

The Role of Discourse in the Promotion of the Education of the Girl Child in Malawi: The Case of Selected Secondary Schools in Zomba.

Lydia Lumbani Kishindo
Bachelor of Education
(University of Malawi)

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Chancellor College

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DECLARATION

I certify that the work contained in this thesis is my own and has never been presented for any award anywhere before. Acknowledgements have been given wherever other people's work has been used.

Signed: _____

Lydia Lumbani Kishindo

Date: _____

CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

The undersigned certify that they have read and recommend to the Postgraduate Studies and Research Committee and the Senate for acceptance of this thesis entitled: THE ROLE OF DISCOURSE IN THE PROMOTION OF THE EDUCATION OF THE GIRL CHILD IN MALAWI: THE CASE OF SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN ZOMBA submitted by LYDIA LUMBANI KISHINDO in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics.

Internal Examiner: _____

Ms. E. Shame-Kalilombe

Date: _____

Internal assessor: _____

Mr. W. Mkochi

Date: _____

Main supervisor: _____

Associate Professor E. Kayambazinthu

Date: _____

Head of Department: _____

Professor Olufemi Abodunrin

Date: _____

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to the two most important men in my life. Professor Paul Aidan Kazombwe Kishindo and Justus Asante Baba Kishindo. It is all because of you that I have managed to get through this difficult task.

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ABSTRACT

This study examines how classroom discourse symbolically positions girls in the teaching and learning process and how this may potentially in turn lead to higher achievement by girls in education. Particularly, the study investigates teacher, textbook and student discourse used for daily interaction in the classroom.

Data was collected from one All Girls, one All Boys and two Co-education Secondary Schools in Zomba, through classroom observations. A total of thirteen lessons were observed, recorded and transcribed. Data was also collected from the books that were used in the preparation and teaching of the lessons. The data was qualitatively and quantitatively analysed. The Critical Discourse Analysis, Symbolic Interactionism and Labelling Theories were used to make sense of the data.

It was revealed that the more recent publications have tried to balance the gender issue in the education system, by using discourse that present boys and girls as being at par. The older publications feature more male characters, with few or no female characters. Most teachers tried as much as possible not to treat boys and girls differently through their discourse strategies. On students discourse, it was revealed that there was no hostility between the two sexes or between members of the same sex. This means that the use of discourse that treat girls and boys as being at par and the lack of hostility between the boys and girls may help the girls to feel free to be part of the teaching and learning process, which in turn leads to higher achievement in education by the girls. This is so because classroom discourse symbolically positions boys and girls in the education setting and the society as a whole which in turn affects their educational achievement.

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ABBREVIATIONS USED

GAC:	Gender Appropriate Curriculum
GABLE (SMC):	Girls’ Attainment in Basic Literacy Education. Social Mobilisation Campaign.
FAWEMA:	Forum for African Women Educationists - Malawi Chapter
CDA:	Critical Discourse Analysis
I-R-E:	teacher Initiation, student Response and teacher Evaluation
ESL:	English as a Second Language
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
AG:	All Girls Secondary School
AB:	All Boys Secondary School
GC:	Government Co-Education Secondary School
ST:	Structuring
EV:	Evaluation
RES:	Response
SOL:	Solicit
ESCOM:	Electricity Supply Cooperation of Malawi Ltd

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND GENERAL BACKGROUND

A lot of interaction takes place in the classroom between the teacher and his/her pupils and between the pupils themselves. Through this interaction, different discourses are used. This study has established that classroom discourse, if handled well, will have a positive effect on the pupils' achievement of educational goals. Particularly, inclusive classroom discourse motivates girls to participate in the teaching and learning process which in turn leads to higher achievement by girls in education.

The present study on the role of discourse in the promotion of the education of the girl child in Malawi analysed the classroom data to see if teachers treat girls differently from boys and how this treatment affects the girl child's achievement of educational goals. The analysis of the classroom discourse was guided by three theories namely, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), Symbolic Interactionism (SI) and Labelling.

Critical Discourse Analysis stipulates that access to discourse entails power and dominance. Thus, those people that have the right to access certain discourses and knowledge have power and dominate those who lack it, hence control them. Symbolic Interactionism states that the meaning of a thing for a person grows out of the ways in which other people act towards the person with regard to the thing. In other words, the meaning of a thing is not in the thing but in the actions and reactions of the people towards it. In this case, individuals constantly have a view or sense of themselves that is defined and affected by the actions and reactions of others towards them.

Labelling is closely related to the theory of symbolic interactionism. Labelling theory says that human beings have a tendency to live up to their labels, whether these labels are assented or self-inflicted. Thus people behave differently depending on the labels they have. For example, describing a pupil as intelligent after he/she solves a mathematical problem may cause him/her to live up to that label, may fight to maintain that label. Call him/her dull after failing a mathematical problem and s/he may live up to that label as well. These three theories form the

core of the study as they help to explain how classroom discourse symbolically positions the girls and boys in class and how these positions will affect their educational achievements.

1.1 General Background

Gender Appropriate Curriculum (GAC) (n.d.) observes that African societies including communities in Malawi, are predominantly patriarchal, in the home, workforce and the community. Women are mostly seen as responsible for reproduction – to nurture and support, while the men’s function is structured for production – to innovate and to manage things. The women are often described as weak in body, and mind, emotional, dependent, passive, uncompetitive, unconfident and therefore not fit to assume leadership roles (Kachiwanda 2004; Moore 2001; Romaine 1999). It is very important to note that some locations like Zomba, where this study was conducted are said to be matrilineal but are still patriarchal. This is because though the lineage is traced through the mothers, decisions are always made by the male members of the family.

It has also been observed that parents tend to favour their boy children over their girl children. When sending the children to school, most parents prefer boys to girls, because the former are believed to be “smarter, more competitive and give higher returns from their education” (GAC n.d.: 2). The boys are given priority as future bread winners, while the girls are kept at home to look after younger children, cook and clean and sometimes help the mother in farming or market trading (Leach 1998). In view of these attitudes towards girl child education, from 1993 to 1998 the Government of Malawi implemented a project which was designed to change people’s attitudes and behaviours to girls’ primary education. The project, called ‘Girls’ Attainment in Basic Literacy and Education (GABLE) Social Mobilisation National Campaign (SMC)’, was a five year project. During the five year project implementation phase, it was able to engage parents, teachers, children, initiation counsellors, religious leaders and others in dialogue and action to improve girls’ attendance, persistence and completion in primary schools. GABLE’s main purpose was to draw more girls into primary school and to keep them there until they completed the primary cycle (Robb & Kaunda 1998).

In 1992 the Malawi Institute of Education established a Gender Appropriate Curriculum Unit (GAC) in an effort to address the problem of gender differences in schools. The main aim of

GAC was to develop training and resource materials to sensitize school professionals to gender issues, which may be affecting the participation and performance of children in schooling programmes. GAC identifies a number of issues that may affect children's participation and performance in school. These include:

- Firstly community and family factors, which are beliefs such as those which relate to who needs and who is capable of certain kinds of schooling.
- Secondly, curricula and instructional materials, where the common gender biases are identified which appear in the curricular and instructional materials, most of which are so much part of the belief system that they go unnoticed.
- Thirdly, policies, school areas and equipment use, teacher-pupil interaction, which reveals some common gender biases, which if they become routine and frequent, may have a significant impact on learning.
- Finally, time management and sexuality.

