed their list, have volunteers share their responses. In the case that not all languages are represented, provide examples for those languages.

Noun class examples							
Gender	Nyanja	Tonga	Bemba	Kaonde	Lunda	Luvale	Lozi
Class 1 / 2							
Class 3 / 4							
Class 5 / 6							
Class 7 / 8							
Class 9 / 10							
Class 11 / 10							
Class 12 / 13							
Class 14 / 6							
Class 15 / 6							

#### 2.4.5 Making nouns from verbs

Deverbal nouns are formed from verbs. In Bantu languages, the noun class 15 contains nouns that are formed from verbs. These nouns have the *uku* or *ku* prefixes used to indicate verbs in the infinitive form, such as *kusebenza* 'to work' [Lozi]. A verb in the infinitive form does not show tense nor agreement. *Ukubomba* 'to work' [Bemba] can be used as a noun, as in *ukubomba kuusuma* 'To work is good.'

In addition, it is possible to make nouns from verbs by adding prefixes and suffixes to the verbs thus changing them into nouns.

- 7** *longesa* [Luvale]  
'teach'  
*mulongeshi*  
'teacher'



The addition of the class 1 prefix *mu* and the suffix *shi* changes the verb in 7(a) *longesa* to a deverbal noun (a noun derived from a verb) in 4(b) *mu-longe-shi* 'teacher'. Additional examples of this productive process are presented in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Deriving nouns from verbs

Verb	Noun	Language
<i>ca</i> 'eat'	<i>mucali</i> 'eater'	Lozi
<i>sambala</i> 'sell'	<i>musambazi</i> 'seller'	Tonga
<i>lenga</i> 'create'	<i>mulenga</i> 'creator'	Kaonde
<i>punziza</i> 'learn'	<i>mpuzinzi</i> 'learner'	Nyanja
<i>dima</i> 'cultivate'	<i>ndimi</i> 'farmer'	Lunda
<i>imba</i> 'sing'	<i>kemba</i> 'singer'	Bemba

### Activity 3

### Learning outcome: 3

*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

Use the 'I Do, We Do, You Do' process to illustrate to student teachers how deverbal nouns are created.

1. I Do: Model identifying how a deverbal noun is created by using the first example in Table 2.3.
2. We Do: Complete a different example from the chart together as a class.
3. You Do: Pair student teachers with the same L1 to finish identifying how the remaining deverbal nouns were created. Go around the room checking for understanding.
4. Next, ask student teachers to provide at least three more examples of deverbal nouns from their L1. If student teachers have a student module, they may complete the chart in their book. Otherwise, they can draw the chart into their notebook. Draw the chart on the board so that responses can be organised.
5. Have student teachers share their responses so that all language groups are represented. In the case that not all languages are present in the classroom, provide examples for the student teachers.

### Deverbal nouns in Zambian languages

Nyanja	Tonga	Bemba	Kaonde	Lunda	Luvale	Lozi



## Pronouns in Zambian languages

### 2.5.1 Definition of a pronoun

A pronoun is a word that replaces a noun or noun phrase in a sentence. The replaced noun or noun phrase is called the antecedent.

<b>8</b>	Some boys were playing football during lessons. They were punished by the teacher.
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In example 8, 'some boys' is the antecedent of the pronoun 'they'.

The pronoun has to agree with the antecedent in number and person. In this example, 'they' agrees with 'some boys', because both are in plural form. They also agree in person because both are in the third person.

### 2.5.2 Free and bound pronouns in Zambian languages

Unlike English, which has only free (also referred to as independent) pronouns, Zambian languages have both free and bound pronouns. The free pronouns in Zambian languages are not commonly used; however, they can express emphasis. The bound pronouns are the subject and object markers (discussed further in chapter 3) in connection with verbs they are attach to.

<b>9 (a)</b>	<i>Bupe wayaŋa kushikola. Wu-avwalaŋa (wawwalaŋa) nsapatu yiyila</i> [Lunda]
--------------	--

'Bupe goes to school. He wears black shoes'.



<b>9 (b)</b>	<i>Ba-ya kumajimi onse.</i> [Kaonde]
--------------	--------------------------------------

'They go to the farm daily'.

<b>9 (c)</b>	<i>Ndebafwaya.</i> [Bemba]
--------------	----------------------------

'I want them'.

<b>9 (d)</b>	<i>Nebasaka.</i> [Kaonde]
--------------	---------------------------

'I want them'.

The morpheme is a subject marker *wu* in Lunda, which has replaced the antecedent noun *bupe* mentioned in example 9(a). In example 9(b), *ba* 'they' is the subject marker that replaced the subject noun phrase. From these examples, it is clear that the subject markers behave like pronouns.

The examples in 9(c) and (d) are the same sentence in two languages. They both have the object marker *ba* 'them'. As in the case of subject markers, the object marker replaces a noun phrase object. It serves as an object personal pronoun. Subject and object markers both changed to agree with different noun classes. For example, if reference is to an animal in class 9, one can say *Naabajipaya* 'They have killed it' [Bemba]. In this example, *-i-* is the object marker for noun class 9.

Table 2.4 provides examples of independent personal pronouns in Zambian languages. The column headed English gives the equivalent meanings of the pronouns under the Zambian languages.

The concept of person refers to participants' role in a discourse. The person speaking is the *first* person; the one being addressed or spoken to is the *second* person. If someone not present is discussed, that would be the *third* person. These 'persons' can be singular or plural.

*Table 2.4 Personal pronouns in the eight official languages of Zambia*

	English	Nyanja	Tonga	Bemba	Kaonde	Lunda	Luvale	Lozi
First person singular	I	<i>ine</i>	<i>ime / mebo</i>	<i>ine</i>	<i>amiwa</i>	<i>ami / yami</i>	<i>yami / ami</i>	<i>na</i>
First Person plural	we	<i>ife</i>	<i>iswe / swebo</i>	<i>ifwe</i>	<i>atweba</i>	<i>etu</i>	<i>yetu</i>	<i>luna</i>
Second Person singular	you	<i>iwe</i>	<i>iwe / webo</i>	<i>iwe</i>	<i>obewa</i>	<i>eyi</i>	<i>yobe</i>	<i>wena</i>
Second person plural	you	<i>inu</i>	<i>inywe / nywebo</i>	<i>imwe</i>	<i>anweba</i>	<i>enu</i>	<i>yenu</i>	<i>mina</i>
Third person singular	he / she	<i>iy</i>	<i>walo / yebo</i>	<i>ena</i>	<i>aye</i>	<i>ihu</i>	<i>ikhiye</i>	<i>yena</i>
Third person plural	they	<i>iwo</i>	<i>balo</i>	<i>bena</i>	<i>abo</i>	<i>wena / ana</i>	<i>vakhiko</i>	<i>bona</i>



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Ask student teachers to translate the following sentence in their familiar language and write it using the different pronouns indicated to illustrate the various personal pronouns in Table 2.4. Use independent pronouns rather than subject markers.

I/we/you (singular)/you (plural)/he/they eat caterpillars.

2. Afterwards, ask student teachers:

- How are Zambian pronouns formed, and what is their function?

*Sample Response: Both independent and bound pronouns have fixed forms according to the persons they represent: first, second, and third. The choice of the bound pronoun depends on the noun class of the antecedent noun (the one it is replacing).*

- When do you use independent pronouns?

*Sample Response: Independent pronouns are usually used in emphatic situations.*

### 2.5.3 Reflexive pronouns

A reflexive pronoun is one that refers back to the speaker, subject, or object of the sentence. The reflexive pronoun in most Bantu languages is invariable; it does not change to agree with person—first, second, and third. For example, in the following Nyanja language example, *zi-* is invariable; it does not change in 10(a) first person singular, 10(b) second person singular, 10(c) third person singular, or 10(d) first-person plural.

<b>10 (a)</b>	<i>Ndinaziceka</i> [Nyanja] 'I have cut myself'
<b>10 (b)</b>	<i>Mwaziceka</i> 'You have cut yourself'
<b>10 (c)</b>	<i>Anaziceka</i> 'He/she has cut her/himself'
<b>10 (d)</b>	<i>Tinazikhomela.</i> 'We locked up ourselves'





*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to apply what was learnt.*

1. Ask student teachers to complete Part 1 of the activity independently.
2. After completing Part 1 independently, divide student teachers into small groups to complete Part 2.
3. When students are finished, review the correct answers together as a class.

**Part 1:** Translate the phrases below into familiar Zambian language to see the form of the reflexive in that language.

- (i) *Nadikatishi* 'I have cut myself'
- (ii) *Unadikatishi* 'She has cut herself'
- (iii) *Chunadikatishi* 'We have cut ourselves'
- (iv) *Kanadikatishi* 'It has cut itself'
- (v) *Kukatisha* 'to cut'

*Sample Response: The answers for (a) will depend on the language chosen. For example, in Bemba, the reflexive pronoun is simply 'i' e.g. Naicena 'I have cut myself'.*

**Part 2:** What do you think is the reflexive morpheme in the verbs in the first four phrases (i, ii, iii, iv)? The final phrase (v) is included to help you analyse the other clauses.

*Sample Response: The reflexive pronoun is di. Students should see that in the verbs for items i through iv, there is di which is missing in (v). This should give them a clue.*

#### 2.5.4 Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns, as the name indicates, show ownership. In terms of form, the possessive pronoun has a prefix that shows agreement with the possessed item. There are three forms of possessive pronouns corresponding to the first, second, and third person as well as singular and plural, respectively. Table 2.5 presents some possessive pronouns from Bemba and Lozi. The items possessed are shown in the first column (e.g. 'bicycle' and 'child'). The last item in this column, which has *mu*'in', is for a locative noun class 18. Here *mu* indicates possession, for example, to mean, 'in mine'. In the other columns as indicated by the English equivalents are the possessive pronouns for the first, second, and third persons.

#### Teacher educator's note



*Let the students look at the data in Table 2.5. Can they see any patterns in the possessive pronouns, for example, by comparing the different possessed items and the form of the pronouns in the two languages? Let students find other nouns from the remaining noun classes to be the possessed items and then let them comment on any changes the notice in the form of the possessive pronouns.*

Table 2.5 Possessive pronouns in Bemba and Lozi

Possessive		1st person singular 'my'	1st person plural 'our'	2nd person singular 'your'	2nd person plural 'your'	3rd person singular 'his/her'	3rd person plural 'their'
<i>injinga</i> 'bicycle'	Lozi	<i>yaka</i>	<i>yaluna</i>	<i>yahao</i>	<i>yamina</i>	<i>yahae</i>	<i>yabona</i>
	Bemba	<i>yandi</i>	<i>yesu</i>	<i>yobe</i>	<i>yenu</i>	<i>yakwe</i>	<i>yabo</i>
<i>(u)mwana</i> 'child'	Lozi	<i>ka</i>	<i>luna</i>	<i>hao</i>	<i>mina</i>	<i>hae</i>	<i>bona</i>
	Bemba	<i>wandi</i>	<i>wesu</i>	<i>obe</i>	<i>wenu</i>	<i>wakwe</i>	<i>wabo</i>
	Locative class 18	<i>u-andi</i>	<i>u-esu</i>	<i>u-obe</i>	<i>u-enu</i>	<i>u-akwe</i>	<i>u-abo</i>
<i>mu</i> 'in' (as in, 'in mine')	Lozi	<i>mw-andi</i>	<i>mw-esu</i>	<i>mobe</i>	<i>mw-enu</i>	<i>mw-akwe</i>	<i>mw-abo</i>
	Locative class 18	<i>mu-andi</i>	<i>mu-esu</i>	<i>mu-obe</i>	<i>mu-enu</i>	<i>mu-akwe</i>	<i>mu-abo</i>

For locative classes, the possessive pronoun agrees with the locative rather than the possessed, as can be seen in the last row of Table 2.5. Possessive pronouns can change in form to agree with the noun used, as can be seen from the two words in the table: *injinga* 'bicycle' from noun class 9 and *(u)mwana* 'child' from class 1. The prefixes in the possessives are also used as connectives to show qualities as in *umuntu wa cuma* 'a person of riches (a rich person)', *umupini we sembe* 'handle of an axe'.

### 2.5.5 Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstratives either point out items in the speaker's and listener's physical context or refer to time. Bantu languages are rich in demonstratives that indicate distances (Van De Velde, 2019). There are generally three to four series of demonstrative pronouns in most Bantu languages. Table 2.6 shows part of the noun class system of Bantu languages. Table 2.6 includes examples from Bemba in class 1 through 4 and 18 to show how demonstratives change to point at things at different distances. In class 1, *uyu* or *uno* 'this' is a proximal demonstrative and mean near (in proximity) to the speaker. Conversely, *uyo* 'that near you' is near to the listener. *Ulya* is a distal demonstrative and indicating something far (distant) from both the speaker and listener. In some cases, it is possible to indicate something at a considerable distance by lengthening the last syllable and raising the tone on the same syllable, for instance *ulyaa*. Locatives can be used as demonstratives, as seen In class 18 *umu* 'in this'.

Table 2.6 Demonstrative pronouns in Bemba

Noun Class	Example	Very near speaker 'This'	Near speaker 'This'	Near listener 'That there'	Far from both 'That at a distance'
1	<i>umwana</i> 'child'	<i>uno</i>	<i>uyu</i>	<i>uyo</i>	<i>ulya</i>
2	<i>abaana</i> 'children'	<i>bano</i>	<i>aba</i>	<i>abo</i>	<i>balya</i>
3	<i>umuti</i> 'tree'	<i>uno</i>	<i>uyu</i>	<i>uyo</i>	<i>ulya</i>
4	<i>imiti</i> 'trees'	<i>ino</i>	<i>iyi</i>	<i>iyo</i>	<i>ilya</i>
<i>and so on...</i>					
18	<i>ing'anda</i> 'house'	<i>muno</i>	<i>umu</i>	<i>umo</i>	<i>mulya</i>

The form of the demonstrative can be seen in the examples in Table 2.7. For example, in class 1 in Bemba, a prefix copies the vowel in the noun prefix while the stem changes in five stages.

<b>11 (a)</b>	<i>Umwana</i> 'child'
<b>11 (b)</b>	<i>u-no</i> 'very near here'
<b>11 (c)</b>	<i>u-yu</i> 'this'
<b>11 (d)</b>	<i>u-yo</i> 'that near you'
<b>11 (e)</b>	<i>u-lya</i> 'that there'
<b>11 (f)</b>	<i>u-lyaa</i> 'that far away'



Table 2.7 Demonstrative pronouns in Zambian languages

Noun Class	Example	Very near speaker 'This'	Near speaker 'This'	Near listener 'That there'	Far from both 'That at a distance'
1	<i>umwana</i> 'child'	<i>uno</i>	<i>uyu</i>	<i>uyo</i>	<i>ulya</i>
2	<i>abaana</i> 'children'	<i>bano</i>	<i>aba</i>	<i>abo</i>	<i>balya</i>
3	<i>umuti</i> 'tree'	<i>uno</i>	<i>uyu</i>	<i>uyo</i>	<i>ulya</i>
4	<i>imiti</i> 'trees'	<i>ino</i>	<i>iyi</i>	<i>iyo</i>	<i>ilya</i>
<i>and so on...</i>					
18	<i>ing'anda</i> 'house'	<i>muno</i>	<i>umu</i>	<i>umo</i>	<i>mulya</i>

Demonstratives thus agree with the number—singular or plural—of the noun they modify.

## Activity 6

Learning outcome: 3



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Pair or group student teachers together according to their L1.
2. Ask student teachers to complete Table 2.7 so that it covers all the 18 noun classes in their language. If student teachers have a student module, they may complete the chart in their book. Otherwise, they will need to draw the chart into their notebook.
3. For each class, they should find a suitable example which they should use to refer to using the four series of demonstratives as has been done in the few examples in Bemba. They should also describe the form of the demonstrative in the language they have used. Go around the room providing help as needed.
4. Check the accuracy of the student teachers' work when they are finished. Alternatively, you may ask student teachers to share their work with their peers for other examples before checking their work.

## Demonstrative pronouns in Zambian languages

Noun Class	Example	Very near speaker 'This'	Near speaker 'This'	Near listener 'That there'	Far from both 'That at a distance'
1	<i>Umwana</i> 'child'	<i>uno</i>	<i>uyu</i>	<i>uyo</i>	<i>Ulya</i>
2	<i>abaana</i> 'children'	<i>bano</i>	<i>aba</i>	<i>abo</i>	<i>balya</i>
3	<i>umuti</i> 'tree'	<i>uno</i>	<i>uyu</i>	<i>uyo</i>	<i>Ulya</i>
4	<i>imiti</i> 'trees'	<i>ino</i>	<i>iyi</i>	<i>iyo</i>	<i>ilya</i>
5					
6					
7					
8					
9					
10					
11					
12					
13					
14					
15					
16					
17					
18	<i>ing'anda</i> 'house'	<i>muno</i>	<i>umu</i>	<i>umo</i>	<i>mulya</i>



### 2.5.6 Relative pronouns

Relative pronouns serve as subjects and objects of relative clauses. Relative clauses modify nouns—they define or add more information to the noun. The following example shows how relative pronouns agree with the object 12(a) and subject 12(b) and 12(c). The noun in *Bupe* 'gift' 12(a) is from noun class 14 and the relative prefix *bo* agrees with this class. In 12(b) and 12(c) the nouns are from class 2 and the relative pronouns agree with these in the two languages.

<b>12 (a)</b>	<i>Bupe bobaampa</i> [Kaonde] 'The gift they have given me'
<b>12 (b)</b>	<i>Antu aafumpa nswaha anatemuki</i> [Lunda] 'The people who smashed the calabash have run away.'
<b>12 (c)</b>	<i>Abantu abaatobele insupa nababutuka</i> [Bemba] 'The people who smashed the calabash have run away.'



Similar patterns hold for all the noun classes when they are used with relative clauses. The examples in 12 have defining relative clauses because the information they provide identify the object or subject of the sentence. For example, in 12(b) and 12(c) *abatobele insupa* 'who smashed the calabash' identifies the people; it is not extra information. A non-defining relative clause would be like the one in example 13:

<b>13</b>	<i>Mulenga, uwaishiba ukwensha mootoka, talipo.</i> [Bemba] 'Mulenga, who knows how to drive a car, is not around.'
-----------	--



In example 13, the person is already known (*Mulenga*); therefore, the information in the relative clause is additional information about him.

Note the difference in the punctuation of defining and non-defining relative clauses. The latter involves the use of commas to separate the relative clause from the main clause. The main clause in example 13 is *Mulenga talipo* 'Mulenga is not around'.



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Pair student teachers together with a peer who shares the same L1.
2. Ask them to translate the following sentences into a familiar Zambian language. If student teachers have a student module, they can translate the sentences into their book. Otherwise, they will need to copy the sentences into their notebook to complete the activity.
3. After translating the sentences, they should identify the relative clause and the relative pronoun. They can do this by labelling the relative clause 'RC' and the relative pronoun 'RP'.
4. They should also indicate in each case whether the relative clause is defining or non-defining. If the students are using their module, they can indicate this by including a check in the column next to their sentence, or they can simply indicate this in their notebook accordingly.
5. When student teachers are finished with the activity, review their answers and provide opportunities for all L1s in the classroom to be represented and make comparisons between languages where applicable.

English sentence	Zambian translation	Check if the relative clause is defining
The girl who ran the marathon yesterday trained very hard.		
The tree, which is behind my house, has fallen.		
The chicken that was stolen belongs to Mweemba.		
Mr. Sililo, who is a teacher, has been appointed Minister of Education.		
The lion that was roaming about in Kafue was killed by ZAWA.		

## Adjectives in Zambian languages

### 2.6.1 Definition

Adjectives describe or modify nouns. Typical meanings expressed by adjectives belong to these four categories (Dixon, 2004):

1. Dimension: *Katampe* 'big' [Kaonde], *tali* 'tall' [Nyanja]
2. Age: *ice* 'young', *kulumpe* 'elder', *pya* 'new' [Bemba]
3. Value: *botu* 'good', 'kind'
4. Colour: 'blue', 'red'

These four are the major meanings found in most of the languages. However, others are found in languages with many adjectives.

5. Physical property: hard, soft, heavy
6. Human propensity: jealous, happy, miserable
7. Speed: fast, quick, slow

Most Bantu languages have few true adjectives, that is, adjectives not formed from other word classes like verbs or nouns. The majority of true adjectives fall into the first four meaning groups. Even there, most Bantu languages have no true adjectives for colour but use verbs, for instance, *ukukashika* 'to be red' [Bemba].

### Activity 8

Learning outcome: 3




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*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

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1. Pair student teachers together with a peer who shares the same L1.
2. Ask student teachers to list as many adjectives as they can find in their L1 by dimension, age, value, and colour. If student teachers have a student module, they can complete the chart in their book. Otherwise, they can draw the chart into their notebook.
3. Next, ask:
  - Are there any adjectives of colour in your familiar language? Or are they derived from nouns or verbs?

Dimension	Age	Value	Colour

Some adjectival meanings are expressed by using other word classes such as verbs and nouns. For example, in Nyanja *kufiira* 'to be red' comes from a verb. In Bemba, *katapakatapa* 'like cassava leaves' is used as a way of expressing the colour 'green' and is derived from a noun *Katapa* 'cassava leaves'.

Some adjectival meanings are also expressed by using possessive agreement; for instance, *muntu wa-ngovu* 'a man of strength' [Kaonde] is used for 'a strong person'.

Adjectives can also function as nouns. In Bemba, one type of adjective has an augment like a noun. *Umusuma* 'good, beautiful' functions as a noun when a person says *umusuma aacisa* 'The beautiful one came'. It can also be used as an adjective in a stable form: *muusuma* 'he/she is good'.

### 2.6.2. The form of the adjective

The adjective's form in Bantu languages resembles that of the noun. The adjective consists of a prefix and a stem as in 14(a).

<b>14 (a)</b>	<i>mu -lamfu</i>	[Tonga]
	'tall'	
<b>14 (b)</b>	<i>mu -ntu</i>	<i>mu -lamfu</i> [Tonga]
	'person'	'tall'
	'Tall person'	



The prefix indicates the noun class, and the adjective agrees with or is in concord with as in 14(b) where the noun prefix *mu* (class 1) is the same as the adjective's prefix. The stem is the core of the adjective carrying the meaning. The adjectival prefix varies according to the class of the noun the adjective is modifying and therefore in concord with.

## Activity 9

Learning outcomes: 1 & 3



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

Pair student teachers with a familiar language together to complete the activity below. After student teachers have finished, review their answers.

- Translate the following noun phrases into a familiar Zambian language. What do you notice about the prefixes of the adjective 'beautiful'?
  - a beautiful woman
  - a beautiful picture
  - a beautiful pot
  - a beautiful cloth
- Translate the adjectives below into your familiar Zambian language.

Adjective type	Adjective examples	Zambian language
Dimension	large, small	
Age	new, old	
Value	good, bad	
Colour	black, dark, white, light	

- How are adjectives formed in Zambian languages, and what is their function?

Adjectives form part of the noun phrase. In Bantu languages, the head of the noun phrase, the noun, normally comes before all the modifiers; so, adjectives follow the noun in a noun phrase. As in English, adjectives can also be modified by other words such as adverbs.

- 15** *umuntu umusuma saana*  
 person beautiful/good very  
 'Very beautiful/good person'



*Saana* 'very' is an adverb of intensity showing how beautiful the person is. The adverb comes after the adjective. In this case, the adjectival phrase *umusuma saana*, headed by an adjective, also has a headfirst arrangement like the noun phrase.

### 2.6.3 Comparative and superlative forms of adjectives

Adjectives are used to compare things or people in terms of the various meanings they express. If two items or groups are being compared, the comparative form is used. For example, English requires the addition of the suffix '-er' to adjectives—as in 'big' to 'bigger'.

The superlative form compares one thing to many others. In English it requires the addition of a suffix '-est'—as in 'big' to 'biggest'.

#### Activity 10

Learning outcome: 3



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*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to apply what was learnt.*

---

Ask student teachers to translate the following sentences as a way of discovering how things are compared in their languages.

- a. Mulenga is older than Mandando.
- b. This book is cheaper than yours.
- c. Nakawala is the most beautiful girl in our village.
- d. This is the worst year since we started farming.

(You may add more sentences)

*Sample Response: In most languages, the comparative is expressed using verbs like ukucila 'to be more, to surpass'[Bemba]; the use of an enclitic like 'po' e.g. kulapo 'older than/bigger than,' and the superlative involves the use of the intensive form of the verb e.g. lep-esh-a 'be longest/ tallest'. How do their answers compare to the Bemba ones here?*

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## 2.7

# Numerals

Numerals are words that refer to numbers. Numerals can refer to counting numbers, such as cardinal numbers—1, 2, 3, 4, and so on. Numerals can also refer to positions or the order of things, such as ordinal numbers—first, second, third, and so on.

#### Activity 11

Learning outcome: 3



---

*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

---

1. Ask student teachers to translate the counting numbers from 1 to 10 in any Zambian language. They should do the same for ordinals from first to tenth.
  2. Ask student teachers:
    - What do you notice about your language?
-

In Bemba, for example, the cardinal 16(a) and ordinal (b) numerals are:

<b>16 (a)</b>	<i>ci-mo</i> 'one' <i>fi-bili</i> 'two' <i>fi-tatu</i> 'three' <i>fi-ne</i> 'four' <i>fi-saano</i> 'five' <i>mutanda</i> 'six' <i>-lubali</i> 'seven' <i>cine-konsekonse</i> 'eight' <i>pabula</i> 'nine' <i>ikumi</i> 'ten'
<b>16 (b)</b>	<i>wa-bumo</i> 'the first (person)' <i>wa cibili</i> 'the second (person)' <i>wa citatu</i> 'the third (person)' <i>and so on...</i> <i>wa ikumi</i> 'tenth'



It may have been noticed that the first five cardinal numerals have noun class prefixes 7 and 8. When speakers say *fi-tatu* 'three', they are actually saying 'three things'. If referring to people, they could have *aba-ntu ba-tatu* 'three people'. The first five classes have stems and prefixes like nouns and show agreement with nouns. Some writers call them adjectives because they modify nouns.

The question word *ifi-ntu fi-nga* 'how many things?' also has a prefix that changes according to the noun class, for instance, *aba-ntu ba-nga* 'how many people?' This is not the case with the numerals from *mutanda* 'six' to *ikumi* 'ten'. These words do not have prefixes and so do not show agreement with nouns—for instance, *aba-ntu mutanda* 'six people' and *in-koko mutanda* 'six chickens'.

Numbers greater than six appear to indicate the method of counting using fingers. For instances, *cine-lubali* means 'four on one side' for four and *cine-konsekonse* 'four on both sides' for eight.

## Activity 12

## Learning outcome: 1



*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

1. Ask student teachers to confirm what has been said about Bemba with their language.
  - a. For example, in Nyanja, numbers above five are counted as five and one, five and two, up to ten.
  - b. Also consider numbers above ten: is there some indication of how they were formulated, e.g. in tens?
2. Then ask student teachers to summarise how numerals are formed and what their function is.

In terms of ordinals in 15(b) the possessive form (also known as the 'genitive' in grammar) '*wa-*' in the Bemba examples above is used. The genitive agrees with the noun used. In Tonga, for example, *bwa* (bu-a) indicates agreement in bu-*zuba bwa-bili* 'second day' (also *ubu-shiku bwa-cibili* in Bemba) and in Lozi, *mutu wa pili* 'the first person'. In Bemba also *walenga* 'who makes up', when referring to people, can be used for numbers above five. For things, we can say *icalenga* 'which makes up'.

### Activity 13

Learning outcome: 1



*Teacher educator's note: Connect student teachers' understanding of their L1 with other languages.*

Ask student teachers to discuss the above as they apply to their familiar language. Also in many Bantu languages, days of the week are based on numerals. Is this the case in their language? How do they indicate distribution in their language; for example, how do they say, 'I will put you in pairs.'?

## 2.8

# Prepositions in Zambian languages

### 2.8.1 Definition

Prepositions are words that come before nouns or pronouns and express relations between nouns phrases and other words in a sentence in terms of time and space. They express meanings like possession, place, directions, and time (Richards, Platt, and Platt, 1992). These are illustrated in example 17.

<b>17 (a)</b>	Possession: <i>ukulu kwa cipuna</i> [Bemba] 'the leg <u>of</u> a chair'
<b>17 (b)</b>	Place: <i>panzubo</i> [Kaonde] ' <u>at</u> the house'
<b>17 (c)</b>	Direction: <i>kwa Mongu</i> [Lozi] 'to Mongu'
<b>17 (d)</b>	Time: <i>mpaka mailo</i> [Bemba] ' <u>until</u> tomorrow'



In Bantu languages, there are not many prepositions. Some of the functions of prepositions, however, are performed by other word classes, such as locatives. In addition, some verb extensions introduce prepositional functions in sentences (see chapter 3). For example, the applied extension indicates that something is done *for* another as in:



**18** *Baleemutwal-il-a* [Bemba]

'They will take for him'.



The extension in the verb above is *-il-*, which has a preposition meaning of 'for'.

## 2.8.2 Locatives

Table 2.8 shows locatives in classes 16 through 18 in the seven regional languages in Zambia in the first three rows. The first column indicates the English prepositional equivalents of the locatives under Zambian languages. In the fourth row the words for 'under' are actually adverbs of place used as prepositions by the addition of a possessive particle. For instance, *ya* in Bemba appears in *panshi ya mootoka* 'under the car'. Prepositions come before nouns. Bantu also has enclitics, locatives added to the ends of verbs to express the same relationships as locatives. Enclitics end with *-o*.

**19 (a)** *Biikamo*

'put inside'

**19 (b)** *biikapo*

'put on top'

**19 (c)** *twalako*

'take there'



Table 2.8 Locatives in Zambian languages

English	Nyanja	Tonga	Bemba	Kaonde	Lunda	Luvale	Lozi
<b>on</b>	<i>pa</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>pa</i>	<i>pa</i>	<i>ha</i>	<i>ha</i>	<i>fa</i>
<b>to</b>	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>kwa</i>
<b>in</b>	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>mwa</i>
<b>under</b>	<i>pansi</i>	<i>munsi/ ansi/ munselelo</i>	<i>panshi/ munshi</i>	<i>munshi</i>	<i>mwishina</i>	<i>mwishi</i>	<i>mwatasi</i>
<b>with</b>	<i>ndi</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>ni</i>
<b>near</b>	<i>pafupi</i>	<i>munsi- munsi</i>	<i>mupeepi</i>	<i>peepi</i>	<i>hakamwihi</i>	<i>hakamwihi</i>	<i>fakufi</i>
<b>until</b>	<i>mpaka</i>	<i>mpaka</i>	<i>mpaka</i>				

In Zambian languages, locatives are in general affixed to the common nouns they precede but written separately before proper nouns.

**20** *Chiteta nayi kushikola. [Luvale]*

Chiteta has gone to school.'

*Chiteta nayi ku Lusaka.*

Chiteta has gone to Lusaka.'



## Activity 14

**Learning outcomes: 1 & 3**



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Ask student teachers two questions:
  - What are prepositions?
  - How are they formed?
2. Organise student teachers together into groups of three or four.
3. Ask student teachers to give examples of sentences in other languages where prepositions are joined with the noun as a single word and other examples where the preposition is not joined with a noun. If student teachers have a student module, they can complete the chart in their book. Otherwise, they can create a chart or list in their notebook.

### Prepositions are affixed

*Sample Response:*

*Prepositions are words that come before nouns and show relationships of space and time among words in a sentence.*

### Prepositions are not affixed

*Sample Response:*

*Answers will depend on the language chosen but, in all languages, prepositions in the form of locatives are joined to common nouns but written separately before proper nouns e.g. pamwinshi 'at the door' or pa Chola 'at chola's (place).'*

## Lesson demonstration

### Lesson plan

Teacher's name:		Date	
Subject:	Bemba	Class	5A
Topic	Nouns	Duration	30 minutes
Subtopic	Noun Classes		

### Lesson Plan Template

Rational:	Noun classes are a typical feature of Bantu languages and they play an important part in the agreement system of the languages. It is important for students to have secure knowledge of this important part of Bantu grammar.
Objective:	Given lists of nouns, learners should be able to arrange them according to the noun classes indicated by their prefixes.
Pre-requisites	Learners have already learnt about singular and plural nouns in earlier grades and are able to provide plural forms for singular nouns. This background knowledge is useful for them to be able to work out the meanings of prefixes (expressing singular and plural meanings) and to arrange nouns in classes.
Materials / Resources	Chalk board, teacher's notes.
References	Grade 5 syllabus objective 5.4.5.1 List nouns according to noun prefixes
Review	The teacher reviews the previous lesson on nouns. She asks learners to provide plural nouns for the singular nouns she mentions. She writes some of the nouns on the board in two columns: singular and plural from class one to six.
Introduction	The teacher tells the learner the purpose of the lesson in Bemba: <i>twalakonkanyapo ukulanda pa mashina. Leelo twalamona ifyo yapangwa</i> . Are going to continue looking at the nouns and we will find out how they are constructed.

Lesson Development	The teacher then draws the attention of the learners to the two columns of nouns she has written on the board: (In Bemba) <i>We have seen that the words in column 1 are about one thing while those in column 2 are about many of the same thing. I want you to sit in groups of five to look at the appearance of the words and decide which parts of the words you think tell us about the number of things-one or many.</i>			
Group Work	1		2	
	<i>umuntu</i>	'person'	<i>abantu</i>	'people'
	<i>umuti</i>	'tree'	<i>imiti</i>	'trees'
	<i>ishina</i>	'name'	<i>amashina</i>	'names'
	and so on...			
	The teacher puts the learners in groups to look at the words on the board and do the following things:			
	a) to compare each pair of words from column 1 and 2 and tell what the differences are in the way they are written.			
	b) to compare the meaning of the words and indicate which part of the words they think contributes to differences in meaning.			
	Learners discuss in their groups. Teacher goes round to see how they are working and helps when need arises.			
Plenary	Teacher calls upon a representative of each group to come to the front of the class. She then asks each in turn to explain what their groups decided on the two tasks. She tells them to write on the board if they feel like doing so. Expected responses: learners are likely to see that the words differ at their beginnings e.g. <i>umu-ntu/ aba-ntu</i> 'person/people', <i>i-shina/ ama-shina</i> 'name/names'. On the second task, they should say the parts of the words at the beginning are responsible for the difference between singular and plural. The teacher uses each response and asks the other groups to confirm or disprove if the response is not correct. At the end of the discussion, the teacher should highlight all the prefixes on the board by underlining them. She should then ask learners what to call the prefixes in their language e.g. <i>inundwa</i> 'what is added, an affix').			
	To establish the noun classes, the teacher asks learners to add the adjective <i>suma</i> 'good' to the noun and gives an illustration: <i>umuntu umusuma</i> 'good person'. Then asks learners to do the same with the other words. Expected responses: e.g. <i>umuti uusuma</i> 'good tree', <i>ishina ilisuma</i> 'good name'. Teacher tells learners that the use of the adjective is a test to see which words belong together			

	according to the prefixes e.g. <i>umuti</i> and <i>umuntu</i> are in different classes and so is <i>ishina</i> 'name'.
Oral practice	Learners are asked to suggest other nouns which have similar agreements as the ones on the board: e.g. <i>isabi</i> 'fish' is in the same group as <i>ishina</i> . Learners make suggestions orally.
Written practice	Teacher asks learners to write three nouns for each of the first six noun classes in the language as represented by the examples above.  Teacher goes round to mark the work.
Closure	Teacher asks learners a few questions to assess whether they are able to explain the procedure for discovering the noun classes and grouping nouns according to class.  Teacher then thanks learners for their attention and participation.

### Teacher educator's note



*Discuss the lesson procedure above by referring to the four principles of L1 teaching. Which ones have been observed and which ones have been ignored?*

*Sample Response: The lesson has covered the principle of learning how to learn by helping learners to discover noun classes. They can use similar thinking to discover other language structures. It has also used the principle of learning as a social activity through the use of group work. Learners' prior knowledge of their language has also been exploited in their discussion of the meanings of words and in discovering the meanings of prefixes. The only principle not covered is the use of context, that is, linguistic or social context of the material being taught.*

## 2.10

# Nominal parts of speech in English

This section considers nominal parts of speech in English associated with noun phrases:

1. nouns
2. adjectives
3. numerals
4. articles
5. prepositions
6. pronouns

### 2.10.1 Nouns in English

As in Zambian languages, nouns in English also represent persons, places, things, or ideas. They can be singular or plural, concrete or abstract. The rules for the formation of English nouns, however, are different to those in Zambian languages. English as a second language teachers must be knowledgeable about these differences and design lessons to make these differences explicit to learners.

### 2.10.2 Forms of English nouns

Nouns in English are categorised as regular nouns or irregular nouns. Regular nouns are made into their plural form by adding the suffix '-s' or '-es' to the stem. Irregular nouns are those in which the stem stays the same or the spelling of the word changes to show plurality. The addition of '-s' or '-es' to the end of regular nouns is determined by the final letter or letters of the stem:

1. Nouns that end in the consonants '-s', '-ss', '-sh', '-ch', '-z', or '-x' are made plural by adding '-es'
2. Nouns that end in a vowel, add '-s'
3. Nouns that end in a vowel + '-y', add '-s'
4. Nouns that end in a consonant + '-y', change the '-y' to an '-i-' and add '-es'
5. Nouns that end in a consonant + '-o', add '-es'
6. For most nouns that end in '-f', change the '-f' to '-v' and add '-es'

Table 2.9 provides examples for how each of the rules for changing regular nouns into their plural forms.

Table 2.9 Examples of plural forms of regular nouns

Noun Type			Singular Form	Plural Form
1	Nouns that end in the consonants '-s', '-ss', '-sh', '-ch', '-z', or '-x'	add '-es'	bus	busses
			class	classes
			dish	dishes
			church	churches
			quiz	quizzes
			axe	axes

Noun Type			Singular Form	Plural Form
2	Nouns that end in a vowel	add '-s'	lake	lakes
3	Nouns that end in a consonant + '-o'	add '-es'	potato	potatoes
			tomato	tomatoes
4	Nouns that end in a vowel + '-y'	add '-s'	toy	toys
			day	days
5	Nouns that end in a consonant + '-y'	change the '-y' to an '-i-' and add '-es'	fly	flies
			cherry	cherries
6	For most nouns that end in '-f'	change the '-f' to '-v-' and add '-es'	thief	thieves
			hoof	hooves
			wife	wives
			wolf	wolves
		add '-s'	belief	beliefs
			chief	chiefs
			roof	roofs

Table 2.10 provides examples for irregular nouns.

Table 2.10 Examples of plural irregular nouns

Irregular noun types	Singular noun	Plural noun
Irregular nouns which change their spelling	tooth	<u>teeth</u>
	ox	<u>oxen</u>
	man, woman	<u>men</u> , <u>women</u>
	cactus	<u>cacti</u>
	radius	<u>radii</u>
	person	<u>people</u>
	mouse	<u>mice</u>
	goose	<u>geese</u>
	die	<u>dice</u>
Irregular nouns that do not change spelling	sheep	sheep
	fish	Fish when describing more than one fish
		Fishes when describing multiple species of fish
	moose	moose

### Activity 15

Learning outcomes: 4 & 5



*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

#### Round Robin

1. Group student teachers together into groups of three or four to answer the questions below. They should start with the first question and allow each member of their group an opportunity to respond. Go around the room to listen to student teachers' discussions so that you know what points to bring up when it is time for sharing and debriefing.



- How do Zambian languages and the English language differ in terms of transforming singular nouns into plural nouns?

*Sample Response: In Zambian languages, prefixes are used to indicate plural forms while in English suffixes are used (-s, -es, or the word changes internally or remains unchanged).*

- What implications does this have for learners whose L1 is a Zambian language?

*Sample Response: They have to be explicitly taught to pay attention to the ends of nouns when adding plural forms, compared to their Zambian languages where they pay attention to the beginning of words.*

- What suggestions do you have for teaching the English rules for pluralising nouns?

*Sample Response: Learners should receive explicit instruction in changing English nouns into their plural form. This means that teachers should model each of the different rules, practise the rules, and provide learners with as much independent practice as needed to master the rules. After learners are taught these rules, they can also be prompted to notice in English text examples when the rules are being demonstrated.*

2. After student teachers have had time to answer their questions, have some volunteers share a response for each question, provide clarification as needed, and emphasise key points.

### 2.10.3 Syntactic roles of English nouns

Similar to the Zambian languages, nouns can be identified by the syntactic role, or function, they play in sentences. In English, nouns usually occur as the subject, direct, or indirect objects or as the subject complements. Table 2.11 provides definitions and examples of these and other functions.

Table 2.11 Functions of nouns

Role/Function	Definition	Example
<b>Subject</b>	Who or what is performing an action in a sentence	The <u>moon</u> shone brightly.
<b>Direct object</b>	The direct recipient of the action that a subject performs	Dogs love their <u>owners</u> .
<b>Indirect object</b>	Receives the direct object	The teacher assigned his <u>learners</u> homework.
<b>Subject complement</b>	Renames the subject; is joined by a linking verb (which is the verb to be)	Mr Banda was a great <u>writer</u> .
<b>Adjectival</b>	A noun which describes another noun	That movie was a <u>love</u> story.
<b>Adverbial</b>	A noun which tells how, when, where, or why	<u>Yesterday</u> , they mopped the kitchen.

## Teacher educator's note



*Go through each example in the Table 2.11 with your student teachers explaining how the placement in the sentence indicates the noun's function.*

## Teacher educator's note



*Help student teachers comprehend the text.*

*Haussamen (2003) suggests that when teaching learners to identify which word class an English word belongs to, it is helpful to ask four questions. These four questions have been simplified for the context of early grade learners.*

1. *What does the word mean?*
2. *What does the word look like (form)?*
3. *Where is the word placed in relation to other words (frame/position)?*
4. *What does the word do (function)?*

*Question two in the four questions above refers to the form of the word. When examining a word such as 'bats', one would wonder if the word were referring to a type of mammal that flies or an action performed (to bat one's eyes or to bat a ball). Further examination of the context or place of the word provides more clues about the word (question 3): The bats flew out of the dark cave into the starry sky. The placement of 'bats' in the sentence tells the reader that the word 'bats' is referring to a mammal. In this case, it acts as the subject of the sentence (question 4).*

## Activity 16

## Learning outcomes: 2 & 3



*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

### Rally Coach

1. Pair student teachers together to complete the exercise. Student teachers will practise identifying the noun's type based on its position in the sentence. Before student teachers practise with their partner, use the 'I Do, We Do, You Do' process by using two of the examples in the exercise. When it is time for your students to do the 'You Do' part of the exercise, they will complete this Rally Coach style. This is described in the next step.
2. Rally Coach is a way for students to take turns answering questions but with a twist. The partners may be labelled as Partner A and Partner B and complete their exercises according to these guidelines:
  - a. Partner A answers a question. Partner B agrees or coaches Partner A to the correct answer. Partner B does not simply give the correct answer but helps Partner A come to the conclusion on the correct answer.
  - b. Partners switch roles after each question until the end of the exercise.
3. After student teachers have completed the exercise, review the answers and clarify any questions that student teachers may have and ask student teachers:
  - How does a noun's function change based on its syntactic position?

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## Noun Types

Directions: Decide whether the bolded nouns are the subject, direct object, indirect object, a subject complement, or acting as an adjective or adverb in the sentences below. Write your answer on the line next to the question.

---

- |   | <i>Sample Response:</i>       |
|---|-------------------------------|
| 1. The cold weather was a surprise to the <u>animals</u> .<br>_____             | 1. <i>indirect object</i>     |
| 2. In the morning, the <u>rabbit</u> burrowed into the ground.<br>_____         | 2. <i>subject</i>             |
| 3. A storm is expected <u>tomorrow</u> .<br>_____                               | 3. <i>adverbial</i>           |
| 4. The lizard, a clever <u>detective</u> , discovered a stash of bugs.<br>_____ | 4. <i>subject complement</i>  |
| 5. Grandmother cooked her <u>grandchildren</u> a tasty supper.<br>_____         | 5. <i>indirect object</i>     |
| 6. He closed his <u>window</u> to stop the wind from coming in.<br>_____        | 6. <i>direct object</i>       |
| 7. The <u>news</u> report headline was a shock to its readers.<br>_____         | 7. <i>adjective</i>           |
| 8. The <u>accountant</u> took a holiday after a busy week.<br>_____             | 8. <i>subject</i>             |
| 9. Her local shop sent a <u>newsletter</u> to its clients.<br>_____             | 9. <i>direct object</i>       |
| 10. Mrs. Gomani, my <u>teacher</u> , makes me smile.<br>_____                   | 10. <i>subject complement</i> |
- 

### 2.10.4 Syntactic position of nouns

Nominal parts of speech are those found in noun phrases in Zambian languages and English. Up to this point, nouns have been described as regular or irregular and can represent one (singular) or more than one (plural). There are also different types of nouns based on where they are in relation to other words in a sentence. In order to understand how to describe a noun's position in a sentence, one must also be able to describe the other words that may possibly precede a noun. In English, noun phrases are described as being head last whereas in Zambian languages, noun phrases are headfirst.



<b>21 (a)</b>	English noun phrase 'These three beautiful <u>children</u> '
<b>21 (b)</b>	Zambian noun phrase <i>Abaana aba batatu abasuma</i> ' <u>Children</u> these three beautiful'

In the English noun phrase example, 'children' is located at the end of the noun phrase, but in the Zambian language noun phrase, 'children' comes first. It is also apparent that in the English noun phrase, there are words preceding the noun which modify the noun's meaning in the sentence. The additional words that precede nouns in English noun phrases are discussed in the next sections.

## 2.11

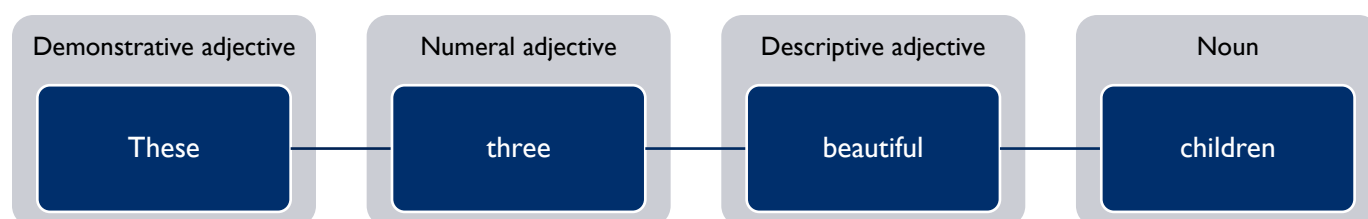
# English noun phrases and modifiers

Noun phrases may be composed of the noun alone or a group of words which modify the noun. As in Zambia languages, modifiers to English nouns include adjectives, numerals, articles, and prepositions.

## 2.11.1 Adjectives

Adjectives modify nouns by telling specific details about them. Depending on the age and ability of learners, it is helpful to describe adjectives as words that tell 'what kind', 'how many', or 'which one'. Complexity is added by labelling adjectives according to how they specifically modify a noun. Figure 2.2 labels three adjectives within the noun phrase used previously.

Figure 2.2 Examples of adjectives in a noun phrase



In the example above, the noun 'children' is preceded by a demonstrative adjective, a numeral adjective, and a descriptive adjective.

## 2.11.2 Demonstrative adjectives

There are two pairs of demonstratives in English which are used to point to things or people:

1. 'this' and its plural form 'these'
2. 'that' and its plural form 'those'

Unlike Zambian languages, these demonstratives indicate only two distances: near the speaker (e.g. this book or these books) and near the addressee (e.g. that book or those books). In English, there is no demonstrative pronoun or adjective to talk about what is far from both the speaker and addressee as there are in Zambian languages. In an older form in English, 'yonder' was used to refer to distant things.

### 2.11.3 Descriptive adjectives

Descriptive adjectives answer the question 'what kind?' and tell the quality or qualities that a noun possesses. Table 2.12 outlines some of the most common English adjectives. Comparative and superlative adjectives are included in Table 2.12 and further elaborated on, including, spelling rules that must be explicitly taught, in Table 2.13.

*Table 2.12 Common types of English adjectives*

Type	Definition	Examples	Sentence
<b>Demonstratives</b>	Provide a noun's approximate position in time and space	this, that (singular) these, or those (plural)	<u>That</u> banana is ripe.
<b>Distributives</b>	Refer to a specific noun or group of nouns	each, every, either, neither	<u>Each</u> pen is a different colour.
<b>Interrogatives</b>	Ask questions of nouns	what, whose, which	<u>Which</u> colour do you prefer?
<b>Quantitative</b>	Generally, tell how much (not specific)	some, little, much, enough	We have <u>enough</u> water for the week.
<b>Numeral</b>	Tell how many, how much, or in what order	nine, first, last	He finished <u>first</u> in the race.
<b>Proper adjectives</b>	A proper noun used to describe something	Zambian, Japanese, Moroccan, Italian	Nshima is served with a <u>Zambian</u> meal.
<b>Comparatives</b>	Commonly compare two nouns by adding -er or -ier	healthier	An apple is <u>healthier</u> than apple pie.
<b>Superlatives</b>	Commonly compare more than two nouns by adding -est or -iest	healthiest	I just ate the <u>healthiest</u> meal I've had all week.
<b>Possessives</b>	Demonstrate ownership	her, his, mine, your, its, their	<u>Their</u> car is parked in the driveway.