Recently the government has been joined by Forum for African Women Educationist Malawi chapter (FAWEMA) in its effort to address gender inequities in education. FAWEMA was registered in 2001. Its vision is to attain gender parity in education by enabling girls and women to exploit their full potential to effectively contribute towards community and national development. Its mission is to mobilize expertise and resources in order to support and advance quality education of girls and women in Malawi with the goal of increasing enrolment, retention and performance of girls at all levels. One of the areas they have looked at so far is gender-sensitive teaching and learning approaches. According to Mughogho and Chamdimba (2005), girls' education cannot progress if teaching and learning processes remain insensitive to girls' needs in the classroom and which can be addressed if the school and home environment is gender responsive.

Malawi Institute of Education's Gender Appropriate Curriculum Unit (GAC) (1997) observes that enrolling girls in school is only the first step towards creating a population of educated women. Girls need to stay in school, complete the primary cycle, have access to secondary school and attend education. However, the school system, the curriculum as well as teachers' attitudes may prevent the girls from staying in school. It has been observed that even when boys

and girls sit in the same classrooms they are treated differently, the boys are called on more often, are allowed to speak out more and are given more praise and more constructive and useful criticism (Shapka & Keating 2003, GAC 1997, McCormick 1994), so receive different education. Leach (1998), in support of the same, observes that teachers in school may show differentiated attitudes towards male and female students, they tend to be dismissive and discouraging towards girls and to give more classroom time to boys, who are usually more demanding. The school curriculum also, especially the textbooks, treat the boys and girls differently. Girls tend to be portrayed as passive, modest and shy, and boys as assertive, brave and ambitious (Leach 1998). By giving the boys more attention and portraying them as brave and ambitious, the teacher gives the student the picture that boys are more intelligent than girls, which then causes girls to develop low self-esteem which in turn leads to failure and dropout (GAC 1997). This means, therefore, that the failure of the girls to perform well in class, high rate of repetition and dropout in senior classes may not be completely attributed to 'natural talents'. It is also likely to be "a result of home/community and school factors that work against girls as they grow older" (Kamanga 2006:28).

However, it has been noted that even though there are a number of projects and studies on girl child education, not many studies have been carried out on the influence of classroom discourse on the promotion of the girl child education in Malawi. Most studies have been done on classroom and school management that will help retain girls in school. In addition, most of the programmes on girl child education aim at giving girls some incentives or introducing them to role models to encourage them to remain in school. It has also been noted that most studies on girl child education concentrate on primary education and not secondary or tertiary level. For example, FAWEMA and GABLE (SMC) are some of the projects that were introduced to get more girls into school and retain them there through use of role models, incentives and sensitising the masses on the importance of sending girls to school. The provision of hostels and dining halls for girls in Community Day Secondary Schools by the government is another government program aiming at retaining more girls in secondary school. While FAWEMA targets girls at all levels of education GABLE (SMC) was more concerned with primary education. GAC is another project on girl child education whose concentration is on primary education level. In addition the studies that have been cited in this thesis on girl child education

in Malawi (Chikasanda, Gumbi, & Chamdimba 2004, Chamdimba 2003, Hyde 1993, Davison & Kanyuka 1990 and Kadzamira 1987) though they concentrate on all levels of girl child education, their focus is not on classroom discourse and the role it plays in the promotion of girl child education.

This thesis views discourse as a means that shapes human behaviour because it is something that everyone engages in. The school as a socialisation agent contributes to shaping the behaviour of an individual, through the use of discourse. Discourse is defined in this study as language in use (Cook 1989). According to Romaine (1999), words clearly have the power to influence our thinking and to direct our consciousness to certain areas of our experience. Therefore this means that the words that are used in class can affect students' success in their education endeavours. It has been noted that most of the time we tend to ignore the power of words. In the same vein, if words have such an influence on people, so do the nonverbal communication that goes with the words. Thus everything that is said and done in class may have an influence on the students. It is therefore, important to study the role of discourse in education, especially the promotion of the girl child education with the view that educating a girl is "the single most cost-effective investment to improve standards of living in developing countries, particularly amongst the poorest population" (Kane 1995: 4). Thus the thesis aims to analyse the daily discourse for interaction in the classroom and find out if it has any implications for girl child education in Malawi. The question the study was answering was 'what are the implications of the daily discourse for interaction in class for the education of the girl child?'

1.2 General Objective

The general objective of the study was to identify teacher, textbook and student discourse used for daily interaction in the classroom and its implications on the education of the girl child in Malawi.

1.3 Specific Objectives

The study specifically aimed:

- i. to identify discourse strategies that textbooks use to transfer new information to students
- ii. to analyse discourse strategies that teachers use in class to interact with students
- iii. to evaluate the discourse strategies that students use for daily interaction in class
- iv. to assess how the discourse strategies symbolically position boys and girls in the education setting and their everyday life.

1.4 Research Questions

The questions that the research was answering are as follows:

- i. What discourse strategies do textbooks use to transfer new information to students?
- ii. What discourse strategies do teachers use in class to interact with students?
- iii. What discourse strategies do students use in class to interact with each other?
- iv. How do these discourse strategies symbolically position boys and girls in the education setting and their everyday life?

1.5 Justification of the Study

GAC (1997) observes that the main challenge facing educators is to improve the quality of education programmes so that when the boys and girls leave school, the skills they learn will prepare them to lead productive satisfying lives. Quality of education includes education that is inclusive for both boys and girls. That is to say, quality education is that education that does not discriminate one gender, especially the girl child, through its methodology, discourse and content. This study, therefore, is seen as a supplement to the efforts by the Malawi Government and other organisations to provide this quality education.

The study is important in that it will help teachers, curriculum developers and other stakeholders concerned with the education of the girl child to understand that when discourse is used sensibly it promotes the education of the girl child since she feels that she is part of the learning cycle and that she also has the ability to make it into the world of the elite. However, if poorly used discourse has a negative impact on the education of the girl child since the girl loses confidence

and self-esteem which leads to failure. Understanding this will help teachers to avoid gender-biased discourse strategies in the class, which may inhibit the education of the girl child. It will also help curriculum developers and producers of teaching and learning materials to understand the influence that textbooks have on the delivery of a lesson in class. This understanding then will help them to develop materials with gender sensitive discourse strategies. The use of balanced discourse in class and in text books will lead to boys and girls getting the same education.

1.6 Thesis Organisation

This thesis is divided into five chapters. This chapter (1) has provided the background to the efforts in the promotion of education of the girl child in Malawi as well as the aim and objectives of the thesis. It has also highlighted the importance of studying the role of discourse in education.

Chapter 2 is the literature review on discourse, gender and classroom discourse strategies. It also discusses the theories of Critical Discourse Analysis, Symbolic Interactionism and Labelling that have guided this study.

Chapter 3 provides the methodology used in data collection and analysis, as well as a discussion on the tools that were used.

Chapter 4 provides the findings of the study and their interpretation in line with the literature review and the theoretical framework.

Chapter 5 presents the conclusion of the thesis and recommendations to organisations and institutions responsible for the education of the girl child, especially those responsible for teacher training and textbook development.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter reviews some of the literature on classroom discourse strategies as well as the use of gendered discourse in the classroom. It provides an operational definition of discourse as a basis for understanding the term and its different classroom strategies according to different scholars. It is also important to define and discuss the term gender and contextualise the study because one cannot talk about girl child education without discussing the issue of gender, which is at the centre of girl child education. As such, literature on gender in general and specifically gender in the classroom has been reviewed. The literature review forms the basis for understanding and focusing on pertinent issues in discourse analysis and education of the girl child. The review has also helped to assess and evaluate classroom discourse and how it symbolically positions the students in class as well as the world as a whole.

The chapter also discusses the theories that have guided this study. It discusses the classroom environment as a political arena in which emphasis is on the distribution of power. It also discusses Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), Symbolic Interactionism and Labelling theories as some of the theories that help in understanding how classroom discourse symbolically positions girls in the classroom as well as the world at large. Finally, it discusses the classroom implications of these theories for educational achievements.