Review each example in Table 2.12 with the student teachers before moving on to the next activity. Comparatives and superlatives are elaborated on next in Table 2.13.

Table 2.13 Spelling rules for comparatives and superlatives

Comparatives	Example	Superlatives	Example
For adjectives that end in a vowel and a consonant, double the consonant and add '-er'	fat-fatter big-bigger slow-slower	For adjectives that end in a vowel and a consonant, double the consonant and add '-est'	fat-fattest big-biggest slow-slowest
For adjectives that end in -y, change the 'y' to an 'i' and add '-er'	happy-happier sunny-sunnier lovely-lovelier	For adjectives that end in -y, change the 'y' to an 'i' and add '-iest'	happy-happiest sunny-sunniest lovely-loveliest
For positive adjectives with two or more syllables, add the word 'more'	more gentle more intelligent more forthright	For positive adjectives with two or more syllables, add the word 'most'	most gentle most intelligent most forthright
For negative adjectives with two or more syllables, add the word 'less'	less adventurous less breakable less tiresome	For negative adjectives with two or more syllables, add the word 'least'	least adventurous least breakable least tiresome

Not only are there special rules for spelling comparatives and superlatives, but there are also special variations of words in which the spellings of the word change completely (Table 2.14).

Table 2.14 Special comparatives and superlatives

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
good/well	better	best
bad	worse	worst

## Activity 17

Learning outcome: 3



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*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

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### Option 1: Group Work & Share

1. Divide student teachers into small groups for each of the types of adjectives. This might mean assigning adjectives to pairs of student teachers or assigning more than one type of adjective to certain groups depending on the number of learners in your class.
2. Ask student teachers to provide at least two different examples of a sentence that uses their assigned adjective and be prepared to share with the class.

### Option 2: Carousel Brainstorming

1. Provide nine sheets of paper labelled with the type of adjective at the top and place them around the room.
2. Divide student teachers into small groups to rotate going to each 'station.'
3. Decide how many minutes teachers have at each station to produce sentences with the assigned adjective.

*During the activity, it is important to go around the classroom to make sure that student teachers understand the activity and are completing it correctly. Make sure to provide closure at the end of the activity that emphasises any key points or clarifies misconceptions.*

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## 2.11.4 Numerals

Numeral adjectives perform the function that their name implies; they numerically describe a noun. Nouns can be counted using cardinal numbers (one, two, three) or ordinal numbers (first, second, third).

## 2.11.5 Articles

Like demonstrative pronouns, an article is also referred to as a determiner. They occur with nouns and modify their meaning in some ways. There are three articles in the English language: 'a', 'an', and 'the'. The words 'a' and 'an' are indefinite articles, and the word 'the' is a definite article. As the name implies, 'a' and 'an' refer to an unspecified noun, whereas 'the' refers to a specific or definite noun. A definite noun is one which is known because it has either already been mentioned in a discourse, is the only one of its kind, or is very well known.

## Activity 18

Learning outcome: 3



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*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

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- 
1. Pair student teachers together to read the sentences below and determine why the specific articles were used.
    - a. I saw a new girl at school yesterday. I met the girl again today; she is called Jane.
    - b. The sun is shining brightly.
    - c. Have you been to the Mosi-o -tunya Falls?
    - d. This is the most difficult sum I have ever solved.
    - e. Michelo lived on an island on lake Kariba
    - f. The orange in the basket is tiny.
    - g. The president will address a group of people.
  2. Review with student teachers the correct answers for A-G. Student teachers should know that when ‘a’ or ‘an’ is used, it is because it is indicating a non-specific noun. When ‘the’ is used, it is indicating specificity. For example, in B, there is only one sun, ‘the’ sun.
- 

The rule for choosing ‘a’ or ‘an’ depends on whether the noun being described begins with a vowel sound or not. Before a vowel, ‘an’ is always used and ‘a’ is used before nouns beginning with a consonant.

<b>22 (a)</b>	<u>An</u> orange is shaped like a sphere.
<b>22 (b)</b>	I saw <u>a</u> jackal in Kafue National Park.
<b>22 (c)</b>	<u>A</u> fruit basket is <u>a</u> nice gift.



### 2.11.6 Prepositions

Prepositions tell more information about a noun’s specific location—its spatial relationship with other nouns, time, or direction. Prepositions occur as words on their own (e.g. ‘of’) or within a prepositional phrase (e.g. ‘according to’). Some common prepositions are provided in Table 2.15.



Table 2.15 Commonly used prepositions

aboard by	despite	on
about	down	onto
according to	during	out
across	except	out of
after	except for	outside
against	for	over
along	from	past
among	in	since
around	in back of	through
at	in front of	to
because of	inside	toward
before	in spite of	under
behind	instead of	underneath
below	into	until
beneath	like	up
beside	near	upon
besides	next to	with
between	of	within
beyond	off	without

### Activity 19

Learning outcomes: 2 & 4



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Pair student teachers together to read this excerpt from the children's novel, 'Poppy', by Avi and circle the prepositions or prepositional phrases that appear in the text. If student teachers do not have a student module, provide copies of the text to the student teachers to share.

'A large number of mice were milling about on the porch waiting for the expected good news. Sure enough, when Poppy and Lungwort appeared, a cheer went up. The sound brought Lungwort to a dead halt. The old mouse stared blankly at the rows of eager faces. A second cheer began but faded as the onlookers sensed something was wrong. Silent and grim-faced, eyes averted. Lungwort painfully climbed the Gray House steps. Alarmed into silence, the mice backed away to let him pass.'

---

2. Review the answers with the student teachers.

'A large number of mice were milling about on the porch waiting for the expected good news. Sure enough, when Poppy and Lungwort appeared, a cheer went up. The sound brought Lungwort to a dead halt. The old mouse stared blankly at the rows of eager faces. A second cheer began but faded as the onlookers sensed something was wrong. Silent and grim-faced, eyes averted. Lungwort painfully climbed the Gray House steps. Alarmed into silence, the mice backed away to let him pass.'

3. Close the activity by asking the student teachers:

- What is the form and function of prepositions?

*Sample Response: Prepositions exist as single words or phrases. They are used to show the location of nouns in time and or space or to indicate direction.*

- How can children's literature be used to teach the structure of language?

*Sample Response: Children's literature can serve as examples of teaching the structure of language. Teachers can use any texts used in the classroom to teach grammar. Perhaps there is a text that teachers are using throughout the week in reading comprehension lessons: teachers can bring out the same text to show examples of grammatical structures that are also being taught in grammar lessons.*

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## 2.12

# Pronouns

English pronouns are used to substitute or replace nouns. The words that are replaced by pronouns are termed antecedents. Antecedents are nouns already mentioned in a discourse and are being referred to by pronouns. Pronouns must agree in number with the antecedent(s) that are being replaced. There are several types of pronouns:

1. Personal pronouns
2. Possessive pronouns
3. Reflexive pronouns
4. Interrogative pronouns
5. Demonstrative pronouns
6. Relative pronouns

Personal pronouns replace the subject or the object noun and refer to nouns in the first person, second person, or third person, which may also be singular or plural. Table 2.16 outlines the various forms of personal pronouns and their transformations with further provided afterwards.

Table 2.16 Personal pronouns

Pronoun Form	First person subject	First person object	Second person subject	Second person object	Third person subject	Third person object
Singular	I	me	you	you	he, she, it	him, her, it
Plural	we	us	you	you	they	them

<b>23 (a)</b>	I want to keep that book; it belongs to <u>me</u> .
<b>23 (b)</b>	<u>You</u> should finish writing the essay.
<b>23 (c)</b>	<u>We</u> like to prepare dinner on Fridays.
<b>23 (d)</b>	The scientist explained the diagram to <u>us</u> .
<b>23 (e)</b>	<u>He</u> hasn't completed the assignment.
<b>23 (f)</b>	She plans to write a letter to <u>him</u> .
<b>23 (g)</b>	<u>They</u> certainly enjoy hiking.
<b>23 (h)</b>	I sent a card wishing <u>them</u> to get well soon.



Six other types of nouns are outlined in Table 2.17 with descriptions and examples.

Table 2.17 Other types of pronouns

Pronoun type	Definition	Examples
<b>Possessive pronouns</b>	Demonstrate ownership or possession, follow verbs, not nouns	<p>This gift is <u>yours</u>.</p> <p>He gave <u>her</u> a book.</p> <p>The home is <u>theirs</u>.</p> <p>Don't forget <u>its</u> name.</p> <p>She wrote <u>my</u> address down.</p> <p>The prize was <u>ours</u>.</p> <p>It was <u>his</u> essay in the journal.</p>
<b>Reflexive pronouns</b>	Connect the object of a sentence back to its subject when the subject and object refer to the same noun	<p>Ann painted it <u>herself</u>.</p> <p>We are proud of <u>ourselves</u>.</p> <p>He wished <u>himself</u> a good day.</p>

Pronoun type	Definition	Examples
		Put <u>yourself</u> in his shoes.
<b>Interrogative pronouns</b>	Questions that do not precede nouns	<u>What</u> is the title? <u>Which</u> are you going to pick? <u>Who</u> will send the email? <u>Whom</u> did you speak with? <u>Whose</u> bag does this belong to?
<b>Demonstrative pronouns</b>	Refer to nouns without naming them; do not precede nouns	<u>This</u> will make a great home. <u>That</u> might be the answer. <u>These</u> are beautiful flowers. <u>Those</u> are helpful questions.
<b>Indefinite pronouns</b>	Refer to people or things in a general way	<u>Someone</u> knocked on the door. <u>Everyone</u> is capable of writing. <u>One</u> may not understand the topic. <u>Anyone</u> can enter the content. <u>No one</u> is permitted inside.
<b>Relative pronouns</b>	Introduce relative clauses which add more information about a noun phrase	This is the girl <u>who</u> won the marathon race. I felt proud of the boy <u>whose</u> project won first place. The radio <u>which</u> I bought yesterday isn't working. This is my daughter <u>whom</u> I'm visiting this weekend.



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

### Rally Coach

1. Pair student teachers together with another peer other than one they have worked with before.
2. Have them complete the pronoun activity Rally Coach style by taking turns answering and being the coach. If student teachers have a student module, they may write their answers into their book. Otherwise, you will need to provide them with an alternative.
3. When student teachers are finished, they can review their work with another pair before you review the answers with them, or you can simply review the answers when they are finished without them sharing with their peers.

### Choose the Right Pronoun

**Directions:** Choose which pronoun accurately completes the sentence and identify which type of pronoun it is.

1. The delicious Zambian dinner was made by \_\_\_\_\_.  
 Pronoun type: \_\_\_\_\_  
 a. it                      b. her                      c. whose                      d. my
2. Patrick bought \_\_\_\_\_ a new laptop.  
 Pronoun type: \_\_\_\_\_  
 a. what                      b. his                      c. himself                      d. ours
3. \_\_\_\_\_ colour will you choose for the wall?  
 Pronoun type: \_\_\_\_\_  
 a. which                      b. those                      c. whom                      d. none
4. He is the caterer \_\_\_\_\_ my friend told me about.  
 Pronoun type: \_\_\_\_\_  
 a. everyone                      b. him                      c. this                      d. who
5. \_\_\_\_\_ are the types of flowers she likes.  
 Pronoun type: \_\_\_\_\_  
 a. this                      b. those                      c. somehow                      d. who
6. We argued that the trophy was \_\_\_\_\_, not theirs.  
 Pronoun type: \_\_\_\_\_  
 a. yourselves                      b. ourselves                      c. its                      d. ours

#### Sample Responses:

1. *her, possessive pronoun*
2. *himself, reflexive pronoun*
3. *which, interrogative pronoun*
4. *who, relative pronoun*
5. *those, demonstrative pronoun*
6. *ours, possessive pronoun*

## Teaching and assessment of nominal parts of speech in Zambian languages and English

Teaching grammar is a challenging but rewarding task in any language. In chapter 1, four principles were provided to help guide teachers in planning their language lessons. The lesson demonstration provided in this chapter has illustrated how some of the four principles can be incorporated in a lesson.

### 2.13.1 Group and pair work

In order to make learning a socially meaningful activity, learners must be given opportunities to work with peers. This helps them understand things more easily because they feel free and can ask themselves any questions. It is also an opportunity to gain experience living and working with others. It is easier to conduct pair and group work in Zambian languages in the lower grades because the children know the language and are able to use it well. This facilitates learning of new concepts.

### 2.13.2 Discovery learning

In the lesson, the strategy used in teaching grammar was to ask learners to look for similarities and differences in the language data presented. They proceeded from looking at examples to reaching conclusions about the patterns displayed by the data. This is inductive teaching which is also referred to as discovery learning. Learners discover things by studying examples or language data and looking for patterns. As much as possible, teachers should encourage learners to discover things instead of telling them facts, rules. When teachers do this, they encourage rote learning which is not meaningful to learners. But when learners discover facts on their own, they are likely to remember them because they make sense to them.

### 2.13.3 Creating contexts for teaching

In order to make learning meaningful, it is important to provide a context to what is being taught. Some language structures, for example, can be taught using examples from reading texts. As learners are reading a text, the teacher can draw their attention to, and explicitly explain, some items of the language. The discussion thus can start from how the item is used to an analysis of the form.

All the above strategies can also be used in assessing learning. Teachers can help learners discover language rules or patterns by first demonstrating how it is done and then asking them to apply the same thinking to other items. Some language questions can be embedded in reading comprehension texts. A teacher can, for example, ask questions about the referent of the object marker *mu* 'him'.

Chanda didn't want Bupe to come to his palace. He lied to him that he would not be around.

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In this way, assessment is contextualised.

Student teachers will be required to teach both Zambian and English languages. Material covered here can help them design effective lessons in language teaching. More importantly, the chapter has provided some background information that can be used to transition learners in primary school from Zambian languages to English. Learners must have a strong grasp of their own language and become explicitly aware of the similarities and differences between their L1 and their second language in order for them to be successful. With enough explicit instruction and meaningful practice in a stress-free and encouraging atmosphere, learners will be able to notice the structures of the English language and develop communicative competence. Yet, learning must also be engaging. Teachers can use their creativity to design lessons that teach nominal parts of speech in ways that make learning fun.

## 2.14

# Chapter summary

This chapter has discussed the various word classes associated with noun phrases. These have included nouns themselves, pronouns, adjectives, demonstratives, numerals, prepositions, and articles. In each case, the chapter has explained the forms and functions of the word class and provided some activities to help consolidate learning. The intention was not to write a comprehensive textbook that could cover all aspects of Bantu grammar in all the languages spoken in Zambia. Instead, the hope was to give students some basic understanding of the major areas of the languages and propel them to discover the rest on their own. In this way, they will become effective teachers of English and Zambian languages.

The Zambian language sections have adequate information that can be drawn upon to prepare lessons in primary schools. It is important that student teachers do the activities as they are an essential part of learning how to analyse the Zambian languages. When student teachers are able to do this, they can apply their discovery strategies to other aspects of the language structure that have not been included in this chapter.

## 2.15

# Assessment of learning



1. What is a noun? How can nouns be identified in Zambian languages and English?
2. Describe the structure of a noun in Bantu and English.
3. What are regular and irregular nouns?
4. In what ways are pronouns similar or different in English and Zambian languages?
5. Explain what is meant by 'concord' and illustrate this with at least five examples involving different word classes from your familiar language.
6. Explain the forms of cardinal numerals in your familiar language.

## 2.16

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Chapter 3 of Language Module III

# Verbal Parts of Speech

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# Verbal Parts of Speech

## INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the verbal parts of speech or word classes. The term 'verbal' refers to the word classes that form part of the verb phrase. This includes verbs, adverbs, and conjunctions. Interjections and ideophones have also been added. The chapter begins by defining these word classes, explaining their forms and functions, and then presents how they can be assessed and taught.

### Teacher educator's note



*Review previously learnt material. Involve student teachers in discussing the nominal parts of speech together with adjectives and prepositions. Student teachers should comprehend what these parts of speech are and how they can be used in Zambian languages and English. Ask student teachers to consider what is the connection between the verbal parts of speech and those discussed in chapter 1.*



### 3.1

## Learning outcomes

### Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

- 2.2.2** Peer Teaching
  - 2.2.2.1** Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons
- 2.3.1** Parts of Speech
  - 2.3.1.1** Demonstrate understanding of all parts of speech in Zambian languages and English
- 2.3.3** Verbs
  - 2.3.3.1** Recognise and use different types of verbs
  - 2.3.3.2** Identify and use interrogative forms of verbs
- 2.3.4** Adverbs
  - 2.3.4.1** Recognise and use adverbs
  - 2.3.4.2** Use adverbs to qualify verbs in sentences
- 2.3.4.3** Recognise and use adverbs of manner, time, quality, frequency, and place
  - 2.3.4.4** Use other adverbs to modify other verbs
- 2.3.7** Conjunctions
  - 2.3.7.1** Use conjunctions to connect sentences
- 2.3.8** Interjections
  - 2.3.8.1** Explain the use of interjections in communication
- 2.3.11** Concord Agreement
  - 2.3.11.1** Demonstrate concord agreement appropriately in sentences

### By the end of this chapter, the student teacher will:

- 1** explain the form and function of verbs in both English and Bantu languages.
- 2** identify and use verbs in English and Bantu languages correctly.
- 3** describe other parts of speech.
- 4** demonstrate understanding of how verbal parts of speech are taught.
- 5** demonstrate understanding of how verbal parts of speech are assessed.
- 6** apply their understanding of verbal parts of speech through the development and demonstration of a peer teaching lesson.

### Teacher educator's note



*Learning outcomes should be introduced to student teachers before you begin teaching the lesson's content. Student teachers should understand what is required of them throughout each chapter. Each time you present the content in the chapter, emphasise the learning outcomes that are the lesson's focus.*

*If student teachers have a copy of the student module edition, they may review student outcomes with you. If student teachers do not have a copy, make sure to visually present the learning outcomes to them (e.g. chalkboard). Be prepared to make accommodations for learners with special educational needs.*

## Instructional materials

- Teacher educator module
- Teacher educator curated materials
- Student module
- Zambian language interpreter/translator
- Zambian language explanations
- A copy of the syllabus
- A copy of the *Zambian Language: Orthography* (Chimuka, 1977)

### Teacher educator's note



*Review materials and be prepared to make accommodations for students with special educational needs.*

*Materials. Review the chapter thoroughly to decide if there are any materials that you have or may find useful to the presentation of the information. Student teachers will need any materials that require application in this chapter.*

*They will also be asked to develop and deliver their own lesson to their peers. Make sure that you are prepared with all materials to help them with this.*

*Students with special educational needs: Before presenting the content in the chapter, make sure you are aware of any accommodations that you may need to make for students with special needs. Depending on the needs of your student teachers, some common accommodations are:*

- *Familiarise yourself with appropriate terms (e.g. 'disability', not 'handicap'; 'deaf', not 'hearing impaired')*
- *Repeat and vary explanations*
- *Ask for clarification of understanding*
- *Create audio-recordings of lectures and course materials*
- *Request Zambian Sign Language interpreters (ideally two per lecture)*
- *Request notetakers*
- *Allow additional time to complete coursework*
- *Include verbal descriptions of visual aids in lecture*
- *Designate front or centre row seating (closest to you) for low vision/hearing learners*
- *Designate appropriate seating for those with physical disabilities to manoeuvre into and out of seats*
- *Face those with low vision/hearing during lecture (do not turn your back to them)*
- *Utilise Universal Design Learning pedagogy*
- *Utilise Eclectic Teaching pedagogy*
- *Increase wait time when asking questions*
- *Increase communication (e.g. e-mail check-ins, office hours, etc)*
- *Translanguage*

### 3.3

## Key terms



### Adverb

A word that modifies verbs, nouns, and other adverbs.

### Agglutinative

A language in which words are made up of a linear sequence of separate morphemes that express different meanings and grammatical functions. [Example: \*a-za-bwera\* 'he will come' \[Nynaja\]](#)

### Aspect

A verb category that denotes time-related characteristics, such as the repetition, duration, or completion of an action.

### Auxiliary verb

A verb that forms the tenses, moods, and voices of lexical (main) verbs. Also known as a helping verb. [Example: He was working.](#)

### Concord

Grammatical agreement in terms of number (singular or plural) and person (first, second, or third) between words, such as between nouns and adjectives

### Conjunction

A word used to connect clauses or sentences or to coordinate words in the same clause. [Example: 'and', 'but', 'if'](#)

### Finite verb phrase

A verb form that shows agreement with a subject and marked for tense.

### Ideophone

A word that expresses vividly sensory experiences and ideas. [Example: \*ndumbwi\* 'sound of an object falling into water'.](#)

### Infinite verb phrase

A verb phrase that does not show a definite time (limitless) or agreement with a noun. [Example: 'to work'](#)

## Interjection

A word, phrase, or sentence that expresses emotion, meaning, or feeling. Includes volitive, emotive, and cognitive interjections.

## Interrogative word

A word used for forming questions. In English, these are the so-called 'WH words'—what, where, why, who, when, and how.

## Main verb

The important verb in the sentence, typically showing the subject's action or state of being. Also referred to as a lexical or principal verb.

## Modality

The manner or mode in which something exists or is done. It is a speaker's or a writer's attitude towards the world. A speaker or writer can use words to express certainty, possibility, willingness, obligation, necessity, and ability.

## Transitivity

An expression in which the verb is followed by a direct object. The action of the verb affects an object. Example: John kicked a ball.

## Tense

The time indicated by the verb to the time of speaking is past, present, and future, Example: He worked. (Past time from now)

## Verb

A word that denotes an action or state of being. Example: 'is' or 'buy'

## Teacher educator's note



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*Review key terms. You may introduce the key terms together, but make sure to highlight which ones are the focus of each lesson. It is helpful to visually display the key terms (e.g. on the chalkboard) for each class session so that student teachers can refer to them throughout the lesson as needed.*

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## Verbal parts of speech

This chapter discusses the word classes that form a verb phrase. A verb phrase can consist of the verb alone, which is the head or main part of the verb phrase. It may include an auxiliary verb, a direct object, or an indirect object. Other words, such as adverbs and adjectives, may modify or add more meaning to the verb. The chapter begins discussing verbs in Zambian languages and concludes with English verbs.

### 3.4.1 Zambian languages verbs

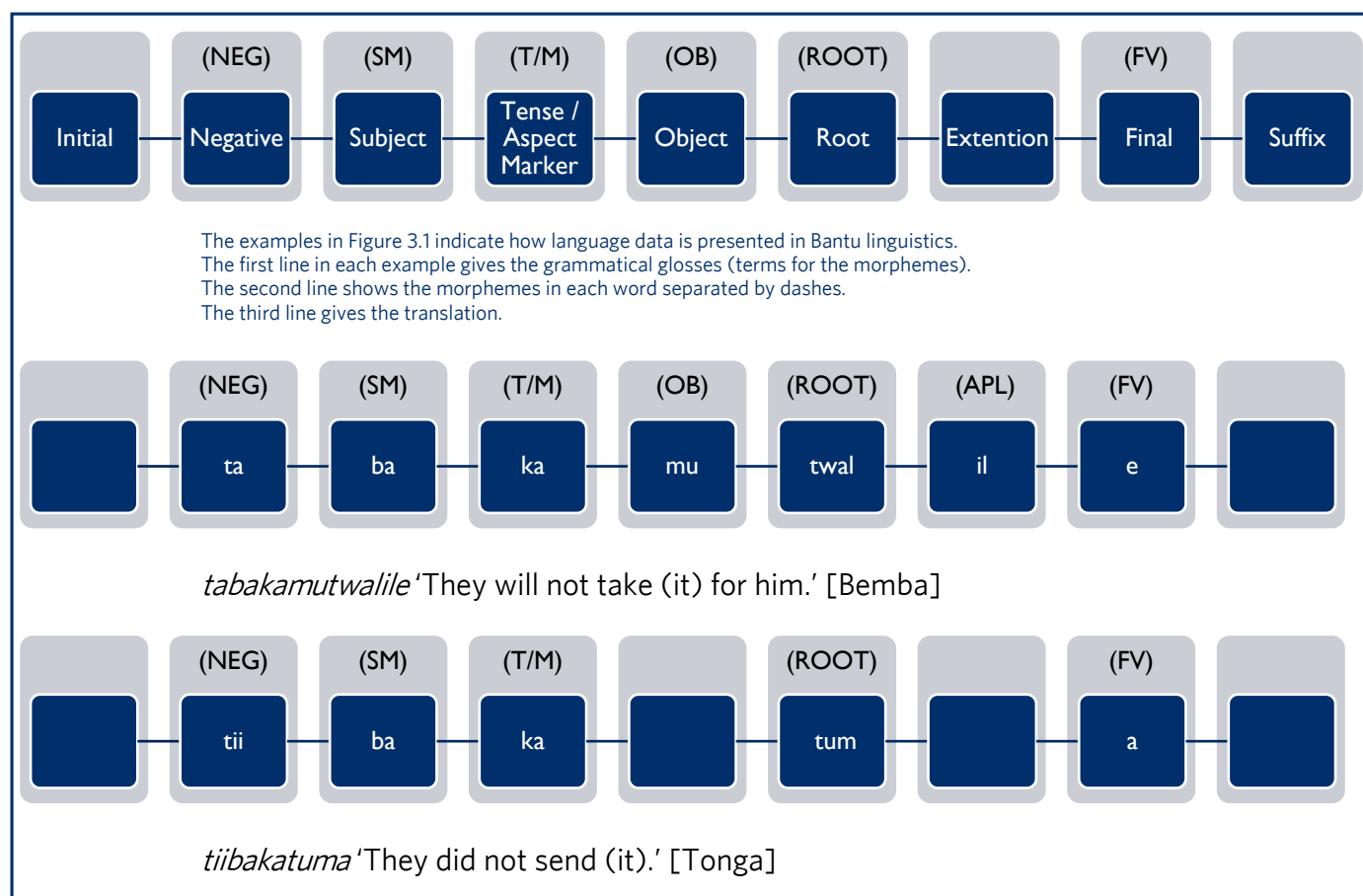
Traditionally verbs have been called ‘doing words’ or ‘action words’. Examples of these sorts of verbs include, *thamanga* ‘run’ [Nyanja] and *beleka* ‘work’ [Tonga]. However, not all verbs express actions. For example, in the sentence *John naalwala* ‘John is sick’ [Bemba], ‘is’ expresses a state of being.

In linguistics, a verb can be defined by its formal properties as ‘an element which can display morphological contrasts of tense, aspect, voice, mood, person, and number’ (Crystal, 2008, pp. 510). In most languages, and more so in Bantu languages, the morphological contrasts or differences listed appear as grammatical inflexions on the verbs.

Zambian language verbs show the agglutinative nature of Bantu languages. Agglutinative languages are those in which words consist of multiple morphemes that express different meanings and grammatical functions. Figure 3.1 shows the different morphemes found in a Bantu verb. Not all morphemes can be used in a single verb at one time. As can be seen from the English translations of Figure 3.1, each of the two verbs is a clause. Conversely, English shows features of an isolating language. That is, each morpheme tends to represent a single word. However, some English words can have more than one morpheme, for example ‘unfaithfulness’ (un-faith-ful-ness).



Figure 3.1 The verb structure



## Activity 1

Learning outcomes: 1 & 2



Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.

### Think-Pair-Share

- Ask student teachers to think about the questions:
  - Why are the two examples (*tabakamutwalile* and *tiibakatuma*) said to be verbs and not any other word class?
  - What is the function of a verb?
- Pair student teachers together to share their responses.

*Sample Response: From the translations, we can tell that the main part of the word is the verb root, -twal- 'take' and -tum- 'send' in Bemba and Tonga, respectively. Suppose we add a verb ending called the Final Vowel (FV), in the verb structure, to each of these roots. In that case, we get a verb in the imperative (commanding) mood, e.g. twala 'take!' and tuma 'send'. But we cannot make any other remaining morphemes into full words. Therefore, this is the main part of the word, and we refer to the whole word as a verb.*

### 3.4.1.1 Negation (NEG)

This expresses the idea of negation or 'not'. The negation morpheme usually occurs in the initial position but can be found after the subject position. For example, in Bemba *n-shi-leefwaya* 'I don't want', *-shi-* is the marker of negation and *n'I* is the subject. In Lunda, negation is expressed as the independent word *wanyĩ* 'not'. For example, *twayile wanyĩ* is literally, 'We went not.'

### 3.4.1.2 Subject marker

The morpheme in this position is called the subject marker abbreviated as SM. As the name implies the subject marker agrees with the verb's subject (noun phrase) in number. Compare the subject marker *a* in example 1(a); it agrees with the noun subject, *Banda* in noun class 1. Still, in example 1(b) *i* agrees with subject *galimoto* in noun class 9. In Bemba language examples 1(c) and 1(d), the subject markers agree with plural and singular nouns from classes 4 and 3, respectively.

1 (a)	<i>Banda a-likuthamanga</i> [Nyanja] 'Banda is running'
1 (b)	<i>Galimoto i-likuthamanga.</i> 'The car is running'
1 (c)	<i>Imiti ileesunkana.</i> [Bemba] 'Trees are shaking'
1 (d)	<i>Umuti ulesunkana.</i> 'A tree is shaking'



### 3.4.1.3 Tense and aspect marker (T/M)

The morphemes found in this position express tense and aspect. In most cases, the two are expressed by the same morpheme in Bantu languages. Tense indicates the location of an action or an event in time in relation to the time of speaking. In Bantu linguistics, sometimes the word hodiernal is used to indicate how far the events being talked about are from the moment of speaking. For example, the hodiernal past means a past event that occurred today from the moment of speaking. Likewise, the pre-hodiernal past refers to events that occurred before the moment of speaking, e.g. yesterday or earlier. The present is the moment of speaking, what is happening as one speaks, and the future is what is yet to happen. Thus, Bantu languages have a rich tense system that has an elaborate way of talking about events. Consider the verb 'sent' from Tonga in example 2:

<b>2 (a)</b>	<i>Twatuma</i> 'We have just sent' (just now)
<b>2 (b)</b>	<i>Twalitumide</i> 'We sent' (earlier today)
<b>2 (c)</b>	<i>Twakatuma</i> 'We sent' (yesterday)
<b>2 (d)</b>	<i>Twakalitumide</i> 'We had sent' (a long time ago)



## Activity 2

## Learning outcomes: 1 & 2



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Pair student teachers to determine which of the examples are part of the hodiernal past or pre-hodiernal past. If student teachers have a student module, they can complete the chart in their book. Otherwise, they can simply answer the question orally or record their answer in a notebook.
2. Confirm if their answers are correct and ask for student teachers to offer any other examples.

Hodiernal	Pre-Hodiernal
<i>Sample Responses:</i> <i>Twatuma</i> <i>Twalitumide</i>	<i>Sample Responses:</i> <i>Twakatuma</i> <i>Twakalitumide</i>

### 3.4.1.3.1 Discovering tenses

To discover the tense morpheme(s) that express a particular time—past, future, present—in a familiar Zambian language, start by writing a short sentence in that particular tense, e.g. present continuous tense as shown in 3(a). Then write a similar sentence talking about another time, e.g. the future as in 3(b).

<b>3 (a)</b>	<i>Aleebomba</i> [Bemba] 'she is working' (Present continuous tense)
<b>3 (b)</b>	<i>Akabomba</i> [Bemba] 'she will work' (remote future tense)



By comparing the two sentences, you will discover that the only difference is in what follows the subject marker at the beginning of each verb *-lee-* and *-ka-*. From this, it can be concluded that *-lee-* expresses the present continuous tense while the *-ka-* expresses the remote future tense (what will happen in the distant future). In fact, the full tense signs for the present continuous tense include the

Final vowel. This is why the present continuous tense is normally written as *-lee-* and the remote future tense as *-ka-*. The dashes indicate that other materials come before or after the morphemes. On this account, tense in Bantu languages is a discontinuous morpheme. It involves two separated parts: one morpheme before the verb root plus a final vowel at the end of the verb. Look at the Tonga examples for the past tense in example 2, and you will notice that the verb endings are different, too.

Once you know the morphemes for a particular tense, you can use that to discover other tense signs. Using the remote future tense sign, you can work out the other future tense signs. Review example 4 and try the same pattern in the language with which you are familiar.

<b>4 (a)</b>	<i>Akabomba</i> 'She will work'
<b>4 (b)</b>	<i>Aalabomba</i> 'She is going to work just now'
<b>4 (c)</b>	<i>Alebomba</i> 'She will work' (later today)
<b>4 (d)</b>	<i>Akulabomba</i> 'She will be working'
<b>4 (e)</b>	<i>Akalabomba</i> 'She will be working' (not immediately but in the distant future)



### Activity 3

### Learning outcomes: 1 & 2



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

Option 1: Ask student teachers to create something similar to the previous example in their first or familiar language in the future and present tense. They should indicate the tense morphemes.

Option 2: Provide student teachers with data on mixed sentences—that is, different ways of talking about the present—and ask them to write out the tense morphemes.

#### 3.4.1.3.2 Aspect in Zambian languages

Aspect shows how an action, state, or event relates to the flow of time. It indicates the duration, completion, or quality of the action or state. For instance, the continuous tenses mean that the event expressed by the verb went on for some time; actions which were completed or will be completed in future are called perfective. Some actions are habitual and simple because they happen once.

## Activity 4

Learning outcomes: 1 & 2



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

Ask student teachers to consider the following words from Kaonde expressing different aspects. If student teachers do not have a student module, write the words on the board.

- What are the aspects expressed in each sentence?
- Identify the subject markers, tense /aspect markers, the verb roots (to help you, we have separated the verb into the component morphemes in the middle).

a.	<i>Twateekelenga</i>	<i>(Tu a-teek-elenga)</i>	'we were cooking'
b.	<i>Twaateeka</i>	<i>(Tu -aa-teek-a)</i>	'we have cooked'
c.	<i>Tuteeka</i>	<i>(Tu-teek-a)</i>	'we cook'
d.	<i>Twaaingila</i>	<i>(Tu-aa-ingil-a)</i>	'we have worked'
e.	<i>Twaingijilenga</i>	<i>(Tu-a-ingi-jilenga)</i>	'we were working'
f.	<i>Twingila</i>	<i>(Tu-ingil-a)</i>	'we work'
g.	<i>Tubena kwingila</i>	<i>(Tu-bena ku-ingil-a)</i>	'we are working'

## Activity 5

Learning outcomes: 1 & 2



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Pair student teachers together with other student teachers who share their familiar Zambian language.
2. Ask student teachers to translate the following sentences into their familiar Zambian language:
  - a. She cleans the house.
  - b. She has cleaned the house.
  - c. She is cleaning the house.
3. After translating the sentences, they should indicate the aspects/tenses in each sentence and provide a morpheme-by-morpheme analysis of the verbs.

## Teacher educator's note

*For the activities, help the student teachers by pointing out that in some languages, there may be something like auxiliary verbs to form—for example, the progressive tense, as in the Kaonde present progressive-bena orjine.*

### 3.4.1.4 The object marker

The object marker comes just before verb root (also called a radical). The object marker has been referred to as an 'object clitic' (Mwansa, 2011) because it behaves like an attached pronoun and functions like a pronoun that replaces a noun phrase antecedent (i.e. a noun mentioned earlier in discourse). It agrees with the object of the verb and replaces the noun phrase object in discourse like other pronouns.

5	sg-past-obj-root-fv	
	<i>wu-a-yi-fump-a</i>	<i>Wayifumpa.</i>
	'she smashed it'	



The object marker in example 5 is *-yi-*. It comes before the verb root, *-fump-* 'smash'. The tense marker is *-a-*. Like the subject marker, the object marker has to agree with the noun phrase class.

### Activity 6

Learning outcomes: 1 & 2



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Pair student teachers with another student teacher who shares their first or familiar language. This time though, try to pair them with a different student teacher.
2. Ask student teachers to translate the following sentences into their familiar language and indicate the object marker.
  - a. They threw it.
  - b. He has married her.
3. Check student teachers' answers and provide feedback as needed.

### 3.4.1.5 Verb root

The verb root carries the meaning of the whole verb. It can have a number of forms. The simplest is just a consonant, as shown in example 6(a), and complex ones can have multiple syllables, as in example 6(b). The letter C stands for a consonant, while V stands for a vowel.

6 (a)	C	
	<i>-p- pa</i>	<i>[Bemba]</i>
	'give'	
6 (b)	CCVCVCVC	
	<i>bwotakan- e.g. bwotakana</i>	<i>[Lunda]</i>
	'tilt over as in collapsing sideways' (Kawasha, 2003)	



### 3.4.1.6 Verb extensions

The verb root can be extended by adding several suffixes that change the meaning or modify the meanings of the verb. These are called verb extensions. Some also change the number of nouns in a sentence, e.g. objects and subjects. This means some verb extensions introduce or reduce noun phrases in the sentence. This section presents different types of extensions. The list is not exhaustive but includes common extensions.

#### Teacher educator's note

*Ensure that student teachers give their own examples of different extensions. They can use the translations of the examples if it is not their familiar language used in the example.*

#### 3.4.1.6.1 Applicative extension

The applicative extension may express three different ideas, that an action is applied either on 1) behalf of an object; 2) towards or with an object; or 3) with regard to an object. In example 7(a), the applicative extension is *-e/-*, while in 7(b) it is *-i/-*. The extension can also have other forms, such as *-in-* or *-en-*. The extension changes in connection with the vowel sound in the verb root. If the vowel is a high (e.g. /i/) or low vowel (e.g. /a/), the extension is *-i/-*.

#### Teacher educator's note

*Recall that in Language Module I, student teachers learnt about vowel height. It may be helpful to review the diagram presented in Chapter 5: Branches of Linguistics with your student teachers.*

For mid vowels, it is *-e/-* or *-en-*. This is called vowel harmony in that the extension vowel harmonises and becomes similar in terms of vowel height with the root vowel. In example 7(a), the /e/ on the applicative extension is a mid-vowel, and so is the vowel in the verb root /o/. Meanwhile, the vowel in 7(b) on the applicative extension is a high vowel /i/ and the vowel in the root is a low vowel /a/. The *-en-* form comes after roots that end in nasal sounds, e.g. /m/ or /n/ as shown in example 7(c). These changes also occur with other extensions mentioned.

The extension comes between the verb root and the final vowel. The meaning in 7(a) is to do something (in this case, work) for another. In 7(a), when we say 'work for', we introduce another noun phrase or argument in the sentence. The extension changes the argument structure of the verb, that is, how many noun phrases it can have. In example 7(b), the extension helps to express the reason for doing something, in this case, eating.

	verb stem	applicative
<b>7 (a)</b>	<i>bomb-a bomb-el-a</i>	<i>[Bemba]</i> 'work' 'work for'
<b>7 (b)</b>	<i>d-a</i>	<i>d-il-a nzala [Lunda]</i> 'eat' 'eat because of hunger'
<b>7 (c)</b>	<i>tum-a</i>	<i>u-n-tum-in-e [Lunda]</i> 'send' 'you send to me'



## Activity 7

## Learning outcome: 1



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Pair or group student teachers with peers of the same familiar language.
2. Ask student teachers to independently use the translations in example 9 to find out the form of the applicative extension in their familiar language.
3. After they have found the form of the applicative extension in their familiar language, they should compare their answers with their peer(s).
4. Next, as a group, ask for volunteers to share their responses.

### 3.4.1.6.2 Passive extension

The term passive is used to refer to the fact that in a sentence, the grammatical subject receives the action expressed by the verb. For example, in the sentence *Imbushi naaili-w-a ku nkalamo* 'A goat has been eaten by a lion' [Bemba], *imbushi* 'a goat' is the grammatical subject because of its position in the sentence. Still, the action expressed by the verb affects it. The performer of the action (also called the logical subject) is in the object position of the sentence. In this case, *inkalamo* 'a lion'. The passive extension in most languages is *-w-* as seen in the Bemba example above, repeated in example 8(d). Example 8 provides some more examples from different languages.

	verb stem	passive extension
<b>8 (a)</b>	<i>kas-a</i>	<i>kas-w-a [Kaonde]</i> 'tie' 'be tied'
<b>8 (b)</b>	<i>gul-a</i>	<i>gud-w-a [Nyanja]</i> 'buy' 'be bought' (Lehmann, 2002, pp. 31)
<b>8 (c)</b>	<i>sal-a</i>	<i>sal-w-a [Tonga]</i> 'choose' 'be selected' (Carter, 2002, pp. 46)
<b>8 (d)</b>	<i>Um-a</i>	<i>um-w-a [Bemba]</i> 'beat' 'be beaten'





### 3.4.1.6.3 Causative extension

As the name suggests, the causative extension expresses the idea that something caused something to happen or made it happen. This extension can have various forms depending on the morpho-phonological environments in which it occurs. But the most common ones are *-ish-*, *-esh-*, *-y-*, and *-its-*.

	verb stem	causative extension
<b>9 (a)</b>	<i>lim-a</i> 'cultivate'	<i>lim-its-a</i> [Nyanja] 'cause to cultivate'
<b>9 (b)</b>	<i>long-a</i> 'pack'	<i>long-esh-a</i> [Bemba] 'cause to pack'
<b>9 (c)</b>	<i>iluk-a</i> 'know'	<i>iluk-ish-a</i> [Lunda] 'inform, cause to know'
<b>9 (d)</b>	<i>nyem-a</i> 'become angry'	<i>nyem-y-a</i> [Tonga] 'make angry'



### 3.4.1.6.4 Reciprocal or associative extension

The reciprocal extension (also known as associative) expresses the idea of something being done to each other or being together.

	verb stem	reciprocal extension
<b>10 (a)</b>	<i>lat-a</i> 'love'	<i>lat-an-a</i> [Lozi] 'love each other'
<b>10 (b)</b>	<i>ikat-a</i> 'hold, catch'	<i>ikat-an-a</i> [Bemba] 'unify, be together'



### 3.4.1.6.5 Intensive extension

An intensive extension is added to the root to express the idea of intensity. The common suffixes are *-ish-*, *-esh-*, *-isy-*, or *-esy-*, similar to the causative.

	verb stem	intensive extension
<b>11 (a)</b>	<i>pum-a</i> 'beat'	<i>pum-ish-a</i> [Kaonde] 'beat hard'
<b>11 (b)</b>	<i>yand-a</i> 'love'	<i>yand-isy-a</i> [Tonga] 'love very much'
<b>11 (c)</b>	<i>end-a</i> 'walk'	<i>end-esh-a</i> [Lunda/Bemba] 'walk quickly'



### 3.4.1.7 Final vowel (FV)

As was hinted at in the discussion of tense, the final vowel participates in the formation of tense but also aspect, mood, the honorific, and so on. In many Bantu languages, the final vowel is usually /a/ when the verb is in the indicative mood. But in the subjunctive, for example, it can be /e/, as 12(b). In 12(a), the indicative mood is indicated with the verb ending in 'a'.

<b>12 (a)</b>	<i>Uleeta</i> [Kaonde] 'he/she brings'
<b>12 (b)</b>	<i>Aleete</i> [Kaonde] 'let him/her bring'
<b>12 (c)</b>	<i>Aleetele</i> [Bemba] 'he/she had brought'



In 12(c), the ending is -e/e, which forms the remote past in Bemba and in many other Bantu languages. The remote past suffix can take various forms depending on the vowel in the root due to vowel harmony. The moods referred to are discussed further. But before that, we consider the post-final morpheme, which sometimes is found in verbs.

#### 3.4.1.7.1 Post final

In some languages, another morpheme can be added after the final vowel, referred to as the post-final. In Kaonde, the progressive (continuous) tense requires the addition of -nga, as shown 13(a).

<b>13 (a)</b>	<i>Leeta-nga bya bupe</i> [Kaonde] 'Keep on bringing gifts'
<b>13 (b)</b>	<i>Ngafwe-ni</i> [Bemba] 'Help me'



In 13(b), the -ni is an honorific form (showing respect) used when, as in this case, one is asking somebody elderly for help. It can also express the plural, where one asks many people to help.

Some more verb extensions have been identified in Bantu linguistics, but example 13 has the most common.

### 3.4.2 Mood in Zambian languages

According to Crystal (2008, pp. 312), mood refers to 'a set of syntactic and semantic contrasts signalled by alternative verb paradigms', such as indicative, imperative, and subjunctive. These moods indicate the attitude of the speaker to the content of the utterance (what is said), whether the verb expresses or not. See Table 3.1 for common examples.

Table 3.1 Common examples of mood in Zambian languages

Type	Example	Mood
A fact in any tense	<i>tulalima</i> [Tonga] 'we cultivate'	indicative mood
A command	<i>choka</i> [Nyanja] 'get out'	imperative mood
A question	<i>Cinshi uleefwaya</i> [Bemba] 'what do you want?'	interrogative mood
A condition	<i>Ngananimwafwa anjipusha</i> [Bemba] 'I would have helped him if he had asked me.'	conditional mood
A wish	<i>Tutasali</i> [Tonga] 'that we may choose'	subjunctive mood
An encouragement	<i>atwende</i> [Tonga] 'let's go'	hortative mood

In some grammar, more moods are recognised, but these are the most commonly discussed.

### Activity 8

Learning outcomes: 1 & 2



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

Ask student teachers to provide examples of different moods in their familiar language according to the explanations in Table 3.1.

### 3.4.3 Transitivity

Transitivity refers to if a verb can take an object. A transitive verb takes an object, while an intransitive verb does not take an object. Transitive verbs can be monotransitive if they require only one object or ditransitive if they require two objects.

**14** *Ndakajaya nzoka* [Tonga]  
'I killed a snake'



Here the verb *jaya-a* 'kill' requires only one object: *nzoka* 'snake'. The verb *jaya* 'kill' is a monotransitive verb because it takes one object. Ditransitive verbs take two objects as is illustrated in the example 15.

15 *Chileshe aipikile banyina ubwali* [Bemba]

'Chileshe cooked nshima for her mother'



As a ditransitive verb, *ipika* 'cook' can have two objects. The direct object is directly affected by the verb, *nshima*. The indirect object is the one who benefitted, *banyina* 'his mother'.

### Activity 9

Learning outcomes: 1 & 2



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Ask student teachers to translate the following verbs and use them to illustrate transitive verbs:
  - cook, send, give, eat, ask, pay, apply, rub, take
2. Then, ask student teachers:
  - Which ones are ditransitive?

*Sample Response: All the verbs are transitive and only 'eat' is monotransitive.*

#### 3.4.3.1 Intransitive verbs

16 *Liyoka wakalila* [Tonga]

'Liyoka wept'.



The verb, *lila* 'weep/cry' is intransitive as it does not require a direct object. This is also true for the verb 'to sleep'.

17 *Mwana naalaala* [Bemba]

'The child is asleep'.





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*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

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1. Pair student teachers together who would like to use the same Zambian language.
2. Ask student teachers to translate the following sentences into their Zambian language of choice and then identify the verb type that has been employed in each of them:
  - a. They elected him chairperson at a meeting.
  - b. Mubiana roasted groundnuts for Sibeso.
  - c. Moonga is a Medical Doctor.
  - d. Mweene sneezed.
  - e. Masuzyo killed a snake.

If possible, have pairs of student teachers who chose the same language compare their responses to check for accuracy.

3. Next, ask student teachers to construct two sentences to illustrate each verb type. They should construct them independently and ask their partner to determine which of their sentences illustrates each verb.
    - a. ditransitive verb
    - b. monotransitive
    - c. intransitive
  4. Close the activity by asking student teachers to establish the case in which some verbs can be used either transitively or intransitively in any Zambian language.
- 

### 3.5

## English verbs

This section focuses on verbs in English. As in the case for Zambian languages, verbs in English express actions or, in some cases, states of being. The various forms and functions of the English verb are presented in the subsequent sections.

### 3.5.1 Regular and irregular verbs

English main verbs are classified as regular or irregular. Regular verbs can have at least four forms, including their base form. Take the verb walk: walk (present/base), walks (present simple), walking (present progressive), and walked (past). Irregular verbs may have fewer forms. For example, cut has only two forms: cut and cuts. Some irregular verbs change their form almost completely. For example, 'buy' becomes 'bought'. One test that is used to distinguish between regular and irregular verbs is that the former can take the past tense '-ed' or '-d', as in 'talk' and 'talked', but the latter cannot, e.g. 'sit'

and 'sat'. The forms of the regular verb are predictable from the base form (Quirk, Greenbaum, & Svartvik, 1985).

## Activity 11

## Learning outcome: 2



*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

Ask student teachers which other verbs are regular, like 'walk', or irregular, like 'cut'?

### 3.5.2 Linking or copular verbs

A verb that acts as a link between two words is called a linking verb. DeCapua (2017) adds that it connects or links a subject to a noun or an adjective in the predicate. A predicate is a part of a sentence or clause containing a verb and stating something about the subject. In English, the verb 'to be'—including words like 'am', 'is', 'was', 'were', 'are', and also 'seems'—and 'become' are linking verbs.

<b>18 (a)</b>	'She <u>is</u> highly intelligent.'
<b>18 (b)</b>	'She <u>seems</u> highly intelligent.'



The first sentence uses the linking verb to connect the subject 'she' with the adjective 'intelligent'. The second sentence uses the linking verb 'seems' to connect the subject 'she' to 'intelligent'. In both cases, the link verbs express the idea of being a state, not an action.

Other link verbs include 'feels', 'appears', and 'been'.

### 3.5.3 Helping or auxiliary verbs

Helping or auxiliary verbs, as the name implies, help lexical or main verbs to indicate a number of distinctions: tense, voice, mood and aspect (see example 19). They differ from lexical verbs in their negative forms and can be inverted with the subject, for example 'doesn't' and 'does he' (Crystal, 2008). Main auxiliaries include the verb to be: 'is', 'are', 'am', 'are', 'were', and 'being'. Modal auxiliaries include 'can', 'could', 'must', 'have', 'may', 'should', 'ought to', 'might', and 'used to'. Examples of the uses of auxiliaries are underlined.

<b>19 (a)</b>	'He <u>has been</u> killed.'	Helping to form the passive voice.
<b>19 (b)</b>	' <u>Does</u> he know how to do it?'	
<b>19 (c)</b>	'He <u>was</u> working very hard.'	Helping to form the progressive aspect.
<b>19 (d)</b>	'He <u>must</u> do it.'	Expression of mood-obligation.





*Review with student teachers their knowledge of the use of modal auxiliaries.*

### 3.5.4 Transitive verbs

Transitive verbs have already been discussed in the Zambian language section. Similarly in English, a transitive verb needs an object to complete itself. DeCupua (2017) says it is called transitive because it passes its action from subject to object. The grammatical term object means a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase that receives the action of the verb.

*Table 3.2 Examples of transitive verbs in sentences*

Column A	Column B
I posted.	I posted the parcel.
Thunile wrote.	Thunile wrote a letter.
The father booked.	The father booked a taxi.
They ate.	They ate the cake.

In Table 3.2, all the sentences under Column A are incomplete and would be considered ungrammatical given the context in which they appear. This is because the verbs are transitive and must be followed by objects, as can be seen in the sentences under column B. 'I posted' is followed by 'the parcel'. 'Thunile wrote' is followed by 'a letter', and so on. The addition of the object completes the sentence.

#### 3.5.4.1 Ditransitive verbs

Some transitive verbs can take more than one object, as we saw in Zambian languages. These verbs are often called ditransitive verbs. When there are two objects, one is called the direct object, and the other is called the indirect object. The direct object is the person or thing that receives the verb's action. In example 20, the direct object is 'the ball' because it receives the action described by the verb 'hit'.

<b>20</b>	'Kalusha hit <u>the ball</u> .'
-----------	---------------------------------



In example 21, the verb 'kicked' has two objects. There is both a direct object ('the ball') and an indirect object ('the goalkeeper'). Here an indirect object can be described as the person or thing that is secondarily affected by the action of the verb.

21	'Kalusha kicked <u>the ball</u> to <u>the goalkeeper</u> .'
----	---



When the indirect object follows the direct object, it is usually preceded by 'to' or 'for', as in 'Tasila opened the box for me.' Thus, 'to' or 'for' can help identify the indirect object in a sentence.

### 3.5.5 Intransitive verbs

As with many Zambian languages, an intransitive verb does not need any object to complete itself. The main point was that it does not need any object to complete itself; hence it is called an intransitive verb. DeCupua (2017) submits that a grammatical sentence with an intransitive verb may consist of only a subject noun phrase and a verb.

22 (a)	'The bus <u>left</u> .'
--------	-------------------------

22 (b)	'Dogs <u>bark</u> .'
--------	----------------------

22 (c)	'The baby is <u>crying</u> .'
--------	-------------------------------



An intransitive verb can be followed by something else that is not an object, such as an adverb.

23 (a)	'Dogs bark <u>loudly</u> .'
--------	-----------------------------

23 (b)	'Dogs bark <u>loudly at night</u> .'
--------	--------------------------------------

23 (c)	'Dogs bark loudly at night <u>near our house</u> .'
--------	---



Everything after 'bark' is what we refer to as a complement. A complement is a term used to refer to words and phrases that follow verbs but are not objects because they do not receive the action of the verb. They add or complete (complement) the meanings expressed by the verb.

### 3.5.6 Finite verbs

A finite verb can change its form in accordance with the subject (or agree with the subject) in number and person. It also has a specific tense and is used as the main verb in a sentence. In English, there are three finite verb forms: the present tense, the past tense, and the future tense.

24 (a)	'I am watering the garden.'
--------	-----------------------------

	Present tense
--	---------------

24 (b)	'I watered the garden yesterday.'
--------	-----------------------------------

	Past tense
--	------------

24 (c)	'I will water the garden tomorrow.'
--------	-------------------------------------

	Future tense
--	--------------





### 3.5.7 Non-finite verbs

The non-finite form of the verb does not show agreement with the subject (and is usually used without a subject) in number or person and does not indicate tense. The most common form of the non-finite verb is the infinitive form, which can be the basic form or one with 'to', e.g. 'work' and 'to work'. Other non-finite verb forms include the participles: '-ed', '-en', or '-ing'. In example 25, the underlined verbs are non-finite. Notice that they are not indicating any tense or agreeing with the subject. Non-finite forms of verbs can be used as subjects as in example 25(e).

<b>25 (a)</b>	' <u>Walking</u> down the street, he saw Mary.'
<b>25 (b)</b>	'He wanted <u>to kick</u> the ball.'
<b>25 (c)</b>	'He was <u>woken</u> up by the bell.'
<b>25 (d)</b>	' <u>Satisfied</u> , he stopped eating.'
<b>25 (e)</b>	' <u>Drinking</u> while <u>driving</u> is dangerous.'



## 3.6

# Other parts of speech in English and Zambian languages

### 3.6.1 Adverbs in English

An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or even a whole sentence. By modifying, we mean the adverb adds more meaning to the verb. In particular, adverbs answer questions like how, why, when, and where. Therefore, adverbs are classified as manner, time, frequency, place, and so on.

In English, most adverbs end in '-ly', for instance, 'quickly' and 'painfully'. However, many other adverbs do not follow this form, such as 'soon' and 'fast'.

There are six types of adverbs in English.

#### 3.6.1.1 Adverb of manner

Adverbs of manner refer to how something is done or takes place. Some adverbs commonly used to express this are: 'quickly', 'quietly', 'fast', 'slowly', 'immediately', 'simultaneously', 'loudly', 'easily', 'energetically', 'happily', 'wistfully', and so on (DeCapua, 2017).

<b>26 (a)</b>	'They handled the job <u>enthusiastically</u> .'
<b>26 (b)</b>	'She walked <u>rapidly</u> towards him.'
<b>26 (c)</b>	'When the bell rang, she went to the door <u>immediately</u> .'



### 3.6.1.2 Adverb of degree

Adverbs of degree explain the extent to which something is done or how much there was and the degree to which it was reached. They include 'barely', 'completely', 'considerably', 'deeply', 'greatly', 'hardly', 'highly', 'immensely', 'partly', 'rather', 'very', 'strangely', 'utterly', and so on. (De Capua, 2017).

<b>27 (a)</b>	'She is <u>considerably</u> hungry for success.'
<b>27 (b)</b>	'He was drunk and could <u>hardly</u> get his hands on the key.'
<b>27 (c)</b>	'The film was <u>very</u> entertaining.'



### 3.6.1.3 Adverb of time

Adverbs of time indicate when something was done or occurred. These include 'always', 'currently', 'immediately', 'now', 'often', 'recently', 'tomorrow', 'frequently', 'then', 'soon', 'today', and so on (DeCapua, 2017).

<b>28 (a)</b>	'The ceremony is starting <u>now</u> .'
<b>28 (b)</b>	'She will visit <u>tomorrow</u> .'
<b>28 (c)</b>	'They responded <u>immediately</u> .'
<b>28 (d)</b>	'It is my lifestyle. I do this <u>daily</u> .'



### 3.6.1.4 Adverb of place

Adverbs of place tell us where something occurred. They include 'there', 'here', 'anywhere', 'someplace', 'abroad', 'upstairs', 'nearby', 'nowhere', 'below', 'in', 'out', 'forward', and so on.

<b>29 (a)</b>	'She spent large parts of her life working <u>there</u> .'
<b>29 (b)</b>	'He still comes <u>here</u> .'
<b>29 (c)</b>	'It is raining <u>somewhere</u> .'
<b>29 (d)</b>	'He lives <u>nearby</u> .'



### 3.6.1.5 Adverb of probability

Adverbs of probability express the probability or likelihood of something taking place. They include words like 'surely', 'unlikely', 'probably', 'possibly', and 'certainly'.

<b>30 (a)</b>	'He cannot <u>possibly</u> go back there after all the drama that happened.'
<b>30 (b)</b>	'With too many players injured, victory is <u>unlikely</u> .'
<b>30 (c)</b>	'She will <u>probably</u> listen to you.'



### 3.6.1.6 Adverb of frequency

Adverbs of frequency answer the question 'how often?'. They can include 'regularly', 'often', 'everyday', 'rarely', 'infrequently', and so on.

<b>31 (a)</b>	'He attends the Sunday service <u>regularly</u> .'
<b>31 (b)</b>	'She comes to the office <u>everyday</u> .'
<b>31 (c)</b>	'We <u>rarely</u> eat lunch together.'



## 3.6.2 Adverbs in Zambian languages

As with English, Zambian languages also have different types of adverbs which provide information about the verb. Details may include the manner in which an action was done; when, where, or at what time an action happened; how much or how often the verb expresses. In this section, we turn to Zambian languages and consider the different ways in which we express adverbial functions. True adverbs, like adjectives, are few in Bantu languages. Therefore, other parts of speech are used to express adverbial functions as we point out.

### 3.6.2.1 Adverbs of manner

There are few true adverbs in Zambian languages that express the manner in which something is done. Among those that do exist are *bwino* 'well' [Nyanja, Bemba] and *washi* 'quickly' [Luvale]. Most manner adverbs are formed from verbs, nouns, and adjectives.



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Pair student teachers of the same familiar language.
2. Ask student teachers to translate the following sentences into their familiar language.
  - a. He worked very slowly.
  - b. He looked at the boy threateningly.
  - c. He sang beautifully.
3. After they have translated the sentences, discuss as a group the strategies used in their language to express the adverbs (underlined). You may add some more sentences.

You may notice that some adverbs of manner are formed by using adjectives and reduplicating them, that is, saying the word or the stem twice. For example, 'slowly' can be rendered as *panoono-panoono* in Bemba and *chovu-chovu* in Lunda. Similarly, the noun *icintinya* 'a threat' in Bemba, from the verb *ukutinya* 'to threaten', can be used as an adverb by reduplicating it: *cintinya-cintinya* 'threateningly'.

### 3.6.2.2 Adverbs of time

There are a few true adverbs of time in Zambian languages, such as *dzulo* 'yesterday', *kaale* 'long time ago' [Nyanja], and *nombaline* 'just now' [Bemba]. Other expressions are nouns, such as *icungulo* 'afternoon' or *ulu celo* 'morning' [Bemba].

<b>32 (a)</b>	<i>Mweenzyinyoko ulakwiita <u>lino</u>.</i> [Tonga] 'Your friend is calling you <u>now</u> '.
<b>32 (b)</b>	<i>baishile <u>keesha</u></i> [Kaonde] 'They came <u>yesterday</u> '.



### 3.6.2.3 Adverbs of place

Adverbs of place give information about the location, direction, and position of objects and events in space. Chapter 2 had a section on locatives which can give information about the location, direction, and positions of things or events. The same locatives, in some languages, may be modified to express additional meanings by adding suffixes. For example, to the locative, *mu* 'in' we can add *-li* to get the meaning of 'inside there is' or *-kati* to mean 'inside' [Nyanja, Bemba]. Similar things can be done with *pa* 'on' and *ku* 'to'. There are also additional words that function as adverbs.



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

### Round Robin

- Group student teachers to take turns finding translation equivalents for the adverbs of place below. One student should record responses on an organised list. Go around the room listening to their discussions and providing feedback.
  - above, down, behind, below, over, near, here, there, towards, outside, inside, back.
  - north, south, east, west
- After student teachers are finished, discuss as a group whether there are single words for each of the preceding words in their familiar language or if they use a phrase.

### 3.6.2.4 Adverbs of frequency

Adverbs of frequency give information about how often an action or thing is done or occurs. Most of these adverbs in Zambian languages occur as reduplicated words formed from other word classes.

<b>33 (a)</b>	<i>kubwera-bwera</i>	[Nyanja]
	'To return frequently'	
<b>33 (b)</b>	<i>Tulabeleka <u>buzuba-abuzuba</u></i>	[Tonga]
	'We work <i>every day</i> '.	
<b>33 (c)</b>	<i>Tacicitika</i>	[Bemba]
	'It never happens'.	



Note that in 33(c) we have a verb (which is actually a clause) to express the meaning of 'never'.

### Teacher educator's note



*Ask student teachers to translate these adverbs: 'always', 'never', 'sometimes', 'occasionally', and 'seldom'. Is it possible to do this in one word, one phrase, or one clause?*

### 3.6.2.5 Adverbs of degree

Adverbs of degree either increase (or intensify) or decrease (downtone) what is expressed by another adverb or adjective. For example, the adjective *umusuma* 'beautiful' can be intensified to *umusuma saana* 'very beautiful'. Similarly, the deverbal adjective *ukukaba* 'to be hot' can be downtoned or decreased to *ukukaba panoono* 'a little bit hot' [Bemba]. Intensive extensions *-ish-* on verbs can also be used to express the idea of intensification.

<b>34</b>	<i>Sunu kwap-<u>ish-</u>a</i>	[Tonga]
	'Today is <u>very</u> hot'	



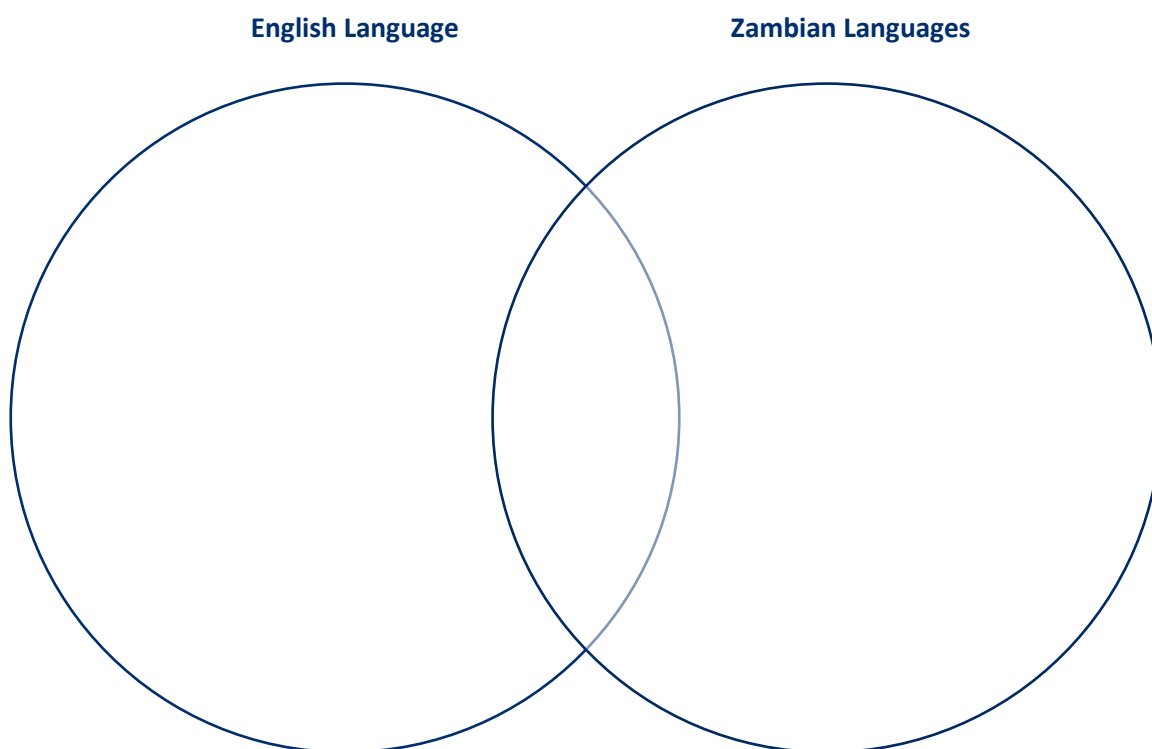
## Activity 14

Learning outcomes: 1, 2, & 4



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Pair student teachers to translate the following sentences into a Zambian language of their choice, preferably the one offered at their institution. After they translate the sentences, they should underline the adverbs and be prepared to comment on the position of the adverbs in each sentence. Go around the room listening to their discussions and provide feedback.
  - a. My books are under the table there.
  - b. I saw him last year.
  - c. Mweene played football for two hours.
  - d. Occasionally, we looked at the map.
  - e. Chileshe, your uncle is waiting for you now.
2. Next, have volunteers share the adverb and its position from each sentence.
3. Afterwards, discuss examples of other ways of translating the English adverbs into Kaonde, Lozi, Lunda, Luvale, Nyanja, or Tonga apart from the ones used in the sentences in question 1.
4. Finally, ask student teachers to complete the Venn diagram provided in which they summarise similarities and differences between English and Zambian languages adverbs. If student teachers have a student module, they can complete the diagram in their book. Otherwise, they can create the diagram in their notebook.



**More guidance:** Ensure that the student teachers understand how to translate adverbs in other ways in Zambian languages and their position in sentences or phrases.



*Teacher educator's note: Help student teachers think critically about the text.*

### Round Robin


1. Group student teachers to take turns sharing their thoughts on the following question:
  - What difficulties do you think English as a second language learners are likely to have with learning English adverbs?
2. Ask student teachers to make a list of the difficulties to share and suggest ways in which teachers can help their learners overcome them. Go around the classroom while student teachers are completing the activity.
3. Close the discussion by having some volunteers share the challenges and suggestions that their team produced.

### 3.6.3 Interjections

Interjections are also known as exclamations. Interjections are words that are used to express a strong feeling, surprise, or sudden occurrence. They are used to express sentiments such as surprise, disgust, joy, excitement, or enthusiasm in a sentence. Interjections are not grammatically related to any other part of the sentence. Examples of interjections in English include 'Hey!', 'Get off that floor!', 'Oh! Hurry!', 'Ah!', 'Aha!', 'Hello!', 'Hey!', 'Phew!', 'Okay!', 'Oh!', and 'Oh well!'.

Interjections comprise a universal word class and a distinctive attribute of human language. Ollennu (2017) posits that interjections have been studied in language in different ways, either as part of the language or as non-words expressing feelings or state of mind. Interjections may occur at the beginning or at the end of a sentence. In most instances, they are used to convey the speaker's emotional feelings. Interjections are used impromptu in certain situations or areas more than others.

The emphasis placed on an interjection in speech may change its communicative meaning depending on the context as context plays a crucial role in deriving an interjection's meaning. Sometimes an interjection can be used to express more than one meaning.

<b>35 (a)</b>	'Oh yes, I will.'	
	used for emphasis or when reacting to something that has been said	
<b>35 (b)</b>	'Oh well, never mind.'	
	as in the previous statement	
<b>35 (c)</b>	'Oh look!'	
	expressing surprise or fear	
<b>35 (d)</b>	'Oh, how horrible!'	
	expressing surprise or disgust	

<b>35 (e)</b>	'Oh, John, can you come over here for a minute?'
	used to attract somebody's attention

As in English, interjections are used in Zambian languages to express various emotions from delight to fear.

## Activity 16

**Learning outcome: 3**



*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

1. Engage student teachers in a whole group discussion on other familiar language equivalents of the interjections in example 38. Record their examples on the board. It may be helpful to organise their suggestions by language.
2. Ask student teachers to suggest familiar language equivalents of the interjections in example 38.

<b>36 (a)</b>	<i>Ha! Apita?</i>	<i>[Nyanja]</i>	
	'Ah! Is he gone?'		
<b>36 (b)</b>	<i>Oo! Wagwa!</i>	<i>[Nyanja]</i>	
	'Alas! He has fallen?'		
<b>36 (c)</b>	<i>Akaka!</i>	<i>[Tonga]</i>	
	(exclamation of surprise)		
<b>36 (d)</b>	<i>Aa! Ncili?</i>	<i>[Tonga]</i>	
	(exclamation expressing disapproval)		
<b>36 (e)</b>	<i>Maawe ndafwa!</i>	<i>[Tonga]</i>	
	'Oh mother, I am dead!'		
<b>36 (f)</b>	<i>Yaba! Ndeefwaya ukulya!</i>	<i>[Bemba]</i>	
	'Gosh! I want to eat!' (expressing impatience)		
<b>36 (g)</b>	<i>Ata see! Ee nkonde wampeela ii?</i>		
	'Rubbish! Is this the banana you have given me?' (expressing disgust or disapproval)		
<b>36 (h)</b>	<i>Yangu! Naabaya?</i>		
	'Oh dear! Are they gone?' (expressing great surprise, grief, or wonder)		
<b>36 (i)</b>	<i>Taata Leesa!</i>		
	'Oh my God!' (a lament)		
<b>36 (j)</b>	<i>au!</i>		
	(expressing surprise of something heard or spoken)		





*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Group student teachers to complete the activities. Try to group student teachers who have not been grouped together before. Go around the room while student teachers complete the activities.
2. Review what an interjection is with the help of examples from both English and any Zambian language.
3. Next, give examples of interjections used to express pleasure, annoyance, disapproval, impatience, admiration, satisfaction, and disagreement in both English and a Zambian language. For this, student teachers can use the chart included if they have a student module or organise the information into their notebook.

Interjections	Examples
pleasure	
annoyance	
disapproval	
impatience	
admiration	
satisfaction	
disagreement	

4. Ask student teachers:
  - Illustrate how an interjection can be used to express more than one meaning. Use an example for English and any Zambian language.

Extension activity: Ask student teachers to prepare two lesson plans, one in English and the other one in a Zambian language. The lesson plans should cover how to teach a grade 4 class the more straightforward function of interjections.

More guidance: Ensure that student teachers understand how interjections express more than one meaning and should be able to use them to express different aspects in both English and Zambian languages.

### 3.6.4 Ideophones

An often-quoted definition of ideophone in Bantu languages comes from Doke (1935): ‘a vivid representation of an idea in sound’. Ideophones’ representations of ideas can be of actions, colours, smells, feelings, sounds, and so on.

In terms of form, ideophones are usually monomorphemic—that is, they consist of one morpheme. Although they can be reduplicated, that is, repeated. For example, *ukubuta tuutu* ‘very white/bright’ [Bemba]. An example of a reduplicated one is *cupwa cupwa* ‘sound made by walking in water’ [Lozi].

One of the most common uses of ideophones is to imitate natural or synthetic sounds. Ideophones which represent these are called onomatopoeic words. For example, the sound of a bell is *ngelengele* or the sound made by a cockerel *kokoliko*. The *cupwa cupwa* is also another example.

<b>37 (a)</b>	<i>wulukutu</i> [Lozi] ‘falling down’
<b>37 (b)</b>	<i>bulukutu mpu</i> [Bemba] ‘falling down’



However, most ideophones function like adverbs to express how things are performed or happen.

<b>38 (a)</b>	<i>Wakaiinda, Vuu!</i> [Tonga] ‘He was gone, suddenly.’
<b>38 (b)</b>	<i>Aleenda myamya</i> [Bemba] ‘He walked stealthily’.
<b>38 (c)</b>	<i>Sapalo saka sili twaa!</i> [Lozi] ‘My small child is very white’.
<b>38 (d)</b>	<i>Canunka piipi</i> [Bemba] ‘It smells badly’.





*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

### Round Robin Brainstorming

1. Group student teachers together with peers of the same familiar language. Student teachers should choose a recorder for their group to create an organised list like the example below to record as many ideophones they can think of within the time frame that you establish.

Onomatopoeic	Colour	Feelings	Smells

2. After time is up, ask that groups share their charts with each other to compare (preferably the same familiar language.)
3. Finally, close the discussion by reviewing with student teachers the form and function of ideophones.

### 3.6.5 Conjunctions

Conjunctions are words which connect other words, phrases, or clauses. In terms of form, conjunctions are usually simple forms—ones without affixes.

Conjunctions are categorised as coordinating and subordinating. Coordinating conjunctions are also referred to as simply coordinators. In English, coordinating conjunctions include 'and', 'or', 'yet', and 'but'.

<b>39 (a)</b>	'I like cooking and eating, <u>but</u> I don't like washing dishes afterwards.'
<b>39 (b)</b>	'Sophie is clearly exhausted, <u>yet</u> she insists on dancing till dawn.'



In example 39, coordinating conjunctions have joined independent clauses, which can stand on their own as full, meaningful sentences. Coordinating conjunctions can also link phrases and words of a similar status. Burton (1984) further illustrates that coordinating conjunctions can link single nouns together—'A mother and child can sit on the same seat'—or link phrases together—'It was equally bad to travel by rail or road' (pp. 140)

Subordinating conjunction links a subordinate clause to the main clause. A subordinate clause cannot stand on its own as an independent sentence. It requires the main clause to make sense. In example 40(a), the clause introduced by subordinating conjunction of time 'when' cannot work as an

independent clause if it ends at 'playing'. The same is true of the clause in 40(b) that is introduced by 'as'.

<b>40 (a)</b>	' <u>When</u> the band stopped playing, the audience was silent.'
<b>40 (b)</b>	'The crowd grew restless <u>as</u> the politician droned on.'



Many subordinating conjunctions in English are used to join clauses together to express various concepts, such as contrast, time, purpose, results, and so on. In example 41, subordinating conjunctions are underlined.

<b>41 (a)</b>	'He was angry. <u>However</u> , he listened to me patiently.' (Contrast)
<b>41 (b)</b>	'He was late. <u>Therefore</u> , they left him behind.' (Result)
<b>41 (c)</b>	'She was singing <u>while</u> he worked.' (Time)
<b>41 (d)</b>	'We had to wait for him <u>because</u> we did not know the way to his place.' (Reason)



### 3.6.6 Coordinators and subordinators

In Zambian languages, the distinction between coordinators and subordinators (i.e. subordinating conjunctions) exists. In example 42(a-c) are coordinating conjunctions. In example 42(d-g) are subordinating conjunctions.

<b>42 (a)</b>	<i>Abalumendo <u>na</u> bakashaana baleebomba [Bemba]</i> 'The boys <u>and</u> girls are working.'
<b>42 (b)</b>	<i>Akatutumina ulupiya <u>nangu</u> ifyakufwala [Bemba]</i> 'He/she will send us money <u>or</u> clothes.'
<b>42 (c)</b>	<i>Moonga <u>a</u> Hambulo baya kucikolo [Tonga]</i> 'Moonga <u>and</u> Hambulo are going to school.'
<b>42 (d)</b>	<i>Nisikasoka buhobe <u>kabakala</u> kuli bupi ne bufilile. [Lozi]</i> 'I did not cook nshima <u>because</u> the millie meal is finished.'
<b>42 (e)</b>	<i>Tiibakayoowa <u>nkaambo</u> bakanyina bowa [Tonga]</i> 'They were not afraid <u>because</u> they were not cowards.'
<b>42 (f)</b>	<i>Bakabala cakusinizya; <u>nkaako</u> bakapasa [Tonga]</i> 'They studied hard; <u>therefore</u> , they passed.'
<b>42 (g)</b>	<i><u>Nga</u> wafika pamasansa, uye upaasukile ku kabanga</i> ' <u>When</u> you arrive at the crossroads, you should turn to the east.'





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*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text and give student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

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1. First, ask student teachers: 'What is a conjunction?' Clarify responses.
2. Next, pair student teachers to complete the activities. Choose whether you want them paired according to their familiar language.
  - a. Illustrate:
    - i. Ask student teachers to provide examples of subordinating conjunctions of purpose, time, reason, contrast, and result in English and Zambian languages.
    - ii. The use of one conjunction to convey different meanings in both English and Zambian languages.
3. Afterwards, have some volunteers share their examples for (i) and (ii). Clarify their responses and summarise any key points.

Extension activity 1: Prepare two lesson plans, one in English and the other one in the Zambian language, in which you teach conjunctions to learners at your school.

Extension activity 2: Write a two-page seminar paper in which you discuss the significance of conjunctions in maintaining coherence and smooth flow of ideas in written work.

More guidance: Ensure that the learners comprehend the meaning of conjunctions and how they are used in different situations. For Zambian languages, the learner should be able to use conjunctions correctly and accurately.

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### 3.7

## Teaching verbal parts of speech

Chapter 1 discussed the difference between first language (L1) and second language (L2) teaching. We expect that student teachers will use the different teaching methods discussed in Language Module II for the English language—such as the cognitive code, situational language teaching approach, communicative language teaching, and so on. We saw how language structure can be taught using the two strategies of inductive and deductive teaching related to language teaching approaches and methods. For example, in the cognitive approach, the deductive strategy is used. Student teachers can teach tenses one-by-one by first explaining the rules involved, giving examples, and then oral and written practice.



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*Simulate the actual classroom environment. This section explains the procedure of teaching verbal parts of speech lessons. This is to help student teachers fully understand how verbal parts of speech can be effectively taught in the classroom. It would be helpful for the teacher educators to demonstrate using the various approaches (eclecticism) for the student teachers to understand how to teach.*

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In the situational language teaching approach, the inductive strategy is used. Learners are given examples of a structure to practice; they may notice the patterns or rules involved. Teachers can combine inductive and deductive strategies by encouraging learners work in groups to work out rules or patterns. A plenary session where learners report their findings to the class should follow. Reinforce correct interpretations by clearly explaining the patterns involved. Follow up with individual written practice, as needed.

Alternatively, some structures can be taught incidentally. For example, as learners read a comprehension passage, you might draw their attention to structures used in the text and use it as opportunity to teach a mini-lesson. This way of teaching contextualises the language item. Learners can see how it is actually used in real communication. The chapter on the eclectic method in Language Module II can help train student teachers to choose and combine different techniques to make an effective lesson.

In teaching Zambian language verbals, the discovery approach can be used. Learners can be asked to provide the language data. For example, they can talk about what they did the previous day if the topic is on the past tense. Alternatively, learners may recast the sentences in the present or future tense if this has already been covered. Learners can compare the two versions of the sentences to see what has changed. In this way, learners can discover the two different tense morphemes. This approach ensures that learners' knowledge of their familiar language is used. The learners also are helped to learn how to learn: to use the discovery strategy explained. In addition, the teachers' group work makes learning a social activity. Finally, basing the activity on language data from learners' own experiences is a way to contextualise language structure. In this way, the four principles of L1 teaching are covered. Per the four principles of L1 teaching, these strategies prioritise the learner's prior knowledge, the development of the learner's ability to construct knowledge by learning how to learn. Chapter 8 will cover learner-centred teaching in more detail.

## Assessing verbal parts of speech

Assessment evaluates how well learners have learnt a skill or acquired knowledge in a particular topic. In this section, the assessment focus is on the verbal parts of speech.

Assessing learners' understanding of language concepts has to be done in line with how they are taught. For the English language, the assessment will be done according to the method or approach adopted. In the audiolingual method, an objective assessment might involve techniques like multiple choice, true or false, and fill in the blanks. In communicative language teaching, learners may be assessed through a cloze test. See Language Module II for details.

In the Zambian languages, assessment can mirror the discovery method. Learners may be asked to compare some language data to discover the morphemes responsible for some meaning or grammatical information. For example, after learning a few tenses, the teacher might ask learners to write sentences in different tenses about the same event: *Abaana baleelenga imiti*. 'Children are drawing trees' [Bemba]; *abaana bakalalenga imiti* 'Children will be drawing trees'. The learners should underline the tense morphemes. Learners may also be asked to fill in morphemes in verbs to complete a sentence.

<b>43 (a)</b>	<i>Mulenga bale—tamfya isukulu.</i> 'Mulenga they will—send away from school' (Missing object marker, <i>mu</i> 'him')
<b>43 (b)</b>	<i>Abaana—leelima mwibala.</i> 'children—cultivating in the field' (Missing subject marker, <i>ba</i> 'they')



In lower grades, assessment should be pitched at the appropriate age level. For example, grade 3 learners may write verbs in a particular tense without identifying morphemes responsible for the tense.

### Activity 20

**Learning outcome: 5**



*Teacher educator's note: Connect theory to practice.*

1. Assign student teachers a grade level in English or a Zambian language to create four different assessments:
  - a. multiple choice
  - b. fill in the blank
  - c. true or false
  - d. matching

You may choose to provide teachers time in class to design their assessments or assign this as a homework activity. Have student teachers submit their assessments to you for review to make adjustments.

2. When student teachers have finished, pair them to share and practise their assessments.
3. To close the activity, ask student teachers:
  - What was challenging about creating the assessments?
  - If you were to assess this skill again, would you use the same assessment? Why or why not?

### 3.9

## Peer teaching and lesson demonstration

### Lesson plan

Teacher's name:		Date	
Subject:	Bemba	Class	
Topic	Language structure	Duration	
Subtopic	Verbs	Syllabus outcome	5.4.13
Lesson Outcome	Learners will change word forms from one tense to another at the end of the lesson		

### Lesson Procedure

Review	The teacher reviews the previous lessons on the present continuous tense in Bemba. The teacher writes a few verbs on the board and asks learners to go to the chalkboard and underline the morphemes (parts) that indicate something is going on (present continuous tense).		
Introduction	The teacher then tells learners in Bemba to change the verbs on the board so that they talk about what was done earlier that day.  Examples:  Now <div>Earlier today (<i>possible answers from learners</i>)</div>		



	<p><i>Tuleesambilila</i> 'We are learning'</p> <p><i>Tuleebelenga</i> 'We are reading'</p> <p><i>Baleebomba</i> 'They are working'</p>	<p><i>Twacilasambilila</i> 'We were learning'</p> <p><i>Twacilabelenga</i> 'We were reading'</p> <p><i>Bacilabomba</i> 'They were working'</p>
Lesson Development	<p>The teacher writes the answers suggested by learners on the board next to the ones in the present continuous tense. She then asks the learners to be in groups to discover what is in the second set of verbs that have changed to indicate that the events took place earlier today. She tells them to compare the two sets of words to discover the changed parts. She tells them they will report to the whole class after discussing it.</p> <p>Learners get into groups and discuss. Then they are asked to say what they discovered a group at a time. They should give the following information:</p> <p>The present continuous:     <i>-lee- -a</i> ( <i>Tu-<u>lee</u>-sambilil-<u>a</u></i> 'We are learning')</p> <p>Earlier today (past tense):   <i>-acila- -a</i> ( <i>Tu-<u>acila</u>-sambilil-<u>a</u></i> 'We were learning'.)</p> <p>Learners will be asked to explain how they discovered the tense morphemes. They should say that when the two verbs are compared, the only differences are where the tense markers are found: that <i>-lee- -a-</i> has changed to <i>-acila- -a-</i>.</p>	
Group Work		
Plenary		
Oral Practice	The teacher will write more verbs on the board for learners to practice changing the word forms from the present continuous to the past tense (of today).	
Written practice	<p>Learners are asked to think of ten verbs and use them in the past tense of today. They should underline the tense morpheme.</p> <p>Teacher to go round to mark the work.</p>	
Closure	The teacher asks a few questions about what they have learnt. Learners give answers. Teacher thanks the learners for their participation in the lesson,	



*Student teachers should have a strong grasp of what phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics are from earlier modules. Still, you may find it helpful to review these terms with them. They may not remember that lexicon is another word for vocabulary.*

If learners have used the 'discovery method' before, they should just be asked to discover the tense morphemes without any instruction. Let student teachers apply the previous lesson procedure to other parts of speech or structures.

## Activity 21

Learning outcomes: 4–6



*Teacher educator's note: Connect theory to practice.*

1. Student teachers should pick a learning outcome from the Zambian syllabus and develop a detailed lesson plan for a grade of their choosing. The idea is to see if they can remember the format and mechanics of lesson planning. Their lesson should include sample accommodations for learners with special educational needs and those whose mother tongue is not the language of instruction.
2. After teachers have designed their lesson plans, they should submit them for review.
3. Create a schedule for how you would like student teachers to present their lessons to their peers.
4. During their presentation, peers should provide feedback to *each other*. They can answer questions such as:
  - What went well in your peer's lesson?
  - What suggestions can you make for your peer if they were to do this lesson again?

### 3.10

## Chapter summary

Different parts of speech have been discussed in the first two chapters. In the case of Zambian languages, this is designed to raise the student teacher's awareness of these structures so that they can plan and teach practical lessons in Zambian languages. The English content is equally important as the background knowledge of the student teachers so that they can teach English structure lessons effectively too. Verbal parts of speech, like nominals, are the core of grammar and a secure understanding of these word classes forms a strong foundation for teaching language structure or grammar. Most other word classes depend on nouns and verbs in that they determine how words agree (and combine) into clauses and sentences. We have discussed other word classes such as adverbs, conjunctions, and ideophones. In the next chapter, all the word classes are combined in syntax—from phrase construction to high-level clauses and sentences.

### 3.11

## Assessment of learning



1. What is a verbal part of speech?
2. Explain the different types of verbs.
3. Give examples in both Zambian languages and English of ditransitive verbs.
4. What are different types of adverbs?
5. What are tense and aspect?
6. Compare and exemplify conjunctions and interjections in both English and Zambian languages.

### 3.12

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## Chapter 4 of Language Module III

# Syntax

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# Syntax

## INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 looks at the parts of speech—verbs, adverbs, conjunctions, and interjections. This chapter discusses how various parts of speech form phrases, clauses, and sentences in English and Zambian languages. It categorizes syntactic formed by different parts of speech. Finally, the chapter considers how this information can be applied in a classroom and how to assess learning on these topics.

## 4.1

# Learning outcomes



### Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

#### 2.2.2 Peer Teaching

##### 2.2.2.1 Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons

### By the end of this chapter, the student teacher will:

- 1 identify and use different types of phrases, clauses, and sentences in Zambian languages and English.
- 2 distinguish between questions, statements, commands, and exclamations in Zambian languages and English.
- 3 demonstrate understanding of how syntax is taught in Zambian languages and English.
- 4 demonstrate understanding of how syntax is assessed in Zambian languages and English.
- 5 apply their understanding of syntax through the development and demonstration of a peer teaching lesson.

### Teacher educator's note



*Learning outcomes should be introduced to student teachers before you begin teaching the lesson's content. Student teachers should understand what is required of them throughout each chapter. Each time you present the content in the chapter, emphasise the learning outcomes that are the lesson's focus.*

*If student teachers have a copy of the student module edition, they may review student outcomes with you. If student teachers do not have a copy, make sure to visually present the learning outcomes to them (e.g. chalkboard). Be prepared to make accommodations for learners with special educational needs.*



## Instructional materials

- Teacher educator module
- Teacher educator curated materials
- Student module

### Teacher educator's note




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*Review materials and be prepared to make accommodations for students with special educational needs.*

*Materials. Review the chapter thoroughly to decide if there are any materials that you have or may find useful to the presentation of the information. Student teachers will need any materials that require application in this chapter. They will also be asked to develop and deliver their own lesson to their peers. Make sure that you are prepared with all materials to help them with this.*

*Students with special educational needs: Before presenting the content in the chapter, make sure you are aware of any accommodations that you may need to make for students with special needs. Depending on the needs of your student teachers, some common accommodations are:*

- *Familiarise yourself with appropriate terms (e.g. 'disability', not 'handicap'; 'deaf', not 'hearing impaired')*
  - *Repeat and vary explanations*
  - *Ask for clarification of understanding*
  - *Create audio-recordings of lectures and course materials*
  - *Request Zambian Sign Language interpreters (ideally two per lecture)*
  - *Request notetakers*
  - *Allow additional time to complete coursework*
  - *Include verbal descriptions of visual aids in lecture*
  - *Designate front or centre row seating (closest to you) for low vision/hearing learners*
  - *Designate appropriate seating for those with physical disabilities to manoeuvre into and out of seats*
  - *Face those with low vision/hearing during lecture (do not turn your back to them)*
  - *Utilise Universal Design Learning pedagogy*
  - *Utilise Eclectic Teaching pedagogy*
  - *Increase wait time when asking questions*
  - *Increase communication (e.g. e-mail check-ins, office hours, etc)*
  - *Translanguage*
-

## Key terms



### Clause

A unit of grammar that contains a verb and a subject.

### Command

A sentence used when telling someone to do something.

### Exclamation

A short utterance used to express surprise or strong emotions about something.

### Morphology

The study of word formation.

### Phrase

Two or more words that serve a role in a sentence.

### Question

A sentence that requires or appears to require an answer.

### Sentence

A group of words that can stand independently to express a complete thought.

### Syntax

The study of the formation of a sentence and the relationship of its component parts.

### Teacher educator's note



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*Review key terms. You may introduce the key terms together, but make sure to highlight which ones are the focus of each lesson. It is helpful to visually display the key terms (e.g. on the chalkboard) for each class session so that student teachers can refer to them throughout the lesson as needed.*

---

## Phrases, clauses, and sentences in English

This chapter covers the following syntactic categories: phrases, clauses, and sentences. As an introduction, phrases are made up of more than one word but do not contain a subject or predicate. Clauses are made up of phrases and include a subject and a predicate. Sentences may be made of one or more clauses. Each of these syntactic categories are explained in greater detail throughout the chapter. As student teachers learn the content in this chapter, it is important to pay attention not only to the form and function of these syntactic categories but also what similarities and differences exist between Zambian languages and English. The examples begin with phrases before moving to clauses and finally sentences.

### 4.4.1 Phrases

#### Activity 1




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*Teacher educator's note: Help student teachers connect their prior knowledge or experience with the content.*

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#### Think-Pair-Share

1. Ask student teachers to think about the what the difference is between phrases, clauses, and sentences.
  2. Next, pair student teachers together to share their responses.
  3. Ask for volunteers to share their responses. Clarify any misconceptions and inform student teachers that this chapter will build on their knowledge of both Zambian and English syntax.
- 

Crystal (2008) defines a phrase as 'a single element of structure typically containing more than one word and lacking the subject-predicate structure typical of clauses...' (emphasis removed) (pp. 227). This definition differentiates a phrase from a clause and creates a hierarchy between the two. Phrases are intermediates between words and clauses. Words make up phrases and phrases make up clauses. For example, a noun phrase can consist of a noun only or a head word and other words that modify it, as seen in chapter 2. Almost all the word classes discussed in the last two chapters form phrases: adjectives, verbs, adverbs, and prepositions.

#### 4.4.1.1 Verb phrases

This section looks at the verb phrase. A verb phrase is headed by a verb and may contain other words that modify it, as mentioned in chapter 3. When sentences are diagrams in two parts—a subject and a predicate—a verb phrase is the predicate. A predicate says something about the subject or the subject's actions.

There are two types of verb phrases: finite and non-finite verb phrases.

#### 4.4.1.1.1 Finite verb phrase

According to Leech (2004), a finite verb 'is the element of the verb phrase which has present or past tense' (pp. 413). In this sense, 'finite' means to be limited and have a beginning and an end. This idea is used in relation to time and tense. When a verb refers to some specific time—past, present, and future—it is finite. Finite verb phrases also show agreement with the noun phrase in number and person.

<b>1 (a)</b>	Maimbolwa <u>worked very hard</u> .
<b>1 (b)</b>	Muyunda <u>is working for a bus company</u> .



The underlined words in example 1 make up verb phrases; 1(a) refers to the past and 1(b) to the present. The addition of 'is' to the verb phrase in 1(b) shows agreement with the subject. If 'is' changed to 'are', the sentence would be wrong. In both parts (a) and (b), the head of the verb phrase is 'work'. The rest of the verb phrase in 1(a) tells us how she worked: 'very hard'. This is an adjectival phrase where 'hard' is the head modified by the adverb 'very'. Other phrases, such as an adjectival phrase, can be found within the verb phrase. Similarly, example 1(b) demonstrates a preposition phrase within a verb phrase, 'for the bus company'.

#### 4.4.1.1.2 Non-finite verb phrase

The non-finite verb phrase lacks tense and is not limited to a particular time. Non-finite verb phrases do not show agreement with the subject-object noun phrases.

<b>2 (a)</b>	He wants <u>to dance</u> .
<b>2 (b)</b>	<u>Singing and dancing</u> , people entered the stadium.
<b>2 (c)</b>	<u>Summoned</u> early, he ate quickly and called a taxi.



Phrases underlined in example 2 are non-finite. The phrases do not indicate a present, past, or future tense. Additionally, they do not have agreement in number or person between the verb and the noun phrase. Often non-finite verb phrases begin with 'to' or end with either '-ing' or '-ed'. If we changed the singular 'he' in example 2(a) to the plural 'they', the phrase 'to dance' would remain the same.



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Pair together to identify whether the underlined verb phrases are finite or non-finite. If student teachers have a student module, they can label the verb phrases in their book. Otherwise, display the phrases for student teachers to record in their notebooks.
  - a. When asked to help, Janet never refused. *Sample Response: non-finite*
  - b. She is working for a textile factory. *Sample Response: finite*
  - c. Having bought this hammer mill, how do I start using it? *Sample Response: non-finite*
2. After student teachers have identified the verb phrases, ask for volunteers to provide their answers and explain their thinking. Confirm with student teachers if their answers are correct and emphasise the difference between non-finite and finite-verb phrases.

#### 4.4.1.2 Noun phrases

A noun phrase, as discussed in chapter 2, is a group of words headed by a noun. It is also correct to say that a noun phrase is a noun or any group of words that can be replaced by a pronoun.

<b>3 (a)</b>	The fat greedy <u>shopkeeper</u> walked into the room.
<b>3 (b)</b>	She wants to win <u>the first prize</u> .
<b>3 (c)</b>	<u>This little child</u> can sing like an angel.



In the sentences in example (3), the underlined words are noun phrases. Each head noun—'shopkeeper' in (a), 'prize' in (b), and 'child' in (c)—is accompanied by other word categories that modify it. These include articles ('the'), adjectives ('fat'), and demonstrative ('this'). Articles, demonstratives, and quantifiers are called noun determiners because they signal the presence of a noun. These words precede the noun. The other words that precede the noun in English are adjectives, which may also be modified by adverbs (adverbs as in, 'very fat'). The head noun comes last in an English noun phrase. Each underlined phrase in example 3 can be replaced with pronouns: he, it, and she, respectively.

Noun phrases function as subjects and objects of the verb in sentences. In example 4, the noun phrase is a subject in 4(a) and 4(c) but an object in 4(b). Noun phrases can also be subjects and object complements. Complements are words added to phrases or clauses that provide information essential for the phrase or clause to make sense.

<b>4 (a)</b>	He is <u>the chairman of the club</u> .
<b>4 (b)</b>	They elected him <u>chairman of the club</u> .



In example 4(a), the noun phrase completes the subject, saying more about the subject 'he'. In example 4(b), the noun phrase is an object complement, providing more information about the sentence's object: 'him'.

### Activity 3

### Learning outcome: 1



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Group student teachers into groups of three to four to complete two different tasks. Use the 'I Do, We Do, You Do' process to guide student teachers through each activity. Remember that the examples used for 'I Do' and 'We Do' should differ. If student teachers have a student module, they can record their phrases in their books. Otherwise, they can record their answers in their notebook.
2. Ask student teachers to compose at least four noun phrases to incorporate the following word categories in English noun phrases: articles, demonstratives, adverbs, adjectives, and quantifiers. They should label their phrases to indicate the parts of speech.
3. Ask student teachers to compose at least four sentences to illustrate the concepts of subject and object complements.

#### 4.4.1.3 Prepositional phrases

##### Teacher educator's note



*Recall that student teachers learnt about prepositions in chapter 2.*

A preposition is a word that comes before a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase to show direction, time, place, or location. A prepositional phrase is a group of words headed by a preposition and functioning like a preposition to indicate the location of things in time and space.

<b>5 (a)</b>	There is a monkey <u>in</u> the maize field.
<b>5 (b)</b>	The cat jumped <u>over</u> the table.



In both sentences, the prepositions are underlined. In example 5(a), the preposition shows the relationship between the two nouns 'monkey' and 'maize field'. In example 5(b), the preposition shows the relationship between the verb 'jumped' and the noun 'table'.

In 6(a), the underlined words form a prepositional phrase modifying the noun 'boy'. In 6(b) the prepositional phrase modifies the verb 'ran'.

<b>6 (a)</b>	The boy <u>with the tall woman</u> is her son.
<b>6 (b)</b>	She ran the race <u>with pride</u> last Saturday.



The examples show that a prepositional phrase can have a preposition + noun phrase structure. A prepositional phrase can have a preposition and a 'wh-' clause as in example 7. The prepositional phrase is underlined.