2.1 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1.1 Girls in Education

A number of studies have been done on the education of the girl child. In most of the studies the performance of girls in science education and the problems of girls' participation in education in general have been explored. Hyde (1993) observes that there are a number of factors that influence girls' achievement. She points out that teacher's attitudes and behaviour, school quality and characteristics, labour market opportunities for girls and social demands on adolescent girls affect the girls' achievement. Davison and Kanyuka (1990) also identify cultural attitudes, teacher and teaching methods, the school curriculum and economic constraints as some of the problems of the girls' participation in education. Finn, Reis and Dulberg (1980) cited by Davison

and Kanyuka (1990) observe that within a classroom, social-cultural expectations are transmitted through modelling of sex-appropriate behaviour, teacher responses to their pupils and the academic support they provide them and the curriculum content.

Kadzamira (1987) argues that one of the reasons why girls leave school before completing the educational cycle is parental attitudes which are deeply rooted in the socio-cultural expectation. Boys are expected to be self-reliant, independent and able to look after their families whilst girls are supposed to be dependent upon their husband once they marry. Therefore, when faced with economic constraints parents prefer to send boys to school (Chikasanda, Gumbi & Chamdimba 2004; Chamdimba 2003; and Kadzamira 1987). As has been noted in the introduction a number of projects have been implemented in Malawi to increase and maintain girls' participation in education. However, the few girls that remain in school seem to have problems with all those courses perceived as male disciplines, for example mathematics and science.

Chikasanda, Gumbi and Chamdimba (2004) observe that compared to boys, girls perform poorly in mathematics. Among other reasons, they attribute this to gendered perceptions, learning environment and lack of supportive policies and structures. This agrees with Kadzamira's (1987) assertion that attitudes that parents, teachers and girls have on Mathematics and Physical Science might have an effect on girls' performance in the subjects. The prevailing attitude of the society and the girls is that these subjects are for boys and especially for those who want to pursue such studies as engineering, medicine and technical subjects. Kadzamira (1987:18) argues, "Since the attitude of girls towards Mathematics, Physical Science and Biology is negative, their interest in the subject is very low. Because of lack of interest their motivation is low and therefore their performance in the subject is affected negatively." This argument is supported by Chamdimba (2008:2) who reports that many studies reveal that "compared to boys, girls lacked confidence, had debilitating causal attribution patterns, perceived mathematics as a male domain, and were anxious about mathematics".

Fisher and Rickards (1998) as cited by Chamdimba (2008) argue that students' attitudes towards mathematics tend to be more positive in classrooms where students perceived greater leadership and helping/friendly behaviours in their teachers, and more negative in classrooms where

students perceived their teachers as admonishing and enforcing strict behaviour. Chamdimba (2008) suggests that the one way of improving the mathematics learning of girls is to give teachers opportunities to reflect on their instructional practices using gender lenses on issues affecting the learning of girls.

These studies highlight the effects of attitudes, school environment and teachers' instructional practices on the achievement of girls in Mathematics and education in general. The school being the 'second home' of the child, since that is where s/he spends most of his/her time, has a major influence on the child than does the family. The teacher specially, can influence the child positively or negatively through his/her attitudes which are manifested in the instructional practices as well as the discourse used, as this is the person the child is in constant contact with. The girls' attitudes towards education which were developed at home may be entrenched by the teachers' instructional practices and discourse. In view of this, the teacher really needs to reflect on his/her instructional practices and discourse, in order to help in promoting girls achievement in education.

2.1.2 Classroom discourse strategies

Discourse

Different scholars have defined discourse differently. *The Oxford Learners dictionary* (2000) simply defines discourse as the use of language in speech and writing in order to produce meaning. Thomas and Wareing (1999), and the *Wikipedia Encyclopedia* view discourse as any piece of connected language that contains more than one sentence, in other words, it refers to conversations, arguments or speeches. According to Cook (1989:7), discourse can be "anything from a grunt or a single expletive, through short conversations and scribbled notes right up to a novel or a lengthy legal case. What matters is not its conformity to rules, but the fact that it communicates and is recognized by its receiver as coherent." McGregor (2003) defines discourse as simply expressing oneself using words. In short, discourse can be simply defined as the use of language to convey meaning.

Though different scholars have defined discourse differently, one thing is apparent, that is, the use of language for communication. Though grammar is important, as it governs the language

the emphasis on it does not give the insight into how people use language to convey meaning. Furthermore, the ungrammaticality of language does not make communication impossible. As such, discourse analysis which is the study of discourses or of language used by members of a speech community, should be concerned with that functional use of language and not the grammaticality of the utterance. This study, therefore, is not analysing the grammaticality of the language used in education but the use of language in education to convey different meanings.

Discourse is not only about knowing how to express oneself but also how one understands the world. Different discourses give people different understanding of the world as well as understanding of their own position in society. Fairclough (2003:124) observes that “different discourses have different perspectives on the world and they are associated with the different relations people have to the world, which in turn depends on their position in the world, their social and personal identities and social relations in which they stand to other people”. This means that different people, different societies or groupings have different discourses that they use.

Kress and Van Leenwen (2001:4) views discourses as being “socially constructed knowledge of (some aspect of) reality”. By socially constructed they mean that discourses have been developed in specific social contexts, whether these are very broad contexts (western Europe) or not (a particular family), explicitly institutionalised contexts (newspapers) or not (dinner table conversations) and so on. In other words, “discourse is always embedded in a particular social context” (West, Lazer & Kramarae, 1997:120). This simply means different discourses have different contexts. In view of what Kress and van Leenwen (2001) and West, Lazar and Kramarae (1997) say, discourse then is said to go beyond the boundaries of a sentence/utterance, and has to do with the interrelationships between language and society as well as the interactive or dialogic properties of everyday communication (Slembrouck 2006). This means, according to him, the study of discourse foregrounds language use as social action, language use as situated performance, language use as tied to social relations and identities, power, inequality and social struggle, language use as essentially a matter of “practices” rather than just “structures” (Slembrouck 2006:1).

Since discourse is seen as a situated performance or simply embedded in a particular context, discourse of education can also be said to have its own context. In this regard, to understand the discourse of education we need to understand its context, which is the school. The school is one of the culturally most well formulated contexts for language use. This study views the classroom which is one arm of the school as the major context of the discourse of education. Emphasis will be on discourse of the classroom that is used for daily interaction between the members of the class. In this study, therefore, discourse refers to anything that is said or done in the context of the classroom to convey meaning.

Classroom Discourse

Mehan (1985) views discourse in a lesson as the same as discourse in everyday life. Discourse in everyday life is interactional, that is to say, it depends upon participation by many parties for the assembly of their structure. The discourse in the lesson is also interactional. In a traditional classroom situation where the teacher is seen as all knowing and the controller of knowledge, there are two main discourse participants, the teacher as the producer and the students as the interpreters of the discourse. However, it is difficult to view the teacher as a sole producer of discourse in class, because as the teacher is preparing for a lesson she/he has to source information from different books and other people who are conversant with the topic. Apart from that, there is use of students' textbooks in the course of teaching.

In an ordinary conversation as well as in the classroom conversation the participants give each other turns. According to Sack, Jefferson and Schengloff (1974) in McCarthy (1991), people take turns when they are selected by the current speaker, or if no one is selected, they may speak of their own accord (self-selection). If neither of these conditions apply, the person who is currently speaking may continue. This process of turn-taking indicates the fact that communication is a two-way process where there is an exchange of roles between the source and the receiver throughout the conversation. Thus in this case the current speaker is the source; if she/he selects someone to speak then she/he becomes the receiver because after giving the other a turn to speak she/he must stop speaking and listen. The one selected to speak will become the source. It is important to note at this point that many everyday turn sequences take the form of "adjacent pairs" which are "type related". According to Levinson (1983:303), adjacent pairs are

“sequences of two utterances that are adjacent, produced by different speakers, ordered as a first part and a second part, and typed so that a particular first part requires a particular second part (or a range of second parts)”. For example, if one is given the question, an answer is relevant: given a greeting, another greeting customarily follows. Similarly, given an invitation, a response in a form of acceptance or rejection follows (Greenleaf & Freedman 1993). This means then that in a conversation the participants need to find the relevance and situational meaning in one another’s utterances. For example, when a greeting is not returned, the silence is “heard” and interpreted in some way as a display of anger or as a marker of social status (Greenleaf & Freedman 1993). This observation reflects the fact that in a conversation or in turn-taking some responses are more expected than others. For example, when one has been given an invitation the preferred response is acceptance and the dispreferred response is refusal. This is some kind of meaning that is shared by the two conversation participants, thus both participants share the responsibility for structuring the conversation.

Although the participants in a conversation have the responsibility for structuring the conversation by talking when they have been given the chance to speak and giving the preferred response, in an ideal situation this is not the case. Levinson (1983) observes that in most cases a question and its answer may be utterances away and there are a great many responses to questions. It has also been observed that there are a lot of interruptions in ordinary conversation which means that not all the time do the participants wait for their turn to speak. It is only classroom conversation that has very ordered turn-taking under the control of the teacher and students rarely speak out of turn (McCarthy 1991). In addition, the responsibility for structuring the conversation falls on the teacher. “Students endeavour to participate in classroom discourse without necessarily being sure of what is customarily expected, without necessarily sharing knowledge in common with the teacher” (Greenleaf & Freedman 1993:9). Thus the students do not share the responsibility for restructuring the conversation with the teacher as participants of the conversation. Since the teacher is seen as the most skilled and knowledgeable participant in the classroom discourse he/she rather than the students will indicate the preference status of students’ response. This is to say, the teacher is the one who decides whether his/her students’ responses are preferred or dispreferred in that situation. Greenleaf and Freedman (1993) observe that the teacher by evaluating what the students say assumes the right to control the talk.

Since the teacher is in control of what is said and done in class, it has been observed that the discourse in the classroom has a sequential organization and a hierarchic structure marked by recurrent behavioural configuration. In view of this Bellack et al. (1966) as cited in Chimombo and Roseberry (1998:214), identify four moves – structure, solicit, respond and react - which teachers basically follow recursively throughout their lessons. Structuring involves the teacher stating what is going to happen during the lesson. The teacher then immediately follows it up with a soliciting move, which intends to “elicit a verbal or nonverbal response on the person addressed” (Coulthard 1977:97). The students are expected to give out the expected response to the question or task put forward by the teacher. The teacher finally reacts to the response given by the students. In support of the same, Greenleaf and Freedman (1993) identify the following turn sequences – teacher Initiation (I), student Response (R) and teacher Evaluation (E) (I-R-E). This means that in every lesson the teacher will always have the floor first and then give turns to his/her students by nominating them to answer questions or give a comment, the teacher will then take his/her turn to evaluate students responses. There is no way the students will initiate the talk in the classroom without being asked to. This total control by the teacher of classroom discourse is enforced by the traditional classroom lay-out, where you have the teacher at the front and the students in neat rows. According to Edwards (1976), this lay-out symbolises a definition of learning as dependent on one teacher with many children, in other words it reinforces the teacher as totally in charge. This means, therefore, that the teacher has control over classroom discourse; he/she is the source of orders, advice, judgement and instructions, this is also enhanced by the fact that he/she is the only one standing when everyone else is sitting down.

From this discussion it can be observed that the teacher has the right to call on students and allocate turns, in essence organising and orchestrating the discussions. The teacher is also the one who decides whether a student’s response is right or wrong. According to Greenleaf and Freedman (1993), being “right” in the classroom requires a student to respond (R) to a teacher’s initiation (I) not only with the correct content but also with the correct interactional turn-taking and communicative conventions, otherwise the student’s response may be ignored, discounted or not heard. This means therefore that the student’s response should be in line with the teacher’s initiation and the teacher’s evaluation will depend on the student’s response. For all this to be

achieved different discourse strategies must be used. Thus the discourse structures that we have discussed need to be coupled with different strategies in order to have a successful conversation in the classroom.

Discourse Strategies

Discourse strategies are defined by Gumperz (1982) cited by Daniszewski & Reiser (1999) as verbal strategies that people engaged in conversation employ to understand each other within the context of a particular conversation. The term strategy, according to Brown (1980:83), refers to “a particular method of approaching a problem or task, a mode of operation for achieving a particular end, a planned design for controlling and manipulating certain information.” This means that for communication to be successful discourse participants employ different methods to encode and decode meaning of different discourses in language. In a classroom situation it has been observed that teachers also use different discourse strategies to interact with their students. According to Daniszewski and Reiser (1999), teachers organise and shape discourse strategically according to their instructional goals, they strategically ask particular kinds of questions or provide differential responses to students’ talk according to the pedagogical focus during discussion. In short, the teacher in the classroom uses different discourse strategies to achieve different goals.

Pathka and Kathpalia (2005), identify a number of discourse strategies that are commonly used by teachers in the classroom. These strategies include asking questions, giving instructions, providing examples, and enhancement strategies. It has been observed that apart from using the teacher’s voice and body language, slides, textbooks, handouts contribute in achieving the desired outcome. Discourse strategies that are used to integrate these elements are what are called enhancement strategies (Pathka & Kathpalia, 2005).

In view of the fact that teachers do most of the talking, selecting most of the topics for discussion, making decisions about who will participate through strategic use of turn-allocation procedures, and determining the relevance and correctness of student’s responses to their inquiries (Simich-Dudgeon 1998), teachers need to know which strategies to use and how those

may affect the students in their learning. For instance, one of the strategies that is mostly used by teachers as one way of interacting with the students is the use of questions. Teachers questions are defined as instructional cues or stimuli that convey to students the content elements to be learned and directions for what they are to do and how they are to do it (Cotton 2001). In most cases the questions that are asked according to Clarke, Dickinson and Westbrook (2004) are firstly, open questions which ask for reasoning, use of observation and students' use of own experience and secondly, closed questions which check recall and understanding of a process. Holmes (1995) gives her own categories of questions, which are response restricting and facilitative questions. In this case then it can be said that the open questions are the facilitative ones because they invite speakers to respond fully and the closed are the response restricting because they intend to elicit short specific responses.

It has been observed that some teachers tend to select the same students respondents and in most cases these student are usually the verbal and successful ones. According to Orlich, Harder, Callaha, Kravas, Pendergras & Keogh (1985), this kind of bias on the part of the teacher provides a negative reinforcer to the majority of the class members, it makes them disinterested in the subject, and causes serious erosion of the group morale, but if the teacher is encouraging the non-volunteers by selecting them and allowing them to respond appropriately or correctly each time they are called on, the students have a positive attitude towards the subject.

As was observed earlier on, the teacher has the responsibility to evaluate students' responses. In this case, the teacher also needs to know the strategies to use under this discourse structure. The teacher needs to understand how these strategies may also affect the students' learning. It has been observed that some teachers have problems to react to students' responses, especially incorrect responses. Orlich, Harder, Callaha, Kravas, Pendergras and Keogh (1985), observe that teachers' comments on incorrect responses such as "no", "you are way off" or "that's incorrect" act as a negative reinforcement and this may reduce the student's desire to participate in a verbal classroom interaction. It is not only the student responding to the question but also the other members of the class who may be negatively affected. The other strategy that teachers use as a way of reacting to students is repeating a student's response. According to Orlich et al. (1985:192), this strategy whereby the teacher repeats all of the students' verbal responses, causes the class to ignore their peers as sources of information and subtly conditions the class to wait

until the word comes from the “fountain of all wisdom”. If this happens then the students will not have positive self-image because the focus is not on the responding student but the teacher.