<b>7</b>	Mundia came <u>from what he called 'a small farm' of two hundred acres.</u>
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A prepositional phrase can also have a preposition and an '-ing' non-finite phrase. The preposition in example 8 is 'by' and is followed by a non-finite phrase 'walking very fast'.

<b>8</b>	Kanyanga made it to her appointment on time <u>by walking very fast.</u>
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A prepositional phrase can have a preposition followed by an adverb. In example 9, the preposition is 'from', and the adverb is 'here'.

<b>9</b>	You can see Lake Kariba <u>from here.</u>
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In example 10, the prepositional phrases can function as adverbials. The underlined phrase is the preposition 'to' modifying the verb 'went'.

<b>10</b>	Finally, I went back <u>to my old lifestyle.</u>
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They can also modify noun phrases, as in example 11. The underlined phrase, with a preposition 'of', complements the verb phrase 'felt no chance'. In other words, it completes the meaning of 'no chance'.

<b>11</b>	Muzambalika felt he had no chance <u>of being promoted.</u>
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Finally, in example 12, the prepositional phrase functions as the complement of the verb, 'worried'.

<b>12</b>	Bwali does not seem worried <u>about the situation.</u>
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#### 4.4.1.4 Adjective phrases

Chapter 2 discusses adjectives, which were defined as words that modify nouns. An adjectival phrase can be a word or a group of words with an adjective as the head and function like an adjective. Adjectives that come before the nouns are attributive; ones that come after the nouns are predicative.

13 (a)	Mpika can be <u>incredibly cold</u> .
13 (b)	He brought some <u>very beautiful, expensive</u> roses.
13 (c)	Ms Mulenga is <u>very courageous</u> .



In examples 13(a) and 13(c), the adjectives come after the noun they modify, Mpika in 13(a) and Ms Mulenga in 13(c). The phrases predicates, or asserts, something about the nouns. In example 13(b), the adjectival phrase comes before the noun, 'roses'. The phrase attributes the qualities to the noun. In all the cases, the adjectival phrases consist of more than a single adjective: there are adverbs and other adjectives.

Adjective phrases are arranged in a specific order before the noun in English: general descriptive (e.g. 'beautiful') + size (e.g. 'big') + shape (e.g. 'round') + colour (e.g. 'blue') + place/origin (e.g. 'African') + material (e.g. 'leather') + use (e.g. 'cooking').

#### Activity 4

#### Learning outcome: 1



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Discuss with student teachers the difference between using adjectival phrases attributively and predicatively.  
*Sample Response: Adjectives that occur directly before or adjacent to the noun they describe are attributive adjectives. Adjectives that follow a linking verb are predicate adjectives.*
2. Pair student teachers to arrange the following adjectives before the noun: jar, Indian, porcelain, expensive, golden, water, narrow, small, beautiful. There may be more than one answer.
3. Pair student teachers with another pair to compare responses.
4. Have some volunteers share how they arranged the adjectives. Discuss the variations between groups. Student teachers should see that the adjective(s) come before the noun in English noun phrases.

#### 4.4.1.5 Adverb phrases

An adverb phrase is a group of words headed by an adverb. Like an adverb, an adverb phrase modifies a verb, adjective, another adverb, clauses, or the whole sentence.





14 (a)	Usually, they go on Christmas holidays in December.
14 (b)	Chanda walked <u>very carefully</u> across the busy road.
14 (c)	These birds fly <u>very swiftly indeed</u> .
14 (d)	He is coming home <u>very soon</u> .
14 (e)	He lives <u>near here</u> .

In example 14(a), the adverb appears alone, and it provides information about frequency. Although sentences are discussed in more detail later in the chapter, it is important to point out that when adverbs stand alone, they are termed *sentence adverbs*. In 14(b), the adverb phrase has two words; 'very' is an intensifier modifying the main adverb 'carefully'. Combined, the phrase modifies 'walked' by telling the reader how it was done. In 14(c), the phrase modifies 'fly' and explains how the flying was done. In 14(d), the phrase tells when a person is expected. The last example, 14(e), gives information about the subject's location. Thus, like adverbs, adverb phrases can answer the questions: where, when, or how.

#### 4.4.2 Clauses

##### Activity 5

##### Learning outcome: 1



*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

Ask student teachers what the difference is between a clause and a phrase.

*Sample Response: A clause always has a subject and a predicate. A phrase is a group of words. For example, there are noun phrases and verb phrases. A noun phrase includes the noun and the words that modify the noun, and a verb phrase includes the verb and the words that modify it.*

A clause is a group of words containing a subject and a predicate. A subject is often a noun or a noun phrase, while a predicate is the part of a sentence that contains a verb. Phrases and clauses differ from one another due to the relationship of the subject and the predicate. A single independent clause is similar to a simple sentence (Downing, 2015). DeCapua (2017) states that 'a clause is the smallest syntactic unit that has meaning (pp. 279)'. Clauses are categorised as independent or dependent, and these are discussed next.

##### 4.4.2.1 Independent and dependent clauses

The independent clause is also known as the main or matrix clause. It can stand on its own and be understood. In example 15, the single underlined clause is the main clause. It can work as a sentence on its own.

- 15** Bwalya did not make a profit despite selling a hundred bags of maize.



A dependent clause, on the other hand, cannot stand on its own. It requires the main clause in order to be understood. In example 15, the double underlined clause cannot make sense without the underlined main clause. Because of this, the dependent clause is said to be subordinate to the main one.

Subordinate clauses are usually introduced by subordinating conjunctions, such as 'despite', 'unless', 'when', 'if', and 'who' (more are enumerated in chapter 3). When subordinating conjunctions are added to a clause, they make that clause subordinate.

In example 15, the dependent (subordinate) clause is attached to an independent (main) clause to form a complex sentence. A complex sentence is a sentence with an independent clause and one or more dependent clauses.

Two independent clauses can be connected by coordinators: 'and', 'but', 'so', 'or', 'nor', 'for', and 'yet'.

- 16 (a)** I want to buy a phone, but I don't have money.
- 16 (b)** Banda went to Northern Province and she visited the Chishimba falls.
- 16 (c)** She did not have any money, so she could not travel with me.



The clauses in example 16 are all independent and can work as separate simple sentences. The coordinated sentences are called compound sentences.

- 17 (a)** When I was dating Bwalya, I had an accident
- 17 (b)** I know the man who stole the watch.
- 17 (c)** Mulenga bought a car since she got a raise at work.



Whenever a dependent clause comes first in a complex sentence, it is followed by a comma before joining it to the independent clause. Conversely, when the subordinate clause comes last, there is no comma separating the main from the subordinate clause. These are illustrated in example 18. Part (a) has no commas separating the clauses while part (b) has one because the subordinate clause comes first.

- 18 (a)** They will be married in an outside ceremony if it doesn't rain.
- 18 (b)** Although Mwansa sings well, he hates music.



#### 4.4.2.2 Functions of a clause in a sentence

There are five types of clauses categorised according to their function or purpose. These are: 1) nominal clauses; 2) adverbial clauses; 3) adjectival clauses; 4) non-finite clauses; and 5) simple sentences. These are explained next, beginning with nominal clauses.

##### 4.4.2.2.1 Nominal clause

Nominal clauses are dependent clauses acting as nouns (objects or subjects). These often begin with 'how', 'that', and 'WH' words—'what', 'who', 'which', 'when', 'where', 'whose', and 'whom'.

19 (a)	Mulenga knows <u>how things work around here</u> .
19 (b)	I like <u>what you said</u> .
19 (c)	<u>That you have recovered</u> is good news.
19 (d)	<u>What you need</u> is a good rest.



#### Teacher educator's note



*Discuss with student teachers the functions of the clauses underlined in example 19.*

##### 4.4.2.2.2 Adverbial clause

An adverbial clause can also function like an adverb. As previously learnt, it can modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. Adverbial clauses can express various concepts such as reason, cause, result, purpose, condition, place, or time (see chapter 5 for more detail).

20 (a)	She follows me <u>wherever I go</u> .
20 (b)	Mr Sampa will attend the party <u>if you call him</u> .
20 (c)	Mary cooks nshima <u>whenever she is hungry</u> .
20 (d)	She <u>saved more money each month because she wanted to buy a car</u> .
20 (e)	<u>If you pay</u> , it will show.





*Ask student teachers to name the different clauses in example 20.*

#### 4.4.2.2.3 Adjectival clause

An adjectival clause is a dependent clause that modifies a noun. It is also known as a relative clause. It usually comes after the nouns it modifies, as in example 21.

<b>21 (a)</b>	The film, <u>which I needed</u> , is unobtainable.
<b>21 (b)</b>	The secretary wrote to all the members <u>who were absent from the meeting</u> .
<b>21 (c)</b>	I'm looking for the red book <u>that went missing last week</u> .
<b>21 (d)</b>	Peter, <u>who has been our pastor</u> , has decided to take a mission trip to South America.



In chapter 2, relative clauses were discussed in relation to whether they are defining or non-defining.

#### Activity 6

**Learning outcome: 1**



*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

Think-Pair-Share

1. Ask student teachers to consider the differences between defining and non-defining relative clauses by referring to example 20.
2. Then pair student teachers together to share the differences and prepare examples to support their thinking.
3. Afterwards, ask a volunteer to share the differences between defining and non-defining relative clauses along with an example.

#### 4.4.2.2.4 Non-finite clause

A non-finite clause is a subordinate clause containing a non-finite verb, which is a verb that does not indicate tense or person in agreement with a noun phrase. According to Aljovic (2017), 'non-finite verbs do not have a visible subject in English. If visible it is usually in the objective form, e.g. me and not I' (pp.17).

The subject of the main clause and subordinate clause are the same. The non-finite clause contains a participle or an infinitive verb from that makes the subject and verb evident even when hidden.

<b>22 (a)</b>	He saw a cat <u>staring out of the window</u> .
<b>22 (b)</b>	He was the first Zambian <u>to become mayor of Lusaka</u> .
<b>22 (c)</b>	She was very lucky <u>being offered a scholarship at a top university</u> .



Non-finite clauses are also used after subordinating conjunctions like 'after', 'although', 'though', and 'if'.

<b>23 (a)</b>	By the end of the day, <u>although exhausted</u> , Mwila continued working.
<b>23 (b)</b>	The proposal, <u>if accepted by the committee</u> , will mean fundamental changes to the school.



#### 4.4.3 Sentences

A clause can be a simple sentence—one which has a subject and a predicate. Some sentences have more than one clause. Sentences can then be classified according to how many clauses they have and by function. Simple sentences have a single independent clause whereas complex sentences are composed of more than one clause (Leech, 2006). All three sentences in example 24 have one independent clause.

<b>24 (a)</b>	Chabala went to Mosi-o-Tunya Shopping Mall yesterday.
<b>24 (b)</b>	They played pool in the afternoon.
<b>24 (c)</b>	She teaches us Oral Literature.



Compound sentences have independent clauses joined by coordinating conjunctions, such as 'and', 'but', 'or', or 'yet'.

<b>25 (a)</b>	I like bananas, and she likes mangoes.
<b>25 (b)</b>	I will either pick you up tonight or you can get a ride home with your brother.



In example 25(a), the clauses or simple sentences, 'I like bananas' and 'she likes mangoes', could be used independently, but they are joined together using a conjunction 'and'. In example 25(b) the two clauses, 'I will pick you up tonight' and 'you can get a ride home with your brother' can be separated and still make sense. Still, they are combined to form a compound sentence.

Finally, a complex sentence is a sentence with the main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. Greenbaum (1991) defines a complex sentence as one with at least one, but possibly more, subordinate clauses.

<b>26 (a)</b>	I have told you that I would come.
<b>26 (b)</b>	When she finishes speaking, give her some water to drink.
<b>26 (c)</b>	Although he explained the problem in detail, I was unable to understand it because he used a lot of jargon.



Each of the three sentences in example 26 has one independent clause and one subordinate clause. In example 26(a) and (b), there is only one independent and subordinate clause. The subordinate clause is introduced by subordinating conjunction 'that' and 'when', respectively. In example 26(c), there are two subordinate clauses: one introduced by 'although' and one by 'because'.

It is possible to have a combination of a compound and complex sentence. Compound-complex sentences are those that contain two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause (Leech, 2006).

<b>27</b>	<u>It was a beautiful evening</u> , so we left work and went for a walk.
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In example 27, the underlined clause is an independent clause; the coordinated part of the sentence (joined by 'and') forms the subordinate part introduced by 'so'. The subordinate part—'so, we left work and went for a walk'—can function as an independent sentence.

#### 4.4.3.1 Sentence type According to Function or Purpose

The second way of classifying sentences is by function.

##### 4.4.3.1.1 Declarative sentences

Declarative sentences are also known as statements. They are punctuated with a full stop (.). Declarative sentences are the most common type of sentence. They make statements or declarations that can be affirmative or negative.

<b>28 (a)</b>	Musonda is sad. (affirmative)
<b>28 (b)</b>	Musonda is not sad. (negative)



#### 4.4.3.1.2 Interrogative sentences

Interrogative sentences function as questions. They are punctuated with a question mark (?). They may start with interrogative pronouns, such as 'who', 'what', 'how', 'when', and 'why'.

29 (a)	What was the cause of the accident?
29 (b)	Why did you lie to your mother?
29 (c)	How did you move?
29 (d)	Do you like nshima?



Additionally, there are various types of interrogative sentences.

#### 4.4.3.1.3 The yes/no questions

These require a 'yes' or 'no' for an answer.

30 (a)	Are those books worth reading?
30 (b)	Is the programme ending today?
30 (c)	Was the test difficult?
30 (d)	You are coming, aren't you?
30 (e)	You speak English, don't you?
30 (f)	I can go, can't I?



#### 4.4.3.1.4 Imperative sentences

Imperative sentences express commands. They are punctuated at the end by either a full stop (.) or an exclamation point (!). In imperative sentences, the subject 'you' is often implied.

31 (a)	'Open the window.'
31 (b)	'Look smart!'
31 (c)	'Kick the ball.'



#### 4.4.3.1.5 Exclamatory sentences

Exclamatory sentences express sudden emotions. They are punctuated at the end with an exclamation point (!). They express sudden and strong feelings, such as surprise, sympathy, happiness, and gratitude (Azar & Hagen, 2009).

<b>32 (a)</b>	'He's won the race!'
<b>32 (b)</b>	'It is true! I heard it on the radio.'
<b>32 (c)</b>	'Wow! I have passed.'



#### 4.5

## Phrases, clauses, and sentences in Zambian languages

#### 4.5.1. Phrases

We have already defined and discussed various types of phrases in English. Those definitions still hold here. However, the structures under each of the phrase types may be organised differently, as we have already seen in chapters 2 and 3. This section begins with noun phrases.

##### 4.5.1.1 Noun phrases

In chapter 2, Zambian noun phrases were described as groups of words headed by a noun; all other word categories agree with the noun in number and person. The structure of the noun phrase consisted of the head noun coming first, followed by demonstratives, adjectives, numerals, possessive pronouns, and other word categories.

<b>33 (a)</b>	<i>Banamaayo</i>	<i>aba</i>	<i>batatu</i>	<i>abatali</i>	<i>saana</i>	<i>[Bemba]</i>
	Women	these	three	tall	very	'These three very tall women'
<b>33 (b)</b>	<i>Baanabakazhi</i>	<i>babiji</i>	<i>babuuya</i>			<i>[Kaonde]</i>
	Women	two	beautiful			'Two beautiful women'
<b>33 (c)</b>	<i>Abanda</i>	<i>alubazhi</i>	<i>ayedi</i>			<i>[Lunda]</i>
	Women	two	beautiful			'Two beautiful women'
<b>33 (d)</b>	<i>Mwana</i>	<i>wamkazi</i>				<i>[Nyanja]</i>
	Child	female				'A girl'





As seen in example 33, all the words have similar prefixes showing that there is concord or agreement between them and the noun in the initial position. In example 33(d) *wamkazi* 'female' is a noun modifying another noun.

Noun phrases function as subjects and objects in sentences.

## Activity 7

Learning outcome: 1



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

### Round Robin

1. Divide student teachers into small groups according to their familiar language.
2. Ask student teachers to take turns constructing complete sentences that show noun phrases as subjects and objects in their chosen language until they have at least four examples. They should record their examples in their student module if they have one or in their notebook. Go around the room while providing feedback and assistance as needed.

*Sample Response:* Umwana umo umulumendo nabamwingisha incito. [Bemba]

*Child yours one boy has been employed*

*'One of your boys has been employed.'*

3. Close the activity by asking student teachers how noun phrases are organised.

*Sample Response: The head noun comes first, and then modifiers follow.*

### 4.5.1.2 Verb phrase

As defined earlier, a verb phrase is headed by a verb and can have other words modified, as discussed in chapter 3. The verb phrase structure in Bantu languages illustrates the agglutinative nature of these languages. A verb can contain all the morphemes that can make it a complete clause, as shown in example 34(a).

<b>34 (a)</b>	<i>Ba-lee-mu-it-a</i> [Bemba]	
	They are him/her call	
	'They are calling him/her'.	
<b>34 (b)</b>	<i>Ba -sa -lut -a</i> [Lozi]	
	They still teach	
	'They still teach'.	

Example 34 show that verbs are independent clauses and can work as simple sentences. In 34(a), there is a subject—*Ba*, 'they'—and predicate—the rest of the verb, which also includes the object (*mu*). The actual verb is the tense aspect marker *-lee-* (present progressive) and the root, *-it-* 'call'. In example 34(b), there is also a subject—*Ba*, 'they'—and the predicate—*saluta* 'still teach'.

## Activity 8

Learning outcome: 1



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Pair or group student teachers together according to their familiar language.
2. Ask student teachers to translate the sentences in example 32 in their chosen language and analyse them according to procedures. If their familiar language is the same as the text example, provide another example for student teachers to use. They may record their translation into their student module if they have one or write their responses on notebook paper.
3. Afterwards, discuss with student teachers whether the structure is the same or different. Clarify any misconceptions.

Verbs also occur with modifiers. For example, they can have adverbs.

**35** *A-lee-bomb-a panoono-panoono saana.*

He is working slowly very

'He is working very slowly'



## Activity 9

Learning outcome: 1



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Ask student teachers to translate the sentence in example 4 into a familiar language.
  - How is the adverb 'slowly' translated?
2. Then ask volunteers to share their responses. Try to have as many languages represented so that comparisons may be drawn.

*Table 4.1 Examples of verb phrases in some Zambian languages*

Verb Pattern	Language	Example	Gloss
V+NP	Lozi	<i>Ca matumbuwa</i>	Eat the fritter
V+NP+ADV	Kaonde	<i>Ovwa masaanji bukiji-bukiji</i>	Wash the plates quickly
V+NP+PP+NP	Nyanja	<i>Kupha njoka ndi mkondo</i>	Kill the snake with a spear
V+PP+NP	Lunda	<i>Yañakumaliketi</i>	Go to the market

### 4.5.1.3 Adjectival clauses

<b>36 (a)</b>	(Moota) <i>mupati mupya</i>	[Tonga]
	(Car) <i>good new</i>	
	'A good new car'	
<b>36 (b)</b>	(Mwaami mulume) <i>Wasangala biingi</i>	[Kaonde]
	(My son) <i>Happy very</i>	
	'Very happy son'	



The words in parentheses at the beginning are the nouns that the adjectival phrases modify. In example 36, the adjectives agree with the nouns. There are few true adjectives in Bantu languages, as explained in chapter 1. Other words such as verbs; even nouns are used to express adjectival functions. This also applies to adjectival phrases, of course. For example, we can use a verb with an intensive extension *wam-ish-a* 'the most beautiful' [Bemba] to express the superlative form of the adjective.

### 4.5.1.4 Adverb phrases

An adverb phrase modifies a verb, adjective, adverb, clauses, or sentence as a whole. The adverb phrase in a sentence can come before or after the headword. As discussed in chapter 3, Bantu languages do not have many true adverbs. Many of the words that function like adverbs are verbs and nouns. Some adverbs of manner are formed by reduplicating nouns, adjectives, or verbs. For example, in Bemba, to express the idea of 'fiercely', one says *bukali-bukali* where the word *bukali* is a class 14 noun meaning 'anger, fierceness'. The reduplicated adverb can be post-modified by an intensifying adverb, *saana* 'very'. Verbs can express such functions as intensification by the intensive extension. For example, *bomb-esh-a* 'work very hard'. Verbs too can be used to express frequency—*lila-lila* 'crying often'.

Adjectives, too, can be changed to adverbs. For example, *noono* 'small, little' becomes an adverb through reduplication as *panoono-panoono* 'slowly, little by little'.

In Chichewa (related to Nyanja), according to Moto (1989, as cited in Downing), there are only five true adverbs in the language:

1. *dzuulo* 'yesterday'
2. *maawa* 'tomorrow'
3. *bwiino* 'gently, well'
4. *kaale* 'long time ago'
5. *boola* 'better'



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Pair or group student teachers together according to their familiar language.
2. Ask student teachers to translate the list in example 36. They may complete the table in their book if they have a student module. Otherwise, they can write their response on notebook paper.

Nyanja Adverbs	Familiar Language
a. <i>dzuulo</i> 'yesterday'	
b. <i>maawa</i> 'tomorrow'	
c. <i>bwiino</i> 'gently; well'	
d. <i>kaale</i> 'long time ago'	
e. <i>boola</i> 'better'	

3. Then ask student teachers:
  - Are the words true adverbs in their languages?
  - How do they express the following ideas: very quickly, very carefully, loudly, just now, furiously, peacefully?

Adverbs	Familiar Language
Very quickly	
Very carefully	
Loudly	
Just now	
Furiously	
Peacefully	

4. Have volunteers share their examples from different language groups to compare.

#### 4.5.1.5 Prepositional phrases

A preposition phrase is a word or group of words used before a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase to show direction, time, place, or location. It can also introduce an object. A prepositional phrase is a group of words headed by a preposition. True prepositions in Bantu languages are very few. Some of the prepositional functions are expressed by locatives in Zambian language, as in chapter 3. However, there is a closed set of prepositions found in Bantu languages (Guerois, 2015). They may differ in some ways.



Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.

1. Pair student teachers with a classmate they have not worked with before (if possible).
2. Ask student teachers to find equivalents for the prepositions mentioned.
3. Afterwards, ask student teachers:
  - Do they have the same forms as those in Bemba?

#### 4.5.1.5.1 Some common prepositions

Na is a preposition that can express the idea of accompaniment, as in example 37.

<b>37 (a)</b>	<i>Chomba aile <u>na Bupe</u> <u>kucilye</u>.</i> 'Chomba went with Bupe to the meeting.'
<b>37 (b)</b>	<i>Nacimba <u>na ulukasu</u>.</i> 'I dug with a hoe.'
<b>37 (c)</b>	<i>Amataba yaleliwa <u>na utushiishi</u>.</i> 'Maise is being eaten <u>by insects</u> '.
<b>37 (d)</b>	<i>Wazuña <u>namutapa</u>. [Lunda]</i> 'He fought with a lion.'



In example 36(a), the preposition phrase *na Bupe* 'with Bupe' gives a comitative meaning ('along with'). In the same sentence, *kucilye* 'to the meeting' is another preposition phrase headed by the locative *ku* 'to'. In 37(b), *na ulukasu* 'with a hoe' gives an instrumental reading, 'using a hoe'. In 37(c), *na* means 'by'. In 37(d), a Lunda example of *na* means 'with'. It also has a comitative reading.

Mpaka 'until' is also found in Nyanja. It can express spatial or temporal meanings, as in example 38.

<b>38 (a)</b>	<i>Nshaye <u>mpaka ese</u>.</i> 'I won't go <u>until he/she comes</u> '.
<b>38 (b)</b>	<i>Kuti walima ukufuma umu <u>mpaka mulya</u>.</i> 'You may cultivate from here <u>until (to) there</u> '



In example 38(a) the expression refers to a time limit, while in 38(b) it refers to space—or the extent to which something reaches.

Nga 'like, as' is used to express similarity or approximation, as shown in example 39.

- 39** *Nali nga uyu ilyo natampile isukulu.*  
'I was like this one when I started school.'



The previous examples are the few prepositions found in Bantu languages. Other prepositional functions are expressed by locatives and other words like verbs. For example, 'without' can be expressed in Bemba with the verb '*ukwabula*' as in *Ukwabula ukupembela aya*. 'He left without waiting'.

#### 4.5.2 Clauses and sentences

This section focuses on clauses and sentences in Zambian languages. In the section on English, we differentiated between clauses and phrases. Clauses are the smallest syntactic units that have meaning. They can stand on their own. We also classified clauses in two ways: first, in a two-way division between independent and dependent clauses; and secondly, by the functions clauses perform.

##### 4.5.2.1 Independent clauses

Independent clauses are clauses that can stand alone and be meaningful. A clause of this nature has a subject and a predicate.

<b>40 (a)</b>	<i>Bamaayo baleipika inama.</i> [Bemba] 'Mother is cooking meat'.
<b>40 (b)</b>	<i>Vali na kuteta nyama.</i> [Luvale] 'They are cutting meat'.



In example 40, the subject is *bamaayo* 'mother' and the predicate is *baleipika* 'is cooking'; *inama* 'meat' is an object. A predicate is everything from the verb to the object. Example 40 are simple sentences with single independent clauses.

When two independent clauses are combined using words like *elyo na* 'and' or *nomba* 'but', they form a compound sentence.

<b>41</b>	<i>Bamaayo balewasha ifyakufwala elyo bataata balefikanika.</i> 'Mother is washing clothes, and father is hanging them up'
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##### 4.5.2.2 Dependent clauses

Dependent, or subordinate, clauses are those that cannot stand on their own as complete or meaningful sentences. In example 42, the clause cannot work as a meaningful sentence.

<b>42</b>	<i>Kuti adwala</i> [Nyanja] 'That he/she is sick'
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What makes example 41 not work is the first word, *kuti* 'that'. This is the subordinating conjunction; it makes the clause depend on another to be understood, as seen in example 43. The underlined clause is the main clause: it is independent and provides context for the subordinate clause.

- 43** *Anadandaula kuti andwala.*  
'He complained that he was ill'.



In Table 4.2 are examples from different languages.

*Table 4.2 Main and subordinate clauses in some Zambian languages*

Language	Main clause	Subordinate clause
Nyanja	<i>anadandaula</i>	<i>kuti sanadye</i>
	He complained	that he had not eaten
Bemba	<i>Leeta umupika</i>	<i>wakwipikalamo umunani</i>
	Bring a pot	for cooking relish
Kaonde	<i>Nakubuula</i>	<i>naamba nkeeya</i>
	I have told you	that I will cook

A sentence with one or more dependent clauses and the main clause is called a complex sentence. The combination of the clauses in Table 4.2 for each language makes a complex sentence of one subordinate and the main clause. Example 44 is a complex sentence with two subordinate clauses.

- 44** *Baleesefya ubutungwa bwabo ubo bapokele panuma yakwilwisha apatali  
bamwisabalebateeka abashalefwaya ukuleka ukuteeka.*  
'They were celebrating their independence, which they obtained after a long struggle against the colonialists who clung to power'.



The subordinate clauses are introduced by the underlined words. The independent clause is the first clause.

#### 4.5.2.3 Functions of a clause in a sentence

Earlier in this chapter, materials discuss that clauses in a sentence can perform various functions. Clause can function as adverbs, adjectives, nouns, and complements. The following are some of the functions of clauses in some Zambian languages.

#### 4.5.2.3.1 Noun clauses

A noun clause has been defined as a dependent or subordinate clause acting as a noun, and it begins with the equivalents of these words in Zambian languages: how, that, WH words—what, who, which, when, where, whose, and whom. Table 4.3 shows examples of noun clauses in some Zambian languages.

Table 4.3 Noun clauses in Nyanja and Bemba

Language	Main clause	Subordinate clause
Nyanja	<i>Amadziwa</i>	<i>momwe zinthu zimayendera pano</i>
	He knows	how things work around here
Bemba	<i>Chali taishibe</i>	<i>ifyo baakafundisha baafundile</i>
	Chali did not know	what the teacher taught

In the first sentence, *amadziwa* 'he knows' is the main clause, while the noun clause is introduced by *momwe* 'how'. *momwe zinthu zimayendera pano* 'how things work around here'. The Bemba sentence has two clauses as well. The main clause is *Chali taishibe* 'Chali did not know', and the dependent noun clause is *ifyo baakafundisha baafundile* 'what the teacher taught'. The noun clause is functioning as the object of the verb.

#### 4.5.2.3.2 Adverbial clauses

An adverbial clause functions like an adverb and can modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Table 4.4 includes examples from some of the Zambian languages.

Table 4.4 Adverbial clause functions in Nyanja, Tonga, and Kaonde

Language	Adverbial clause	Gloss
Nyanja	Amanditsatira <b>kulikonse kumene ndikupita</b>	She follows me <b>wherever I go</b> . (Adverbial clause of place)
Tonga	<i>Ciindi naakasika amunzi, wakajana bana boonse boona</i>	<b>The time when she arrived home</b> , she found all the children had already slept. (Adverbial clause of time)
Kaonde	Wasongwelwe <b>maambo wakoma</b>	She got married because she is grown up. (Adverbial clause of reason)

Many more adverbial clauses of reason, purpose, and contrast are discussed in chapter 5.



#### 4.5.2.3.3 Adjective clauses

Adjective clauses are dependent clauses that modify nouns. They are also known as relative clauses. They usually come after the nouns they modify.

Table 4.5 Adjective clause functions in Nyanja, Bemba, and Lozi

Language	Adjective clause	Gloss
Nyanja	<i>Anyani <u>amene akuba mikanda</u> akudzetsa chisokonezo.</i>	The baboons <u>that are stealing beads</u> are bringing confusion.
Bemba	<i>Kafundisha <u>uwalefunda umwana wandi</u> ni Mutale.</i>	The teacher <u>who was teaching my child</u> is Mutale.
Lozi	<i>Hanizibi ya uzwise masheleñi ahao</i>	I do not know <u>who stole your money</u> .

In the first sentence, the relative clause (underlined) is introduced by the relative pronoun, *mene* 'that', which becomes *amene* to agree with the class marker for the head noun *Anyani* 'the baboons'. This agreement is also seen in the Bemba sentence between *Kafundisha* 'teacher' and the relative pronoun *uo-bekeete* 'who has been caught'.

#### 4.5.2.4 Sentence types according to functions

Sentences can be classified according to what they are meant to perform, for example, to state facts or give information, ask questions, give commands, or express emotion.

##### 4.5.2.4.1 Declarative sentence

A declarative sentence makes a statement or provides information (Table 4.6). This is similar to what was discussed in chapter 3—the indicative mood of the verb states a fact.

Table 4.6 Declarative sentences in Zambian languages

Language	Declarative sentence	Gloss
Bemba	<i>Umusumba wa Kitwe ukalamba.</i>	Kitwe is a big city.
Kaonde	<i>Bamwinsho yami baletele kabwa leelo lukeelo.</i>	My uncle brought a dog this morning.
Luvale	<i>Lunga uweci mwaneeyi eezanga zau ndumwami</i>	The man whose child came yesterday is my brother.
Nyanja	<i>Ndinamuita ndipo sanabwere</i>	I called her, and she did not come.

#### 4.5.2.4.2 Interrogative sentences

Interrogative sentences pose questions. They might include the use of interrogative pronouns or not. The sentences in Table 4.7 are examples of interrogative sentences in different Zambian languages.

Table 4.7 Interrogative sentences in Zambian languages

Language	Interrogative sentence	Gloss
Bemba	<i>Uli na baana banga?</i>	How many children do you have?
Lozi	<i>Una ni bana babakai?</i>	How many children do you have?
Tonga	<i>Nguni Wakaunkakucipatela?</i>	Who went to the hospital?
Kaonde	<i>Musakuja ka leelo?</i>	What are you going to eat today?

#### 4.5.2.4.3 Exclamatory sentences

Exclamatory sentence are emotional utterances lacking the grammatical structure of a sentence.

Table 4.8 Exclamatory sentences in Zambian languages

Language	Interrogative sentence	Gloss
Kaonde	<i>Yoyoyo!</i>	Expressing pain
Bemba	<i>Baya!</i>	He is gone!
Tonga	<i>Masimpe!</i>	It is true!

#### 5.4.2.4.4 Commands

Commands make a request for an action be completed. They are also termed ‘imperatives’ as they imply that it is imperative or necessary for the listener to follow the command.

Table 4.9 Commands in Zambian languages

Language	Command sentence	Gloss
Bemba	<i>Kuno!</i>	Here!
Lunda	<i>Kunu!</i>	Here!
Tonga	<i>Jalula mulyango.</i>	Open the door.
Lozi	<i>Tapisa mikeke!</i>	Wash the plates!



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*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

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1. Pair student teachers together with a peer who shares their familiar language.
2. Ask student teachers to create examples of the various sentence types in English and their Zambian language of choice for eight sentences. The sentences should have correct punctuation for each sentence type. Go around the room to assist as needed.
3. Then, have pairs share their sentences with another pair of teachers for them to sort into the following chart.

Declarative	Exclamatory	Interrogative	Imperative

4. They should then check each other's work.
5. When student teachers are finished, ask:
  - What are some other ways teachers could teach and assess sentence types?

*Sample Responses: Learners could be asked to find examples of the different sentence types in texts used in the classroom. Learners could be asked to punctuate sentence types correctly. Learners could be provided sentences on small strips of paper that they can physically sort.*

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## How to teach syntax in Zambian languages

### Lesson Procedure

Objective:	Learners should be able to write and punctuate interrogative sentences correctly in Bemba.
Pre-requisites	Learners have already learnt about nominal agreement—agreement between nouns and adjectives, demonstratives, numerals, or possessive pronouns. This background knowledge is useful for learners to work out an agreement between interrogative pronouns and the subjects or objects about which the questions are being asked.
Materials / Resources	Chalkboard Teacher's notes
References	Grade 7 syllabus objective 7.3.2.1: write interrogatives
Review	The teacher reviews the previous lesson on possessive pronouns. He/she asks learners a few questions to demonstrate their understanding of the connections between person and possessive pronouns e.g. <i>imbwa yakwa Mwinga</i> 'Mwinga's dog' but <i>mbwa yenu</i> 'your dog'.
Introduction	The teacher tells the learners the purpose of the lesson in Bemba: they are going to look at how questions are formed in Bemba as well as how to write and punctuate questions correctly. He/she asks learners to example how they ask about possessions, for example.
Lesson Development	<p>The teacher asks learners about the ownership of a bicycle they can see outside the classroom.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>How do we ask to find out who owns it? <i>Suggested answers: Ni njinga yakwani ii? Lit. 'This bicycle is whose?' or Nani umwine wa njinga? 'Who is the owner of the bicycle?'</i></li> </ul> <p>The teacher asks learners about other items or friends. He/she writes some of the responses on the board.</p>

	<p>The teacher then draws the learners' attention to the sentences on the board. He/she first asks about punctuation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>What do learners notice about how I wrote the questions? <i>Sample response: Sentences begin with a capital letter and end with a question mark.</i></li> </ul> <p>The teacher then tells the learners to form groups and work out what the questions words are and whether they change when they talk about one or more things. Learners should produce at least five sentences to illustrate their findings.</p>
Group Work	<p>The teacher reminds the learners of how they discovered the differences between noun classes and different possessive pronouns and tells them to try the same methods.</p> <p>In groups, learners compare the singular to the plural form of the question word. For instance, <i>nani</i> 'who' changes from this singular form to the plural form <i>nibaani</i>. Other words from classes 7 and 8 that change from singular to plural are <i>cinshi</i> 'what' singular, <i>finshi</i> 'what' plural, and so on. Learners should notice that question words change according to the question item's noun class.</p>
Plenary	<p>The teacher calls upon a representative of each group to come to the front of the class. The representative shares what the group has discovered about the question words and presents the example sentences. Other groups listen to offer corrections and suggestions.</p> <p>After all have presented, the teacher goes over their discussion to summarise the findings.</p>
Oral Practice	<p>The teacher asks a few learners to give examples of question words and ask questions. This allows the teacher to find out if learners have understood what has been done.</p>
Written practice	<p>The teacher asks learners to write five sentences asking questions about specific things: a fish, a tree, a lion, location, and a family. These items are meant to test learners' understanding of the connection between noun class and the interrogative pronoun.</p> <p>The teacher reminds the learners to punctuate the sentences correctly.</p> <p>The teacher goes around to mark the work.</p>

## Closure

The teacher asks learners a few questions to assess if they can explain the procedure for discovering the question words and punctuating sentences.

The teacher thanks learners for their attention and participation.

### Activity 13

Learning outcomes: 3 & 4



*Teacher educator's note: Apply previously learnt information to new information.*

#### Round Robin

1. Group student teachers together into groups of three to four.
2. Ask student teachers if they can remember the four principles of L1 teaching from chapter 1. They should discuss in their group what they remember and then check for understanding:
  - a. Make use of learners' prior knowledge.
  - b. Help learners know how to learn.
  - c. Learning should be conducted as a social activity.
  - d. The teaching of language items should be contextualised.
3. Ask student teachers to review the lesson plan to determine whether the four principles were met in the language lesson presented. They can assign one of the principles to each group member if possible and then share their responses with each other.
  - If any of the principles were missing, what could have been changed to accommodate all the principles?

## 4.7

# Chapter summary

This chapter has presented different phrases, clauses, and sentences in English and Zambian languages. The focus has been on enabling student teachers to understand the forms and functions of these structure items as background knowledge they can use in teaching. This should have allowed the student teachers to compare English to Zambian languages while noticing differences and similarities that would be useful in teaching about these structures. More importantly, we hope this chapter will enable student teachers to think about how to teach each of the structures at the primary school level.

It is impossible to cover all the facts about the structures discussed here. What has been done is to introduce the student teacher to some important information about each item and whet their appetite for individual reading and research. The information about Zambian languages should help student teachers discover more about their languages so that they can teach them more effectively.



## Assessment of learning

1. Use an example to explain how a phrase differs from a clause in English.
2. In what way is the noun phrase in English different from the noun phrase in Zambian languages?
3. Using any Zambian Language write a verb and analyse the morphemes it contains.
4. Use examples to explain the elements in a clause.
5. Using examples in the Zambian language of your choice, explain how sentences can be classified based on structure or form.
6. Using examples in English, explain how sentences can be classified following the criteria of function.

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## Chapter 5 of Language Module III

# Expressing Concepts

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# Expressing Concepts

## INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 looks at the syntax of English and Zambian languages. One of the clause types discussed was the adverbial clause. Adverbial clauses modify independent clauses by adding information to express time, location, contrast, result, reason, purpose, condition, and comparison. These concepts are explored in detail further in this chapter in both English and Zambian languages. Each concept will be discussed separately and student teachers will also learn how to teach and assess expressing concepts.



## 5.1

# Learning outcomes

### National Syllabus topics and outcomes:

#### 2.2.2 Peer Teaching

##### 2.2.2.1 Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons

### By the end of this chapter, the student teacher will:

- 1 identify and use the various ways of expressing concepts in Zambian languages and English correctly.
- 2 demonstrate understanding of how to teach concepts in Zambian languages and English.
- 3 explain how to assess the expression of concepts in Zambian languages and English.
- 4 apply their understanding of language concepts through the development and demonstration of a peer teaching lesson.

### Teacher educator's note



*Learning outcomes should be introduced to student teachers before you begin teaching the lesson's content. Student teachers should understand what is required of them throughout each chapter. Each time you present the content in the chapter, emphasise the learning outcomes that are the lesson's focus.*

*If student teachers have a copy of the student module edition, they may review student outcomes with you. If student teachers do not have a copy, make sure to visually present the learning outcomes to them (e.g. chalkboard). Be prepared to make accommodations for learners with special educational needs.*

## Instructional materials

- Teacher educator module
- Teacher educator curated materials
- Student module

### Teacher educator's note



*Review materials and be prepared to make accommodations for students with special educational needs.*

*Materials. Review the chapter thoroughly to decide if there are any materials that you have or may find useful to the presentation of the information. Student teachers will need any materials that require application in this chapter. They will also be asked to develop and deliver their own lesson to their peers. Make sure that you are prepared with all materials to help them with this.*

*Students with special educational needs: Before presenting the content in the chapter, make sure you are aware of any accommodations that you may need to make for students with special needs. Depending on the needs of your student teachers, some common accommodations are:*

- *Familiarise yourself with appropriate terms (e.g. 'disability', not 'handicap'; 'deaf', not 'hearing impaired')*
- *Repeat and vary explanations*
- *Ask for clarification of understanding*
- *Create audio-recordings of lectures and course materials*
- *Request Zambian Sign Language interpreters (ideally two per lecture)*
- *Request notetakers*
- *Allow additional time to complete coursework*
- *Include verbal descriptions of visual aids in lecture*
- *Designate front or centre row seating (closest to you) for low vision/hearing learners*
- *Designate appropriate seating for those with physical disabilities to manoeuvre into and out of seats*
- *Face those with low vision/hearing during lecture (do not turn your back to them)*
- *Utilise Universal Design Learning pedagogy*
- *Utilise Eclectic Teaching pedagogy*
- *Increase wait time when asking questions*
- *Increase communication (e.g. e-mail check-ins, office hours, etc)*
- *Translanguage*

### 5.3

## Key terms



### Comparison

An examination of two or more items to establish their similarities and differences.

### Concept

An abstract or generic idea.

### Condition

A set of words used to express what could or could not happen because of something else. **Example:** if...then; will...unless

### Contrast

Expresses a difference between things or something unexpected or surprising.

### Purpose

Shows why something is happening.

### Reason

Describes why something happens due to another action.

### Result

An action that happens because of another, earlier action. It can also be a consequence or outcome of something.

### Teacher educator's note



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*Review key terms. You may introduce the key terms together, but make sure to highlight which ones are the focus of each lesson. It is helpful to visually display the key terms (e.g. on the chalkboard) for each class session so that student teachers can refer to them throughout the lesson as needed. Be prepared to make accommodations for learners with special educational needs.*

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## Expressing concepts in English and Zambian languages

As the introduction explains, this chapter focuses on expressing concepts in Zambian languages and in English. This is achieved through adverbial phrases and clauses. It has already been pointed out in previous chapters that some word categories may not be found in similar forms as those in English, and in some cases, different word classes are used to perform roles performed by other word categories. Even in this case, it may be found that some words used as subordinating conjunctions come from different word classes, or the same ones serve different functions in clauses. These categories are discussed separately throughout the chapter.

### 5.4.1 Contrast and Concession

The concept of contrast can be understood in two ways. It can refer to a contradiction of ideas or to something unexpected. Consider, for example, this information: ‘He was sick. He went to play football.’ Given the information in the first sentence, it is surprising or unexpected that this person could play football. This idea of the unexpected or surprising outcome of events is sometimes referred to as concession.

Coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions, and sentence adverbials are used to express contrast and concession. Coordinating conjunctions are words that join parts of sentences that are grammatically equal. Subordinating conjunctions are words that join subordinate clauses to independent clauses. Some common coordinating conjunctions are ‘but’ and ‘yet’. They can be used to join the two sentences and clarify contrast. Take the previous example, for instance: ‘He was sick, but he went to play football.’ The following words are examples of subordinating conjunctions: ‘although’ and ‘though’. Sentence adverbials like ‘however’ and ‘nevertheless’ also play a linking role that expresses concession between sentences.

**1** *Nangu imfula yalelokesha, abalumendo baleeteya umupila. [Bemba]*

Although it was raining heavily, the boys continued playing football.



In example 1, the underlined clauses are subordinate clauses of contrast. It is introduced by *nangu* ‘although’. The independent clause begins at *abalumendo* ‘the boys’. The idea expresses an unexpected or surprising turn of events. It is not expected that boys would continue playing football when it is raining heavily. Example 2 illustrates the use of a coordinating conjunction—‘but’—to express contrast in English and Nyanja.

**2** *Phiri ndi onenepa koma mkazi wake ndi woonda. [Nyanja]*

Phiri is fat but his wife is slim.



## Activity 1

## Learning outcome: 1



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

The words in the list below are either coordinating or subordinating conjunctions used to express contrast/concession.

1. Ask student teachers to work in pairs or groups to find translation equivalents in their familiar Zambian language. In some cases, it may help to use them in a sentence in English to have a better idea of how to translate them.
2. Ask them to discuss whether they can use one word, or if the concept has to be rendered into a phrase. Inform student teachers that the subordinating conjunction 'however' may also be an adverb (e.g. I would like to help however I can.)

Coordinating conjunctions	Subordinating conjunctions
yet, but, and, nor, so, for	although, though, however, whereas, as if, in spite of, even though, because

The following conventions are observed when writing complex sentences with an independent and subordinate clause(s). If a subordinate clause comes first, add a comma to separate it from the independent clause (example 1). However, when the independent clause comes first, do not add any commas. Table 5.1 provides examples of adverbial clauses of contrast in English and Zambian languages. Note the use of commas according to the convention previously discussed.

*Table 5.1 Examples of adverbial clauses of contrast*

SN	Language	Expression showing contrast
a	English	<u>Although</u> it was raining, James went to school.
	Tonga	<u>Nokuba kuti</u> mvwula yakali kuwa, James wakaunka kucikolo.
b	English	<u>Despite the rains</u> , the farmer ploughed the whole field.
	Kaonde	Jane walanguluka amba kimye kyakutwela mu masongola kyafika kala <u>bino</u> James walanguluka amba bakipembebe pacheche.
c	English	Jane thinks it is time to get married <u>whereas</u> James thinks they have to wait.
	Tonga	Jane uyeeya kuti nciindi cakukwatana <u>kakuli/pele</u> James uyeeya kuti balindile.
d	English	Mary did not pass the teacher training exam. <u>However</u> , she was employed.
	Lozi	Maria nasikapasa tatubo. <u>Nihakuli cwalo</u> , nakeni musebezi.
	Tonga	Maliya taakapasa musunko. <u>Nokuba boobo</u> , wakanjila ncito.



While numerous words are used to express contrast in English, Zambian languages may have one word to represent several variations. For example, in Nyanja, *angakhale kuti* may be used to mean 'although', 'though', 'despite', 'in spite of', and more.

## Activity 2

**Learning outcomes: 1 & 2**



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Pair student teachers together to practise using contrast markers other than the examples from Table 5.1. They should use a different contrast marker in each sentence and try to vary the position of the contrast marker in their examples. Pairs can create the sentences together, or they may come up with three examples each for English and three examples each for the Zambian language of their choice.
  - a. Student teachers may use the provided chart if they have a student module. Otherwise, they may write their examples into their notebook. Go around the room providing feedback and assistance as needed.

Expressing concepts in English and Zambian languages	
English Examples	Zambian Examples
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	

2. When student teachers are finished, ask student teachers:
  - What are the similarities and differences between using contrast markers in English and in Zambian languages?
  - What are the implications of these similarities and differences for teaching and learning?

### 5.4.2 Purpose

Purpose tells us why something is done and explains the motivation behind an action. There are several words and phrases used to express purpose. There is a similarity in how purpose is expressed in English and Zambian languages in terms of construction: *ku* 'to', *mu/ku* 'for', *pakuti* 'in order to',

*pakuti* 'so as', and *pakuti* 'so that'. It is common in both English and Zambian languages for purpose markers to come in the middle of sentences.

<b>3 (a)</b>	<i>Ele kumushi mukusenda umwana. [Bemba]</i> He has gone to the village <u>to</u> bring a child.
<b>3 (b)</b>	<i>Abikile icabupe muli mootoka pakuti tacilabile. [Bemba]</i> He put the gift in the vehicle <u>so that</u> he could not forget it.



In Table 5.2, the first three examples are from English, while the next three are from Zambian languages.

Table 5.2 Purpose markers and their position in English and Zambian languages

English	Zambian Language
'I went to town to buy food.'	<i>Nsalu iyi ndi yopukutira pansi. [Nyanja]</i> 'This cloth is <u>for</u> cleaning /mopping the floor'.
'James and Peter went to Lusaka for a meeting.'	<i>Ndakaunka kutauni kukuula cakulya. [Tonga]</i> 'I went to town <u>to</u> buy food'.
'I left home early in order to board the first bus.'	<i>Lisila le ki lakukolopisa fa fasi. [Lozi]</i> 'This cloth is <u>for</u> cleaning/mopping the floor'.

Purpose can be expressed by using a bound morpheme as in the examples in Table 5.2 in Zambian languages although there are also a few independent words such as *pakuti* 'in order to/so that' [Bemba]. English uses independent or separate words.

### 5.4.3 Condition

The concept of condition is used to refer to one thing that should happen for another to take place. In other words, conditional sentences express the dependence of one event on the other or that one must fulfil one thing to acquire or do the next one. Three types of conditions are identified in languages: the possible or likely condition; the improbable or unlikely condition; and the impossible condition. Example 4 illustrates these three types in English and Bemba.



<b>4 (a)</b>	<i>Nga aisa, tuleya.</i> [Bemba] If he comes, we will go. likely condition
<b>4 (b)</b>	<i>Nga aishile, kuti twaya.</i> If he came, we would go. unlikely condition
<b>4 (c)</b>	<i>Eesa, nga twalile.</i> If he had come, we would have gone. impossible condition

The likely condition is named that because it refers to what is yet to happen in future. It is an open condition because it cannot say outright that it will happen. The unlikely condition refers to the fact that this is more like wishful thinking. In Bemba, the subjunctive form expresses the unlikely condition (see chapter 3).