2.1.3 Gendered Language in the Classroom

Gender

Since gender differences tend to be at the core of studies of girl child education it will be seen as incomplete to study girl child education without addressing the issue of gender. The term gender has been defined differently by different scholars. Gender is the “behaviours and roles played by males and females as a result of social expectations” (GAC 1997:6). Coates (1993) defines gender as the term used to describe socially constructed categories based on sex. Karim (2006) defines gender as “roles and responsibilities that a given society expects of its men and women.” Baron and Byrne (2004:184) refer to gender as “everything else associated with an individual’s sex, including the roles, behaviours, preferences and other attributes that define what it means to be male or a female in a given culture.”

According to Kachiwanda (2004), no individual is born “gendered”, when they come in the world, they enter into a social life which positions them into a wide range of gendered institutional and societal structures. In short then, gender can be said to do with roles, behaviours, and responsibilities that different communities expect of their men and women rather than the biological make up of the individual. Wanahiu (1997:152) stipulates that gender is a “socio-cultural construct with some biological roots, and being a cultural construct, gender attributes can and do change, in much the same way that culture changes”. In other words, gender roles change from one culture to another and within a culture, they can change from one society to another.

The definitions of gender though diverse point out to one thing that gender is not sex, is not biological, but is social. When talking about gender it is important to realise, therefore, that it is about socially constructed roles in a given society, and since they are socially constructed they can be changed or modified. The understanding of the term gender will help us appreciate the

role it plays in a girl child's daily interaction with the teachers and fellow students in the classroom and how this significantly contributes to her achievement in education.

Research on gender and language structure, has demonstrated numerous ways that women are ignored, trivialised and deprecated by the words used to describe them (West, Lazar & Kramarae. 1997). It has been noted that women are denied autonomous existence through titles that distinguish them on the basis of their marital status. The career choices for women and men are segregated through distinctive occupational terms with modifying markers added for exceptions to the rule. Lee (1992:110) in support of the same observes that the process involving marginalisation and exclusion of women derives primarily from "the social disadvantage from which women have suffered in most human society in the course of human history". Romaine (1999) made a powerful observation in relation to this issue. She argued that gender is not just about biological and cultural differences; it is also about power. Much of this power and symbolic domination, according to Romaine, is achieved and validated through talk across a range of contexts, for example at home, in school, in the work place just to mention a few. This simply means that through talk in different contexts there is domination of one sex over the other.

English language which is used in most of our talk in different contexts is said to be sexist. Sexism is concerned with prejudicial attitudes and discriminative behaviour directed at women (Pennington, Gillen & Hill, 1999). Wareing (1999:66) stipulates that sexist language "represents women and men unequally, as if members of one sex were somehow less completely human, less complex, and had fewer rights than members of the other sex." Or "writing that uses words and images and structures for speaking to or about females that are different from the words and images used for talking about men" (GAC 1997:19). In simple terms, sexist language expresses unfair assumptions about gender differences. It conveys cultural beliefs about gender differences and cultural expectations for gender-specific behaviours. This can be seen in the fact that most of the words used for male subjects are often more colourful, active, impressive and competitive than those used for women which are more passive, less assertive, less brave, less busy, less strong and less defiant. Dale Spender, cited in Romaine (1999:91), claims that English is a

language “made by men for men in order to represent their point of view and perpetuate it.” If this is something to go by then it clearly explains why English is sexist.

Romaine (1999) provides evidence to support the point that English is sexist. The first evidence is the asymmetries between pairs of gender-differentiated terms such as bachelor (*a man who is not married out of choice*) and spinster (*unmarried woman who is past the age of marriage*) (Romaine 1999:92). Nilsen (1998) in view of the same argues that a woman is valued for the attractiveness and sexiness of her body, while a man is valued for his physical strength and accomplishments. This is evident also from the pair of words we have in English in which the feminine word has acquired sexual connotation while the masculine word retains a serious, business-like aura. Sir (*term of respect*), and madam (*has acquired the specialised meaning of a brothel manager*). That is to say, a woman is sexy and a man is successful. Romaine also observes that there are many more derogatory terms and names for girls and women than there are for boys and men. The other piece of evidence is on the use of masculine forms such as “he”, “man” and compounds such as “mankind” in a so-called generic sense to include women. From these observations it can be easily speculated why males seem to be leaders all the time and females followers.

Coates (1993) explains that language is an important part of the socialisation process and children are socialised into culturally approved gender roles largely through language. Sheldon (1993:84) sees language as “part of culture and an instrument for transmitting and perpetuating implicit, historically situated, and culture-bound principles of social order and systems of beliefs that define and assign unequal social values to femininity and masculinity. This means, therefore, that use of sexist language defines the different roles of men and women in the society. Romaine (1999:20) claims that “words have the power to influence our thinking and to direct our consciousness to certain areas of our experience at the same time as they take our attention from others.” The use of words that show that women are weak, for example, will direct the society to view them as such, in turn, giving them roles that will go well with their weakness.

It is true that English is a sexist language as it has masculine terms as unmarked or standard. The use of the masculine terms as standard may influence women’s attitude towards men and

themselves. This may also influence the roles that the society may expect from males and females. Romaine (1999) emphasises the power of words in influencing peoples' behaviour. Malawian societies also believe in the power of words. Therefore, the use of sexist language may have a negative influence on the people if those words are used. The sexist words are used to define the position of the males and females in the society, which in turn leads to them having different social roles. However, the studies on sexism seem to imply that people are passive recipients of discourse and that they have no control of what happens in their lives. If gender is socially constructed then it means men and women have the power to change their roles, rather than subscribing to the unbalanced roles because the words describe them as deserving that role.

Gender and the classroom

Chimombo and Roseberry (1998:200) observe that "because education is one of the main channels for the maintenance and/or change of cultural values, it clearly has a major role to play, outside the immediate family in influencing people's reception of the world." Swan (1988) looks at the classroom which is one arm of the school as one place in which children learn social roles. She argues that socially appropriate behaviours (including gender appropriate behaviour) are learnt to some extent through classroom talk. In relation to this, Coates (1993) argues that the classroom mirrors the outside world: male dominance is acted out in the classroom, and this limits girls' opportunities. This male dominance is acted through the type of language used in class. This is in agreement with Wanahiu's (1997) observation that language is a powerful tool of socialisation. According to her, language whether written, oral or physical, helps us to interpret situations and find our niche in society. Unfortunately, for women and girls, this niche is more often than not subordinate and insecure, which is reflected in the way language is used. This means that the classroom talk, that is talk between teacher and students or students and students, has a role to play in defining the position of the students not only in the class but also the society. One's place in the society is not only defined through talk but also through exposure to different textbooks in the course of learning. Thus schoolbooks and other materials that the pupil may interact with may have sexist biases, which most of the times discourage girls from thinking of themselves as good learners. This in turn "lower their self-esteem, and their ambivalence about success, achievement and power" (McCormick 1994:44).

Stanley (2001) observes that English as a Second Language (ESL)/English as a Foreign Language (EFL) materials are guilty of sexist language in different categories, which include omission, fitness and occupations. She noted that in most books males appear more frequently than females, as if females are less important than males. It was also noted that when a male and female are mentioned, the male is almost always put first. She sees no reason to say '*John and Mary*' when '*Mary and John*' would convey the same message. When an occupation is mentioned, it is more often assigned a male character name, for example, "John is a doctor". It should be noted that young learners are always sensitive to everything happening around them, so the models they are presented with in texts limit their imaginations. Girls who read about only male pilots are much less interested in flying than girls who read about male and female pilots.