The impossible condition refers to a situation where the condition was not met in the past: ‘he didn’t come so they did not go’. It is called the closed condition, as it can no longer happen. Example 4(c) shows a shift in the position of the subordinating conjunction *nga* from what was the conditional clause to the main clause. *Eesa* expresses the idea of ‘if he had come’. If *nga* came before this, it would have to repeat in the second clause, which makes it rather awkward: *Nga isa (ngeesa) nga twalilie*.

The English translations in Example 4 use the most common subordinating conjunctions of condition used: ‘if’. Other conjunctions can also be used: ‘unless’, ‘only if’, ‘on condition that’, or ‘provided’. According to Norquist (2020), words that express a condition in independent or dependent clauses are called conditional clauses. In writing, two clauses are separated by a comma if the dependent clause comes at the beginning of the sentence; there is no pause if the dependent clause comes at the end. This is reflected in the examples in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Examples of conditional sentences in English and Zambian languages

Language	Expression when condition marker comes sentence initial
English	<u>If</u> he studies hard, he will pass the examination.
Kaonde	<i>Inge watanga nangovu, ukapasa mpeso.</i> ' <u>If</u> he studies hard, he will pass the examination.'
Tonga	<i>Ccita kuti Pita andilombe, tandikwe/nsyekwe kumupa mali.</i> ' <u>If</u> Peter had asked me, I would have given him the money.'
English	He will pass the examination <u>if</u> he studies hard.
Nyanja	<i>Azaphasa mayeso ngati awerenga kwambiri.</i> 'He will pass the examination <u>if</u> he studies hard.'
English	He will fail the examination <u>unless</u> he studies hard.
Nyanja	<i>Azaphasa mayeso pokhapo atawerenga kwambiri.</i> 'He will pass the examination <u>only if</u> he studies hard.'

### Teacher educator's note



Remind the student teachers of the meaning of 'unless'-that it is equivalent to 'if...not' e.g. 'Unless he works hard' means 'If he does not work hard'. Let them practise using this.

Let student teachers provide equivalent expressions for the three conditions in example 4 in their familiar language.



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

### Round Robin

1. Group student teachers together in groups of four to five to complete the following activities. They should confirm that their examples are correct and include correct punctuation. They should record their responses on paper or their student module if they have one. Go around the room providing feedback and assistance as needed.
  - a. Take turns constructing a sentence to express condition using the word 'if' in English and Zambian languages.
  - b. Take turns constructing a sentence to express condition using the word 'unless' in English.

Expressing condition in English and Zambian languages	
English Examples	Zambian Examples
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	

2. When student teachers are finished, ask:
  - What punctuation rules do you have to follow if the condition marker (if/unless) comes at the beginning of the sentence?
  - What punctuation rules do you have to follow if the condition marker occurs in the middle of the sentence?
  - What are the similarities and differences between using condition markers in English and in Zambian languages?
  - What are the implications of these similarities and differences for teaching and learning?

### 5.4.4 Comparison

An adverbial clause of comparison 'describes how something compares with something else' (Dykes, 2007, pp. 183). This module has previously discussed adjectives and adverbs and how they are used to compare things. In this section, the focus is on their use in clauses to compare things. Some forms of comparison express the degree of a particular quality compared to another. English uses words like 'like', 'as-as', and 'similar to'. These words will compare two or more things in terms of likeness, sameness, or difference.

5 (a)	<i>Mufwaafwi mbuli mulumi wakwe.</i> 'She is <u>as</u> short <u>as</u> her husband '.
5 (b)	<i>Mutale mwipi ngo mulum.</i> She is as short as her husband'.
5 (c)	<i>Malaya omwe avala afanana ndi yomwe ndinavale dzulo.</i> The shirt he is wearing is similar to the one I was wearing yesterday.



## Activity 4

Learning outcomes: 1 & 2



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

### Rally Coach

- Pair student teachers together with a different partner than they have worked with before (if possible) to complete the following activity. They should do this 'Rally Coach' style. This means that they'll take turns offering the answer and being the 'coach'. If they have a student module, they can complete the activity in their book. Otherwise, they can record their responses in their notebook. Go around the room providing feedback and assistance as needed.
  - Give examples of sentences in both English and Zambian languages expressing comparison using 'like', 'as', 'similar to', and 'different from'.

Expressing comparison in English and Zambian languages	
English Examples	Zambian Examples
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	

- When student teachers are finished, ask:
  - What are the similarities and differences between using condition markers in English and Zambian languages?
  - What are the implications of these similarities and differences for teaching and learning?

Chapter 2 discussed the form of the adjective. For example, the comparative form requires the addition of the suffix '-er' to adjectives with two or fewer syllables or 'more' for adjectives longer than two syllables. The superlative form similarly uses the suffix '-est' and 'most'. In example 6, the comparative form is used in three languages. While the adjective or adverb in English requires only a

suffix ‘-er’ to make a comparison, the Bantu languages require an additional word—*kuposa* ‘to surpass’ [Nyanja]. These extra words are actually verbs. The adjective does not change in form—*mupati* ‘big’ in the Tonga example.

<b>6 (a)</b>	<i>Muzovwu mupati <u>kwiinda</u> syuumbwa.</i> [Tonga] 'The elephant is <u>bigger</u> than a lion.'
<b>6 (b)</b>	<i>Njobvu ndiyaikulu <u>kuposa</u> mkango.</i> [Nyanja] 'The elephant is <u>bigger</u> than a lion.'
<b>6 (c)</b>	<i>Siluwe ulazuza <u>kwiinda</u> suntwe.</i> [Tonga] 'The leopard runs <u>faster</u> than the hyena.'



In example 7, English uses a suffix ‘-est’ to form the superlative, that is, to say one thing surpasses the rest. In Bemba and in other Bantu languages, the superlative is accomplished by using the intensive extension on the adjective *-ish-* or *-esh-* alone, as in example 7(b). The superlative may also be expressed by adding a verb *ukucila* ‘to surpass’, as is this case in example 7(a). Example 7(a) also adds the phrase *pa nama shone* ‘of all the animals’.

<b>7 (a)</b>	<i>Insofu eyakul-<u>ish-a</u> ukucila <u>pa</u> nanma shonse mu Africa.</i> [Bemba] 'The elephant is the biggest animal in Africa'.
<b>7 (b)</b>	<i>Kasuba emukashana awam-<u>ish-a</u> pa sukulu.</i> [Bemba] Kasuba is the most beautiful/prettiest girl in school'.



## Teacher educator's note



*Ask student teachers to compare the Bemba examples to what is found in their familiar language. Do they notice any difference?*



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

### Rally Coach

1. Pair student teachers together with a different partner than they have worked with before (if possible) to complete the following activity. They should do this 'Rally Coach' style. This means that they'll take turns offering the answer and being the 'coach'. If they have a student module, they can complete the activity in their book. Otherwise, they can record their responses in their notebook. Go around the room providing feedback and assistance as needed.
  - a. Construct an English example & Zambian example comparing two things (comparative) and more than two things (superlative). Use this as a model:
    - i. English model:
      1. Bananas are tastier than apples.
      2. Out of bananas, apples, and pineapples, pineapples are the tastiest.
    - ii. Zambian language model:
      1. *Banda alina ukucila Bwalya*. 'Banda is fatter than Bwalya'.
      2. *Banda alinisha ukucila bonse..* 'Banda is the fattest of all'.

Comparatives and Superlatives in English and Zambian languages	
English Examples	Zambian Examples
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	

2. When student teachers are finished, have some volunteers share. You can choose for pairs to share with each other or share as a whole group.
3. Finally, ask student teachers:
  - What are the similarities and differences between using comparatives and superlatives in English and in Zambian languages?
  - What are the implications of these similarities and differences for teaching and learning?

### 5.4.5 Reason

The adverbial clause of reason refers to an expression which gives a reason, cause, or justification for an action, event, or phenomenon. Reason is the expression that answers the question 'why' (Leach and Svartvik, pp. 205–207). In English, many words and phrases are used to express reason. These words



and phrases include 'because', 'because of', and 'since'. In grammar, 'because' often occurs in the middle of the sentence, while 'since' can come at the beginning and middle. When the word expressing reason comes at the beginning of the sentence, the sentence will be separated by a comma after the dependent clause. However, if the subordinating conjunction of reason comes in the middle of the sentence, there is no pause in the sentence. In Table 5.4, sentences a–c express reason when the reason marker comes in the middle of the sentence. Sentences d–f express reason when the reason marker comes at the beginning of the sentence.

*Table 5.4 Example sentences that show reason*

Language	Expression to show reason
English	I was angry with him <u>because</u> he was late.
Nyanja	<i>Ndinamukalipila <u>cifukwa</u> anachedwa.</i> 'I was angry with him <u>because</u> he was late'.
Tonga	<i>Ndakamunyemena <u>akaambo</u> kakucelwa.</i> 'I was angry with him <u>because</u> he was late'.
English	<u>Since</u> he went to bed early, everyone thought he was sick.
English	<u>Since</u> Beauty was the eldest, she looked after the others.
Bemba	<i><u>Pa mulandu</u> wa bunang'ani bwakwe, abanakashi tabalemufwaya.</i> ' <u>Because of</u> his laziness, women didn't want him'.



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Ask student teachers to independently join the provided English sentences with 'since' or 'because'. If student teachers have a student module, they can write their answers in their book. Otherwise, you will need to display the sentences for student teachers for them to complete the activity.
  - a. He was happy. He passed the examination
  - b. He married her. They loved each other.
  - c. They worked together for a long time. They decided to start a joint company.
  - d. The economy is still very poor. It is not wise to start a business.
  - e. He refused to eat. He was shy.
2. Then ask student teachers to translate their sentences into the local language of their choice.
3. Next, pair student teachers together who used the same language and have them compare their answers for both English and the Zambian language used. They should make changes if needed.

#### 5.4.6 Result

Adverbial clauses of result refer to words or phrases which express the consequence or result of action on the other. It expresses a relationship between two ideas by showing the cause-and-effect relation, in which one action leads to another. In English, there are many words which are used to express result: 'therefore', 'as a result', 'for this reason', 'such that', 'so', and 'consequently'. In Zambian languages, there are also equivalent words which are used to express results. Similar punctuation rules are followed, as previously explained for other types of concepts.

*Table 5.5 Example sentences expressing results*

Language	Example sentences expressing result
English	The teams arrived late. <u>Therefore</u> , the march was cancelled.
English	She passed with flying colours at college. <u>For this reason</u> , she was given a prize.
English	Masauso lost her train ticket. <u>Consequently</u> , she could not get on the train.
Bemba	<i>Kalengo wacikuku. <u>Pamulandu waifi</u>, abaana besukulu balimutemwa.</i> 'Kalengo is a caring person. <u>As a result</u> , school children like him'.
Nyanja	<i>Mailesi ndi mwana waulemu. <u>Chifukwa cha ici</u>, akonedwa ndi munthu aliyense.</i> 'Mailesi is a wise child. As a result of this, she is loved by all the people'.



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

### Rally Coach

1. Pair student teachers together with another partner if possible and have them take turns providing the answer and being the coach. They can complete the activity in their book if they have one. Otherwise, you will need to provide the sentences to the student teachers. Go around the room providing feedback and assistance as necessary.
2. Punctuate the sentences below correctly:
  - a. The exam was very difficult for this reason many learners failed
  - b. The food was well cooked consequently everybody liked it
  - c. The girl was only four years old therefore she was not allowed to begin grade 1
  - d. Kanchule was very lazy as a result he dies a poor man
  - e. John is frequently late for the school therefore he is usually punished
  - f. The bus developed a fault for this reason the trip was postponed
  - g. Margaret was very beautiful as a result many men wanted to marry her
  - h. Elijah was ill consequently he missed the exam
  - i. There hasn't been enough rain therefore there won't be a good harvest
  - j. Kaenga's father was very poor for this reason he rarely sent Kaenga enough pocket money

*Source: Zambia basic education course, English 8, Pupils Book 2, page 234*

## 5.5

# How to teach concepts in English and Zambian languages

The teaching of concepts falls under the teaching of grammar. Therefore, the cognitive code method is one of the most important methods in teaching. However, the cognitive code method alone is not enough. Student teachers must use it eclectically with other methods, such as the situational and communicative language teaching methods.

As has been observed so far, concepts play essential functions in meaning-making. As the names suggest, some are used to express contrast, condition, result, or comparison. Thus, it is pedagogically helpful to use visual situations, especially at the lesson's introduction stage, to help learners see the relationship between the concept they are learning and what it means. For example, when teaching contrast, the student teacher may show a picture which shows contrasting actions or people. It may be a picture of people in a race, and the youngest person is seen winning. This picture may be used to

elicit constructions which express contrast, and student teachers may use that to develop the lesson. The same can be done to teach other concepts.

It is important to mention that rule explanation is critical when teaching concepts. For each concept, the student teachers should identify the rule(s) governing sentence construction; sentences should be correct, including using appropriate punctuation. Finally, the student teachers should explain various ways of expressing a concept. They should, for example, explain what changes would occur if the marker moved to the beginning or middle of the sentence. Similarly, the student teacher should explain exceptional cases using examples.

In terms of procedure, the lesson will generally follow the following parts and stages:

1. **Introduction:** This is the stage when the student teacher will introduce the concept. This may be through an explicit explanation of the topic and what is expected of the learners. Alternatively, and more creatively, the student teacher may introduce the topic by displaying a picture depicting the concept and asking learners to construct sentences to express what they see on it. This may elicit sentences expressing the concept being taught. Thereafter, the student teacher explicitly tells learners the topic and points out that the sentences are examples of the concept being taught. This is followed by an explanation of grammatical rules to help learners make sense of the sentences and understand how they are formed. The student teacher should explain both the form and function of the concept. It is important to also involve learners at this stage through the question-and-answer technique. However, the student teacher should be explicit enough at this stage to ensure that learners are clear about the topic.
2. **Development Stage:** This is also called the practice stage. This is where learners are given a variety of practising activities. The student teacher should vary activities ranging from pair and group work to individual exercises. In addition, different aspects of the topic or concept should be practised so that learners can fully appreciate the topic. When the student teacher is convinced that learners have understood, the development stage will end with an individual written exercise, which will be marked with feedback to the learners.
3. It is clear by now that the conclusion will comprise two parts, namely the cognitive and social closures. During the cognitive closure, the student teacher will use a question-and-answer technique to summarise the topic by highlighting the lesson's main points. Under social closure, the student teacher will give announcements, if any, appreciate learners for their good job, and give final advice or guidance to the class.



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*Teacher educator's note: Connect theory to practice.*

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1. Ask student teachers to develop and teach an expressing concepts lesson according to the following directions:
    - a. Design a detailed lesson plan on any concept of your choice. Refer to the primary school English language and Zambian languages syllabuses for learning outcomes
    - b. Based on the lesson plan, design an exercise which learners will write as assessment.
    - c. Using the lesson plan you have made under 'a' above, teach the lesson to your peers and get feedback.
  2. Alternatively, you may assign a concept and language (English or a local language) to groups of student teachers and ask them to design the lesson together. One teacher from each group would teach the lesson while the other student teachers are learners. Each group would present to the whole class, and peers would provide feedback.
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## 5.6

# Chapter summary

This chapter presents various concepts that form part of a language's grammar. The concepts are presented in terms of their meaning, function, structure, and form. Student teachers must be exposed to these concepts and practise how to teach them. Each student teacher must be challenged and allowed to teach each concept to their peers—and get feedback from their peers and teacher educators. The peer teaching demonstrations should be done both in English and Zambian languages since they are separate subject areas in primary school.



## Assessment of learning

1. Design a lesson plan to teach the use of the words 'since' and 'because' to a grade 6 class.
2. Explain the rule which governs the use of the words 'although' and 'even if' to express contrast in English.
3. Illustrate how you would introduce the concept of comparison to learners.
4. Design an exercise assessing a lesson where the focus was on the use of 'if' and 'unless'.
5. Using examples, explain the difference between possible and impossible conditional utterances.
6. Explain the concept of result in terms of its meaning, its function, and examples of sentences illustrating the result.
7. Illustrate how you would explain purpose's rule to a grade 7 classroom.
8. Assume that you are teaching contrast and explain how you would conclude the lesson.
9. Which classroom activities would you use during the development stage when teaching comparative and superlative?
10. Design or look for a visual situation/material which you would use to introduce the concept of reason.
11. Produce a linguistic situation and illustrate how you would use it to introduce the concept of the result.

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Chapter 6 of Language Module III

# Direct and Indirect Speech

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# Direct and Indirect Speech

## INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 looks at expressions of concepts—such as contrast, condition, and reason. Language use is functional, and different kinds of markers signal the role played by a particular sentence in a longer narrative. This chapter focuses on direct and indirect speech. The chapter begins by providing the meaning of both direct and indirect speech. After that, punctuation conventions are explained before turning to how sentences can be presented as either direct or indirect speech. Both English and Zambian languages examples are given to illustrate the writing conventions guiding direct and indirect speech. Because direct and indirect speech must be taught in schools as topics in both English and Zambian languages, the chapter explains how direct and indirect speech is taught and assessed. A chapter summary and assessment of learning are presented.

### Teacher educator's note



*Review previously learnt material.*



## 6.1

# Learning outcomes

### Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

- 2.2.2 Peer Teaching
  - 2.2.2.1 Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons
- 2.3.9 Direct or Indirect Speech
  - 2.3.9.1 Direct or indirect speech

### By the end of this chapter, the student teacher will:

- 1 explain the differences between direct speech and indirect speech.
- 2 classify speech as direct speech or indirect speech.
- 3 punctuate direct and indirect speech correctly.
- 4 change direct speech to indirect speech.
- 5 assess direct or indirect speech.
- 6 demonstrate understanding of how direct and indirect speech are taught.
- 7 design a peer lesson demonstration to teach indirect and direct speech.

### Teacher educator's note



*Learning outcomes should be introduced to student teachers before you begin teaching the lesson's content. Student teachers should understand what is required of them throughout each chapter. Each time you present the content in the chapter, emphasise the learning outcomes that are the lesson's focus.*

*If student teachers have a copy of the student module edition, they may review student outcomes with you. If student teachers do not have a copy, make sure to visually present the learning outcomes to them (e.g. chalkboard). Be prepared to make accommodations for learners with special educational needs.*

## Instructional materials

- Teacher educator module
- Teacher educator curated materials
- Student module
- Zambian languages and English primary language syllabi

### Teacher educator's note




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*Review materials and be prepared to make accommodations for students with special educational needs.*

*Materials. Review the chapter thoroughly to decide if there are any materials that you have or may find useful to the presentation of the information. Student teachers will need any materials that require application in this chapter. They will also be asked to develop and deliver their own lesson to their peers. Make sure that you are prepared with all materials to help them with this.*

*Students with special educational needs: Before presenting the content in the chapter, make sure you are aware of any accommodations that you may need to make for students with special needs. Depending on the needs of your student teachers, some common accommodations are:*

- *Familiarise yourself with appropriate terms (e.g. 'disability', not 'handicap'; 'deaf', not 'hearing impaired')*
  - *Repeat and vary explanations*
  - *Ask for clarification of understanding*
  - *Create audio-recordings of lectures and course materials*
  - *Request Zambian Sign Language interpreters (ideally two per lecture)*
  - *Request notetakers*
  - *Allow additional time to complete coursework*
  - *Include verbal descriptions of visual aids in lecture*
  - *Designate front or centre row seating (closest to you) for low vision/hearing learners*
  - *Designate appropriate seating for those with physical disabilities to manoeuvre into and out of seats*
  - *Face those with low vision/hearing during lecture (do not turn your back to them)*
  - *Utilise Universal Design Learning pedagogy*
  - *Utilise Eclectic Teaching pedagogy*
  - *Increase wait time when asking questions*
  - *Increase communication (e.g. e-mail check-ins, office hours, etc)*
  - *Translanguage*
-



## Key terms

### Direct speech

The writing or reporting of the actual words uttered by a person or people. The words used by the speaker appear between quotation marks. Example: 'I am going', she said.

### Formal register

The style of language use that employs complete sentences and uses technical or academic vocabulary. It makes use of fewer contractions and opts for more complete words.

### Grammatical competence

The internalised knowledge of the grammar of a language by a speaker.

### Indirect speech

Reporting the content of what a person says without reproducing the words used. This does not require quotation marks. Also known as reported speech. Example: Thandi said she was coming.

### Informal register

A speech or writing style which is marked by a casual, familiar tone and makes use of colloquial language. Often more direct than formal style. Relies heavily on contractions, abbreviations, short sentences, and ellipses.

### Pragmatic competence

The ability to use language effectively in a contextually appropriate fashion. It is the cognition of conditions and style of suitable use of language in compliance with different aims.

### Quote

To repeat the exact words someone said or to recite the exact words written in a book. A way to cite something as a form of proof.

### Reported speech

Another name for indirect speech.

### Teacher educator's note



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*Review key terms. You may introduce the key terms together, but make sure to highlight which ones are the focus of each lesson. It is helpful to visually display the key terms (e.g. on the chalkboard) for each class session so that student teachers can refer to them throughout the lesson as needed.*

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# Meaning of direct and indirect speech

## Activity 1

Learning outcome: 3



*Teacher educator's note: Activate student teachers' background knowledge and set a purpose for learning.*

The words in the list below are subordinating conjunctions used to express contrast/concession.

1. Ask student teachers to answer the following questions to gauge their knowledge of direct and indirect speech. If student teachers do not have a student module, provide copies of the post-test for student teachers to share, but they should not work together.
2. After they are finished, provide the answers, and have student teachers record how many they got correct.
3. At the end of the chapter, they will complete a post-test to see if they get the same or higher score.

### Pre-Test

1. Which of the following sentences is written correctly?
  - a. Grace announced tomorrow is my first day of teaching.
  - b. Grace announced, tomorrow is my first day of teaching.
  - c. Grace announced 'Tomorrow is my first day of teaching'.
  - d. Grace announced, 'Tomorrow is my first day of teaching.'
2. Which of the following sentences is written correctly?
  - a. What do you like to do for fun, asked Charles.
  - b. 'What do you like to do for fun?' asked Charles.
  - c. 'What do you like to do for fun,' asked Charles?
  - d. What do you like to do for fun? asked Charles
3. Which of the following sentences is written correctly?
  - a. Ruth wondered, 'Where is my favourite pen?'
  - b. Ruth wondered where is my favourite pen.
  - c. Ruth wondered 'Where is my favourite pen?'
  - d. Ruth wondered, Where is my favourite pen.'
4. Which of the following sentences is written correctly?
  - a. This always happens to me muttered James.
  - b. 'This always happens to me, muttered James.'
  - c. 'This always happens to me,' muttered James.
  - d. 'This always happens to me,' muttered James!

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5. Which of the following sentences changes the direct speech to indirect speech correctly?

*'I had to call an electrician today,' said Mother.*

- a. Mother said, 'I had to call an electrician today.'
- b. Today, Mother said she had to call an electrician.
- c. Mother said I had to call an electrician today.
- d. Today, Mother said she was going to call an electrician.

*Sample responses: 1. d, 2. b, 3. a, 4. c, 5. b*

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Direct speech is when a person says or repeats what someone else actually said. It is direct because it is a person's actual language. The words uttered are put between quotation marks (also known as inverted commas) to show that these are the speaker's exact words. A speech tag is included at the sentence's beginning or end. Example 1 shows Masauso's exact words—*I am a very intelligent man*.

- 
- |          |   |
|----------|---|
| <b>1</b> | Masauso <u>said</u> , 'I am a very intelligent man.'<br><i>Masauso anati, 'Ndine mwamuna wa nzeru kwambiri.' [Nyanja]</i> |
|----------|---|
- 



When a person who heard Masauso speak is asked about what was said, the listener will not reproduce all of Masauso's words. Instead, some changes are made (example 2).

- 
- |          |   |
|----------|---|
| <b>2</b> | Masauso said that he was a very intelligent man.<br><i>Masauso anati anali mwamuna wanzeru kwambiri. [Nyanja]</i> |
|----------|---|
- 



This paraphrased answer is called reported or indirect speech. The indirectness is seen in changes in tense and pronouns. For instance, in the English example, 'I am' becomes 'he was' because it was said in the past and by another person. In the Nyanja example, *ndine* (*ndi+ine*) becomes *anali* (*a+ -nali*). In both the English and Nyanja examples, the core message of what was conveyed remains the same.

### Teacher educator's note



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*Clarify the differences between direct and indirect speech before completing the next activity.*

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*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Ask student teachers to sort the following examples into their appropriate category—direct or indirect speech. They can simply write a, b, c, or d instead of writing the entire sentence. If student teachers have a student module, they can write their answers into their books. Otherwise, write the examples on the board for student teachers so that they can organise them into their notebooks accordingly.

- a. 'Where is the nearest shop?' asked Joseph.
- b. My teacher announced that we have homework due on Thursday.
- c. He said he would bring the book tomorrow.
- d. The shopkeeper stated, 'We will be closed on the holiday.'

*Sample Response: Direct speech—a & d; Indirect speech—b & c*

2. After student teachers are finished, ask:

- o What is the difference between direct and indirect speech?

*Sample Response: Direct speech is the exact words that someone says. In text, it is signalled by a speech tag with quotation marks that surround what was said. Indirect speech is paraphrased speech. Someone else describes what they heard someone else say.*

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech

3. Ask student teachers to translate the four sentences in section 1 into one of the seven regional languages they are familiar with and ensure that they observe the tenses and punctuation marks. They should also indicate in bracket whether it is direct or indirect speech following the answers already given.

### 6.4.1 Punctuating direct and indirect speech

Activity 2 illustrates the differences in punctuating direct and indirect speech. When referring to someone else's words, no special punctuation marks are used to indicate speech. However, when writing direct speech, a speech tag and quotation marks are always used. The speech tag introduces or follows the dialogue. This rule is applicable to both English and Zambian languages. Table 6.1 shows differences in speech tag placement.

#### Teacher educator's note

*If student teachers do not have a student module, you will want to display the table on the board for their review.*

Table 6.1 Location of speech tags in direct speech

Before the speech	After the speech
a. The sportscaster shouted, 'Good game!' b. <i>Woulutsa zamatsewera anakuwa, 'Matsowera abwino!' [Nyanja]</i> c. <i>Kalembe wamangalo apundile, 'Ubwangalo bwawama!' [Bemba]</i> d. <i>Mubihi wa lupapali ahuwa, 'Papali yende!' [Lozi]</i> e. <i>Uyendelezya cisobano wakapozomoka, 'Cabota cisobano!' [Tonga]</i>	a. 'Where did you get your dress?' asked Theresa. b. <i>'Unaitenga kuti delesi yako?' anafunsa Telesa. [Nyanja]</i> c. <i>'Nikwi wafumishe ilaya lyobe?' efyaipwishe Theresa. [Bemba]</i> d. <i>'Ndelesi yahao neuifumani kai?' Thelesa abuza. [Lozi]</i> e. <i>'Ino wakacijana kuli cisani eeco?' Wakabuzya Theresa. [Tonga]</i>
a. Miyoba said, 'I live in Ndola.' b. <i>Miyoba anati, 'Ndikhala mu Ndola.' [Nyanja]</i> c. <i>Miyoba aatile, 'Njikala muNdola.' [Bemba]</i> d. <i>Miyoba ali, 'Nipila mwa Ndola.' [Lozi]</i> e. <i>Miyoba wakati, 'dikkala ku Ndola.' [Tonga]</i>	a. 'Stay in bed for a few days', pleaded the doctor. b. <i>'Khala pa bedi kwa masiku ochepa', anagogomezwa dotolo. [Nyanja]</i> c. <i>'Ikala mubusanshi panshiku shinoono', bashing,anga bapaapaatile. [Bemba]</i> d. <i>'na mwa mumbeta mazazinyana', mualafi akupa. [Lozi]</i> e. <i>'Kolyookezya mubulu kwa mazuba masyoonto', Wakaombelezwa musilisi. [Tonga]</i>

Before the speech	After the speech
a. Bertha sighed, 'I guess I won't be able to attend the party.'	a. 'I can't convince her to believe me!' wept Agnes.
b. <i>Belita anati, 'Ndiganiza kuti sindizakwanisa kupezekako ku phwando.'</i> [Nyanja]	b. <i>'Sindingamukope kuti andikhulupirire!' anadandaula Agnes.</i> [Nyanja]
c. <i>Bertha ailishenye, 'Ndemona nshasangweko kukwangala.'</i> [Bemba]	c. <i>'Teekuti mushinine ukuti ancetekele!' efyalilile Agnes.</i> [Bemba]
d. <i>Bertha aishumusa, 'Nisepa hanina kubateni kwa mukiti.'</i> [Lozi]	d. <i>'Hanina kukona kumukolwisa!' Agness alila.</i> [Lozi]
e. <i>Bertha wakaamba, 'Ndasyoma nsekwe kucikonzya kuya kucisobano.'</i> [Tonga]	e. <i>'Nsekozyi kumukonzya kuti andisyome!' Wakalila Agnes.</i> [Tonga]

### Activity 3

### Learning outcome: 1



*Teacher educator's note: Help student teachers think critically about the text.*

Ask the student teachers the following questions:

- What are the similarities between when the speech tag is included before the dialogue compared to after?

*Sample Response: Regardless of the placement of the speech tag, there are always quotation marks that surround what is being said. What someone says always begins with a capital letter. There is always correct punctuation at the end of the sentence (!, ?, or.)*

- What are the differences between when the speech tag is included before the dialogue compared to after?

*Sample Response: When the speech tag introduces the dialogue, there is always a comma before the dialogue begins. When the speech tag comes after the dialogue, a comma comes before the quotation mark unless the speech is a question (interrogative) or exclamation.*

From Table 6.1, we can make the following conclusions about punctuating direct speech when the speech tag comes at the beginning versus at the end.

When a speech tag precedes the speaker's words:

1. A comma separates the speech tag from the speaker's exact words
2. Quotation marks surround the exact words of the speaker
3. What someone says always begins with a capital letter
4. An appropriate punctuation mark comes at the end of the speaker's words—a question mark for a question, a full stop for a statement, and an exclamation mark for an exclamation.

When a speech tag comes after the speaker's words:

1. The final quotation mark precedes the speech tag
2. The speaker's sentence begins with a capital letter
3. The speech tag begins with a small letter
4. An exclamation mark (exclamatory sentences), question mark (interrogative sentences), or comma may come before the quotation mark.

#### Activity 4

**Learning outcome: 3**



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*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

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#### Rally Coach

- a. Divide student teachers into pairs to punctuate the sentences below correctly. They can do this 'Rally Coach' style. This means that the pairs take turns answering the questions and being the coach. When one student answers, the other confirms that they are correct or coaches them to the correct answer before moving on. Go around the room during the activity to help as needed.
  - a. Consider introducing this activity using the 'I Do, We Do, You Do' process.
- b. After the activity is completed, confirm whether their answers are correct.
- c. After sharing the answers with the student teachers, ask them to translate the answers from English to a local language used in their region. Emphasise the need to maintain the meaning and punctuation.

## Sentences Missing Punctuation

1. paul said i woke up feeling ill
2. my parents are very well stated james
3. she declared i want to buy a car
4. my sister and i are twins remarked inonge
5. i am willing to join you whispered martha
6. bwalya wished i would love a kitten for my birthday
7. the doctor requested take this pill each morning
8. when will the cold season end queried mwiinga
9. that is just what i was looking for exclaimed christine
10. how will we make it on time questioned joel

### Sample Responses:

1. *Paul said, 'I woke up feeling ill.'*
2. *'My parents are very well', stated James.*
3. *She declared, 'I want to buy a car!'*
4. *'My sister and I are twins', remarked Inonge.*
5. *'I am willing to join you', whispered Martha.*
6. *Bwalya wished, 'I would love a kitten for my birthday.'*
7. *The doctor requested, 'Take this pill each morning.'*
8. *'When will the cold season end?' queried Mwiinga.*
9. *'That is just what I was looking for!' exclaimed Christine.*
10. *'How will we make it on time?' questioned Joel.*

### 6.4.1.1 Punctuating interrupted speech

There are cases when writers interrupt direct speech by putting speech tags in the middle. For instance, two segments uttered by the same speaker are shown in example 3.

- |          |  |
|----------|--|
| <b>3</b> | <p>'Many people', he explained, 'believe that I am talented.'</p> <p><i>'Anthu ambiri', anamasulira, 'akhulupirira kuti ndiri ndi matalanta.' [Nyanja]</i></p> |
|----------|--|



Notice that the speech tag, 'he explained' in the English example and *anamasulira* in the Nyanja example respectively, is separated by commas on both sides. Because the speaker's sentence is interrupted, the second part after the speech tag begins with a small letter because it is a continuation of the first part of the sentence in both sentences.

### 6.4.1.2 Punctuating indirect speech

When punctuating indirect speech, usual conventions apply. Sentences should begin with capital letters and end with appropriate punctuation marks. Proper nouns remain capitalised, and punctuation marks like commas or semicolons are used accordingly. This applies to both English and Zambian languages as you will see below. Table 6.2 shows examples of how some previously used sentences written in direct speech can be changed into indirect speech.

Table 6.2 Changing direct speech into indirect speech

Direct speech	Indirect speech
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The sports caster shouted, 'Good game!'</li> <li>2. <i>Woulutsa zamatsewera anakuwa, 'Matsowera abwino!' [Nyanja]</i></li> <li>3. <i>Kalembe wamangalo apundile, 'Ubwangalo bwawama!' [Bemba]</i></li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I heard the sports caster shout that it was a good game.</li> <li>2. <i>Ndinamva woulutsa matsewera akukuwa kuti anali matsewera abwino. [Nyanja]</i></li> <li>3. <i>Naumfwile kalemba wamangalo apundile ukuti ubwangalo bwaliweme. [Bemba]</i></li> </ol>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Miyoba said, 'I live in Ndola.'</li> <li>2. <i>Miyoba anati, 'Ndikhala mu Ndola.' [Nyanja]</i></li> <li>3. <i>Miyoba aatile, 'Njikala muNdola.' [Bemba]</i></li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Miyoba said she lived in Ndola.</li> <li>2. <i>Miyoba anati anali kukhala mu Ndola. [Nyanja]</i></li> <li>3. <i>Miyoba aatile ekakala muNdola. [Bemba]</i></li> </ol>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Bertha sighed, 'I guess I won't be able to attend the party.'</li> <li>2. <i>Belita anati, 'Ndiganiza kuti sindizakwanisa kupezekako ku phwando.' [Nyanja]</i></li> <li>3. <i>Bertha ailishenye, 'Ndemona nshasangweko kukwangala.' [Bemba]</i></li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Bertha told me she wouldn't be able to attend the party.</li> <li>2. <i>Belita anandiuza kuti sankakwanisa kupezekako ku phwando. [Nyanja]</i></li> <li>3. <i>Bertha angebele ati tasangweko kukwangala. [Bemba]</i></li> </ol>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. 'Where did you get your dress?' asked Theresa.</li> <li>2. <i>'Unagula kuti delesi yako?' anafunsa Telesa. [Nyanja]</i></li> <li>3. <i>'Nikwi wafumishe ilaya lyobe?' efyapwishe Theresa. [Bemba]</i></li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Theresa asked where I got my dress.</li> <li>2. <i>Telesa anandifunsa komwe ndinagula delesi langa. [Nyanja]</i></li> <li>3. <i>Theresa aipwishe uko nafumishe ilaya. [Bemba]</i></li> </ol>

Direct speech	Indirect speech
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. 'Stay in bed for a few days', pleaded the doctor.</li> <li>2. 'Pumula pa nyumba kwa masiku ochepa', anagogomezwa dotolo. [Nyanja]</li> <li>3. 'Ikala mubusanshi panshiku shinoono', bashing,anga bapaapaatile. [Bemba]</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The doctor wanted me to stay in bed for a few days.</li> <li>2. Dotolo anandiuza kuti ndipumulile pa nyumba kwa masiku ochepa. [Nyanja]</li> <li>3. Bashing'anga baleefwaya ine ukwikala mubusanshi panshikiu shinoono. [Bemba]</li> </ol>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. 'I can't convince him to believe me!' wept Agnes.</li> <li>2. 'Sindingamukope kuti andikhulupirire!' anadandaula Agnes. [Nyanja]</li> <li>3. 'Teekuti mushinine ukuti ancetekele!' efyalilile Agness. [Bemba]</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Agnes was upset that she couldn't convince him to believe her.</li> <li>2. Agnes anakalipa cifukwa sanakwanise kumukopa kuti amukhulupirire. [Nyanja]</li> <li>3. Agness aliifulwa pantu aalifilwa ukumushinina ukuti amucetekele. [Bemba]</li> </ol>

#### 6.4.2 Change of tense in direct and indirect speech

Several changes are made to tenses, pronouns, and other words when rewriting direct speech to indirect speech. In Table 6.3, Miyoba's direct speech is written in the present tense; when it is changed to indirect speech, her words are paraphrased using the past tense. These changes apply to both English and Zambian languages as illustrated in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3 Tense changes in direct and indirect speech

Direct speech	Indirect speech
<b>Present simple</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. She said, 'It's cold'.</li> <li>b. Aatile, 'Nakutalala.' [Bemba]</li> <li>c. Wakati, 'kutontola.' [Tonga]</li> </ol>	<b>Past simple</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. She said it was cold.</li> <li>b. Aatile kwalitaleele. [Bemba]</li> <li>c. Wakaamba kuti kwakali kutontola. [Tonga]</li> </ol>

Direct speech	Indirect speech
<b>Present continuous</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>She noted, 'I'm teaching English online.'</li> <li><i>Anjebekeeshe, 'Ndeesambilisha Icisungu paintaneti.'</i> [Bemba]</li> <li><i>Wakazyibya kati, 'ndiyiisya cikuwa acipekupeku.'</i> [Tonga]</li> </ol>	<b>Past continuous</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>She noted that she was teaching English online.</li> <li><i>Anjebekeeshe ukuti aaleesambilisha Icisungu paintaneti.</i> [Bemba]</li> <li><i>Wakazyibya kuti wakali kuyiisya cikuwa acipekupeku.</i> [Tonga]</li> </ol>
<b>Present perfect simple</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>She stated, 'I've been on the web since 1999.'</li> <li><i>Aatile, 'Atendeke ukuba intaneti ukufuma mu 1999.'</i> [Bemba]</li> <li><i>Wakati, 'Ndali acipekupeku kuzwa mu mwaka wa 1999.'</i> [Tonga]</li> </ol>	<b>Past perfect simple</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>She stated she had been on the web since 1999.</li> <li><i>Aatile atendeke ukuba paintaneti ukufuma mu 1999.</i> [Bemba]</li> <li><i>Wakamba kuti wakali acipekupeku kuzwa mu mwaka wa 1999.</i> [Tonga]</li> </ol>
<b>Present perfect continuous</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>She said, 'I've been teaching English for seven years.'</li> <li><i>Aatile, 'Naalifunda Icisungu pamyaka cinelubali.'</i> [Bemba]</li> <li><i>Wakati, 'Ndali kuyiisya cikuwa kwa myaka ili ciloba.'</i> [Tonga]</li> </ol>	<b>Past perfect continuous</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>She said she had been teaching English for seven years.</li> <li><i>Aatile aalifunda Icisungu pamyaka cinelubali.</i> [Bemba]</li> <li><i>Wakaamba kuti wakali kuyiisya cikuwa kwa myaka ili ciloba.</i> [Tonga]</li> </ol>
<b>Past simple</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>She said, 'I taught online yesterday.'</li> <li><i>Aatile, 'Naalisambilisha paintaneti mailo.'</i> [Bemba]</li> <li><i>Wakati, 'Ndayiisya acipekupeku ijilo.'</i> [Tonga]</li> </ol>	<b>Past perfect</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>She said she had taught online the day before.</li> <li><i>Aatile aliisambilisha paintaneti ubushiku bwafumineko.</i> [Bemba]</li> <li><i>Wakaamba kuti wakali kuyiisya acipepeku buzuba bwakainda.</i> [Tonga]</li> </ol>



Direct speech	Indirect speech
<b>Past continuous</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>She said, 'I was teaching earlier.'</li> <li><i>Aatile, 'Naleesambilishapo pakubala.'</i> [Bemba]</li> <li><i>Wakati, 'Ndali kuyiisya ciindi cakainda.'</i> [Tonga]</li> </ol>	<b>Past perfect continuous</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>She said she had been teaching earlier.</li> <li><i>Aatile aaleesambilishapo pakubala.</i> [Bemba]</li> <li><i>Wakaamba kuti wakali kuyiisya ciindi cakakaindide.</i> [Tonga]</li> </ol>
<b>Past perfect</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>She said, 'The lesson had already started when he arrived.'</li> <li><i>Aatile, 'Isambililo lyali naalitendeka ilyo afikile.'</i> [Bemba]</li> <li><i>Wakati, 'Ciiyo cakatalikide kale nendasika.'</i> [Tonga]</li> </ol>	<b>Past perfect</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>She said the lesson had already started when he arrived. (NO CHANGE)</li> <li><i>Aatile isambililo lyali naalitendeka ilyo afikile.</i> [Bemba]</li> <li><i>Wakaamba kuti ciiyo cakatalikide kale naakasika.</i> [Tonga]</li> </ol>
<b>Past perfect continuous</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>She said, 'I had already been teaching for five minutes.'</li> <li><i>Anati, 'Nd`akali kale ndili kuphunzitsa kwa phindi zisanu.'</i> [Nyanja]</li> </ol>	<b>Past perfect continuous</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>She said she had already been teaching for five minutes. (NO CHANGE)</li> <li><i>Anati adakali kale ali kuphunzitsa kwa phindi zisanu.</i> [Nyanja]</li> </ol>

### Teacher educator's note



*Make sure to point out that the last two examples in Table 6.3 show that the tense did not change.*



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

### Rally Coach

1. Pair student teachers with a different partner to change the following sentences in direct speech to indirect speech. They should do this Rally Coach style like in the previous activity. You may also choose to use the 'I Do, We Do, You Do' process. Move around the room to help as needed.
  - a. Paul said, 'My new job is very interesting'.
  - b. Helen said, 'I want to go to Mfuwe next year'.
  - c. 'Don't shout,' I said to Jim.
  - d. 'I did not expect to see you here,' Misozi said to me.
  - e. The teacher said, 'You are all intelligent'.
  - f. 'I had a pet already,' she said.
2. After student teachers are finished, confirm that their answers are correct.

#### *Sample Responses:*

- a. Paul said that his new job was very interesting.
  - b. Helen said she wants to go to Mfuwe next year.
  - c. I told Jim not to shout.
  - d. Misozi said that she didn't expect to see me here.
  - e. The teacher told us that we were all intelligent.
  - f. She said that she already had a pet.
3. After going through the answers with student teachers, ask them to translate the sentences (exercise) into one of the seven regional local languages they are familiar with. Each translated question should be followed by a correct answer. They should do this exercise in the book so that the work can also function as notes for further reading.

### 6.4.3 Other parts of speech change from direct to indirect speech

Demonstratives, adverbs, auxiliary verbs, and pronouns also change when changing a statement from direct to indirect speech. Table 6.4 shows changes involving demonstratives, modal, and auxiliary verbs. A discussion of how pronouns change follows the table.

*Table 6.4 Changes in other parts of speech from direct to indirect speech*

Part of Speech	Direct Speech	Indirect speech
<b>Auxiliary verbs</b>	is, are, will, can, may, come	was, were, would, could, might, go
<b>Demonstratives</b>	this, these	that, those
<b>Adverbs</b>	here, now, thus, hence, ago, today, yesterday, next, a month ago	there, then, so, thence, before, that day, the day before, the following, a month ago



*Go through the examples in Table 6.4 with student teachers to discuss the changes. Let them explain what they notice about each word class, e.g. the shift in distance from proximal in demonstratives to a distal one. Similar changes are made to adverbs of place and time, e.g. here to there, now to then.*

Changes in pronouns are a result of the shift from the speaker's actual words to those report by another person. Therefore, if the speaker is female, the pronoun 'I' will change to 'she'; 'he' will be used for a male speaker. If the direct speaker uses 'we', the pronoun 'we' will change to 'they' in indirect speech. Although no examples have been given from local languages, the principle is the same. In Nyanja for example, *-li* 'is' will change to *-nali* 'was'. The pronoun *ife* 'we' will change to *iwo* 'they'. In terms of demonstratives, *ici* 'this' will change to *cija* 'that' while *awa* 'these' will change to *awo* 'those'. The same applies to adverbs where *pano* 'here' will change to *apo* 'there', *lelo* 'today' will change to *tsiku lija* 'that day', and *M`mawa/mailo* 'tomorrow' will change to *tsiku lotsatirapo* 'the following day'.

### Activity 6

Learning outcomes: 3 & 4



*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

1. Divide student teachers into pairs. Ask each student teacher in the pair to create five different sentences (five different sentences in English and five different sentences in a Zambian language) using direct speech by using any of the parts of speech included in Table 6.4. Encourage student teachers to use different speech tags and punctuation marks and to vary where the speech tag is located in the sentence (before the dialogue or after). Go around the room while they are working to help as needed.
2. After they have completed their five sentences (in English and Zambian language respectively), have them switch their sentences with each other and change their sentences into indirect speech.
3. Let them check each other's work to see if they agree with how their partner changed their sentences into indirect speech.

## 6.5

# More practice with interrogative and exclamatory sentences

Section 6.4 gives examples of direct and indirect speech using all sentence types. As interrogative and exclamatory sentences have unique punctuation marks, further practice is included. Recall that the accurate punctuation mark is always included for interrogatives and exclamatory sentences. Also, it is essential to remember that when interrogative and exclamatory sentences are read aloud, the inflection changes. Interrogatives have a questioning tone, while exclamatory sentences are said with excitement. This is the same for both English and Zambian languages as you will see below. Review Table 6.5 for how punctuation varies for these sentence types.

Table 6.5 Direct and indirect speech: Interrogative and exclamatory sentences

Sentence Type	Direct speech	Indirect Speech
Interrogative sentences	a. She asked, 'Will you come to the party?'	a. She asked if I would come to the party.
	b. <i>Wakabuzya, 'Sena ulaboola kucisobano?' [Tonga]</i>	b. <i>Wakabuzya kuti na ndikali kuyanda kuunka kucisobano. [Tonga]</i>
	c. <i>Aipwishe, 'Bushe uleeisa mukusefya?' [Bemba]</i>	c. <i>Aipwishe nga nkeesa kukusefya. [Bemba]</i>
	d. <i>Abuza, 'Ukataha kwa mukiti?' [Lozi]</i>	d. <i>Nabuzize kuli nji nikataha kwa mukiti. [Lozi]</i>
	a. 'Will you come to the party?' she asked.	
	b. <i>'Sena ulaboola kucisobano?' wakabuzya. [Tonga]</i>	
	c. <i>'Bushe uleeisa mukusefya?' efyo aipwishe. [Bemba]</i>	
	d. <i>'Ukataha kwa mukiti?' abuza. [Lozi]</i>	
Exclamatory sentences	a. He said excitedly, 'I would love to go!'	a. He said he would love to go.
	b. <i>Wakati cakokkomana, 'Ndilayanda kuunka!' [Tonga]</i>	b. <i>Wakaamba kuti wakali kuyanda kuunka. [Tonga]</i>
	c. <i>Efyo aatile ninshi nasansamuka, 'Kuti natemwa ukuya!' [Bemba]</i>	c. <i>Aatile kuti atemwa ukuya. [Bemba]</i>
	d. <i>Nabulezi katabo, 'Nalata kuya!' [Lozi]</i>	d. <i>Nabulezi kuli walata kuya. [Lozi]</i>
	a. 'I would love to go!' he said excitedly.	
	b. <i>'Ndilayanda kuunka!' Wakaamba cakokkomana. [Tonga]</i>	
	c. <i>'Kuti natemwa ukuya!' efyo aatile ninshi nasansamuka. [Bemba]</i>	
	d. <i>'Nalata kuya!' abulela katabo. [Lozi]</i>	

The examples show the ending punctuation mark for interrogative and exclamatory sentences is included in direct speech. However, when dialogue comes before the speech tag, a full stop is still required at the end of the sentence. When changing the direct speech to indirect speech, there is no need to include punctuation marks for interrogative or exclamatory sentences.

### Activity 7

Learning outcomes: 3 & 4



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*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

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1. Group student teachers together into pairs or groups according to their first or familiar language.
  2. Next, ask them to create five interrogative sentences and five exclamatory sentences in their first or familiar language using direct speech. They should use correct punctuation. Go around the room to help as needed.
  3. Afterwards, ask teachers to exchange their sentences with one of their peers who also used the same language. They should now change their peer's sentences into indirect speech with correct punctuation. Continue to go around the room.
  4. When they've finished changing their peer's sentences, they can check each other's work.
  5. You may choose to have volunteers share some of their responses.
- 

## 6.6

# How to teach and assess direct and indirect speech

Discussing direct and indirect speech requires a good understanding of punctuation and the grammar of several word categories. Teaching direct speech can be an opportunity to revise and reinforce knowledge of grammatical features of the language, such as tenses, pronouns, and demonstratives. Student teachers can use different techniques from the methods learnt in Language Module II. Previous activities and suggest that lessons be introduced and materials practised using a Rally Coach—I do, We do, You do'—format.