Sunderland (1992) gives reasons why sexism in ESL/ EFL materials matter. She argues that if the media have an unconscious influence on the audience so can these materials. If the female learners are conscious of the female characters as being given the secondary role or position in the books, for example, the boys speaking first in a dialogue, the female characters playing restricted social, behavioural and linguistic roles, it is likely to hinder rather than facilitate their learning. Kandaswamy (2004) observed that in most science and social studies textbooks, the role of women achievers in science, history and business is never mentioned. Kandaswamy (2004) attributes this to poor research or bias / ignorance of the author. This failure to update textbooks in line with new inventions and giving credit to the women achievers has deprived generations of women role models but more importantly knowledge of their existence. According to him, if a girl opens one womanless textbook, she learns she is worthless. In the same way, the boys too learn that women never contributed anything to development and society, conditioning them from an early age to consider women as inferior.

These studies on sexist language in ESL/EFL ignore the role of the audience in interpreting meaning. Stuart Hall's theory of Encoding and Decoding states that, texts are polysemic, may be read differently by different people, depending on their identity, cultural knowledge and opinions. Thus each person has the ability to interpret the same text differently. This theory contradicts Sunderland (1992) observation about unconscious influence of the media. However, the theory has highlighted one of the important elements that govern interpretation of a text,

which is background information. This means that if the girls have been fed information about women being inferior from their societies, reading these textbooks with few or no women characters may indeed lead to the conclusion that women are worthless.

As was observed earlier on, the teacher has to use the four moves (structure, solicit, respond and react) recursively in order to effectively interact with his or her students. Through these moves the teacher as the controller of the class is able to initiate all the talk in the classroom. However, a great deal of research shows that teachers do not treat girls as the same way as boys in the classroom. It has been noted that boys interact more with the teacher than the girls, they receive more discipline contact and praise than girls. Teachers accept wrong/poor answers more often from boys; boys are called more often and are allowed to speak more (Swan 1988; GAC n.d.; & Shapka & Keating 2003). This may have an impact on the students in the class. McCormick (1994:26) observes that by giving more attention to the boys than the girls the teacher is “reinforcing entrenched sex role expectations for females to be dependent and passive and for males to be independent and assertive”. Kandaswamy (2004) observes that since teachers are regarded as the supreme authority of all information and knowledge during schooling, their classroom behaviour affects children’s perceptions of gender enormously. Coates (1993) in support of the same argues that opportunities to answer the teacher’s questions and receive evaluative feedback, to ask the teacher for information and clarification, and to discuss material and issues with other students are important educational strategies each of which contributes to learning and understanding. If females are denied equal access to these learning resources, they are being educationally disadvantaged. In short, teachers’ attitudes towards the students which is displayed through their behaviour in class will affect the way the students perceive themselves in class as well as outside the classroom.

Blake (1994:171) observes that a “speaker speaks in order to elicit some kind of consequential change on the part of the hearer changing either her actions or her beliefs, attitudes or other mental disposition”. In this view, then, it should be understood that some of the things that we say to an individual will bring change in that individual, intended or not, so a speaker must be cautious of what she/he is saying. In the same way, whatever the teacher says to his/her pupil will have an effect on the students, thus the students may be positively affected if the speech is

encouraging and supportive and negatively affected if the speech is downgrading and excluding. If all teachers could learn to be as sensitive to language in the classroom as some already are, this might “significantly raise the level of learning in all our school” (Barnes 1972:117).

As earlier indicated, discourse in this study refers to anything that is said or done in class to convey meaning. From the preceding discussion we have seen how classroom talk may affect the students in class, and how textbooks also have an influence on students’ perception about themselves. All this discussion brings us back to the fact that there is communication taking place in the classroom with the teacher and the textbooks as sources of information and the students as receivers; since communication is a two-way process the roles change throughout the interaction process. Since we view the interaction that happens in class as a communication process, the nonverbal type of communication should not be disregarded. According to Chimombo and Roseberry (1998:177), “linguistic and non-linguistic strands of discourse can be seen as two parallel texts, reinforcing each other as they proceed.” The non-linguistic strand of discourse in the classroom will include the posters on the wall of the classroom, the pictures or diagrams in the textbooks as well as different gestures, voice variations used by the teacher. Since it has been observed that different discourses have influence on the learners, the teacher is supposed to be cautious with the kind of posters on display. Pictures of famous men, poems on male heroes and sport activities featuring men are not bad in themselves but when not balanced with similar pictures of females, girls do not have role models they can identify with, and may feel that the school environment is predominantly male-orientated (GAC 1997).

The teacher also uses a number of non-verbal communication strategies in the course of teaching. Mtunda and Safuli (1986) identify a few non-verbal communication strategies that teachers often use. Teachers nod their head after a pupil has given a correct answer, or shake their head to communicate disapproval of an incorrect answer, or smile to show appreciation of the students’ achievements. If the verbal behaviour of the teacher has an effect on the students as earlier observed so will the non-verbal behaviour of the teacher. The understanding of the different types of communication helps to direct the focus of the study.

It can be argued of course, that not many students notice and interpret teachers' non-verbal behaviour or pictures put around the classroom or the school but cannot also rule out the fact that there are others who do. As such teachers and school authorities should indeed make available to students pictures that are balanced as these may help the girls, on the one hand, to have role models and on the other, boys to respect women in the society.

It is very important to understand that a lot happens in class as the teacher interacts with the students and students interact with each other as well as the environment and the textbook. The teacher needs to use different strategies in order to achieve his/her goal which is to make the students learn, has to use these strategies to convey meaningful messages to the students. Gender stereotypes which may have an effect on the students' achievements in education are transmitted through these strategies.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.2.1 The Class as a Political Arena

According to Aristotle, man is by nature a political animal. Man has his/her own ideas and interest. A human being lives in a world whose material wealth is exhaustible and if s/he was to be left to pursue his/her selfish interest by snatching what s/he desires there would be violence in the society. The fact that people have to share the little that the world can offer conflict occurs. Politics is seen therefore, as a means of resolving conflict through negotiation, manipulation and influence. The *Wikipedia* views politics as the process by which groups of people make decisions. Quincy Wright defines politics as "the art of influencing, manipulating, or controlling (groups) so as to advance the purpose of some against the opposition of others" (Johari 1987:16). *The Oxford Learners Dictionary* (2000) defines politics as "the activities involved in getting and using power in public life, and being able to influence decisions that affect a country or a society." This means that where two or more people or groups coexist there is likely to be politics, as they constantly try to maximise their individual capabilities to have access to the few resources that the world can offer. Politics, therefore, is a term that is used to describe the process of negotiation between people with different interests and ideas in making decisions as to who gets a share of those limited resources the world can offer.

According to Bush (1995), organisations are political arenas whose members engage in political activity in pursuit of their interests. In this theory of education management the organisation is seen as a political arena, with emphasis on the distribution of power and influences in organisation and on the bargaining and negotiation between interest groups. Bush views an organisation, as having different interest groups who are constantly fighting to pursue their interest. The success of the interest group depends on the power they have over the other interest groups. Power is defined as the ability to determine the behaviour of others or to decide the outcome of the conflict (Bush 1995:79). The power may be in the form of: the position one holds, expertise, personal, the control they have over rewards, coercive power as well as control over resources.

White, Martin, Simson & Hodge (1993) see schools as organisations. This is because they consist of a network of relationships among the individuals who regard themselves as belonging to that organisation. The school as an organisation is also a political arena with the head or principal as a key participant in the process of bargaining and negotiation. The heads and principals possess authority arising from their positions as the formal leaders of their institutions. They also hold power in the form of key rewards such as promotion and references.