When teaching direct speech, first ensure learners clearly understand the punctuation conventions. Learners should explore how direct speech is used in narratives. This can provide a context to make learning more meaningful. Learners should, for example, see that each speaker's dialogue begins a new paragraph in narratives. As much as possible, the student teacher should exploit reading lessons to highlight the punctuation of direct speech. In early grades, examples used should be simple. It is useful to avoid complex punctuation, such as that of interrupted speech. In upper primary, learners can practice with more advanced examples.

For indirect speech, the student teacher should move methodically step-by-step showing changes in different tenses—present to past—before going to more complex changes. Other parts of speech can also be introduced systematically to help learners understand the changes.

Some lessons may be taught inductively by showing examples and asking learners to follow the examples—as in the ‘I do, We do, You do’ technique. For more complex cases, the student teacher can use the deductive strategy: explain the rule, illustrate, and practise with learners.

The explanation above is applicable to the teaching of direct and indirect speech in both English and Zambian languages. Also note that although Zambian languages are taught as first languages (L1) in Zambia, they are not L1s to every learner in the classroom. Therefore, it is important that teachers use both inductive and deductive strategies to teaching.

### **6.6.1 Assessment**

What is taught determines what is assessed. Student teachers commonly assess direct and indirect speech in several ways:

- Changing direct speech into indirect speech: Student teachers can provide a set of sentences for learners to change from direct to indirect speech. Alternatively, student teachers may provide sentences for learners to determine if the direct speech was changed to indirect speech correctly.
- Utilising reading lessons: Student teachers can ask learners to change dialogue in a book into indirect speech—or vice versa.
- Punctuating direct speech or indirect speech sentences correctly: Student teachers may provide learners with sentences that need correct punctuation and ask learners to rewrite the sentences correctly. Alternatively, student teachers may ask learners to choose which sentence is punctuated correctly out of a set of sentences.
- Writing stories with direct speech: Student teachers can ask learners to create stories where direct speech is used to show characters talking.



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*Teacher educator's note: Connect theory to practice.*

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1. Assign student teachers a type of assessment activity and ask them to create their own assessment tool for teaching direct and indirect speech in an English or Zambian language. It may be helpful to offer suggestions for the types of question structures they could use (e.g. short response, multiple choice, sorting, true or false). You will want to check that their assessment is valid and appropriate, and you may need to assign this activity for homework.
    - a. Change direct speech into indirect speech.
    - b. Change indirect speech into direct speech.
    - c. Punctuate sentences to show direct speech correctly.
    - d. Change tense of the verb/s from direct speech to indirect speech
  2. After student teachers have designed their assessment, they should assess a peer in their class.
  3. When the activity is over, ask student teachers some follow-up questions. Here are some suggestions:
    - What challenges did you have when creating your assessment?
    - If you were to assess this skill again, what would you change and why?
    - What accommodations could have been made for learners with special educational needs?
    - What accommodations could have been made for learners whose L1 is not the language of instruction (LOI)?
- 

### 6.6.2 Lesson procedure

One way to design a direct and indirect speech lesson is to follow the 'Presentation, Practice, Production' approach.

1. **Presentation:** This is the stage to introduce the topic. Student teachers can start with a brainstorming activity to tap into learners' background knowledge. This may be followed by an explicit explanation of the topic and what it is focused on. The introduction must be clear. Because learners learn differently, it is always better to assume everyone has different background knowledge. At this stage, the student teacher must explain the rule and give examples. They can use questions and answers to involve learners.
2. **Practice:** This is also called the development stage. Here, student teachers require that learners practise using the rule. The student teacher may, for example, provide an example of direct speech and ask learners to change it into indirect speech—or vice versa. The student teacher may ask pairs or groups of learners to punctuate examples of direct and indirect speech. When practising, learners must practise giving correct answers and correct punctuation.

3. **Production:** This is the stage where student teachers ask learners individually to answer exercise questions. The nature of the exercise depends on the teaching point. However, it is imperative that learners work on their own in this stage. While learners are performing the task, the student teacher should move around the class providing support where needed. Some learners may, for example, need clarity on the question, and the student teacher should help. The student teacher may mark those who have finished and give them feedback, or the student teacher may mark others later, depending on the classroom situation. Notwithstanding the need for marking and prompt feedback, the production stage follows the lesson's conclusion. The student teacher must conclude the lesson cognitively and socially.

## Activity 9

## Learning outcomes: 6 & 7



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*Teacher educator's note: Connect theory to practice.*

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1. With reference to the Zambian language syllabus, student teachers should pick a learning outcome and develop a detailed lesson plan for a grade 6 class. Teachers may use the format of a lesson plan used in previous chapters and/or modules. The idea is to see if by now, they can remember the format and mechanics of lesson planning. Moreover, ensure that the lesson they prepare and teach is focused and concerned with both correctness of examples and punctuation. Their lesson should also include sample accommodations for learners with special educational needs and those whose L1 is not the LOI.
  2. After teachers have designed their lesson plan, they should submit their lesson plan to you for review.
  3. Create a schedule for how you would like student teachers to present their lesson to their peers. One suggestion is for them to share within a small group of peers.
  4. During their presentation, peers should provide feedback to their peers. They can answer questions such as:
    - What went well in your peer's lesson?
    - What suggestions can you make for your peer if they were to do this lesson again?
-





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*Teacher educator's note: Check for understanding.*

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Ask student teachers to complete the post-test to see whether they perform the same or better now that the content of the chapter has been taught. If student teachers do not have a student module, provide copies of the post-test for student teachers to share, but they should not work together.

### Post-Test

1. Which of the following sentences is written correctly?
  - a. Beatrice asked where can I find a better stapler.
  - b. Beatrice asked, where can I find a better stapler?
  - c. Beatrice asked, 'Where can I find a better stapler?'
  - d. Beatrice asked 'Where can I find a better stapler?'
2. Which of the following sentences is written correctly?
  - a. That was an incredible movie exclaimed Judith!
  - b. 'That was an incredible movie!', exclaimed Judith.
  - c. 'That was an incredible movie,' exclaimed Judith!
  - d. 'That was an incredible movie!' exclaimed Judith.
3. Which of the following sentences is written correctly?
  - a. Francis begged, 'Please, let me turn this in tomorrow.'
  - b. Francis begged, please, let me turn this in tomorrow.
  - c. Francis begged 'Please, let me turn this in tomorrow'.
  - d. Francis begged, 'please, let me turn this in tomorrow'.
4. Which of the following sentences is written correctly?
  - a. I just don't know the answer whispered Gift.
  - b. 'I just don't know the answer?' whispered Gift.
  - c. 'I just don't know the answer', whispered Gift.
  - d. 'I just don't know the answer,' whispered Gift.
5. Which of the following sentences changes the direct speech to indirect speech correctly?

*Juliet said, 'The test will be on Thursday'.*

  - a. The test was on Thursday Juliet said.
  - b. 'The test will be on Thursday,' said Juliet.
  - c. Juliet said that the test will be on Thursday.
  - d. Juliet said that 'The test will be on Thursday'.

*Sample Responses: 1. c, 2. d, 3. a, 4. d, 5. c*

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## Chapter summary

The chapter looks at direct and indirect speech. It establishes that direct speech refers to the actual words said by the speaker, while indirect speech refers to what someone said but was reported by someone else. The chapter explains the writing conventions of direct and indirect speech and shows that these two forms are realised differently depending on the tense, time, and type of sentence. Teaching direct and indirect speech generally follows the steps taken when teaching any type of grammar lesson. Finally, the chapter provides guidance on assessing direct and indirect speech. It is hoped that when teaching direct and indirect speech, student teachers will be specific and thorough in correctly explaining these writing conventions.

## Assessment of learning



1. Explain the differences between direct and indirect speech.
2. Show how direct speech is punctuated using examples of all sentence types and when the speech tag comes before and after the dialogue.
3. Create an exercise to test learners' ability to convert direct speech into indirect speech involving present simple, present perfect, and present continuous tenses.
4. Design a lesson plan to teach direct and indirect speech in a local language of your choice and teach it to your peer(s).

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## Chapter 7 of Language Module III

# Translation

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# Translation

## INTRODUCTION

Chapter 6 considers direct and indirect speech in English and Zambian languages. This chapter focuses on translation. The term translation can refer to either pedagogical or real translation practices (Vermes, 2010; Klaudy, 2003; Marqués-Aguado & Solís-Becerra, 2013). Pedagogical translation is a classroom practice used to enable learners access to learning through the use of another language. Real translation is the practice of transferring meaning from text written in one language to a different language; the translated text is an end in itself (Marqués-Aguado & Solís-Becerra, 2013). Although what is called pedagogical translation has been embedded in every chapter of this module through mother tongue-based multilingual education (MTB-MLE) accommodations, it is not the focus of this chapter. Instead, this chapter focuses on what is referred to as real translation, henceforth referred to as translation.

The chapter begins by defining and explaining the meaning of translation. Then, the chapter discusses the importance of translation and its elements or principles. After that, the chapter explains how translation should be taught and assessed. The chapter concludes with a peer teaching demonstration lesson and chapter summary.



## 7.1

# Learning outcomes

### Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

#### 2.2.2 Peer Teaching

**2.2.2.1** Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons

**3.10.2.1** Translate words, sentences, and short paragraphs from a Zambian language into English and vice versa.

### By the end of this chapter, the student teacher will:

- 1 define translation.
- 2 demonstrate understanding of the importance of translation to language and literacy teaching.
- 3 demonstrate understanding of how translation is taught.
- 4 demonstrate understanding of how to assess learners' translation skills.
- 5 apply their understanding of translation to the development and demonstration of a peer teaching lesson.

### Teacher educator's note



*Learning outcomes should be introduced to student teachers before you begin teaching the lesson's content. Student teachers should understand what is required of them throughout each chapter. Each time you present the content in the chapter, emphasise the learning outcomes that are the lesson's focus.*

*If student teachers have a copy of the student module edition, they may review student outcomes with you. If student teachers do not have a copy, make sure to visually present the learning outcomes to them (e.g. chalkboard). Be prepared to make accommodations for learners with special educational needs.*



## Instructional materials

- Teacher educator module
- Teacher educator curated materials
- Student module

### Teacher educator's note



*Review materials and be prepared to make accommodations for students with special educational needs.*

*Materials. Review the chapter thoroughly to decide if there are any materials that you have or may find useful to the presentation of the information. Student teachers will need any materials that require application in this chapter. They will also be asked to develop and deliver their own lesson to their peers. Make sure that you are prepared with all materials to help them with this.*

*Students with special educational needs: Before presenting the content in the chapter, make sure you are aware of any accommodations that you may need to make for students with special needs. Depending on the needs of your student teachers, some common accommodations are:*

- *Familiarise yourself with appropriate terms (e.g. 'disability', not 'handicap'; 'deaf', not 'hearing impaired')*
- *Repeat and vary explanations*
- *Ask for clarification of understanding*
- *Create audio-recordings of lectures and course materials*
- *Request Zambian Sign Language interpreters (ideally two per lecture)*
- *Request notetakers*
- *Allow additional time to complete coursework*
- *Include verbal descriptions of visual aids in lecture*
- *Designate front or centre row seating (closest to you) for low vision/hearing learners*
- *Designate appropriate seating for those with physical disabilities to manoeuvre into and out of seats*
- *Face those with low vision/hearing during lecture (do not turn your back to them)*
- *Utilise Universal Design Learning pedagogy*
- *Utilise Eclectic Teaching pedagogy*
- *Increase wait time when asking questions*
- *Increase communication (e.g. e-mail check-ins, office hours, etc)*
- *Translanguage*



## Key terms

### Interpretation

The transfer of information and ideas from a source language to a target language through spoken word or sign.

### Source Language

Language to be interpreted or translated.

### Target Language

The language into which a text is to be translated from another language.

### Translanguaging

A situation whereby the learners' home language is employed to enhance learning in the classroom. It is a language for the communicative purpose of receiving an input in one language and giving an output in another language.

### Translation

The process of transferring a written text from source language to target language.

### Translation competence

The capacities, skills, knowledge, and attitudes that professional translators possess. Denotes translation as an expert activity.

### Teacher educator's note



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Review key terms. *You may introduce the key terms together, but make sure to highlight which ones are the focus of each lesson. It is helpful to visually display the key terms (e.g. on the blackboard) for each class session so that student teachers can refer to them throughout the lesson as needed. Be prepared to make accommodations for learners with special educational needs.*

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## Meaning of translation

Etymologically, the English term 'translation' is derived from Greek root words *trans-* and *latum*, which together mean 'a carrying across' or 'a bringing across'. This means that translation is the practice of carrying a message from one written source to another, one person to another. It is the carrying of messages from the source language to the target language.

The term translation has been defined differently, although most of the definitions refer to the same practice:

1. Translation is 'the transfer of thoughts and ideas from one language to another' (El Shafey, 1985, pp. 3).
2. Translation is basically a change of form. Translation is transferring the meaning of the source language into the target language. This is done by going from the form of the first language (L1) to the form of a second language (L2) by way of semantic structure (Larson, 1984).
3. Translation means expressing in the target language what has been expressed in the source language, preserving semantic and stylistic equivalences (Saroukhill, Ghalkhani, & Hashemi, 2018, pp. 102).
4. Translation is 'the process of transferring a written text from source language (SL) to target language (TL)' (Hatim and Munday, 2004, pp. 6).
5. Translation is 'rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text' (Newmark, 1988, pp. 5).

The first definition emphasises the transfer of thoughts and ideas from one language to another. However, this very general definition does not specify the medium of translation. Because of that, it may be understood that every transfer of thoughts from one language to another is translation, while this is not the case. In truth, for something to be called translation, the transfer should be from text to text. The second definition focuses on meaning. It means that translation involves the transfer of meaning from one language to another. It emphasises meaning over form. This definition has two problems. Firstly, it does not indicate that the transfer of meaning is from one text to another. Secondly, it implies that form is not relevant to translation. In fact, the form or the grammatical structure of the source language affects the translation into the target language. The third definition is good but poses two challenges. Firstly, just like the two previous definitions, it is general. Secondly, it advocates for maintaining semantic and stylistic equivalences between the source and the target text. While maintaining semantic equivalence is the real goal of translation, maintaining stylistic equivalence is challenging because no two languages have one-to-one stylistic similarity. The fourth and fifth definitions are the most accepted definitions of translation. The fifth is complete in that it

specifies that the transfer of meaning is from the text between the source and target language. It also clarifies that the transferred meaning should be as intended by the author.

In short, translation transfers meaning from one text in the source language to another in the target language without altering the intended meaning.

#### 7.4.1 Differences between translation and interpretation

It is a common mistake for people to use translation and interpretation interchangeably. However, they are not synonymous. Translation is the transfer of meaning from one written source to another, while interpretation is the transfer of meaning from one oral source to another. See Table 7.1 for more clarity on the differences between translation and interpretation.

*Table 7.1 Features of interpretation and translation*

Feature	Interpretation	Translation
<b>Format</b>	It handles spoken language in real time.	Its services are text based.
<b>Delivery</b>	It takes place on the spot and the process can occur over the phone or through video.	It happens after the creation of the source text.
<b>Accuracy</b>	There is a lower level of perfection because of limited time to review and correct spoken words.	There is a high level of accuracy due to adequate time to review and edit written text.
<b>Direction</b>	Interpreters work in two directions and must be fluent in both source and target languages as they are required to translate in both directions.	Translators typically work in one direction, that is, from source language to target language.
<b>Intangibles</b>	Interpreters capture the tone, inflection, voice quality, and other unique elements of spoken word and then convey the verbal cues to the audience.	Translators work on any information in written form such as: websites, print, video subtitles, software, and multimedia.

#### Activity 1

#### Learning outcome: 1



*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

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### Think-Pair-Share

1. Ask student teachers to think about how they would define the term 'translation' and how it is different from 'interpretation'.
  2. Then pair student teachers together to share their responses.
  3. Afterwards, ask volunteers to share and clarify their responses.
- 

#### 7.4.2 Importance of teaching translation

Translation skills are essential for linguistic, educational, and professional purposes. That is why translation is not only taught at primary and secondary school in Zambia but also is a field of study at the tertiary level. According to Liu (2020), there are many benefits of learning translation:

- Facilitates language learning and acquisition: Through translation, learners are exposed to a wide range of vocabulary and expressions, enriching their language development and improving their language use.
- Leads to a deeper understanding of the text: Because the translation process involves the translator understanding the text in the source language first and thinking of how to communicate the same message into the target language, the result is a deeper understanding of the text. It also presents multiple ways of looking at and expressing the same utterances or statements.
- Enhances critical and creative thinking: Through a search for equivalent, or near equivalent, meaning in the target language and thinking about how the original text can be appropriated in the transition to ensure both correctness and appropriateness, learners engage in reflection and critical thinking. By doing so, they develop critical thinking and creativity skills.
- Leads to bilingual competence: Translation exposes the learner to the similarities and differences between two languages, thereby building learners' bilingual competence.
- Cultivates appreciation for the relevance and importance of languages through a linguistic approach: Translation helps learners to know that meaning can be expressed in different languages. Learners may realise that language deficiency can exist in all languages. With the exposure and realisation, learners begin to appreciate language's importance and arguably 'equality'.
- Improves reading and writing skills: The translation process involves reading the source text and writing in the target text. This dual practice improves learners' reading and writing skills.
- Leads to multicultural awareness: Because language is a vehicle of culture, and because language use primarily reflects the cultural norms of both the speaker and the audience, translation exposes learners to culture and guiding norms. Moreover, because the success of a translated text depends on how much it conforms to the cultural norms of the target audience,

learners become aware of multiple cultures and, therefore, enhance their multicultural sensitivity.

- Broadens career prospects: Translation is a career, and this has made most language learners opt to take translation as a course. Thus, in addition to other jobs which a linguist or language instructor can do, translation skills offer additional career prospects. It also increases competitiveness in the job market, especially when organisations become multilingual and multicultural.

## Activity 2

Learning outcome: 2



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*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

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### Round Robin

Group student teachers to review the benefits of translation outlined in section 7.4.2. They should take turns sharing what they learnt or remember from that section. Then, they should take turns responding to the following questions:

- Out of the list, which benefits, if any, have student teachers experienced in their own lives?
- Are there any other benefits of translation besides what has been mentioned in this chapter?
- Why do you think translation is important to language and literacy teaching?

After student teachers have shared with their group, have some volunteers share a response for each question.

---

## 7.5

# Translation techniques

As explained, translation involves the transfer of meaning from one written source language to another—two texts written in two different languages. Usually, due to differences in the language's grammar, audiences, and cultures a translator must possess many skills to successfully translate any document. These techniques should be taught and practised in school to produce graduates who can correctly and appropriately translate texts.

## Activity 3

Learning outcome: 3



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*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

---

Ask student teachers to take notes on the eleven translation techniques included in this chapter. They can write key information or examples into their notes. If student teachers have a student module, they can record their notes directly into their book. Otherwise, they can organise their notes into their notebook similar to the chart provided. Activity 4 will follow-up this activity.

---

Translation Techniques			
Adaptation	Amplification	Borrowing	Compensation
Description	Established equivalent	Generalisation	Literal translation
Particularisation	Reduction	Substitution	

### 7.5.1. Adaptation

Adaptation refers to replacing cultural elements from the source language with an equivalent cultural element of the target language. This technique is used in the case where the cultural element is not present in the source language. Therefore, the translator must adapt it to what would be equivalent in the culture of the target language. Hence, it is sometimes known as a cultural substitution technique (Newmark, 1988). This makes the text more familiar and easier to understand by ensuring that the translator finds appropriate cultural equivalents in the target language and audience. An excellent example of an adaptation is Maurice Chishimba's rendering of Wole Soyinka's play *The Lion and the Jewel*, which he renamed *Kanchule na Lona*. In Chishimba's adaptation, not only are the names of the characters and places changed from their original Nigerian ones to Zambian ones but also sayings and even proverbs are substituted with Bemba ones to localise the play. Table 7.2 provides some examples of adaptations.

Table 7.2 Examples of the adaptation technique

Source text	Target text
How are you, Sir/Madam? (formal)	<i>Muzuhile cwani, shaa? [Lozi]</i>
How are you? (informal)	<i>Muzuhile cwani? [Lozi]</i>
It is ice cold today.	<i>Ndikozizila kodesa nkhowa lelo. [Nyanja]</i>

### 7.5.2 Amplification

Amplification requires a translator to use phrases, clauses, or expressions in addition to the terminology in the source text. The purpose is to further explain the source text's content or message. It is used to ensure that the meaning of the source text is conveyed without distortion or ambiguity.

Table 7.3 Examples of the amplification technique

Source text	Target text
He shed tears of joy.	<i>Anakhesa misozi cifukwa chokondwera. [Nyanja]</i>
He was overjoyed.	<i>Akwete isansa icakuti kuti aikala na pamulilo. [Bemba]</i>

The idea of 'tears of joy' does not directly translate unless more words are used. In Nyanja, he shed tears 'because of being happy' was added to the phrase for the meaning to be retained. In the second example, 'overjoyed', there is also not a direct translation. Thus, the phrase 'so happy that he could have sat on the fire' was added so that the English sentence would make sense.



### 7.5.3 Borrowing

Borrowing refers to where words or expressions are taken directly from the source language to the target language in the translation process. This technique is usually used in languages that have no equivalents. The purpose is to preserve the cultural elements of the source text. Note that borrowed words are often changed to fit into the phonology of the target language. Table 7.4 shows how translators use naturalised borrowing.

Table 7.4 Examples of the borrowing technique

English	Nyanja	Tonga	Bemba	Kaonde	Lunda	Luvale	Lozi
spoon	supuni	sipunu	supuni	supunyi	sipuni	sipuni	-
sugar	shuga	ccuka	shuka	shuka	shuga	shukili	shuga
fork	foloko	foloko	foloko	foloko	foloku	foloko	foku

Another form of borrowing would involve borrowing the word as it is written in the source language. For example, 'I went by train' would be *Ndinapita ndi train* or 'I took panado for three days because I had symptoms of COVID' would be *Ndiamwa panado kwa masiku atatu cifukwa ndinali ndi zisonyezo za COVID*. In these two examples, you will notice that 'train', 'panado', and 'COVID' are borrowed in their original forms. These words are borrowed because they do not have an equivalent in the target language. Moreover, they are understood in the target language even if written in the source language.

### 7.5.4 Compensation

The compensation technique is used when it is impossible to maintain the position of the stylistic features in the same syntactic position between the source and the target text. Thus, the translator will maintain the features by placing them in a different vicinity in the translation.

Table 7.5 Examples of the compensation technique

Source text	Target text
Another goat	<i>Phembe mukwavo [Luvale]</i>
My child drove his car for one week.	<i>Mwana wanga anayendesa galimoto yakem sabata imozi. [Nyanja]</i>

In Table 7.5, you can see an exchange in the position of the two words in the two languages because maintaining the stylistic arrangement in the target language would distort the meaning. In Bantu languages, for example, nouns precede words that modify them, while modifiers precede nouns in

English. Thus, the translation compensates for the elements in the source language by simply placing them in a different order in the target language.

### 7.5.5 Description

Description refers to a translation practice where the term or terminology in the source language is replaced with a description or explanation of them in the target language. The description is generally about the form or function of what the term in the source language means. Sometimes, it happens because there is no direct equivalent for the term. Therefore, a description is the only way to provide the equivalent meaning.

*Table 7.6 Examples of the description technique*

Source text	Target text
President	<i>Musogoleli wa ziko [Nyanja]</i> 'The leader of a country'
Orphanage	<i>Ing'anda ya bana banshiwa [Bemba]</i> 'A home of orphans'
Head teacher	<i>Wendelezya chikolo [Tonga]</i> 'The one who leads/manages a school'

Description and amplification are not the same. A description is where you explain the meaning of the source term by explaining what it is in terms of form or function. Conversely, amplification is where you extend the narrative in the target language to give clarity or completeness to the translation.

### 7.5.6 Established equivalent

In this technique, well-known standard terminologies or expressions by dictionaries or language are used as equivalent in the target language. It is a technique that uses common expressions in everyday situations in the target text to convey the equivalent in the source text.

*Table 7.7 Example of the established equivalent technique*

Source text	Target text
The examination was as easy as pie.	<i>Mayeso anali ofewa monga kumwa Manzi.</i> <i>[Nyanja]</i>

In the example, the easiness of eating a pie in English is translated as being equal to the easiness of drinking water in the Nyanja culture. Thus, the two sentences communicate the exam's easiness by referring to terminology found in the target audience's everyday language.

### 7.5.7 Generalisation

Generalisation in translation allows the use of general terminologies in a target text instead of specific terms used in the source text. This is used when there is not a specific equivalent in the source language. For example, there is not a direct translation for 'emerald' and is instead referred to as a 'precious stone'.

Table 7.8 Examples of the generalisation technique

Source text	Target text
<i>Mukolo</i> [Lozi], 'canoe' [English]	'Water transport' [English]
'Emerald'	<i>Mwala wa mtengo wapatali</i> [Nyanja]
'Robber'	<i>Kawalala</i> [Nyanja]
'He came in a Land Cruiser'	<i>Anabwela ndi galimoto</i> [Nyanja]
'Helicopter'	<i>Ndeke</i> [Nyanja]

In Table 7.8, the translation in the target text is a general word or class and is used to refer to a specific word or term.

### 7.5.8 Literal translation

Literal translation is where the translation is done word for word. Word-for-word translation is applicable in short phrases similar in word arrangement, as shown in Table 7.9.

Table 7.9 Examples of the literal translation technique

Source text	Target text
<i>Ina fafasi</i> . [Lozi]	'Sit down'
<i>Boola kuno</i> . [Tonga]	'Come here'

In Table 7.9, *ina* in Lozi means 'sit' and *fafasi* means 'down'. Therefore, this translation from the source text, *ina fafasi* to the target text 'sit down' is literally translated word-for-word. It follows the word arrangement in the source text without altering the meaning. The same applies to Tonga where *boola* 'come' and *kuno* 'here' are literally translated following the same arrangement.

### 7.5.9 Particularisation

Particularisation is the opposite of generalisation. It is a technique where the translator is more specific and uses concrete terms contrary to the more specific ones in the source text.

Table 7.10 Examples of the particularisation technique

Source text	Target text
'Liquid'	<i>Amenshi</i> [Bemba]
'Public Transport'	<i>Basi</i> [Nyanja]
'Air Transportation'	<i>Helikopita</i>

In Table 7.10, the translator specifies the type of liquid depending on the context used in the source text. The translator in this situation particularised to enable the reader to get the specific meaning of the source text.

### 7.5.10 Reduction

Reduction refers to choosing to remove words or phrases from the source text that are redundant in the target text. This is because the omitted words are either unimportant or difficult to translate. This is also known as omission or deletion.

Table 7.11 Examples of the reduction technique

Source text	Target text
'He ran at the speed of lightning.'	<i>Anathamanga koopsya.</i> [Nyanja]
'She went there early in the morning.'	<i>Wakelejile.</i> [Kaonde]
'He presented signs and symptoms of Covid 19 disease.'	<i>Anaonesa zizindikilo za matenda a COVID 19.</i> [Nyanja]

In Table 7.11, some source words have been omitted by the translator to reduce redundancy in the target text. For instance, *wakelejile* [Kaonde] means 'She went there early in the morning' the translator reduced the clause to one-word *wakelejile* in the target text. In *wakelejile*, the terms 'early in the morning' are all encompassed in part of the word.

### 7.5.11 Substitution

The previous translation techniques refer to the translation of written texts. This translation technique, substitution, is more often used for oral communication and when used in written texts is usually in the

form of icons or symbols. Substitution is when the translator chooses to use other forms of communication in translation—such as tone, pitch, facial expressions, and symbols—apart from linguistic elements. The purpose of substitution is to avoid repetition by replacing a word or phrase with non-linguistic elements. For example, when something helpful is done, a recipient uses signs, symbols, or gestures to represent gratitude instead of written words. The gesture of putting hands together to show appreciation, say thank you, or greet. Emojis or other icons/symbols are used to represent language non-linguistically in digital communication (e.g. SMS, social media).

#### Activity 4

#### Learning outcome: 3



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*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

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1. Pair student teachers together to review the notes they wrote for the various translation techniques in Activity 3.
  2. Next, assign the following techniques to pairs of student teachers to create a different example representing how the technique is used.
    - a. Reduction
    - b. Particularisation
    - c. Generalisation
    - d. Description
    - e. Compensation
    - f. Borrowing
    - g. Adaptation
  3. After student teachers have created their examples, ask volunteers to share for each technique. They should record notes about their peers' examples for the techniques that they did not provide an example for.
- 

## 7.6

# Translation process and product

From the preceding sections, it is clear that translation is not just about transferring information from one text to another. The translator needs to be skilled and possess relevant knowledge for the translation to be successful. There are four stages of translation:

- **Translating:** The first thing a translator should do is read the whole text. The idea is to understand the whole text—what is being communicated, the intention, and the general context. The translator should also understand how one part relates to the next in terms of inferences, references, coherence, cohesion, and so on. Only after reading the entire text should a translator render text from the source language to the target language.

- **Revising the translation product:** Next, the translator should revise the product to ensure that the text is accurate, acceptable, and readable in the target language. A translator should check for correct spellings, coherence between different text parts, correct representation of facts, and adherence to style. The revised product is easy to understand. If a translator has time, he/she may wait a day before starting revisions. In the classroom situation, learners may not have the luxury of time. Thus, they may revise the text immediately after translating it. Here, the translator will check for correct spellings, coherence between different parts of the text, correct representation of facts, adherence to style and that the translation product is easy to understand.
- **Proofreading:** Next, a translator will give the product to a peer to review and give feedback, which will inform any final corrections. A proof-reader should focus on all the elements considered in step (b) and determine if the text is easy to read and understand. The translation product should have the quality of independence in terms of communicating meaning clearly and concisely. In a classroom situation, the student teacher may ask learners to exchange their translations and give each other feedback.
- **Submission of the translation product:** In a classroom situation, learners may submit translations for marking. During marking, the student teacher or other reviewers checks for accuracy in meaning, creativity, spelling, coherence, precision, and cultural appropriateness.

Translation is a process. Learners should be taught this process and encouraged to follow it during class exercises.

### Activity 5

### Learning outcome: 3

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*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

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1. Ask student teachers to translate the paragraph below from English to a Zambian language of their choice using the processes described above.  
  
'Zambia is a landlocked country situated in southern Africa. She obtained independence in 1964. The country is popular for its peace which it has upheld since independence. During the second republic, the country was declared as a Christian nation. Although it is a Christian nation, other religions such as Islam, Hinduism, and Buddhism are allowed to co-exist with Christianity.'
  2. Next, pair or group student teachers together based on the language they used to translate the paragraph to compare their responses.
  3. Afterwards, have student teachers answer the following questions:
    - Based on the translation above, analyse it and explain the translation techniques which you used to translate the text.
    - Did you use the same technique(s) as your peers?
    - Why did you choose that particular technique or technique(s)?
    - How can you apply what you have learnt from this activity to your own classroom?
-

## How to teach translation

Having looked at the meaning, benefits, and process of translation, including the techniques used to translate, this section explores how translation is taught. The following steps provide an example of how translation might be taught:

1. **Introduction Stage:** Introduce the topic with a brainstorming activity. This may involve asking questions and having a general discussion on translating a passage. After that, explicitly inform the learners that the lesson is on translation and write the topic on the board. Alternatively, you can introduce the topic by asking learners what they understand about translation and why they think translation is important before explicitly stating the topic.
2. **Development Stage:** Explain essential details about translation through a series of activities. For example, the following exercises will be executed in one lesson.
  - a. **Exercise 1:** Use a question-and-answer format to talk about how to translate. Learners may not know all the techniques, so it will help explain the various translation techniques. After explaining each technique, ask learners for examples. Ensure that the lesson is participatory. You may choose to only explain the techniques applicable to the day's lesson or passage.
  - b. **Exercise 2:** Having explained the techniques, use a question-and-answer format to talk about the translation process. Other teaching strategies—such as class discussion or group work—can be used to discuss the translation process.
  - c. **Exercise 3:** Introduce a passage that learners can practice translating following the previously explained techniques and process. Depending on the topic, this might involve words, sentences, paragraphs, or a longer text. Be mindful of the topic and available time when choosing a text.
3. **Writing Stage:** After the practice, learners should be assessed individually. Give learners a text to translate—like in the practice activity, the length and complexity of the text will depend on the topic, learning outcome, and available time.
4. **Conclusion Stage:** The conclusion has two parts: cognitive closure and social closure.
  - a. **Cognitive Closure:** Summarise the lesson's main points or may opt for a more learner-centred conclusion that involves asking learners questions to recap the lesson.
  - b. **Social Closure:** Praise learners for their participation in the lesson and encourage them to practice translating.



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*Teacher educator's note: Connect theory to practice.*

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1. Student teachers should design a detailed lesson plan on a topic of their choice to teach translation to a grade 6 class. Emphasise that the lesson should involve giving a written/transition exercise at the end. The answer/translation from the peers will be used for Activity 7.
  2. After they have developed their lesson plan, you will need to review their plan and provide feedback.
  3. Next, create a schedule of when student teachers will teach their lesson to their peers and get feedback from them. It is suggested that student teachers deliver their lesson within a small group for the purposes of time.
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## 7.8

# How to assess translation

Assessment depends on what you are teaching and its learning outcome. For example, if the purpose is to simply transfer meaning from one text to another, the assessment should focus on if the meaning has accurately been transferred from the source text to the target text. However, if the goal includes aesthetics or stylistic aspects of the source text, the assessment should consider include translating the text without losing the stylistic forms of the original text. Similarly, if the aim is to maintain the technicality and genre, such as a scientific text, then the assessment would equally focus on the same. In the school setting, you may give various forms of texts in line with the Zambian languages' primary syllabus:

- Vocabulary Translation: List several words and asks learners to translate them literally (literal translation). Assessment considers if words are translated for their denotative meaning without any contextual influence. If there is no equivalent in the target language, translation techniques such as borrowing, generalisation, particularisation, or adaptation should be used.
- Sentence Translation: Here, sentences are also presented without context. In addition to the considerations of vocabulary translation, the translator must consider the original sentence's grammar and form to provide an accurate translation. If the sentences have foreign words, appropriate techniques such as borrowing, description, or amplification can be used.
- Paragraph Translation: Give learners a paragraph and ask them to translate it to the target language. Learners should consider both the denotative and connotative meanings of words by considering both lexical and contextual aspects of the utterances. The learner must also account for coherence, cohesion, and reference.
- Translating Passages: In advanced grades, you can assess learners by asking them to translate longer passages on a particular topic. Here, the learner is expected to translate the text based



on the teaching point. The learner needs to focus on meaning, form, and other literacy aspects. Learners are challenged to use as many translation techniques as possible to produce a successful text in the target language.

- **Marching words or texts:** In this exercise, provide words, sentences, or paragraphs in the source language and several translations in the target language. Then ask learners to select the best translation equivalent from the options given. Although this translation exercise is interesting, it is not commonly used in summative assessments.

## Activity 7

**Learning outcomes: 3-5**



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*Teacher educator's note: Connect theory to practice.*

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1. Ask student teachers to create a translating a paragraph exercise and a translating sentences exercise for a grade level that you assign.
  2. For the texts they will use, student teachers may:
    - a. Create their own text.
    - b. Find an already created text.
    - c. Use texts that you provide.
  3. Their exercise should use explicit instruction—I Do, We Do, You Do—indicate how the exercise is to be scored, and follow the parameters of the included rubric. Make sure to review the rubric with student teachers so they know exactly how to create their exercises. Provide them an opportunity to make changes before they share their exercises with a peer.
  4. After student teachers have finished their exercises, they exchange them with a peer for completion.
  5. After they have shared and completed their peer's exercises, ask student teachers to reflect on their experience in small groups. They can take turns sharing their answer to each question.
    - What was challenging about creating the translation exercises?
    - What did you like about your peer's exercises?
    - If you were to use this activity again, would you do it the same way, or would you make changes? If you would make changes, what would those be?
    - What accommodations could have been made for learners with special educational needs or those whose L1 is not the LOI?
-

## Sample Translation Marking Rubric

Lesson Feature	Score			
	3	2	1	0
<b>Meaning</b>	Meaning in the source text correctly carried over into the translation with no additions and omissions.	Meaning in the source text correctly carried over into the translation with minor additions and omissions.	Meaning in the source text carried over into the translation with a lot of additions and omissions.	Meaning in the source text not carried over into the translation and contains a lot of unnecessary additions and omissions.
<b>Form</b>	Accurate use of natural sounding of the language. Text free from ambiguity and misinterpretation, has a similar tone and formality to the original text. There is exhibition of style for the intended function of the text.	Accurate use of natural sounding of the language. Text free from ambiguity and misinterpretation, has a similar tone to the original text. There is exhibition of style for the intended function but there is an omission of informality to the original text.	There is no accuracy in the use of natural sounding language. Text has a lot of ambiguity and misinterpretation but has a similar tone and formality to the original text. There is no exhibition of style for the intended function.	The text does not exhibit accuracy, tone, formality, and style to the original text. It contains a lot of ambiguity.
<b>Errors</b>	Free from errors such as spelling or grammar errors, correct use of punctuation marks.	Free from errors such as spelling or grammar errors, but wrong use of punctuation marks.	It has a lot of errors such as spelling or grammar errors but correct punctuation marks.	Full of errors such as spelling or grammar errors, incorrect use of punctuation marks.
<b>Consistency</b>	There is appropriacy and consistency throughout in terms of formatting and layout.	There is appropriacy throughout in terms of formatting and layout with slight inconsistency.	There is appropriacy and consistency but throughout in terms of formatting and layout.	There is no appropriacy and consistency throughout in terms of formatting and layout.




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*Teacher educator's note: Provide student teachers time to practise what was learnt.*

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1. Ask student teachers to translate the following text from English into a regional official language used in the location of their school/college.  
  

'It was a long, long, time ago. There was a man who had two children, Martin and Langiwe. He loved Langiwe more than Martin. The father explained that he loved the daughter more because he believed that in times of trouble, a daughter would be more helpful than a boy. The mother worked as a gynaecologist at a nearby hospital. She loved both children, although she showed more love to her son to make up for the love he didn't receive from the father. One day, the whole family went out to visit. They came back around 21 hours. Surprisingly, they found a snake coiled around the door handle. The mother and daughter ran away out of fear. The father got afraid and distanced himself from the situation. Slowly, the snake started moving, heading in the house through a small hole. The father was even more terrified. Martin gathered his courage and asked for the keys from his mother. He ran and opened the house against the advice of the parents. He saw the snake moving slowly towards the living room. Martin got a long stick and hit the snake hard and it died. He pulled it outside and threw it away. When they entered the house, the father was embarrassed that the son he didn't like so much had saved the whole family. Langiwe said to the father softly, 'Dad, have you seen that Martin has saved us including you where nobody else could save us?' The father said, 'I am sorry Martin, and I am sorry everyone. I have learnt that love should be given to everyone without prejudice.'
  2. After student teachers have completed their translation, they should exchange their translation with a peer and mark it following the marking guidelines given.
  3. After marking, let the student teachers share their observations and what marks they gave as a result of the quality of the translation.
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## Peer teaching and lesson demonstration

This section demonstrates how translation can be taught. It is followed by activities for peer teaching and peer feedback.

### 7.9.1 Teacher educator's lesson demonstration

#### Teacher educator's note



*Explain the lesson plan and demonstrate teaching the topic to your student teachers. You will be the teacher, and your student teachers will be grade 6 learners in the demonstration class.*

Lesson Demonstration	
Lesson Description	<p>Grade: 6A</p> <p>Rule to be taught: Adaptation</p> <p>Translation is a process and requires one to follow the necessary rules in order to translate accurately. In today's lesson, the adaptation rule will be employed.</p>
Vocabulary	<p>Translation: giving meaning of a text into another language (target) as expected by the author in another language (source).</p> <p>Adaptation: refers to the replacement of cultural elements from the source language with an equivalent cultural element of the target language.</p>
Techniques	Gradual release model (I do, We do, You do) question and answer, and sentence card game.
Material(s)	Module III, Charts and Word Cards
Accommodations	Standard
Component	Writing (6.3)
Topic	<p>Translation (6.3.9)</p> <p>Subtopic: Translating Sentences</p>
Specific Outcomes	Specific outcome: (From syllabus)

6.3.9.1 Translate sentences, paragraphs, and passages from a Zambian language into English and vice versa.

Lesson outcomes

- Define translation
- Explain the principles of translation
- Translate sentences from English to Zambian language and vice versa.

Introduction:

The student teacher introduces the lesson by playing a game of words. Individual learners should pick words at random and read aloud in English and translate them in Zambian language. Thereafter, the student teacher will ask the learners to mention what they were doing.

The student teacher involves the class in a general discussion on the meaning and importance of translation. The student teacher explicitly states the day's lesson and writes the topic on board.

Development

Step 1: Techniques of translation (I do, We do, You do)

The student teacher explains the techniques of sentence translation.

Adaptation where the learners replace cultural elements of source language, English with an equivalent cultural element in target language [Zambian Language]. Example: Your honour [English], and *Mushingi mwane* [Kaonde]. [I do]

Let us try this sentence together: The student teacher picks a sentence from the sentence cards and asks the learners to read it. For example, the student teacher writes the sentence 'Good morning! How are you today?' on the board. Together with the learners, translate it into Zambian language, e.g. *Mwalangukayi! Muji byepi leelo?* [Kaonde] [We do]

Groups, learners are given sentences on cards to attempt to translate them following the learnt technique. Thereafter, report their findings to the whole class for confirmation. [You do]

Sentences

- Card 1: 'Can you help me today?' (*Wakonsha kunkwashako leelo nyi?*)
- Card 2: 'Today, I have eaten well.' (*Leelo naja bulongo*)
- Card 3: 'Maliya has picked a mole.' (*Maliya watoola mfuko*)

Step 2: Individual work

	<p>The student teacher gives work to individual learners to translate from English to the familiar Zambian language.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 'The dog is barking.' (<i>Kabwa ubena kuboza</i>)</li> <li>• 'See! The moon is bright.' (<i>Mona! Nondo wasaama.</i>)</li> <li>• 'I will go to the market.' (<i>Nsakuya kukisankanyi.</i>)</li> </ul> <p>Step 3: Class discussion</p> <p>The student teacher and learners discuss the feedback from the individual work and make corrections where possible.</p>
Conclusion	<p>Cognitive closure: The student teacher asks questions leading to a recap of the lesson. Learners can also state what they have learnt from the day's lesson.</p> <p>Social closure: The student teacher thanks the learners and encourages them to continue working hard.</p> <p>Homework: Outcomes 4.11.3 &amp; 6.3.9.1</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Translate the sentences from Kaonde to English</li> <li>• <i>Mwana walaala.</i> ('The baby is asleep.'/'The baby is sleeping.')</li> <li>• <i>Bupe ubena kuja nshima.</i> ('Bupe is eating nshima.')</li> </ul> <p>The next lesson on translation will be translating a paragraph into English or vice versa</p>

## 7.9.2 Student teachers' peer teaching and peer feedback

### Teacher educator's note



*Divide your student teachers into groups of 15 and inform them that based on the chapter and lesson demonstration they have just observed and discussed, it is now their turn to do the same.*

### Activity 9

### Learning outcomes: 3–5



*Teacher educator's note: Connect theory to practice.*

Ask student teachers to develop a detailed lesson plan to teach translation of paragraphs following learning outcome 6.3.9.1 in the Zambian languages primary school syllabus. Choose the specific source and target language. The lesson should follow the PPP model. Use the sample lesson plan template provided below to write your lesson plan.

### 7.9.3 Lesson plan templates

Lesson Plan Template	
Lesson Description	<i>Briefly describe the lesson including the grade level and rule that is to be taught.</i>
Vocabulary	<i>List (if any) vocabulary you feel the learner should know.</i>
Techniques	<i>Write the appropriate techniques for the lesson.</i>
Material(s)	<i>Mention any necessary materials that will be used.</i>
Accommodations	<i>Include accommodation ideas for learners with special educational needs and learners whose L1 is not the LOI.</i>
Component	
Topic	
Specific Outcomes	
Introduction:	State the focus of the lesson here. Indicate what the teacher will say and what learners will do.
Development	This section includes all the lesson steps to be followed. Translation techniques and processes should be evident. Indicate what the teacher will say and what the learners will do. It also includes written assessment for individual learners to exhibit knowledge of translation. Thereafter, the teacher should provide feedback by marking the learners' work.
Conclusion	Here, state how the lesson will be concluded both cognitively (by providing a summary of the main points or any form of recapitulation) and socially (by praising learners). Give homework for further practice (if there is still time) and inform the learners of the upcoming lesson.

## Plan Rubric

Lesson Feature	Score			
	3	2	1	0
Lesson description, materials, accommodations, topics and outcomes	All elements are included and clear (brief description, grade level, words used, techniques used, materials and accurate topics and outcomes).	Most of the elements are included and clear (description, grade level, words used, techniques used, materials and accurate topic and outcomes).	Many of the elements are not included and/or this section lacks clarity.	Most of the elements of this section are missing and the section lacks clarity.
Introduction	The introduction is strong and thorough. It clearly explains the purpose of the lesson and includes what the teacher will say.	The introduction sets the purpose of the lesson, but lacks thoroughness and/or what the teacher says lacks clarity.	The purpose of the section is unclear. What the teacher says is weak or not included at all.	This section may be missing or not complete. What the teacher says may not be evident and the rule may be unclear.
Development	The section is very well-developed with what the teacher says and what the learners will do. It is clear that the teacher explored the techniques and translation steps.	This section could be more well developed. There is evidence of what the teacher says and what the learners will do. It is somewhat clear that the teacher used the translation steps or techniques.	This section is weak with little evidence of what the teacher says and what the learners will do. It is unclear that the teacher is using the techniques or following steps.	This section may be missing or incomplete. There is very little that shows the techniques of translation and/or following translation steps.
Conclusion	There is a conclusion to the lesson with appropriate individual activity. There is evidence that the teacher provided feedback.	The conclusion is there but there are elements that may be unclear (e.g. assessment, feedback).	The conclusion is there but does not appropriately assess the learner and /or feedback is not given.	This section may be missing or incomplete.



## Lesson demonstration peer feedback form

Your name:

Peer's name:

Date:

Lesson topic:

Positive praise

Give your peer praise for at least two positive things you noticed during their lesson.

Constructive feedback

Suggest something your peer could do better, or differently the next time they teach this lesson.

## Chapter summary

This chapter discussed the meaning, importance, and techniques of translation. Further, it looked at how translation can be taught and assessed. Lesson demonstrations were provided so that student teachers could practise their learning. Translation is a crucial component of language teaching. Therefore, student teachers must receive thorough preparation in teaching translation.

## 7.11

## Assessment of learning



1. In your own words, what is translation?
2. Explain the importance of translation in teaching language and literacy.
3. With an example topic of your choice, explain how you can teach translation to a grade 6 class.
4. Prepare one translation exercise for a grade 7 class.
5. Newmark (1988, pp. 5) defines translation as 'rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way the author intended the text'. What do you consider to be the strengths of this definition of translation?
6. Prepare a detailed lesson plan to teach how to translate paragraphs to a grade 7 class of any Zambian language.
7. Imagine that you have been hired by an organisation to translate a 20-page questionnaire on early pregnancies in Zambia. Explain the stages you will follow to translate the text.
8. What is the difference between forward and back translations?

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Chapter 8 of Language Module III

# Learner-Centred Pedagogy

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# Learner-Centred Pedagogy

## INTRODUCTION

Chapter 7 examines translation, its meaning, and how it can be taught. This chapter focuses on learner-centred teaching. It presents the theory and meaning of learner-centred teaching before looking at the characteristics. The chapter considers five pedagogic elements that change when teachers use learner-centred teaching. Commonly held misconceptions or myths about learner-centred teaching are debunked. The chapter also looks at how one can use learner-centred pedagogy to teach language, followed by lesson demonstration and peer teaching. The summary and assessment sections close the chapter.

## Learning outcomes



### Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

#### 2.1.11 Meaning of Approaches, Methods, and Techniques

#### By the end of this chapter, the student teacher will:

- 1 define learner-centred pedagogy.
- 2 demonstrate understanding of the characteristics of learner-centred pedagogy.
- 3 explain the myths associated with learner-centred pedagogy.
- 4 compare and contrast learner-centred pedagogy with teacher-centred pedagogy.
- 5 justify why learner-centred pedagogical practices are effective in the language and literacy classroom.
- 6 develop a learner-centred lesson.
- 7 deliver a learner-centred lesson to peers.