These concepts of politics in educational management may also be applied at a micro level to the classroom. The teacher is the key participant in the process of negotiation and bargaining in the classroom. The teacher has power or influence arising from the position he/she holds, the expertise and the control of rewards such as grades. The teacher, the students (boys, on one hand, and girls, on the other) are seen as interest groups in the class who are constantly fighting to be heard or recognised. The success in this pursuit depends on who has power over the other.

Discourse has been defined as language in use or the use of language to convey meaning. McGregor (2003) has noted that discourses are used in every day contexts for building power and knowledge, for regulation and normalisation, for the development of new knowledge and power relations and hegemony. Hegemony according to Fairclough (1992:76) is “the power over society as a whole of one of the fundamental economically defined classes in alliance with other social forces” or simply the excess influence or authority of one sect of a society over the other

(McGregor 2003). The *Wikipedia* views hegemony as the dominance of one group over other groups, with or without the threat of force ... more broadly, cultural perspectives become skewed to favour the dominant group. In short, discourse helps to build power and knowledge which in turn leads to hegemony.

In view of the foregoing discussion, it can be said that through interaction in which discourse is used, teachers and students are constantly engaged in politics, as each one is fighting for power or recognition in the classroom. In turn those who 'win' and get power control knowledge which in turn leads to hegemony, with that group that holds power having control over the others.

2.2.2 The Theory of Critical Discourse Analysis

The theory of Critical Discourse Analysis as advanced by Norman Fairclough and Teun van Dijk is founded on the idea that there is unequal access to linguistic and social resources, resources that are controlled institutionally (*Wikipedia* 2006). Thus the theory is based on the issues of power and dominance. Dominance, according to van Dijk (1993:2), is the "exercise of social power by elites, institutions or groups, that results in social inequality, including political, cultural, class, ethnic, racial and gender inequality." It has been observed that power and dominance are usually organised and institutionalised. That is to say they are "not merely enacted, individually, by group members, it may also be supported or condoned by other group members, sanctioned by the courts, legitimated by laws, enforced by police and ideologically sustained and reproduced by the media or textbooks" (van Dijk 1993:7).

Power involves control. This typically involve the control of the actions of the other group and its members, in the sense that the others are not (or less) free to do what they want, but may be brought to act in accordance with the wishes or the interests of the more powerful group and against their own best interests (and usually against their will) (van Dijk 1998). Van Dijk (1993) explains that this power and dominance is interpreted in terms of privileged access to discourse and communication. This means that language users or communicators have more or less freedom in the use of special discourse genres or styles, or in participation in specific communicative events. Thus only parliamentarians have access to parliamentary debates and teachers to proceedings in the classroom. It has been observed that there is parallelism between

social power and discourse access. The more “discourse genre, contexts, participants, audience, scope and characteristics they actively control or influence, the more powerful social groups or institutions are” (van Dijk 1993:256). In the same way lack of power is measured by its lack of active or controlled access to discourse.

The exercise of power by the dominant group through their control of discourse presupposes mind management, involving the influence of knowledge, beliefs, understanding, plans, attitudes, ideologies, norms and values (van Dijk 1993). In other words, this use of discourse contributes to the construction of what is variously referred to as “social identities” and “subject positions” and “type of self”; social relationships between people; and systems of knowledge and belief (Fairclough 1992). In view of this, we conclude therefore that discourse has a role to play in the (re)production of dominance and power in the society.

Van Dijk (2003) outlines four ways in which power and dominance are involved in mind control. In the first place, the recipients tend to accept beliefs, knowledge and opinions through discourse from what they see as authoritative, trustworthy or credible sources such as scholars, experts, professionals or reliable media. Secondly, participants are obliged to be recipients of discourse. Thirdly, in many situations there are no public discourses or media that may provide information from which alternative beliefs may be derived. And lastly recipients may not have the knowledge and beliefs needed to challenge the discourses or information they are exposed to.

In short CDA stipulates that those who have access to discourse have control over those who have little or no access to discourse. That is to say, those who have access to discourse have power. Therefore CDA analyses how discourse initiates, maintains and reproduces power relations.

As has been discussed earlier, the teacher and students in class are involved in politics as they try to decide who gets a share of the classroom resources. In this case, the teachers and students are in constant conflict in trying to decide who gets access to classroom discourse, bearing in mind that those who have access to discourse have power over those who have little or no access. The teacher by virtue of his/her authority has access to this scarce resource and has power, and because s/he has power can influence decisions made in the class. The teacher can decide who

between boys and girls gets a larger share of the discourse or can decide to give the two groups equal access to discourse. If one group gets a larger share of classroom discourse then it might have power over the other group.

2.2.3 Symbolic Interactionism Theory

Symbolic interactionism as advanced by Herbert Blumer stipulates that the meaning of a thing for a person grows out of the ways in which other persons act toward the person with regard to the thing. Thus individuals constantly have a view or sense of themselves that is defined and affected by the actions and reactions of others towards them (Teevan 1986:69). For example, if individuals come to define themselves as intelligent, it is because they perceive other people to regard them as such. The theory was developed with regard to George Mead's "social behaviourism theory" in which he/she sees the self as emerging from the social interaction of humans in which the individual takes in the role of the "other" and internalizes the attitudes she/he perceives in both real and imagined others. Thus Mead argues that our behaviour is the result of constructing meanings, but also that these meanings are constructed bearing in mind our membership of the social groups (Kirby, Kidd, Koubel, Barter, Hope, Kirton, Madry, Manning, & Triggs 2000). In support of the same, Taylor, Richardson, Yeo, Marsh, Trobe, & Pilkington (1996) observe that human behaviour does not result from the blind operation of external social forces, instead behaviour results from how a social actor interprets or attributes meaning to the situation.

The theory is based on three core principles: meaning, language and thought. According to the Society for More Creative Speech (SMCS 1996), the principle of meaning is the central aspect of human behaviour. The principle of meaning says humans act towards people and things based upon the meaning that they have given to those people or things. The meanings we have to the symbols that are around us are negotiated through the use of language. Humans identify meaning in speech acts of others. As another principle of the theory of symbolic interactionism, thought modifies each individual's interpretation of symbols, based on language. It is seen as a mental conversation or dialogue that requires role taking, or imagining different points of view.

Mead views every individual as involved in a play, thus everyone is an actor playing different roles. According to him, it is only by taking the role of others that we have been able to understand ourselves (Cronk n.d). Just as in play a child takes the role of another and acts as though he/she was the other, so we take up the role of the others including their point of view and we act as if we were them. But to make the play successful the actor needs to internalize the roles of all others who are implicated in the game, and should also comprehend the rules of the game which condition the various roles (Mead 1934 in Cronk n.d). Therefore as we are taking roles in a play, internalizing the roles of those around us and understanding the rules that govern each role we come to understand ourselves, thus we have a sense of the self. This sense of self is communicated to the others through significant symbols such as language.

According to Lee and Newby (1983), symbolic interactionism portrays the human self as if it were a conversation with a single topic: identity of the individual. The human mind is divided into two: the “me” and the “I,” which are constantly involved in a conversation to identify the human’s identity. The “me” is the sum total of definitions of oneself given by the society and above all oneself seen through the eyes of the significant other. The “I” is the moving centre of all of these descriptions which are derived from others. Kirby et al. (2000) simply look at the “I” as the real self and the “me” as the public front, the social image we represent of ourselves. Cronk (n.d) sees the “me” as that phase of the self which reflects the social process and the “I” as that phase of the self which responds to and transcends the social process. After the “I” has processed all this the individual comes to understand him/herself which is the “me”. Thus how one views him/herself in the eyes of the others.