### Teacher educator's note



*Learning outcomes should be introduced to student teachers before you begin teaching the lesson's content. Student teachers should understand what is required of them throughout each chapter. Each time you present the content in the chapter, emphasise the learning outcomes that are the lesson's focus.*

*If student teachers have a copy of the student module edition, they may review student outcomes with you. If student teachers do not have a copy, make sure to visually present the learning outcomes to them (e.g. chalkboard). Be prepared to make accommodations for learners with special educational needs.*

## Instructional materials

- Teacher educator module
- Teacher educator curated materials
- Student module
- Real objects, textbook, pictorial chart

### Teacher educator's note



*Review materials and be prepared to make accommodations for students with special educational needs.*

*Materials. Review the chapter thoroughly to decide if there are any materials that you have or may find useful to the presentation of the information. Student teachers will need any materials that require application in this chapter. They will also be asked to develop and deliver their own lesson to their peers. Make sure that you are prepared with all materials to help them with this.*

*Students with special educational needs: Before presenting the content in the chapter, make sure you are aware of any accommodations that you may need to make for students with special needs. Depending on the needs of your student teachers, some common accommodations are:*

- *Familiarise yourself with appropriate terms (e.g. 'disability', not 'handicap'; 'deaf', not 'hearing impaired')*
- *Repeat and vary explanations*
- *Ask for clarification of understanding*
- *Create audio-recordings of lectures and course materials*
- *Request Zambian Sign Language interpreters (ideally two per lecture)*
- *Request notetakers*
- *Allow additional time to complete coursework*
- *Include verbal descriptions of visual aids in lecture*
- *Designate front or centre row seating (closest to you) for low vision/hearing learners*
- *Designate appropriate seating for those with physical disabilities to manoeuvre into and out of seats*
- *Face those with low vision/hearing during lecture (do not turn your back to them)*
- *Utilise Universal Design Learning pedagogy*
- *Utilise Eclectic Teaching pedagogy*
- *Increase wait time when asking questions*
- *Increase communication (e.g. e-mail check-ins, office hours, etc)*
- *Translanguage*





## Key terms

### Constructivism

The view that knowledge is constructed by learners through an active mental process of development and that learners are builders and creators of meaning and knowledge.

### Learner-centred pedagogy

A teacher-created learning environment that focuses on the learner. It allows learners to interact actively with learning materials and to take ownership of the learning experience.

### Sociocultural theory

A theory that supports the role social interaction plays in a learner's cognitive development.

### Teacher-centred pedagogy

A learning environment that places the teacher as a centre of teaching and learning. Views the learner as a listener.

### Zone of Proximal Development

A level of learners' development which can only be seen when they collaborate with an adult or a more skilful person.

### Teacher educator's note



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*Review key terms. You may introduce the key terms together, but make sure to highlight which ones are the focus of each lesson. It is helpful to visually display the key terms (e.g. on the chalkboard) for each class session so that student teachers can refer to them throughout the lesson as needed. Be prepared to make accommodations for learners with special educational needs.*

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## Meaning of learner-centred pedagogy

As the name suggests, learner-centred pedagogy makes the learner the focal point of lesson preparation and delivery. Learner-centred methods view learners as active participants in their own learning, with their education shaped by their interests, prior knowledge, and active investigation as informed by constructivism (Serin, 2018; Schreurs & Dumbraveanu, 2014). Hence, teachers use these methods to formulate their teaching practices based on the learning preferences of learners in their classes. According to Kumaravadivelu (2005, pp. 91), 'learner-centred methods are principally concerned with learner needs, wants, and situations.' These methods—such as communicative language teaching—provide opportunities for learners to practice preselected, pre-sequenced linguistic structures and communicative notions or functions through meaning-focused activities. This assumes that a preoccupation with form and function will ultimately lead to target language mastery and that the learners can use both formal and functional repertoire to fulfil their communicative needs outside the class. In this view, language development is more intentional than incidental.

### 8.4.1 History of learner-centred pedagogy

Learner-centred pedagogy spread in the 20th century. The approach has become so widely accepted that Hirsh-Pasek & Golinkoff (1996) even remarked that 'within the education community, there is ...no thinkable alternative' (pp. 69). Both Piaget and Vygotsky endorse learner-centred teaching (Horn, 2009; Mathews, 2020; Stone, 1996). Piaget and Vygotsky researched the learning process, and both found that learning is an active process of knowledge construction and meaning-making. Piaget believed that knowledge construction is individual, while Vygotsky argued that social-cultural circumstances influence the learner. Vygotsky also believed that learners use their prior knowledge to learn what they do not know through scaffolding, which assists others who are more knowledgeable. They both believed that learning should be focused on individual learners and teaching should consider the social and cultural factors of the learner and the learning environment. Their research also found that learning was consistent with learners' cognitive development and, therefore, age-related. Briefly, both Piaget and Vygotsky believed that teaching efforts should be based on and directed at the learner.

The development of learner-centred pedagogy is also attributed to ideas of Rousseau. He lived during the enlightenment period in Europe, and his ideas glorified human freedom. He exalted emotions above intellect. His main ideas are summarised and presented by Emile Rousseau (1928) as follows:

1. The learner is naturally good
2. Intellectual development is a process of natural growth
3. The learner's main characteristic is the activity

These three ideas informed his conceptualisation of education, teaching, and learning. For example, Rousseau (1928) noted that the purpose of education is not to feed the learner with knowledge because learners do not learn well if they are pressed to do so. He further advises that learners should not be given knowledge through words but experience. In his own words, Rousseau (1928) stated, 'let him (learner) know nothing because you have told him, but because he has discovered it' (pp. 149). This means that he prioritised discovery, where learners' background knowledge and abilities are considered an essential element to learning. This is why Horn (2009) asserted that 'learning must be in the context of the child's immediate world and present interests' (pp. 515).

The constructivist philosophy also contributed to the conceptualisation of learner-centred teaching. One of constructivism's arguments in education, teaching and learning is the idea that learners should be active participants in the learning process. Horn (2009) explained that within the constructivist philosophy, 'the meaning of the subject matter cannot be handed down and explained to learners. Instead, learners must engage in hands-on activities and independent research to construct their own meaning of the subject matter' (pp. 516). The theory holds that effective teaching and learning involve hands-on activities where learners acquire new knowledge and skills through practice. Constructivists argue that learning should be structured to encourage learners' active participation and collaboration with other learners and thus supports learner-centred methods (Leonard, 2002).

### Activity 1

### Learning outcome: 1



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*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

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#### Round Robin

1. Divide student teachers into groups of three. Student teachers should divide the three questions below amongst each other to answer independently, and then they will share their answers with their group. If student teachers have a student module, they can record their answers into their book. Otherwise, they can record their answers into their notebook.
    - In your own words, what is learner-centred pedagogy?  
*Sample Response: Learner-centred pedagogy considers the learners' needs first. Lessons are designed so that learners can be active participants.*
    - Which scholars are credited for the development of learner-centred pedagogy?  
*Sample Response: Piaget, Vygotsky, and Rousseau all contributed to the development of learner-centred pedagogy.*
    - How does constructivist philosophy support learner-centred pedagogy?  
*Sample Response: Constructivism posits that learning requires active participation and collaboration.*
  2. To close the activity, have one person share for each question, clarify any misconceptions, and emphasise any necessary information.
-

### 8.4.2 Benefits of learner-centred pedagogy

Learner-centred teaching methods make learners co-creators of their own education, engaging them in decisions about what, when, and how they learn. These teaching methods help the teachers prepare learners with academic knowledge and the skills of self-direction, curiosity, creativity, and collaboration they need for further success in their academic life. Below we itemise some of the strengths of learner-centred teaching:

- Improves engagement: This promotes accountability and independence. In fact, learner-centred teaching methods help to increase learners' participation, encourage teamwork, and encourage curiosity. Such teaching methods help learners see learning from a different angle, where it is fun, engaging, and adapted to a learner's needs and interests. Learners are motivated to develop their innate capabilities.
- Develops problem-solving skills: When learners are encouraged to be active participants in their education, they develop critical thinking skills and the ability to use their prior knowledge and experiences to solve a problem. Learners learn to think critically and find intelligent solutions to their problems rather than give up without trying.
- Helps learners transfer skills to the real world: As mentioned above, when learners adapt their learning to the real world, they gain the problem-solving and critical thinking skills necessary to solve real-life problems. These skills enable learners to adapt and thrive in the ever-changing real world.
- Encourages cooperation and teamwork: In learner-centred learning environments, learners often complete activities in a small group setting. This teaches learners how to share their ideas in a group setting, collaborate, and share responsibilities with other learners.
- Develops social skills: Through class discussions and group activities, learners learn how to communicate their ideas and findings with others.

#### Activity 2

#### Learning outcomes: 2 & 3



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*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

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#### Think-Pair-Share

1. Ask student teachers to think about the question:
    - What makes learner-centred teaching preferable to teacher-centred teaching?
  2. Then pair student teachers to share their responses.
  3. While they are still in pairs, ask learners to think of another advantage of learner-centred teaching beside the ones included in the chapter and be ready to share their response.
  4. Close the discussion by emphasising some of the advantages of learner-centred teaching.
-

## Characteristics of learner-centred pedagogy

Teachers who use learner-centred methods will consider the age of the learners; their individual abilities and learning styles, motivations, and experiences; and their socioeconomic backgrounds, including linguistic backgrounds. The idea is to provide learning or teaching which is responsive to both the content and pedagogical needs of learners individually and collectively. This focus on the learner has made learner-centred methodologies more fashionable, and many teachers describe their teaching as learner-centred based on the belief that that is the best way to teach. The following are key characteristics of learner-centred pedagogy:

1. Learner-centred teaching includes explicit skill instruction because learners do not automatically learn any skill (Weimer, 2002). As a result, there is a need for guidelines to be given to learners because they need to understand how to conduct a particular task and how content or knowledge is organised and acquired. Teachers need to give explicit instructions before learners can carry out an activity. Dweck (2000) states that the teacher should mediate at three critical points during learner-centred teaching. At the introduction stage, the teacher helps learners make sense of the task ahead by stimulating their learning or scaffolding. During the activity, the teacher helps in guiding and clarifying. After the activity, the teacher can help further explore or generalise ideas. The idea should be to give enough help to the learners and not to develop a complete dependency on the teacher.
2. In learner-centred learning, learners solve problems, answer questions, and formulate questions of their own to discuss, explain, debate, or brainstorm during classes (Alexander & Murphy, 1994). This motivates learners by giving them some control over the learning process. In a learner-centred class, there is collaboration as learners stand up and talk to others to complete some assignments or any given task. This creates more opportunities to talk and learn from others.
3. Learner-centred teaching emphasises the learner: It focuses on the learning process and changes the teacher's role from a provider of information to a facilitator of student learning. The teacher is not the centre of teaching and learning but a mediator. Therefore, teachers do not employ a single teaching method. They use a variety based on what learners are learning.
4. Instructional goal is to create a learning environment where both the teacher and the learner construct knowledge: Learners are expected to put in the effort to make sense of what they are learning by relating it to prior knowledge and discussing it with others. In learner-centred pedagogy, learners take responsibility for their learning by actively participating. This is different from teacher-centred learning, where learners are passive.

5. Learner-centred teaching encourages learners to reflect on what they are learning and how they are learning: Teachers provide assignments and activities that allow learners to reflect, analyse, and critique what they are learning.
6. Learner-centred teaching encourages self-discipline and mutual respect among learners: In a learner-centred classroom, it is also important that teachers should also offer learner-centred management. Weimer (2002) argues that there is a need to maintain a classroom climate in which active interaction and communication, close personal relationships with learners, mutual respect, positive attitudes, and flexibility of rules, as well as learner self-discipline and self-determination, is maintained. The argument is that it is possible to have learner discipline in a learner-centred classroom as long as there is mutual respect among learners.
7. Learners are provided frequent, directed, and timely feedback: Teachers ensure that they frequently provide feedback to their learners as a group and individually according to their areas of weakness. Teachers help individuals understand their weakness and how they can overcome it. Timeliness is also vital in providing feedback because delayed feedback may not be as effective as timely feedback.
8. Learners know what they are learning and why: This is crucial to learner-centredness. It is vital that learners not only know the topic but also why they must acquire the knowledge and skills being taught. This motivates learners and helps them to concentrate because learning becomes purposeful. Without a purpose, learners are not motivated to learn.
9. Learners learn from their classmates: Note that some learners learn better when their peer is explaining a concept to them. Peer explanation is often non-threatening and very motivating to fellow learners. Therefore, teachers should produce classroom activities where learners engage with each other to learn from each other. Group discussions followed by class discussions are helpful. In other words, learner-centred teaching encourages collaboration.
10. Teaching materials and examples given reflect the culture and daily life of the learners: In a learner-centred classroom, the teacher will ensure that they select materials which are not foreign to the learners. Examples and illustrations are authentic and appropriately socially situated. In other words, teaching and learning is not abstract but relatable.



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*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

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#### Role-play

1. Divide the class into six groups and each group should be assigned one characteristic of learner-centred pedagogy. They need to discuss it and practise it. They will choose which member of their group will be the teacher while the rest are learners. You may choose to complete this activity over a series of days. One day, you may give them time to design their demonstration. Another day, you may give them time to practise. On the final day, you would have the groups demonstrate to their peers.
  - a. Learner-centred pedagogy includes explicit skill instruction
  - b. Learner-centred pedagogy places the emphasis on the learner
  - c. Self-discipline and mutual respect among learners
  - d. Learners know what they are learning and why
  - e. Learners learn from their classmates
  - f. Teaching materials and examples given reflect the culture and daily life of the learners
2. Provide feedback to groups after their demonstrations. You may also ask that other groups provide feedback to their peers following their demonstrations as well.
3. Close the activity by asking student teachers:
  - Why are learner-centred practices effective in the language and literacy classroom?

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In conclusion, there are several characteristics of learner-centred pedagogy. The ten listed and explained above are just some of the main ones. Therefore, when preparing a lesson, one must check that the characteristics above are met as a checklist for learner-centred teaching.

## What really changes when a teacher uses learner-centred pedagogy?

When a teacher adopts learner-centred pedagogy, several things change. The change ranges from self-perception to the perception of others, including classroom practice. It is important to note that learner-centred teaching is transformative for teachers too. According to Weimer (2002), the following are five things which change when a teacher uses learner-centred pedagogy:

- **Balance of Power:** Teachers are not the only powerful role players in a learner-centred classroom. Learners are too. Power and classroom control are distributed equally across race, ethnicity, age, class, and gender. Everyone is considered equally important in the classroom regardless of their background. The teacher acknowledges learners' prior knowledge and abilities much as they will acknowledge the teacher's expertise, but none of them thinks more highly of themselves than the other. In this sense, the teacher ceases to perceive oneself as the exclusive knower of the subject, while learners use their prior knowledge to understand and interrogate the new information. The culture of silence, especially among girls, is lifted, and everyone is encouraged to participate in classroom communication. The balance of power is not only between the teacher and learners but among learners.
- **Function of Content:** The content being learnt also serves a different purpose under learner-centred teaching. The content is not supposed to be mastered and remembered but to be understood, analysed, and applied to real life. Learners will understand the content and later seek ways of using it. Learners also seek evidence of the claims made in the learning process to trust it and have the confidence to apply it in their daily lives. Thus, learning is not the accumulation of facts but knowledge and skill acquisition. Ramsden (1988) put it this way, 'Learning should be seen as a qualitative change in a person's way of seeing, experiencing, understanding, conceptualising something in the real world—rather than as a quantitative change in the amount of knowledge someone possesses' (pp. 271). To build such kinds of learners, teachers should first understand their characteristics and later find ways, including teaching methods, to build critical thinking and a way of understanding content, which leads to critical thinking and application.
- **Role of the Teacher:** There is a critique against power relations in a teacher-centred classroom that the exercise of power benefits the teacher more than it promotes learning. Thus, in learner-centred teaching, the role of a teacher changes from being the all-knowing transmitter of knowledge to a facilitator of knowledge through meaningful input while allowing learners to take active roles. Learners are given the power to own the learning process by asking questions, making contributions, seeking clarification, and practising. While less gifted learners may not



engage as much as the gifted ones, the role of the teacher is to provide equal learning opportunities in the classroom and maximise the learning potential of everyone. According to Weimer (2002), 'teachers no longer function as exclusive content experts or authoritarian classroom managers...they will lecture less and be more around the classroom than in front of it' (pp. 14).

- **The Responsibility of Learning:** The responsibility of learning is to transform the learner from a dependent to an autonomous learner. To do this, teachers need to use learners' prior knowledge, including informal ways of learning, to develop a critical autonomous learner. Weimer puts it neatly that 'the goal of education ought to be the creation of independent, autonomous learners who assume responsibility for their own learning' (Weimer, 2002, pp. 15).
- **Evaluation Purpose and Process:** Assessment is not always made by the teacher for the learner. Learners also evaluate themselves. They do so by knowing when they do and do not understand the content. They will also know what they do not know and why they do not know and further seek ways of knowing for them to improve. This implies that teachers should make investments in teaching learners the ways of self-evaluation. This can be done by asking questions which seek self-evaluation or giving them classroom tasks, which require them to evaluate themselves in terms of what they know, what they do not understand, and ways to improve. It is critical to mention that in a learner-centred classroom, assessment is not only for generating grades but for knowing what learning has taken place and what needs to be done to promote further learning.

#### Activity 4

#### Learning outcome: 2



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*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

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#### Round Robin & Role-Play

1. Divide student teachers into groups of three to five.
  2. Ask them to take turns sharing their response to the following question:
    - How can you ensure balance of power between teacher and learners and between learners and their peers?
  3. Afterwards, let them enact it in front of their peers with one of them as a teacher and the rest as learners. Encourage student teachers to comment on each other's illustration.
-

## Misconceptions about learner-centred pedagogy

The preceding sections of this chapter have been concerned with the conceptualisation of learner-centred teaching. Although the scope of learner-centred teaching appears straightforward, it has equally been misunderstood and misinterpreted. Thus, this section focuses on the myths or misconceptions of learner-centred teaching. It is necessary to discuss the misconceptions because, in some cases, teachers have shunned learner-centred methods based on the same misconceptions. Below are some of the commonly held misconceptions about learner-centred teaching:

- Learners do whatever they want to do the whole day: This is not true. In each lesson, there is time for the teacher to explicitly teach before learners get into pair and group work or any other communicative activity.
- Using technology automatically makes your lesson learner-centred: Technology is a good element of learner-centred teaching, but the teacher can use technology without engaging the learners.
- Learner-centred teaching is for Early Child (ECE) classes: Learner-centred teaching keeps learners focused on learning. It is practical and beneficial at any grade level, including post-secondary education.
- Learner-centred classrooms are out of control: The belief is that because learners are allowed to speak and initiate interaction, the classroom becomes chaotic. However, in a learner-centred classroom, classroom communication and interaction are intentional and planned to promote meaningful learning. It is a fallacy that quiet classrooms are orderly. Many classrooms are quiet because learners have been silenced by the teacher's powers or unfavourable education policies.
- Quiet learners do not learn effectively in an atmosphere where they work independently: The myth here is that quiet learners learn better if they receive instruction directly from the teacher. The truth is that teacher-centred methodologies do not make introverts become extroverts. In learner-centred teaching, the teacher will identify learners who are quiet and provide the needed support, including encouraging them to actively participate in the classroom. This is partly discussed in the previous section on the balance of power in the classroom when a teacher adopts learner-centred teaching.
- Learner-centred teaching is only for gifted learners: This misconception emanates from a related misconception that in a learner-centred lesson, the teacher is silent while learners do everything independently. The truth about learner-centred teaching, as explained in the earlier sections of this chapter, is that teachers maintain an active role in explicit instruction and

scaffolding learners during learner activities. Therefore, learner-centred teaching is more beneficial to weak learners as instruction is delivered fully considering their learning weaknesses or abilities.

- Learner-centred teaching gives learners too much freedom: It is believed that learner-centred teaching gives learners excessive freedom. However, in a learner-centred lesson, learners are given adequate freedom to engage with the lesson and each other to seek answers, clarification, and usefulness of the content. It is a misconception and misapplication of learner-centred teaching to give undirected freedom.
- Learners cannot learn new material on their own: This misconception or myth comes from the idea that learners are tabula rasa and always need teachers' input. This myth is informed by a common interruption of education that sees learners as empty vessels teachers fill with knowledge. On the contrary, it is the case that learners have an active brain and are capable of learning or fostering learning on their own. In any case, in a learner-centred lesson, learners work with the teacher's support.
- Learner-centred teaching is only suitable for well-behaved children: This myth is related to the idea that learner-centredness promotes lawlessness among learners. However, this is not true because, as the name suggests, learner-centred teaching is a pedagogy which considers the learning needs of everyone, including those with deviant behaviours. In any case, there is no evidence to suggest that teacher-centred classrooms are the most disciplined classrooms. The perceived discipline may only be because the teacher has silenced the learners and consequently symbolically violated their right to learn.
- Learner-centred teaching means a kind of relaxation on the part of the teacher: This is not true. The teacher must prepare the lesson plan, materials, and activities before class. While in class, the teacher explicitly presents the material before learners start to actively engage in activities. Even classroom activities are designed and explained by the teacher. In any case, learner-centred teaching demands more involvement from the teacher than teacher-centred teaching because the teacher needs to make all classroom decisions and actions based on the learning needs of each learner.



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*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

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Emphasise that the misconceptions outlined in the text are based on people's ignorance of the meaning of learner-centred teaching. Use question and answer effectively as you teach the misconceptions so that student teachers clearly understand what makes the points raised as misconceptions. Remember that some of your student teachers hold some of these misconceptions. Therefore, engage them in learning these misconceptions to ensure that they abandon their own misconceptions with your guided support and guidance.

1. Divide the class into groups or pairs, assign each pair one misconception.
  2. Ask student teachers to discuss their misconception and explain to the whole class.
  3. As student teachers present, clarify, or add where necessary.
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## 8.8

# How to teach literacy and language using learner-centred pedagogy

This section is concerned with explaining how learner-centred teaching is done. This will be achieved by explaining the teacher role, the learner role, the role of teaching materials, and the lesson procedure.

### 8.8.1 Teacher role

The teacher performs a lot of roles when implementing learner-centred teaching. According to Bishop, Caston, and King (2014) and Thamraksa (2003), there are 20 roles for teachers in learner-centred classrooms:

1. Provide the necessary information and knowledge to allow the learner to adequately complete the activity
2. Act as a mentor that learners could relate to
3. Demonstrate different learning styles in a professional and respectful manner
4. Provide a clear path to an often overwhelming 'sea' of information
5. Show passion for what they are teaching; learners will often emulate the energy of the teacher
6. Excite their learners to learn
7. Be enthusiastic about what is being taught

8. Attempt connections with learners as individuals
9. Control the structure of the class so that expectations of learner behaviour and performance is clearly outlined, and course content is delivered in a straightforward manner
10. Be a 'chameleon' and adjust to the needs of each individual classroom
11. Alternate between teacher-centred and learner-centred teaching depending on the needs of the learners
12. Change from the role of authority and presumed expert who possesses all knowledge to becoming a facilitator who provides a setting in which the learners can play an active and inquiring role in their own learning
13. Create a learning environment that stimulates and challenges learners and fosters critical thinking and knowledge construction. For example, teachers can enhance their thinking.
14. Build learners' skills through reasoning, decision-making, reflection, inferences, and problem-solving. These activities encourage learners to engage cognitively and emotionally with the learning tasks. The latter activity, especially, can be done by building an environment that allows learners to examine complex problems using a wide variety of resources, develop their own strategies for addressing these problems, and present and negotiate solutions to them collaboratively.
15. Promote collaborative learning. Collaboration among learners is an integral component of the learner-centred approach. According to Kohonen (1992), working as a team can create a positive interdependence and individual accountability among learners as each member attempts to contribute to the team product and, thus, oversees helping their teammates to learn. Collaboration can also foster learners' growth, develop social and learning skills, and help them construct their own knowledge through engaging in the exchange of ideas.
16. Recognise the individual differences in approaches to learning. Teachers should set multiple tasks and give choices to learners to select and sequence their own activities independently.
17. Reinforce the idea that knowledge is not confined to a classroom. Some examples of sources of knowledge include parents, elders, libraries, museums, historical sites, authentic materials, and the Internet.
18. Use 'authentic assessment' ('Authentic Assessment,' 2001)—one that examines a learner's collective abilities, criterion-referenced, and performance-based—rather than standardised assessment
19. Draw from different disciplines to integrate learning experiences and, more importantly, use team teaching to achieve integrated learning outcomes. For example, teachers with different

areas of expertise, like tourism and biology, can work together on different subjects to teach about the environment.

20. Draw upon the relation between the learners' prior knowledge and experiences to the new learning. This is based on the notion that the learning experiences that relate to the learners' personal knowledge and experiences are the most easily learnt and often the most difficult to forget.

### 8.8.2 Learner role

Learners are also expected to perform different roles when taught using learner-centred methodologies. Thamraksa (2003, pp. 65) noted that learners 'play a significant role in the learning process. They no longer view themselves as empty vessels waiting to be filled', but instead, learners play the following roles:

- Change from the old belief 'knowledge is to be transmitted by teachers' to the new understanding 'knowledge is to be constructed', and be aware that learners are responsible for constructing their own personal knowledge
- Change from merely being passive recipients to taking part as active participants who are engaged in all aspects and activities of their learning—both cognitively and physically—that are generally the duty of the teacher in most traditional learning activities
- Set meaningful goals for completing the learning activity, assume more responsibility for meeting those goals, and monitor their progress to determine if the strategies they are using to accomplish their goals are effective

### 8.8.3 Role of teaching materials

Teaching materials must be consistent with the particular characteristics of the learners in the classroom. Among other qualities, the teaching materials should be inclusive, multimodal, culturally appropriate, age-specific, engaging, familiar to the learner, and communicate the teaching point quickly and clearly (Vieira, 2017). It is also essential that the teacher uses various teaching materials in learner-centred lessons to respond to learners' different learning styles and abilities. Using one material in a lesson would lead to monotony. Without ignoring these qualities, the following materials are some of the materials which can be used:

- |              |                                |
|--------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Realia    | 5. ICT tools such as computers |
| 2. Pictures  | 6. Video                       |
| 3. Textbooks | 7. Radio                       |
| 4. Magazines | 8. Charts                      |



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*Teacher educator's note: Help student teachers think critically about the text.*

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1. Explain to student teachers that as a teacher, they need to ensure that the different roles explained above are played by themselves, the learner, and teaching materials.
  2. Next, ask student teachers to develop a formal response to the following questions. They may write their answer into their student module if they have one. Otherwise, they may write their response on notebook paper.
    - What challenges are you likely to face as you ensure that each of the role players perform their functions?
    - How would you mitigate or avoid each of the challenges you have mentioned in question 1?
  3. When student teachers have finished their responses, take time to read through all of their responses and provide them feedback. It may take time to review their responses, but after you are finished reviewing them, you may decide to share some of the student teachers' reflections with the class.
- 

#### 8.8.4 Lesson procedure under learner-centred teaching

The lesson procedure under learner-centred teaching follows the same format as the Eclectic Method. It is essential to mention that, as in the Eclectic Method, activities and content delivery in the learner-centred lesson are consistently based on the interests and unique characteristics of the learner. Thus, the Eclectic Method is the prototypical example of a learner-centred method. Notwithstanding, the following is the procedure for a learner-centred lesson:

##### 8.8.4.1 Introduction

The introduction should be learner-centred but with direct input from the teacher. For example, the lesson can start with a brainstorming activity to elicit learners' prior knowledge to make sense of the teaching point. The teacher may use a picture or story to elicit some language which informs the lesson. This should be followed by an exposition where the teacher explicitly states the topic and what it is all about. If it is a grammar lesson, the teacher should explain the rules and give examples. Doing so gives direction and helps learners know what is expected of them.

##### 8.8.4.2 Lesson development

This is also called the practice stage. Here, the teacher will use various methods/techniques to present the content for practice. These activities will come one after the other. For example, the teacher may start with a group activity, followed by class discussion, and end with individual exercise. Alternatively, the teacher may start with pair work followed by role-playing and later individual question and answer. It is important to emphasise that the choice of activities and their order depends on the topic, grade level, learner characteristics, and available time. In addition, the teacher should ensure that each activity has its own teaching material to make the lesson exciting and multimodal.

### 8.8.4.3 Conclusion

In this section, the teacher will need to use cognitive closure to ask questions to learners. This is not done to summarise the topic but to indirectly assess the learning which has taken place and what support learners may need after the lesson. Finally, the teacher should socially close the lesson through praise, announcements, encouragement, and what learners are expected to do after the lesson. This helps to motivate learners and make learning purposeful.

#### Activity 7

**Learning outcomes: 2 & 6**



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*Teacher educator's note: Connect theory to practice.*

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1. Pair student teachers together to develop a detailed lesson plan on any topic and language of their choice. The lesson plan should be based on the stages provided and the principles of learner-centred teaching from this chapter. Also explain to student teachers that the lesson plan assesses their understanding of learner-centred teaching thus far.
  2. After they develop their lesson, have pairs share with other pairs the lesson that they have created and see if their peers are able to point out the characteristics of their lesson plan that demonstrate learner-centred teaching.
  3. Provide student teachers time to revise their lesson if needed.
  4. Next, have student teachers share their finished lesson plans with the class. After each pair presents their lesson, ask student teachers to defend their choices, reflect on their decisions, or justify their lesson procedure. Some other ideas for questions are:
    - How are you ensuring balance of power in your lesson?
    - How are learners taking control of their learning in your lesson?
    - At what point are you providing explicit instruction?
    - How do the teaching materials chosen conform to tenets of learner-centred teaching?
    - What role are learners playing?
-



## Peer teaching and lesson demonstration

This section presents a sample lesson demonstration, followed by peer teaching questions for practice purposes. It draws techniques from learner-centred pedagogy and other methods. The choice of methods leads to a lesson being either learner-centred or teacher-centred. Consider the following:

Lesson Demonstration		
Lesson Description	This grade 7 lesson focuses on teaching singular and plural nouns by adding -s or -es.	
Vocabulary	Singular noun, plural noun, suffix	
Techniques	Question and answer, teacher's exposition, pair work, and class discussion	
Material(s)	Real objects, textbook, pictorial chart	
Accommodations	Translanguaging, partner work, sign language interpreter, concrete objects	
Component	Grammar	
Topic	7.4.8 Nouns	
Specific Outcomes	7.4.8.1 Identify different types of nouns	
	Teacher Role	Learner Role
Introduction:	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Teachers sticks the picture on the walls and asks learners to name what they see on the picture.</li> <li>2. Teacher takes note of the answers on the board (names/nouns).</li> <li>3. Teachers asks what part of speech the names belong to.</li> <li>4. Teacher explains that the topic of the day is on singular and plural nouns.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Learners watch closely and give the names of what they are seeing.</li> <li>2. Learners listen attentively.</li> </ol>

	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Teacher explains that to show the difference between one or many, they add suffix -s or -es; gives examples.</li> <li>Teacher repeats the rules in the dominant local language but gives examples in English.</li> </ol> <p>NOTE: When showing pictures, the learner who is blind is presented with the same physically. As the lesson is progressive, the teacher allows the use of translanguaging.</p>	
Development	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The teacher divides class into pairs and asks the pairs to come up with two nouns and provide their plurals. One should use plural marker -s and another should use plural marker -es. She or he advises the pairs to discuss in any language they are comfortable with as long as the answers are in English.</li> <li>Teacher asks learners to present their answers and asks the class to discuss the answers of each pair.</li> <li>Teacher distributes a paper with a list of nouns and asks learners to determine whether the given examples correctly demonstrate the plural form of the noun.</li> <li>The teacher gives an individual written exercise. She or he asks learners to open the textbook and answer a particular exercise. Teacher checks that the learner who is blind has equipment to use to write the exercise.</li> </ol> <p>NOTE: Sign language interpreter to be with the learner who is deaf so that they can help.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Learners pair up and come up with the nouns and their plurals. They discuss their answers.</li> <li>One of the learners from each pair presents the answers while the rest of the class provide their feedback in terms of affirmation or corrections.</li> <li>Learners study the list and pick one and give the answer while the teacher engages the class to evaluate whether the answer is correct or not.</li> <li>Learners collect their books and write the exercise individually.</li> </ol>

Conclusion	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The teacher asks learners what the lesson was all about. Teacher advises learners to explain in any language.</li> <li>2. Teacher asks learners to give examples and their plurals.</li> <li>3. Teacher summarises the main point to affirm and emphasise learners' responses and thanks them for their participation. He/she tells them that the next lesson will be on singular and plurals of irregular nouns.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Learners give their responses one after the other. One learner gives a summary in Lozi but gives examples in English</li> <li>2. Learners give examples.</li> <li>3. Learners listen attentively.</li> </ol>
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In the lesson above, the teacher promoted active learner participation while they also provided an explicit explanation of the topic and the rule explanation. They varied the activities from pair work, class discussion, and teacher exposition. Cognisant of learners who could not fluently understand the medium of instruction, he/she translanguage to help diverse learners access the content. They also encouraged learners to speak or use their familiar language during discussions throughout the lesson. They equally invited the sign language interpreter to help the learner who is deaf access learning but also to participate. The teacher was also sensitive to the learner who is blind. As a result, they used concrete objects to illustrate the teaching, and during the written exercise, the teacher showed interest in ensuring the learners had supportive equipment to do the exercise.

## Activity 8

**Learning outcomes: 2, 6, & 7**



*Teacher educator's note: Connect theory to practice.*

Explain the scenario included below and give student teachers the explanations on creating a learner-centred lesson plan. Make sure to review the included rubric with student teachers so that they know what to expect.

Imagine you are a grade 3 teacher of English and you are teaching topic 3.3.6 Punctuation with the following learning outcome 3.3.6.1 Punctuate sentences and short paragraphs.

Explanations for developing the learner-centred lesson plan:

1. Prepare a learner-centred lesson plan based on the topic and learning outcome above.
  - a. Refer to the English language syllabus for more details regarding the specific focus and scope of the topic.
  - b. Submit the lesson plan to your teacher educator for review. Then make revisions as needed.
2. Using the lesson plan you develop, teach the topic to your peers in a small group according to the teacher educator's explanations.
3. Remember that learner-centred lessons include accommodations for learners with special educational needs and those whose mother tongue is not the language of instruction.

## Plan Rubric

Lesson Feature	Score			
	3	2	1	0
Lesson description, materials, accommodations, topics, and outcomes	All elements are included and clear (brief description, grade level, words used, techniques used, materials, and accurate topics and outcomes).	Most of the elements are included and clear (description, grade level, words used, techniques used, materials, and topic and outcomes).	Many of the elements are not included and/or this section lacks clarity.	Most of the elements of this section are missing and the section lacks clarity.
Introduction	The introduction is strong and thorough. It clearly explains the purpose of the lesson and includes what the teacher will say.	The introduction sets the purpose of the lesson, but lacks thoroughness and/or what the teacher says lacks clarity.	The purpose of the section is unclear. What the teacher says is weak or not included at all.	This section may be missing or incomplete. What the teacher says may not be evident and the rule may be unclear.
Development	The section is very well-developed with what the teacher says and what the learners will do. It is clear that the teacher explored the techniques	This section could be more well developed. There is evidence of what the teacher says and what the learners will do. It is somewhat clear that the teacher techniques	This section is weak with little evidence of what the teacher says and what the learners will do. It is unclear that the teacher is using the techniques	This section may be missing or incomplete. There is very little that shows the techniques.
Conclusion	There is a conclusion to the lesson with appropriate individual activity. There is evidence that the teacher provided feedback.	The conclusion is there but there are elements that may be unclear (e.g. assessment, feedback).	The conclusion is there but does not appropriately assess the learner and /or feedback is not given.	This section may be missing or incomplete.

## Lesson demonstration peer feedback form

Your name:

Peer's name:

Date:

Lesson topic:

Positive praise

Give your peer praise for at least two positive things you noticed during their lesson.

Constructive feedback

Suggest something your peer could do better, or differently the next time they teach this lesson.

## Chapter summary

The chapter has provided a detailed discussion of the concept of learner-centred teaching in terms of its meaning, characteristics, and how one can teach language using learner-centred methodologies. The commonly held misconceptions have also been highlighted and clarified. For instance, contrary to the misconception that teachers are passive in learner-centred lessons, learner-centred methods task the teacher to prepare a lesson with all learners' individual characteristics in mind. When teaching, the teacher needs to provide input to clarify the teaching point to the learners and create an opportunity for active participation. Thus, in learner-centred teaching, the learner informs classroom teaching decisions, actively participates, and takes autonomy in their learning while the teacher plans, inputs, and scaffolds learners as individuals and as a group.

## Assessment of learning



1. Account for the theoretical influence in the conceptualisation of learner-centred pedagogy.
2. In your own words, what is learner-centred pedagogy?
3. With examples, explain any five features of learner-centred pedagogy?
4. Why is it necessary to use learner-centred methods when teaching language?
5. List seven misconceptions of learner-centred pedagogy and why each is a myth.
6. How can a teacher apply the concept of 'balance of power' when teaching English in a grade 5 multilingual class?
7. Develop a learner-centred lesson plan to teach composition with learning outcome 6.3.1.1 'Write short descriptive compositions on the given topic'.
8. Based on the lesson plan in question 7, teach the lesson to your peers and get feedback at the end of the lesson.

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Chapter 9 of Language Module III

# Planning for Teaching Language

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# Planning for Teaching Language

## INTRODUCTION

Chapter 8 looks at learner-centred teaching. This final chapter of the module focuses on planning for teaching. It briefly describes the guidance from the Zambia Education Curriculum and the Literacy Curriculum frameworks. This is followed by a brief discussion of the difference between planning and preparing to teach. After that, different teaching documents such as the syllabus, schemes of work, weekly forecast, lesson plan, and records of work are discussed. Examples of each of the teaching documents mentioned are provided. The chapter ends with a summary and an assessment of learning.

This chapter helps student teachers acquire the theoretical knowledge listed in professional documents and, equally importantly, how to practically develop them.

## Learning outcomes



### Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

#### 2.2.1 Preparation and Planning to Teach Languages

**2.2.1.1** Discuss the importance of planning and preparation in teaching language

**2.2.1.2** Describe the Zambian Education Curriculum Framework (ZECF)

**2.2.1.3** Discuss the use of the school syllabus, schemes of work, weekly forecasts, and lesson plans

**2.2.1.4** Prepare the schemes of work, weekly forecasts, records of work, and lesson plans

### By the end of this chapter, the student teacher will:

- 1 discuss the importance of planning and preparation in teaching language.
- 2 describe the Zambian Education Curriculum Framework (ZECF).
- 3 briefly describe the National Literacy Framework.
- 4 discuss the use of the school syllabus, schemes of work, weekly forecasts, and lesson plans.
- 5 prepare a scheme of work, weekly forecast, record of work, and a lesson plan.
- 6 determine how they can apply principles of planning and preparation to their future classroom.

### Teacher educator's note



*Learning outcomes should be introduced to student teachers before you begin teaching the lesson's content. Student teachers should understand what is required of them throughout each chapter. Each time you present the content in the chapter, emphasise the learning outcomes that are the lesson's focus.*

*If student teachers have a copy of the student module edition, they may review student outcomes with you. If student teachers do not have a copy, make sure to visually present the learning outcomes to them (e.g. chalkboard). Be prepared to make accommodations for learners with special educational needs.*

## Instructional materials

- Teacher educator module
- Teacher educator curated materials
- Student module
- Zambian Education Curriculum Framework (ZECF)
- Sample school syllabi
- Sample schemes of work
- Sample weekly forecast
- Sample lesson plan
- Sample record of work

### Teacher educator's note



*Review materials and be prepared to make accommodations for students with special educational needs.*

*Materials. Review the chapter thoroughly to decide if there are any materials that you have or may find useful to the presentation of the information. Student teachers will need any materials that require application in this chapter. They will also be asked to develop and deliver their own lesson to their peers. Make sure that you are prepared with all materials to help them with this.*

*Students with special educational needs: Before presenting the content in the chapter, make sure you are aware of any accommodations that you may need to make for students with special needs. Depending on the needs of your student teachers, some common accommodations are:*

- *Familiarise yourself with appropriate terms (e.g. 'disability', not 'handicap'; 'deaf', not 'hearing impaired')*
- *Repeat and vary explanations*
- *Ask for clarification of understanding*
- *Create audio-recordings of lectures and course materials*
- *Request Zambian Sign Language interpreters (ideally two per lecture)*
- *Request notetakers*
- *Allow additional time to complete coursework*
- *Include verbal descriptions of visual aids in lecture*
- *Designate front or centre row seating (closest to you) for low vision/hearing learners*
- *Designate appropriate seating for those with physical disabilities to manoeuvre into and out of seats*
- *Face those with low vision/hearing during lecture (do not turn your back to them)*
- *Utilise Universal Design Learning pedagogy*
- *Utilise Eclectic Teaching pedagogy*
- *Increase wait time when asking questions*
- *Increase communication (e.g. e-mail check-ins, office hours, etc)*
- *Translanguage*



## Key terms

### Curriculum

A document that prescribes a programme of study for learners in institutions of learning. Includes all the content subjects and related activities.

### Lesson plan

A plan of how a particular lesson is supposed to be taught on a particular day.

### Record of work

A record of the content covered in lessons over a period of time.

### Scheme of work

A document that guides a teacher in what content is supposed to be taught in a specific period, like a term.

### Syllabus

A document that gives information about the aims, outcomes, or objects of a subject. May suggest method(s) of teaching it.

### Weekly forecast

A document that guides a teacher in what content is supposed to be taught in a week in a subject.

### Zambian Education Curriculum Framework (ZECF)

A document that guides and regulates all levels of learning institutions that provide formal education in Zambia. Often abbreviated 'ZECF'.

### Teacher educator's note



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*Review key terms. You may introduce the key terms together, but make sure to highlight which ones are the focus of each lesson. It is helpful to visually display the key terms (e.g. on the chalkboard) for each class session so that student teachers can refer to them throughout the lesson as needed. Be prepared to make accommodations for learners with special educational needs.*

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## The importance of preparation and planning for teaching

Meador (2019) states that planning and preparation are essential for effective teaching and that all good teachers are good planners. He adds that teaching preparation and planning benefit teachers and learners. Planning and preparation make one a better teacher, improve learner performance, make the classroom orderly, make the teacher confident, help in time management, make the lesson coherent and cohesive, and increase the possibilities of achieving the learning outcomes.

In addition to planning the lesson, the teacher should also be prepared for the lesson. For example, they should read/research widely to be informed of the topic and prepare teaching materials, including producing new ones if there are no available materials. The teacher should also prepare inclusive classroom activities for special education needs learners, including MTB MLE strategies which would be needed based on the teachers' knowledge of the learners. Additionally, the teacher should be mentally, physically, and emotionally prepared to manage learners, including any deviant behaviour in the classroom. The teacher should be able to help everyone in the classroom to access learning regardless of their backgrounds and circumstances.

It is important to note that planning and preparation do not occur in a vacuum. Instead, they are informed and guided by different documents, including the curriculum, syllabus, schemes of work, and policy documents. Norman (2011) puts this succinctly, noting that planning and preparation for teaching involve getting inside the content, considering the learner, and mapping the lesson.

Thus, planning and preparation for teaching must fit into the larger curriculum. In Zambia, teachers must think of the cross-cutting issues, such as those well-articulated in the Zambia Education Curriculum Framework, to integrate in their lesson depending on the topic. Issues of medium of instruction and learning expectations will be guided by the National Literacy Framework per grade level. The syllabus will give the content to be taught; the schemes of work will provide the sequence in which the content will be taught; and the lesson plan will outline the step-by-step outline of what will be taught, how it will be taught, what materials will be used. Therefore, the next sections of this chapter will focus on the specific documents which inform teaching planning and preparation. The chapter will proceed from providing theoretical to practical understanding of the documents which inform teaching planning and preparation.



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*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text and help student teachers think critically.*

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### Round Robin

1. Divide student teachers into groups of four.
  2. Ask student teachers to independently answer the questions below. If student teachers have a student module, they may write their answers into their books. Otherwise, they will write their responses into their notebook. In this case, you will need to provide a way for teachers to see the questions.
    - Based on the discussion on the importance of planning to teach, what does planning to teach mean, and why is it important to teaching?  
*Sample Response: Planning to teach refers to the ways that teachers prepare for teaching such as designing lesson plans and assessments and gathering materials or resources.*
    - Using Norman (2011) ideas about how to prepare for teaching, what does planning to teach involve?  
*Sample Response: Norman's ideas involve thinking about learners' needs, understanding the content to be taught, and mapping the lesson/outlining how content will be taught*
    - It is said, 'when you fail to plan, you are planning to fail.' What does this mean in the context of this discussion?  
*Sample Response: When you fail to plan, then you are not prepared to teach, and your learners may not meet learning expectations.*
    - Reflect on your time as learners and share instances where you felt that the teacher was not prepared to teach and why. Also share experiences of teachers you thought came to class prepared.  
*Sample Response: Any appropriate response*
  3. After they have finished creating their responses, student teachers should take turns sharing their responses to each of the questions.
- 

## 9.5

# Brief description of the **Zambian Education Curriculum Framework**

The Zambia Education Curriculum Framework (ZECF) 2013 contains guidance and regulations for all education institutions concerned with formal education in Zambia. It is aimed at helping teachers and teacher educators on how they should implement a national policy on education. The ZECF outlines Zambians' democratic principles—such as liberalisation, decentralisation, equality, equity, partnership, and accountability—as the main principles that govern education provision in Zambia. For example, the principle of decentralisation and liberalisation means that several entities provide education, including the private sector.

The ZECF acts as a common standard that every individual and organisation participating in the running of education in Zambia must follow. It contains building regulations and freedoms that education actors must follow and enjoy. However, the ZECF does not provide details of subject combinations, as such information is found in syllabi and teacher curriculum manuals. Subject combination refers to the total number of subjects to be taken in a particular class. Different classes can have different lists of subjects.

In terms of objectives, the Zambia Education Curriculum Framework is meant to (ZECF, 2013, pp. 1):

1. Interpret the government's aims and objectives for the formal education system at all levels and help education providers translate the aims into effective teaching and learning experiences.
2. Define the fundamental values of the education system and help education providers to translate them into the teaching and learning experience, considering the local and cultural environment.
3. Provide guidelines to education providers on the curriculum coverage, teacher-learner contact time, subject combination, and other curriculum priorities and
4. Provide guidelines for allocating public and private resources.

The overall aim of education, according to ZECF, is to 'promote the full and well development of the physical, intellectual, social, effective, moral, and spiritual qualities of all learners so that each can develop into a complete person for his or her own fulfilment and for the good of society' (ZECF 2013, pp. 2).

The ZECF states that for the curriculum to be progressive, relevant, dynamic, and responsive, it must meet many considerations, or education guiding principles. These education guiding principles include:

- Outcomes-based education (OBE): The ministry of education has adopted OBE to link education to real life where learners who go through such an education can have skills to criticise, analyse, and practically apply knowledge.
- Clarity of focus: Anything a teacher or teacher educator must do should be focused on what learners want to know, understand, and successfully do.
- Reflective designing: Curriculum design must focus on what kind of product comes from it. Identifying the elements that can lead to developing such a product is necessary. Thus, 'there should be direct and explicit links between planning, teaching, assessment decisions and the outcomes learners should achieve' (ZECF, 2013, pp.17).
- Setting high expectations for all learners: Teachers and teacher educators should establish challenging performance standards.



- **Appropriate opportunities:** Intellectual ability is meant for every learner. Therefore, teachers and teacher educators must provide extra opportunities for the intellectual development of every learner. This is based on the principle that ‘not all learners can learn the same thing in the same way at the same pace in spite of the fact that they all have to complete a specific level in a stipulated time’ (ZECF, 2013, pp.17).
- **Dynamism of the curriculum:** Individual, community, national, and global needs and aspirations constantly change. As a result, the ministry of education will periodically revise the curriculum, syllabi, and teachers’ and teacher educators’ materials.
- **Learning:** Learning helps achieve social, economic, and political development. Thus, every learner must be allowed to access learning.
- **Reflective Education:** Education is a medium in which cultural heritage, values, traditions, language, knowledge, and skills are passed while ensuring that learners are taught and assessed on knowledge and skills needed for the present and the future.
- **Lifelong learning:** Lifelong learning means that learning takes place in and outside the classroom, including through contact with people. Therefore, formal learning is a starting point for continued learning after finishing school.
- **Equity and equality:** The Zambian education system seeks to promote equality of access, participation, and benefits to all, regardless of individual needs and attitudes. As a result, institutions of learning should include equality and equity measures in their programmes. Some ways to do this include allocating more resources to those in greatest need and providing appropriate support—such as bursary schemes, provision of school meals, or remedial activities for slow learners. Alternatively, this could look like changing the tangible and intangible qualities of the system to cater to the diverse educational needs and interests of the population. Schools might consider employing strategies to support learners at risk, such as those special education needs and orphans and vulnerable children. Finally, eliminating sources of educational disadvantages could enhance equity—such educational impediments may be due to gender, physical, sensory, mental, economic, or social factors—could enhance equity. To achieve this, the education system promotes the holistic development of individuals by considering their uniqueness. In this case, the concept of equity in education calls for the diversification of the curriculum to suit different abilities, talents, and interests.
- **National concerns and cross-cutting issues:** National concerns are an important part of Zambia’s curriculum at all levels of the education system. Thus, teachers and teacher educators should understand cross-cutting issues and integrate them into the curriculum. However, teachers and teacher educators are advised not to overload the curriculum with unnecessary elements. The following are the prominent cross-cutting themes: special education needs, careers guidance and counselling, environmental education and climate

change, life skills, governance, gender, human rights, population and family life education, reproductive health and sexuality, HIV and AIDS, health and nutrition, and entrepreneurship education and training.

- **Vocational Subjects:** Vocational subjects are those subjects that comprise forms of knowledge and skills that an individual needs to deal with the physical world and the world of work. Those subjects help learners for post-school employment and vocational training. In other words, vocational subjects provide practical skills. The following are considered vocational subjects in Zambia: agricultural science, art and design, computer studies, design and technology, home economics, physical education, and music.

## Activity 2

## Learning outcomes: 2 & 6



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*Teacher educator's note: Provide an opportunity for student teachers to think about their future classroom.*

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1. Ask student teachers to describe the Zambian Education Curriculum Framework (ZECF) in their own words and confirm and clarify their responses.
2. Next, divide student teachers into four groups, one group for each of the education principles:
  - a. Appropriate opportunities
  - b. Clarity of focus
  - c. Outcomes-based education
  - d. Equity and equality
3. Then ask student teachers to share with their group how they would implement their assigned education principles into their literacy and language lessons. They should summarise the key points of their group's response into a concise but thorough explanation for a group representative to share with the class.

*Sample Responses:*

- a. *I would implement appropriate opportunities by designing lesson that meet learners where their needs are. These would be lessons that are not too difficult and not too simple. Lessons should be designed so that learners are challenged but supported to learn.*
  - b. *I would achieve clarity of focus by being intentional with how I plan and deliver lessons.*
  - c. *Outcomes-based education considers what learners are expected to know and be able to do when they exit school. This means that learning should be relevant and support learners' development of skills required for adulthood.*
  - d. *Equity and equality will be achieved by providing equal opportunities for my learners to be successful. Every learner has the right to learn and be supported regardless of ability, disability, gender, race, culture.*
4. During plenary, emphasise to student teachers that these guiding principles are not meant to be memorised but to be implemented in classroom practice.
-

In terms of core learning areas at primary, the lower primary level will have the following co-learning areas: literacy and languages (sign language), integrated science, social studies, mathematics, creative and technology studies, and home economics. Time allocations by learning areas at early childhood education, lower primary, and upper primary levels are presented in Tables 9.1, 9.2, and 9.3.

*Table 9.1 Time allocation in early education*

No.	Learning area	Time allocation per week
1	Social Studies	2 hours
2	Environmental Science	2 hours 30 minutes
3	Pre-Literacy and Language	3 hours 30 minutes
4	Pre- Mathematics	3 hours 30 minutes
5	Expressive Arts	3 hours 30 minutes
	TOTAL	15 hours

*Table 9.2 Time allocation for grades 1–4*

No.	Learning area	Time per week	Periods
1	Literacy and Languages	6 hours 30 minutes	13
2	Mathematics	5 hours	10
3	Social Studies	2 hours 30 minutes	5
4	Integrated Science	2 hours 30 minutes	5
5	Creative and Technology Studies	4 hours 30 minutes	9
	TOTAL	21 hours	42

Table 9.3 Time allocation for grades 5–7

No.	Learning area	Time per week	Periods
1	English Language	4 hours	6
2	Mathematics	4 hours 40 minutes	7
3	Integrated Science	4 hours	6
4	Zambian Languages	4 hours	6
5	Expressive Arts	2 hours 40 minutes	4
6	Social Studies	3 hours 20 minutes	5
7	Technology Studies	2 hours 40 minutes	4
8	Home Economics	2 hours 40 minutes	4
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>21 hours</b>	<b>42</b>

### Activity 3

### Learning outcome: 6



*Teacher educator's note: Provide an opportunity for student teachers to think about their future classroom.*

1. Pair student teachers together to reflect on the time allocated to the teaching of literacy and language at lower primary and answer the following questions:
  - In your opinion, is the time allocated to the teaching of literacy and language adequate?
  - Regardless of your answer in question 'a', how can teachers use the allocated time effectively to ensure that literacy learning outcomes are achieved per each grade level?
2. After student teachers have shared their responses with their partner, ask for volunteers to share.

## Brief description of the National Literacy Framework

The Zambian National Literacy Framework was developed in 2013 to provide strategic direction for literacy instruction in Zambia. It acknowledges literacy's role in learning and the importance of literacy instruction. The National Literacy Framework is based on five principles (Curriculum Development Centre, 2013):

1. Reading is a foundation skill for all learning
2. Children learn literacy skills more efficiently and successfully through familiar languages
3. All learners with appropriate support can read and write
4. Every learner has the right to quality education
5. Intellectual ability is something expected of all learners. it is not a preserve of a few learners.

According to the National Literacy Framework, literacy is understood to mean 'the ability to read and write so as to understand and communicate effectively' (Curriculum Development Centre, 2013, pp.1). Based on research, learning to read requires five key skills or competences. These skills should form the basis for daily reading instruction in Zambia. The Curriculum Development Centre (2013, pp.2) presents the five skills in Table 9.4.

*Table 9.4 Five key skills for reading*

Skill	Description
Phonemic awareness	Ability to 'hear' sounds and manipulate them orally, e.g. put sounds together, break words apart into sounds, identify rhyming words, identify likeness and differences in spoken words.
Phonics	The ability to put written letters and their sounds together.
Oral reading fluency	Ability to read orally with accuracy, speed, and expression.
Vocabulary	Ability to understand the meaning of words and use them orally and in writing.
Comprehension	Ability to understand the meaning of what is read or heard.

This means that competences must be considered in every lesson. This is done by sequencing instruction based on the competences from the spoken to the written word. The first stage is that the learners should be aware of the sound whose letter they will learn, e.g. /m/. This involves a phonemic awareness exercise. Then the letter is introduced 'm, M'; learners connect the letter to the sound, a phonics exercise. Learners connect the letter (e.g. consonant) to vowels to form syllables. They practice reading these to gain fluency. Syllables may also be combined to form simple words. Learners also practice these for fluency. Eventually, learners can read a sentence formed from already known (decodable words) and new ones they can decode as part of the vocabulary exercise. Subsequent stages deal with reading and comprehending short texts, as well as writing the letter and sentences. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (2014, pp. 6-7) provided a sample pre-scripted lesson teachers were expected to use daily when teaching reading to Zambian learners. The six competences outlined were phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, writing, and comprehension. This is shown in Figure 9.1.

*Figure 9.1 Pre-Scripted Literacy Lesson of Zambia from the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (2014)*

Term _____	Lesson No. _____
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Objective: Teach the letter sound</li> <li>2. Learning outcomes:               <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Listen to the teacher read fluently</li> <li>b. Make the letter sound for ____.</li> <li>c. Write the letter ____.</li> <li>d. Read decodable (syllables, words, sentences, stories)</li> <li>e. Answer questions about the story read to them by the teacher</li> </ol> </li> <li>3. Teaching and Learning Aids: examples, chalkboard, flashcards, learners' book, objects used as examples of vocabulary words.</li> <li>4. Introduction (5 minutes): Teach pre-reading activities (may refer to page number in learner's book). Teacher reads a story aloud to the learners and asks a few questions orally.</li> <li>5. Development               <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Phonemic Awareness (5 minutes): Teacher introduces the sound (phoneme) of the day. Teacher demonstrates one or more phonemic awareness activities, depending on their level, and learners practice:                   <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>i. Making letter sounds – emphasising beginning and other sounds</li> <li>ii. Identifying the odd one out (odd word, odd sound in a group of words)</li> <li>iii. Blending sounds</li> <li>iv. Substituting sounds</li> </ol> </li> </ol> </li> </ol>	

- b. Phonics (20 minutes)
  - i. Revisions: Teacher revises all the vowels, the sound from the previous day, and if applicable, the syllables from the previous lesson. Learners practice activities, e.g. identifying words or pictures beginning with a particular sound, teacher points to syllables at random and learners sound them out.
  - ii. The Sound of the Day: Teacher writes the new letter introduced earlier in the phonemic awareness activity, both in lower and upper case.
    - 1. When teaching vowels, teacher introduces both short and long vowels
    - 2. Teacher asks learners to give examples of words that begin with the sound of the day or words that contain the sound or ask how many times learners hear a sound in the word.
    - 3. Teacher introduces consonant sounds as syllables, e.g. 'ma'
    - 4. After sounding the syllable /ma/, hide the vowel /a/ and let learners sound /m/
    - 5. Teacher points to the letter on the chalkboard and says the sound. Learners repeat the sound.
    - 6. Teacher asks learners to blend the consonant with each of the vowels.
- c. Fluency (8 minutes): Teacher writes the syllables on the board in random order, and learners practice decoding them (e.g. mi, me, mo, ma, mu) Learners practice blending the syllables into words or nonsense words (e.g. mama, memu, momo). Some of the activities can be done in pairs or groups.
  - i. Decodable reading (syllables, words, nonsense words, short sentences). Teacher asks learners to read what is written in their learners books by sounding.
- d. Vocabulary (5 minutes): Teacher and learners revise some of the words previously learnt. For instance, teacher writes a number of words in random order or using flashcards or teacher dictates words for learners to write and pronounce.
- e. Writing (8 minutes)
  - i. Handwriting: Teacher demonstrates on the chalkboard how to correctly form the letter, learners practise writing the letter of the day.
  - ii. Independent writing: Learners write syllables and words, e.g. those dictated by the teacher, draw and label pictures beginning with the sound, fill in blanks in words with missing sounds or syllables, or in later stages write sentences or paragraphs.
- f. Comprehension
  - i. Listening comprehension (5 minutes): Teacher reads a story to the learners and asks questions during and after reading.
  - ii. Reading comprehension: Learners can do this in term 2/3 when their reading has improved.
- 6. Conclusion (4 minutes) Learners practice what they have learnt.
- 7. Evaluation: Return to the objective and ask learners questions or ask them to demonstrate the objective.



*Refresh student teachers' minds on how the above skills are taught in the lower primary school.*

The National Literacy Framework recognises the role played by teachers in delivering effective literacy instruction. As such, teachers, educators, and teacher training institutions are expected to prepare teachers with knowledge, skills, and values to teach literacy in early childhood and education and lower primary schools. While this is crucially important, the framework says that school-based continuous professional development should strengthen teacher preparation.

### 9.6.1 Strategy towards language policy

The Zambia Education Curriculum Framework, 2013 details the language of instruction policy (Table 9.5)

*Table 9.5 Language of instruction per grade and learning areas*

Grades	Learning area	Time allocation per week
Grade 1	All learning areas	Local Languages
Grade 2	All learning areas Content subjects and literacy Oral Literacy	Local Languages Local Languages English
Grade 3	Content subjects and literacy English language and literacy	Local Languages English
Grade 4	Content subjects and literacy English language and literacy	Local Languages English
Grades 5–7	Content subjects English Zambian languages	English English Local Languages

### Activity 4

**Learning outcomes: 3 & 6**



*Teacher educator's note: Emphasise key information in the text.*

1. Have a whole group discussion on the National Literacy Framework and the merits and demerits of the Zambian language in education policy.
2. Then ask student teachers:
  - What are the implications of the merits and demerits for your future classroom?



Thus, the languages of instruction from grades 1 to 4 are the seven regional Zambian languages, while English is the medium of instruction from grades 5 to 7. The National Literacy Framework also indicates the learning expectations per grade level. In this regard, the policy expects learners to exhibit the following competences per grade level by the end of primary education.

*Table 9.6 Learning competences by grade level*

Level	Learning area
Pre	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Listen to stories which are told or read by teachers</li> <li>• Communicate in speech in different situations</li> <li>• Perform different oral activities (e.g. poems, storytelling, rhyming)</li> </ul>
Grade 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Show skills of reading initial sounds (e.g. letters, syllables, and words)</li> <li>• Demonstrate basic skills in reaching and uniting common words and simple sentences</li> </ul>
Grade 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Demonstrate basic skills in reading and writing simple and compound sentences</li> <li>• Show understanding of short written texts</li> </ul>
Grade 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Demonstrate basic skills in reading and writing short paragraphs</li> <li>• Write a script and cursive forms</li> <li>• Write short stories/passages</li> <li>• Comprehend a short text</li> </ul>
Grade 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Describe various activities, objects, places, actions, and simple processes</li> <li>• Read and comprehend short texts based on different cross cutting themes</li> </ul>
Grade 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Demonstrate skills and knowledge to express feelings, thoughts, experiences, and convictions clearly and effectively in speech and writing at this level</li> </ul>
Grade 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Demonstrate skills and knowledge to retell a read story</li> <li>• Demonstrate skills and knowledge to punctuate simple sentences and short paragraphs</li> <li>• Demonstrate ability to read a variety of texts with comprehension</li> </ul>
Grade 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Demonstrate high level skills, knowledge, and values in a Zambian language to express feelings, thoughts, experiences, and convictions clearly and effectively in speech and writing</li> <li>• Demonstrate high level skills, knowledge, and values by integrating life skills in academic and challenges in life</li> </ul>



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*Teacher educator's note: Help student teachers think critically about the text.*

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1. Ask student teachers to reflect on the statement: *Most studies in Zambia have shown that learners do not achieve the expected competences per each grade level.*
  2. Then ask student teachers:
    - Why do most learners in Zambia fail to achieve the expected competences per grade level?
    - What can teachers do to make most learners achieve the expected competences?
- 

## 9.7

# Functions of the syllabus, schemes of work, weekly forecasts, lesson plans, and records of work

This section discusses the meaning and function of the syllabus, scheme of work, weekly forecast, lesson plan, and record of work as documents used in the teaching process.

### 9.7.1 Syllabus

The word 'syllabus' has been defined differently by different scholars. Okai (2010) described the term syllabus as an outline or list of topics that learners are supposed to study in a given year or specified period of learning. Allen (2014) asserts that syllabus refers to 'the content or subject matter of an individual subject'. A syllabus is, therefore, a brief outline of topics or aspects of the curriculum that list topics to be taught in each course or program. These outlines guide teachers on the extent of work to be covered in the given classes. Therefore, a syllabus defines the expectations and responsibilities of the subject matter it outlines. It is meant to guide teachers and learners on the course schedule, pedagogy, and content. However, the term syllabus can only be discussed meaningfully in terms of content consideration in the curriculum. A syllabus is part of the curriculum and not the curriculum itself.

The following are the functions of the syllabus:

1. Guide the subject teacher as well as the learner and give a sense of what the course will be like.
2. Helps learners understand the subject in detail and gives a guiding reference of why it is part of their course.
3. Helps learners anticipate expectations as well as consequences, in case of failing the course or subject.

4. Useful as a resource to study on their own and at their own convenient time. This means that the learner can be far ahead of the explanations made by the teacher.
5. Explains how the course relates to primary concepts and principles. Clarifies how and why the course is organised in the sequence.
6. Informs teachers and learners of the course's structure, goals, and learning outcomes. Helps learners to have a clear idea of the content and knowledge they will gain.
7. Describes the course's goals, structures, and assignments, as well as exams.
8. Helps teachers prepare and organise the course.

## Activity 6

## Learning outcome: 4




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*Teacher educator's note: Provide an opportunity for student teachers to think about their future classroom.*

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1. Divide student teachers into groups of three to four.
  2. Ask student teachers to analyse the primary school Zambian languages syllabus and identify the elements of a syllabus discussed in this section. Some suggestions are:
    - a. Learning outcomes  
*Sample Response: Learning outcomes outline what learners are expected to learn from the lesson*
    - b. Content  
*Sample Response: Content refers to the subject or main skill being taught.*
    - c. Structure of content by grade from simple to complex  
*Sample Response: The structure of the content helps teachers to understand what learners should know before they are taught more complex skills.*
    - d. Methodology of teaching  
*Sample Response: Methodology of teaching helps a teacher to decide what methods are helpful in teaching the content.*
  3. When student teachers are finished, engage student teachers in a discussion of how they should use the syllabus to design their lessons.
- 

### 9.7.2 Schemes of work

There are various definitions of the term scheme of work. Okai (2010) explains that a scheme of work is 'a breakdown of the syllabus into lessons to be taught in a term, month, or week'. He adds that 'a scheme of work is the starting point of the implementation process of the curriculum and syllabus whereby each subject teacher attempts to break down the broad concepts into achievable and realisable topics to be covered in each lesson in the [term or] week with relevant activities therein'. It can therefore be referred to as a detailed, logical, and sequential plan that interprets the syllabus into units that can be used in teaching and learning. It interprets and translates the syllabus into a logical sequence of topics to be taught. Geoffrey (2009) says a scheme of work defines the structure and

content of an academic course and that it splits an often-multi-year curriculum into deliverable units of work, each of a far shorter weeks' duration. A scheme of work is the first document that the teacher plans and prepares. Farrant (1991) elaborated that a scheme of work is a guideline that defines the structure and content of an academic course that maps out clearly how resources and class activities will be used to ensure that the learning aims, and objectives of the course are met successfully.

In language teaching, schemes of work in Zambia are usually presented in the form of language skills covered each week: reading, writing, speaking, listening, summary, and language structure. Outcomes are extracted from the syllabus for each skill and stated for each week in an appropriate sequence. Teaching resources—reference material, learners' books, and audio-visual aids—are also suggested. There might even be suggestions for the techniques or methods. All the teachers teach the same stream, so they can also have the same assessment at the end of the term.

In terms of its functions, the scheme of work performs the following roles:

1. Helps teachers to plan and sequence their lessons in advance. This makes it possible for teachers to ensure all course content is taught before the school year ends.
2. Ensures that syllabus aims are adequately covered. This helps learners acquire the necessary knowledge, skills, and values.
3. Gives time to the teacher to arrange and assemble resources needed for particular lessons. The teacher ensures that all necessary tools are made available before the lesson.
4. Guides the teacher when writing lesson plans. The course outcomes are clearly outlined for each topic.
5. Checks the pace of the teaching. The teacher is guided by the schemes and takes note of the progression during the term.
6. Helps during transitioning. When a teacher is transferred or sick, the incoming teacher can easily take over, avoiding repetition or omission. This ensures continuity in the learning process.
7. Helps check if content has been covered when writing records of work.
8. Aids the effective supervision of the teacher's ability to cover the required topic or units of instruction.
9. Help assessment uniformity when there is more than one class per grade. Teachers must cover the same content.

The teacher can use the scheme of work to design a lesson plan because all the necessary information required for lesson planning is contained in it.



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*Have real schemes of work and share copies with learner so that they can see what you are talking about. This is important to connect theory to the object of discussion. Then, you can inform them that they will learn how to develop one later.*

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### 9.7.3 Weekly forecast

A weekly forecast is a summarised scheme or plan of work. It is obtained from the prepared schemes of work and presented in a weekly unit. It is a detailed plan of teachable units, competences, and references for each week. The breakdown of a topic derived from the schemes of work into subtopics helps the teacher systematically teach a topic. The teacher prepares a forecast at the beginning of the week. In language teaching, what is mentioned for schemes of work also applies here. A weekly forecast's roles include:

1. Helps teachers to plan and sequence their lessons in advance.
2. Helps to make sure that the syllabus aims, and outcomes are adequately covered.
3. Gives time to the teacher to arrange and assemble resources needed for particular lessons.
4. Guides the teacher when writing lesson plans. It also checks the pace of the teaching.
5. Helps transitions when the teacher is transferred or sick. The incoming teacher will quickly take over from where they ended. This helps to avoid repetition or omission of the content. It ensures good continuity in the learning process.
6. Helps keep records of what is taught.
7. Helps teachers to consider and make the most of the resources at their disposal.
8. Aids effective supervision of a teacher's ability to cover the required topic or units of instruction.



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*Have a weekly forecast and share copies with learner so that they can see what you are talking about. This is important to connect theory to the object of discussion. Then, you can inform them that they will learn how to develop one later.*

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### 9.7.4 Lesson plan

We have provided several peer teaching lessons in chapters in this module, especially the language content ones. Those are illustrations of lesson planning.

A lesson plan is one of the most important documents for a teacher. It is developed daily by an individual teacher for each topic taught that day. A lesson plan is a step-by-step guide that structures the teaching and learning process. It includes objectives, teaching and learning activities, and learner assessments. A lesson plan is a detailed account of what the teacher is supposed to teach and how to teach in a particular teaching period. Musingafi et al. (2015) described a lesson plan as planned content that a teacher will communicate to the learners within a specific lesson. It can also be described as a teacher's roadmap of what the learners need to learn and how the teacher intends to effectively teach the content. It indicates what the teacher plans to teach and how it will be taught. A lesson plan, therefore, guides the implementation of the lesson. It is meant to guide the teacher on how the lesson goals and objectives can be attained in the available time.

According to Okai (2010), the roles of the lesson plan are to:

1. Guide the teacher in the procedure to use when teaching. This makes teaching systematic and well-organised.
2. Help the teacher to save time as the complete teaching process is conducted according to plan. This enables the teacher to stick to a plan, saving time.
3. Relate the objectives, content, and activities, thereby guiding in executing the teaching process effectively. The teacher, in this case, will have a smooth flow of ideas and link the concepts accurately.
4. Help the teacher select and apply the correct materials and methods, resulting in smooth and confident teaching. During lesson planning, the teacher can select appropriate materials and pedagogy, befitting the topic at hand.
5. Help a substitute teacher to teach without any challenges, so there is continuity in the learning process. When a class is taken over by a different teacher in case of eventualities, the lesson plan makes it easy for the substitute teacher to follow the laid down steps and deliver accordingly to the learners.
6. Help the teacher to deliver the right content to the learners. Taking time to prepare leads to proper delivery.
7. Help the teacher make a unified connection of ideas from the introduction to the conclusion, and to connect each lesson to the ones before. Linkages in the lessons are easily done.

The lesson plan is derived from the weekly forecast and from the schemes of work. It outlines why teachers need to plan before teaching.



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*Have a real lesson plan and share copies with learner so that they can see what you are talking about. This is important to connect theory to the object of discussion. Ask some questions to see if student teachers can identify some of the points raised in the discussion as reflected on the lesson plan. Then, you can inform them that they will learn how to develop one later.*

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### **9.7.5 Records of work**

A record of work is a document detailing the work covered by the teacher in a particular week. Entries are made by the individual teacher after every lesson. The record of work is broken down into weekly records of what was taught in a particular week. Typically, the records of work are a separate document and filed in a teacher's file. However, it is common in Zambian primary schools for records of work to appear as a column attached to the scheme of work or weekly forecast.

Style aside, the purpose of the records of work is to generate a record of content covered by the teacher and referenced against the scheme of work. It highlights issues such as content, methods, teaching resources, performance, progress, and challenges that learners encounter. It is helpful for planning and providing remedial work. Other roles of records of work include:

1. Accountability and transparency of work. The teacher can explain what transpired in the teaching and learning process.
2. Continuity of facilitation of learning for a particular class. It helps the new teacher trace where to start teaching a class and how to overcome common challenges.
3. Evaluation of the schemes of work after a period of time. The records of work evaluate the planned topics, identifying successes and failures of the topic, pedagogy used, and teaching and learning aids.
4. Uniformity in content coverage. The teachers in a particular stream are helped to cover specific content at the same period of time.
5. Helps immediate supervisors monitor a class's progress in teaching and learning. The immediate supervisor guides individual teachers in the record of work's comments.
6. Helps identify areas where learners need additional help to learn.



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*Have real records of work and share copies with student teachers so that they can see what you are talking about. This is important to connect theory to the object of discussion. Ask some questions to see if student teachers can identify some of the points raised in the discussion as reflected on the lesson plan. Then, you can inform them that they will learn how to develop one later.*

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Records of work are helpful in self-assessment as a teacher. Teachers should review records of work so that they can reflect and learn from their prior experiences. Records of work function as a basis for remedial teaching. Teachers in language classes use the lesson evaluation sections to compile their work records. Each lesson taught must be evaluated against the set outcomes to see if they have been achieved. From this, teachers can plan remedial lessons to improve learners' understanding of the content or ease with a skill. Thus, a record of work is a learning tool for teachers to reflect on his/her practice and to plan for the future.

## 9.8

# Preparation of schemes of work, weekly forecasts, lesson plans, and records of work

The previous section covered the meaning and functions of the syllabus, schemes of work, weekly forecasts, lesson plans, and records of work. This section presents samples of those documents. Together, this ensures student teachers have knowledge of and practical skills to develop teaching documents.

### 9.8.1 Schemes of work

The scheme of work is vital as it provides some sequence and orderliness on how teaching is supposed to be from simple to more complex concepts. A scheme of work outlines what will be covered and in which lessons. It weighs how much time should be allocated to particular lessons and provides guidance on the best teaching methods. Schemes of work will have several components:

1. Week beginning: The week of the term that a particular topic is taught.
2. Lesson: The specific lesson in the week when the topic or subtopic is taught.
3. Topic/subtopic: Specific areas identified for study in the syllabus or a subdivision of the main topic.
4. Specific outcome: The skills and activities a learner should acquire within a particular lesson. Outcomes are picked from the syllabus for each topic.
5. Teaching/Learning Experiences: Activities done by the learners and teacher for effective teaching and learning. Activities should be stated clearly using action verbs. These are the experiences, methods, and varied activities the class will engage in during the lesson.
6. Teaching and Learning Resources: These are instructional materials the teacher intends to use to make the lesson effective. They include human and material resources. The teacher should creatively select, develop, and assemble resources before the lesson, such as textbooks, newspaper cuttings, charts, and audio-visual materials.



7. References: Textbooks, reference materials, and documents used as content sources for specific topics. A variety of references should be used to enrich the content.
8. Remarks/Comments: These are comments that the teacher makes to show whether the set outcomes have been achieved. In some schemes of work, it is reflected as a record of work.

Some schemes of work may not have all the components outlined, while others may include additional parts. Figure 9.2 offers a sample scheme of work.

Figure 9.2 Sample scheme of work

<b>Ministry of Education Kankoso Primary School Schemes of Work, Grade 5 Term 1, 2022</b>					
Week	Component	Topic/Content	Learning Outcomes	References	Comments/ Remarks
1	Listening and speaking	5.1.1. Analysing a story	5.1.1.1. Name major and minor characters in the story	Zambia Primary School English syllabus, grades 2-7  Grade 5 pupils' book pp 1-6  Grade 5 teacher's guide pp 21-22	
	Reading	5.2.1. Intensive reading	5.2.1.1 Read a passage and answer multiple choice, surface, and inference questions.	Zambia Primary School English syllabus, grades 2-7  Grade 5 pupils' book  Grade 5 teacher's guide	
	Writing	5.3.1. Reports	5.3.1.1. Write reports on events in the local community.	Zambia Primary School English syllabus, grades 2-7  Grade 5 pupils' book  Grade 5 teacher's guide	




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*Teacher educator's note: Provide an opportunity for student teachers to think about their future classroom.*

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1. Provide the primary school English language syllabus for student teachers and ask them to develop a two weeks' schemes of work.
    - a. They may complete this activity in pairs or small groups, but the key is that each individual is participating.
    - b. This activity may require more than one class period to complete. You may also require that student teachers submit the document once for review and provide time for them to make revisions before a final submission.
    - c. It would be helpful for student teachers to share their schemes of work with peers so that they are able to see variation or get new ideas.
  2. Some ideas for closing questions after this activity has been completed are:
    - What are the purposes of schemes of work?
    - What was most challenging about creating two weeks' schemes of work?
    - How has this activity helped you to prepare for your own classroom?
- 

### 9.8.2 Weekly forecast

A weekly forecast is a document that guides a teacher in what content is supposed to be taught in a particular week. It has eight components:

1. Week: The number of weeks in a term when a particular topic is taught.
2. Lesson: Each week's specific lesson that covers a particular topic or subtopic.
3. Topic/subtopic: The specific areas identified for study in the syllabus or, for ease of study, a subdivision of the topic.
4. Specific outcome: The skills and activities a learner should acquire within a particular lesson. Teachers should match the outcome of each lesson to the syllabus.
5. Teaching/Learning Experiences: Activities done by the learners and teacher for effective instruction during and after the lesson.
6. Teaching and Learning Resources: Instructional materials the teacher intends to use to make the lesson effective. The teacher should creatively select, develop and assemble resources before the lesson, such as textbooks, newspaper cuttings, charts, or audio-visual materials.
7. References: Textbooks, reference materials, and documents used as content sources for specific topics. A variety of references will enrich the content.
8. Remarks/Records of work: Comments teachers make to show if outcomes have been achieved. It shows the learners' progress and, if required, what needs to be done.

Figure 9.3 offers a sample weekly forecast.

Figure 9.3 Sample weekly forecast

<b>Ministry of Education Kankoso Primary School Weekly Forecast, Grade 5 Term 1, 2022</b>							
Week	Lesson	Topic/ Content	Learning Outcomes	Strategy/ Activity	Teaching and learning aids	References	Record of Work
1	1	Analysing a story	Name major and minor characters in the story	Discussion Inquiry Role play	Textbooks	Primary English syllabus, grades 2-7  Grade 5 pupils' book  Grade 5 teacher's guide	
	2	Intensive reading	Read a passage and answer multiple choice, surface, and inference questions.	Discussion Inquiry	Textbooks	Zambia Primary School English syllabus, grades 2-7  Grade 5 pupils' book  Grade 5 teacher's guide	




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*Teacher educator's note: Provide an opportunity for student teachers to think about their future classroom.*

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1. Provide the primary school English language syllabus for student teachers and ask them to develop a weekly forecast.
    - a. They may complete this activity in pairs or small groups, but the key is that each individual is participating.
    - b. This activity may require more than one class period to complete. You may also require that student teachers submit the document once for review and provide time for them to make revisions before a final submission.
    - c. It would be helpful for student teachers to share their schemes of work with peers so that they are able to see variation or get new ideas.
  2. Some ideas for closing questions after this activity has been completed are:
    - What are the purposes of weekly forecasts?
    - What was most challenging about creating a weekly forecast?
    - How has this activity helped you to prepare for your own classroom?
- 

### 9.8.3 Lesson plan

A lesson is derived from the schemes or the weekly forecast. It is a specific step-by-step outline of the content to be taught and how it will be taught. The lesson plan will have data such as the school's name, teacher's name, date, topic, materials to be used, learning outcomes, and time allocated to the lesson. In terms of teaching procedure, the lesson plan has four parts:

1. **Introduction:** This is when the teacher presents the topic to the learners. The teacher must stimulate learners' imagination, interest, and enthusiasm during this stage. He/she may start by recapitulating the salient points of the previous lesson, if relevant, and help learners connect prior knowledge about the topic. Teachers may use a brainstorming activity or question-and-answer techniques. Teachers must explicitly mention the lesson's topic and what the lesson is all about.
2. **Lesson development:** This is where much of the teaching and learning occurs. The subject matter is divided into steps containing one main idea or concept. The teacher should indicate the concept clearly and how it will be taught. The teacher should also identify activities for the learners. This stage contains several activities. These activities should reflect an eclectic blend of the methodological approach and be communicative. This stage is also called the practice stage because learners are given opportunities to practice the language being learnt. This stage ends with an assessment, which is typically an individual assessment.
3. **Conclusion:** This consists of two parts—a cognitive closure and a social closure. In the cognitive closure, the teacher identifies the lesson's main points and establishes if the objectives have

been achieved. Finally, the teacher thanks learners for their participation and offers them guidance for further learning. This part is called the social closure.

4. Evaluation: This part of the lesson plan is labelled but is left blank to be completed after the lesson. The purpose of this section is to record what went well and what did not. This evaluation is used to decide if there is a need for remedial work.

Figure 9.4 offers a sample lesson plan.

## Teacher educator's note



*The sample lesson plan in Figure 9.4 has some different elements than other lesson plans presented in the modules. Inform student teachers that there may be lesson plan variations based on individual school expectations.*

Figure 9.4 Sample lesson plan

English Sample Lesson Plan		
Teacher's Name:	Date:	
School:	Duration:	
Subject:	No. of learners: Girls	Boys
<p><u>Lesson Description</u>: This is an intensive reading lesson where learners are supposed to read a passage and then answer questions based on the passage. The knowledge that the learners are supposed to get are backreferencing, inferring and knowledge of the text.</p> <p><u>Vocabulary</u>: appropriate to the context</p> <p><u>Techniques</u>: Discussion, inquiry</p> <p><u>Material(s)</u>: Grade 5 class readers</p> <p><u>Component</u>: Reading</p> <p><u>Topic</u>: Intensive Reading</p> <p><u>Specific Outcomes</u>: Learners to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Discuss and answer oral questions concerning the picture</li> <li>• Read the given passage</li> <li>• Explain some words used in the passage</li> <li>• Answer questions based on the passage</li> </ul>		

Introduction	Ask learners to look at the picture and try to explain what is happening. The learners should discuss the title of the story. The learners try to explain what they think the story will be about.
Lesson Development	<p>Step 1. Learners take turns to read paragraphs aloud and identify difficult and new words.</p> <p>Step 2. The teacher and learners try to explain the meaning of the identified new words as used in the context of the story. The teacher asks learners to use the new words in sentences. (This should go on through the story up to the end of the story).</p> <p>Step 3. The teacher asks learners oral questions based on the story.</p> <p>Step 4. The teacher tells learners to read the story silently and answer questions that follow based on the story. As the learners are answering questions, the teacher should go around marking the learners' books and providing feedback to the learners on various issues.</p>
Conclusion	The teacher and the learners go through the questions as a class. The teacher summarises the lesson by bringing out main points of the lesson. She later advises the learners to continue reading on their own to improve both reading and comprehension.
Evaluation Notes	<div></div> <div></div> <div></div> <div></div> <div></div> <div></div> <div></div> <div></div>




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*Teacher educator's note: Provide an opportunity for student teachers to think about their future classroom.*

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1. Provide the primary school English language syllabus for student teachers and ask them to develop a detailed lesson on how to teach reason to a grade 5 class.
    - a. They may complete this activity in pairs or small groups, but the key is that each individual is participating.
    - b. This activity may require more than one class period to complete. You may also require that student teachers submit the document once for review and provide time for them to make revisions before a final submission.
    - c. It would be helpful for student teachers to share their schemes of work with peers so that they are able to see variation or get new ideas.
  2. After this activity has been completed ask student teachers to share their response to these questions:
    - Why do teachers develop detailed lesson plans?
    - How has this activity helped you to prepare for your own classroom?
- 

#### **9.8.4 Records of work**

The record of work is a document with a record of the work covered at the end of every lesson. A record of work has different components, which may vary slightly:

- Identifying elements: This may include the name of the school, learning area, grade level, and teacher name.
- Week: This section indicates the week and day when the lesson took place.
- Work covered: Here, the topic covered is indicated.
- Remarks/reflection: The teacher will write an evaluation of the lesson in terms of the positives, negatives, and action points.
- Signature: The teacher who taught the lesson should sign his/her name or initials. This helps with accountability and transparency.

Figure 9.5 offers a sample record of work.



Figure 9.5 Sample record of work

Week	Date	Topic	Content Covered	Remarks	Sign/Initials
3	21/01/21	Intensive reading	Reading comprehension	Lesson was covered as planned. Most learners were able to answer questions orally. However, when it came to the class exercise, some learners failed to make correct inferences. The learners were guided and then given extra work.	P.H. Munguccu

## Activity 10

## Learning outcome: 6



*Teacher educator's note: Provide an opportunity for student teachers to think about their future classroom.*

1. Have student teachers complete this activity independently.
2. Here is the scenario:  

‘Assuming that student teachers have implemented the teaching that they schemed in activity 6, they should write a record of work based on work covered and how the two weeks assumably worked out.’
3. Ensure that all the relevant details are reflected in the record of work and that the student teachers follow the right format.

## Chapter summary

This chapter discusses ideas of planning and preparing for teaching by looking closely at related documents informing the work of a teacher. The Zambia Educational Curriculum Framework, National Literacy Framework, syllabi, schemes of work, weekly forecasts, lesson plans, and records of work are discussed. These documents may not be the same in all schools or institutions of learning. However, the included samples show what should be contained in the documents. This marks the end of Language Module III and the end of all language modules.

## Assessment of learning



1. Briefly explain each document: curriculum, syllabus, scheme of work, weekly forecast, record of work, and lesson.
2. Design a graphic organiser to show the main components of a lesson plan.
3. Design a sample weekly forecast for English language in any grade of your choice.
4. What is the difference between a scheme of work and a lesson plan?
5. What should a teacher look out for when evaluating a lesson?
6. List and explain the roles of the syllabus.
7. Briefly explain what the Zambian Education Curriculum Framework is.
8. Briefly explain the ideas of planning to teach versus preparing to teach.
9. State the main components of a lesson plan.
10. What does the term 'career pathways' mean?
11. Explain what is meant by 'academic career pathway' versus 'vocational career pathway'.
12. Explain what these communicative, interactive, and participatory techniques mean: role play, field trips, and pace grouping.
13. Explain how continuous assessment and focus on results make the OBE curriculum unique.

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## Module Summary

Congratulations! You have come to the end of Language Module III, the final language module in the series. This module completes the foundational knowledge that student teachers need to teach language effectively in the early grade reading classroom. This was done by

1. focusing on the aspects of teaching the grammar of learners' first or familiar language.
2. revisiting learner-centred pedagogy and its benefits.
3. preparing you to teach language within policies and curriculum materials specific to Zambia.

Through [chapter 1](#) you learnt the principles that should guide first language teaching, learning, and assessment. You were reminded to make use of learners' background knowledge, and you learnt that lessons should teach learners how their languages work as well as the terms used to describe it (metalinguage). In this chapter, you learnt that language learning activities should be socially structured so that learners can learn, create, and produce language together. Finally, you explored that language should not be taught in isolation. Rather, you should contextualise language so that learners can apply lessons in relevant ways both inside and outside the classroom.

[Chapters 2 and 3](#) taught you several skills related to nominal parts of speech (e.g., nouns, pronouns, adjectives, etc.) and verbal parts of speech (e.g., verbs, adverbs, prepositions) in Zambian languages and in English. Chapter 3 also introduce ideophones, which are not present in English, and interjections. In these chapters, you demonstrated your ability to identify and use each part of speech correctly. You also learnt how these parts of speech are taught and assessed. Importantly, you explored the similarities and differences between Zambian languages and English. Now, you can explicitly make these differences known to learners transitioning from a Zambian language to English.

In [chapter 4](#), you learnt about Zambian and English syntax—how all the nominal and verbal parts of speech fit together into phrases, clauses, and sentences. You demonstrated your ability to identify and use syntax correctly. You were able to notice the similarities and differences in syntax between Zambian languages and English. Finally, you learnt how syntax can be taught and assessed.

[Chapter 5](#) taught you the aspects of using English to express concepts from Zambian languages. Expressing concepts refers to the ways in which a language conveys contrast, purpose, result, reason, condition, and comparison through language. You learnt that these words and phrases are called 'cohesive ties' because they function as a tool to achieve cohesiveness in oral and written language. You participated in activities that demonstrated how to teach and assess cohesive ties.

In [Chapter 6](#), you explored direct and indirect speech—another important aspect of grammar was explored for both Zambian languages and English. You learnt that direct speech includes the exact words that a speaker says and that when direct speech is written, it has a certain structure and characteristics (e.g., speech tag, quotation marks). Indirect speech reports on what someone else says without the use of quotation marks. In addition to learning the difference between direct and indirect speech, you explored how to write both forms of speech, and how to turn one into the other. The activities in the chapter helped you to understand how direct and indirect speech are taught and assessed.

[Chapter 7](#) focused on real translation, or the practise of transferring meaning from written text in one language to another written text in another language. You learnt how real translation is different from interpretation. You also learnt how real translation is taught and applied in the classroom, including eleven techniques for teaching real translation.

In [chapter 8](#), you built on your knowledge of learner-centred pedagogy and teaching. Learner-centred pedagogy is a best practise for all teachers because it helps teachers design instruction that meets the needs of all learners. This chapter emphasised the strengths of learner-centred pedagogy and addressed related misconceptions. You were provided an opportunity in this chapter to practise all that you have learnt about language teaching methods and skills by designing and delivering a learner-centred language lesson.

Finally, in [chapter 9](#), you learnt about the Zambian policy documents and curriculum materials that guide teaching and learning in the primary grades. This included the Zambian Education Curriculum Framework along with various syllabi, schemes of work, weekly forecasts, lesson plans, and records of work. Having the awareness of these documents and materials, what they contain, and how they are used, better prepares teachers for the classroom.

Truly, you have learnt a great deal in this module about teaching the grammar of a first language, the importance of learner-centred pedagogy, and the documents and curriculum materials that all Zambian teachers must know and use expertly. Your lecturers are honoured to have supported you throughout your journey and preparation to become a teacher and thank you again for choosing the virtuous profession of being a teacher.



# Glossary

## Adjective

A word that describes nouns or pronouns.

## Adverb

A word that modifies verbs, nouns, and other adverbs.

## Agglutinative

A language in which words are made up of a linear sequence of separate morphemes that express different meanings and grammatical functions.

Example: *a-za-bwera* 'he will come' [Nynaja]

## Article

A word used before a noun to show if its identity is known to the reader.

## Aspect

A verb category that denotes time-related characteristics, such as the repetition, duration, or completion of an action.

## Augment

The first vowel on a noun class prefix in some Bantu languages. A copy of the vowel in the prefix. Also known as an initial vowel or pre-prefix. Example: *umu*

## Auxiliary verb

A verb that forms the tenses, moods, and voices of lexical (main) verbs. Also known as a helping verb.

Example: *He was working.*

## Clause

A unit of grammar that contains a verb and a subject.

## Command

A sentence used when telling someone to do something.

## Comparison

An examination of two or more items to establish their similarities and differences.

## Concept

An abstract or generic idea.

## Concord

Grammatical agreement in terms of number (singular or plural) and person (first, second, or third) between words, such as between nouns and adjectives

## Condition

A set of words used to express what could or could not happen because of something else.

Example: *if...then; will...unless*

## Conjunction

A word used to connect clauses or sentences or to coordinate words in the same clause.

Example: 'and', 'but', 'if'

## Constructivism

The view that knowledge is constructed by learners through an active mental process of development and that learners are builders and creators of meaning and knowledge.

## Contrast

Expresses a difference between things or something unexpected or surprising.

## Curriculum

A document that prescribes a programme of study for learners in institutions of learning. Includes all the content subjects and related activities.

## Demonstrative

A type of pronoun that point to things or refer to time without naming it

## Descriptive teaching

An approach to teaching a language as it is used by people without value judgements.

### Diachronic description

Changes in language over time. Diachronic analysis can focus on the general evolution of all languages or the evolution of a particular language or dialect.

### Direct speech

The writing or reporting of the actual words uttered by a person or people. The words used by the speaker appear between quotation marks.

Example: 'I am going', she said.

### Exclamation

A short utterance used to express surprise or strong emotions about something.

### Finite verb phrase

A verb form that shows agreement with a subject and marked for tense.

### First language teaching

Teaching of a language that was acquired first by a learner or group of learners. Also called the mother tongue.

### Foreign language teaching

Teaching of a language not commonly spoken in the speaker's country.

### Formal register

The style of language use that employs complete sentences and uses technical or academic vocabulary. It makes use of fewer contractions and opts for more complete words.

### Grammar

Rules that govern how words combine to form sentences, including the levels of morphology and syntax.

### Grammatical competence

The internalised knowledge of the grammar of a language by a speaker.

### Ideophone

A word that expresses vividly sensory experiences and ideas.

Example: *ndumbwi* 'sound of an object falling into water'.

### Indirect speech

Reporting the content of what a person says without reproducing the actual words used. This does not require the use of quotation marks. Also known as reported speech. Example: Thandi said that she was coming.

### Infinite verb phrase

A verb phrase that does not show a definite time (limitless) or agreement with a noun. Example: 'to work'

### Informal register

A speech or writing style that is marked by a casual, familiar tone, and makes use of colloquial language. Often more direct than formal style. Relies heavily on contractions, abbreviations, short sentences, and ellipses.

### Interjection

A word, phrase, or sentence that expresses emotion, meaning, or feeling. Includes volitive, emotive, and cognitive interjections.

### Interpretation

The transfer of information and ideas from a source language to a target language through spoken word or sign.

### Interrogative word

A word used for forming questions. In English, these are the so-called 'WH words'—what, where, why, who, when, and how.

### Learner-centred pedagogy

A teacher-created learning environment that focus on the learner. It allows learners to interact actively with learning materials and to take ownership of the learning experience.

### Lesson plan

A plan of how a particular lesson is supposed to be taught on a particular day.

### Locative

A preposition form expressing the position of things in relation to each other.

### Main verb

The important verb in the sentence, typically showing the subject's action or state of being. Also referred to as a lexical or principal verb.

### Modality

The manner or mode in which something exists or is done. It is a speaker's or a writer's attitude towards the world. A speaker or writer can use words to express certainty, possibility, willingness, obligation, necessity, and ability.

### Morphology

The study of word formation.



**Nominal group**

A group of words associated with a noun.

**Nominal part of speech**

A word class that performs different roles in a noun phrase within a sentence.

**Noun**

A naming word that refers to a place, thing, person, or idea.

**Noun phrase**

A word or a group of words that have a noun or pronoun as the head and perform the functions of a noun in a sentence.

**Numeral**

A words or phrase that quantify a noun or pronoun.

**Object**

A part of a sentence that receives the action of the verb.

**Pedagogical grammar**

Grammar designed to be used in language teaching.

**Phrase**

Two or more words that serve a role in a sentence.

**Pragmatic competence**

The ability to use language effectively in a contextually appropriate fashion. It is the cognition of conditions and style of suitable use of language in compliance with different aims.

**Prefix**

An affix that comes before a word to express various grammatical or semantic meanings, such as the number, person, negation, or tense.

**Preposition**

A word that indicates the position or direction of things in a sentence.

**Prescriptive teaching of language**

Teaching of a language where learners are required to follow the rules of what is considered to be the 'best way' of using a language. It does not usually use a synchronic study of how a language is actually used.

**Pronoun**

A word used in the place of a noun to avoid repetition.

**Purpose**

Shows why something is happening.

**Question**

A sentence that requires or appears to require an answer.

**Quote**

To repeat the exact words someone said or to recite the exact words written in a book. A way to cite something as a form of proof.

**Reason**

Describes why something happens due to another action.

**Received pronunciation**

The dialect used as a standard for English in the United Kingdom. The language used in academic institutions.

**Record of work**

A record of the content covered in lessons over a period of time.

**Reported speech**

Another name for indirect speech.

**Result**

An action that happens because of another, earlier action. It can also be a consequence or outcome of something.

**Scheme of work**

A document that guides a teacher in what content is supposed to be taught in a specific period, like a term.

**Second language teaching**

The formal teaching of either a language acquired after the first language or a foreign language used as an official language in a country, such as English in Zambia.

**Sentence**

A group of words that can stand independently to express a complete thought.

**Sociocultural theory**

A theory that supports the role social interaction plays in a learner's cognitive development.

**Source language**

Language to be interpreted or translated.

**Subject**

A word that refers to the noun or pronoun that performs an action.

**Syllabus**

A document that gives information about the aims, outcomes, or objects of a subject. May suggest method(s) of teaching it.

**Suffix**

An affix that comes at the end of a word to express grammatical or semantic meanings

**Synchronic description**

An account of a language's structure at present or at a specific moment in the past without considering its historical changes.

**Syntax**

The study of the formation of a sentence and the relationship of its component parts.

**Target Language**

The language into which a text is to be translated from another language.

**Teacher-centred pedagogy**

A learning environment that places the teacher as a centre of teaching and learning. Views the learner as a listener.

**Theoretical grammar**

The knowledge of a language itself and how people acquire this knowledge.

**Transitivity**

An expression in which the verb is followed by a direct object. The action of the verb affects an object.  
Example: John kicked a ball.

**Translanguaging**

A situation whereby the learners' home language is employed to enhance learning in the classroom. It is a language for the communicative purpose of receiving an input in one language and giving an output in another language.

**Translation**

The process of transferring a written text from a source language to target language

**Translation competence**

The capacities, skills, knowledge, and attitudes that professional translators possess. Denotes translation as an expert activity.

**Tense**

The time indicated by the verb to the time of speaking is past, present, and future,  
Example: He worked. (Past time from now)

**Verb**

A word that denotes an action or state of being.  
Example: 'is' or 'buy'

**Weekly forecast**

A document that guides a teacher in what content is supposed to be taught in a week in a subject.

**Zambian Education Curriculum Framework**

A document that guides and regulates all levels of learning institutions that provide formal education in Zambia. Often abbreviated 'ZECF'.

**Zone of proximal development**

A level of learners' development that can only be seen when they collaborate with an adult or a more skilful person.