In short, the theory of symbolic interactionism is based on the fact that the view of the self develops out of interaction with others. It emerges from our social experiences in groups such as family and friendship networks (i.e. principle of meaning and language). Not only this but we also acquire a sense of self through the process of interpretation. That is, we always infer or imagine how we appear to other people (i.e. the principle of thought) (Teevan 1986). For example, a child may be is frequently told by parents and siblings that s/he is stupid. If the family is the sole source of the information that s/he has about him/her, s/he is likely to eventually perceive him/herself as stupid. This will affect him/her in his/her actions.

However, symbolic interactionism has been criticised of ignoring the wider society and focusing on small-scale face-to-face interaction situations (Taylor et al.1996; Kirby et al. 2000). Slattery (2003) in support of the same indicates that the theory fails to put human interaction into context, into a social or historical setting, so that at times it seems to be no more than a study of episodes, encounters and situations. The society in this theory is seen simply as the result of interaction and is, therefore, seen as in a permanent flux. Such views, according to Kirby et al. (2000), undermine any notion of structure. As a result the theory cannot conceptualize power, since that is linked to the notion of social structure.

Apart from this, the theory fails to explain the origin of meaning. According to Slattery (2003) the theory portrays the meaning of a given situation as emerging spontaneously out of interaction rather than out of the underlying social context in which it is situated. Thus meaning should not only be seen as coming from the interaction process between that individual and the significant others but to emerge from the social context as a whole. Van Dijk (1998:204) argues that “meanings are not so much abstract properties of words or expressions but rather the kinds of things language users assign to such expressions in processes of interpretation or understanding”. This then allows for contextual variations thus, a speaker and a hearer may assign different meanings to the same expression, and the same expression may mean different things in different contexts. This argument agrees with Slattery (2003) that meaning does not originate spontaneously out of interaction but from the social contexts.

2.2.4 Labelling Theory

Labelling theory, maintains that the society creates deviance through its reaction to the people who break its rules. The theory was derived from the theory of symbolic interactionism. In this theory it is not an individual's actions but audience reaction that places individuals in the status of deviance. Thus the audience/society's reaction to deviance may actually increase rather than stop their deviance and may even lead to more serious forms of deviance (Teevan 1986). For example, parents who label a child a “troublemaker” for breaking a house rule promote deviance in the child. Condon (1966) observes that people have a tendency to live up to their labels, whether those labels have been applied by others or were chosen by themselves. If for

example, you label yourself as “no good in Mathematics” or “a lousy public speaker” or “the quiet type” you may continue to prove that this is so.

What is critical in labelling theory is not the action but the reaction of those in authority, those who have the power to define and label behaviour as acceptable or deviant and their relationship with those subject to them (Slattery 2003). What the theory is stipulating is that there is nothing inherently deviant in any human act; something is deviant only because some people have been successful in labelling it so. Taylor et al. (1996) look at a label as a major identifying characteristic. If, for example a pupil is labeled as “bright” others will respond to her and interpret her actions in terms of this label and this in turn make the individual to perform well in class. On the other hand, if teachers are convinced that certain children are less able, they put less effort into helping them and find that they were right all along because the children do not do as well in tests (Moore 2001). Hargreaves (1975), cited in Taylor et al. (1996), stipulates that whether or not a label is accepted by the pupil depends on a number of factors; that is how often the pupil is labelled, whether the students sees a teacher as someone whose opinion counts, the extent to which others support the label and the context in which the labelling takes place.

From our earlier discussion it has been noted that in a school environment the teacher has authority over the students invested in him or her by the fact that he or she holds that position. The teacher is in control of what happens in class, controls who does what and how he/she does it, so whatever label the teacher gives to an individual will be taken seriously, will be acted upon and later the prediction is fulfilled. In view of this theory there is no pupil who is dull or bright, all students are the same. The students will act as dull or bright depending on the label that has been given to them. When a teacher gives a label to a pupil the pupil tends to believe in it and act in line with the label. The teacher will also act towards the pupil depending on the label, so the pupil behaves as the label stipulates.

However, the labelling theory has been criticised of being deterministic. The theory puts all the blame of crime and deviance on the labeller and portrays deviants as innocent victims (Slattery 2003). According to Kirby et al. (2000), deviant career must not be seen as fixed or inevitable. It is possible that social actors are able to resist labels and fight back against them. As much as it

can be agreed that social actors can resist labels and fight back, it should also be considered that these labels are not just coming from anywhere, they are coming from those in authority. It becomes difficult to consider what is said by those in authority as untrue. Therefore it will be difficult for the pupil, in this case, to resist and fight back the label given to him or her, because the teacher is always right.

The other criticism is that the theory fails to explain the origins of deviance. What motivates certain individuals to break the society's norms and laws? (Kirby et al. 2000; Slattery 2003). Apart from this, the theory fails to explain societal reactions, i.e. why the police or teachers react in the way that they do, where they get their attitudes and stereotypes from, why they label some individuals and not others. More important it does not explain who makes the rules that define deviance (Slattery 2003). Of course, the theory does not explain the origin of deviance and it should be admitted that it will be very difficult to determine why certain people choose to behave the way they do before the labelling process. But it should be agreed that labels play a major role in making that behaviour permanent. Thus there are a number of factors that can make a pupil fail in class, but if the teacher labels this pupil as a failure this will become permanent.

2.2.5 Classroom Implications

Based on the theory of Critical Discourse Analysis we look at the teacher as the dominant figure in a class who has full control of discourse, so has the power to influence the understanding, knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, ideologies and so on of his/her students. The boys are also seen as a dominant group in the class who may have influence over the girls through their control of discourse for daily interaction in class. Holmes (1995) observes that there is plenty of evidence that males tend to dominate the talking time in context such as classrooms, which is enhanced by teachers giving them more attention. This dominance in classroom discussions gives the males a chance to control the discourse in class. It has been noted that it is very difficult for girls to get a fair share of the talking time and the teacher's attention is a particular problem for females in a mixed class (Holmes 1995). This then gives the chance to the boys to dominate the class, thereby having an influence over the females.

Coates (1993) indicates that language is an important part of the socialisation process and children are socialised into culturally approved gender roles largely through language. She goes

on to say that learning to be male or female entails learning to use gender appropriate language. Thus the children have to learn when to say what, when to remain silent, how to mark speech for politeness, when it is permissible to interrupt. It has been noted that in many societies boys are expected to be loud, aggressive and tend to talk most especially if the talk offers the possibility of enhancing the speakers' status; girls on the other hand, view acts of arguing, challenging and shouting as unfeminine (Coates 1993; Holmes 1995). These different communicative competences enable boys to dominate in class. Boys' dominance in the class mirrors the outside world. Male dominance is acted out in the classroom, and this limits girls' opportunities to learn.

Since culture through socialisation tends to give power to the males to dominate the world, it is seen as normal for the boys to dominate the class discussions. This domination is sustained with the help of those who participate in the classroom discourse, as Coates (1993) stipulates that all participants in the classroom collude in sustaining male dominance, teachers by paying more attention to boys, boys by talking more and at greater length than girls, girls by talking less. This use of power and dominance in class through discourse may be reproduced or supported by the textbooks that the students use in class.

In view of the theory of symbolic interactionism and labelling theory, the classroom discourse strategies that the teacher uses in class for daily interaction may have a long lasting effect on the students. Since humans create the sense of self through interaction with others and interpretation of symbols around them, their daily interaction with the teacher and other members of the class will affect the way they feel about themselves. The labels that the teachers place on their students through their classroom strategies will contribute to the understanding of the self and their position in the society. If, for example, the teacher sidelines one group in the class the group will interpret this to mean that they are worthless, so not part of the class. This interpretation will lead to withdrawal from the class (could be physical or psychological withdrawal) which in turn will lead to failure. Through his or her strategy the teacher has labelled the group as worthless and they believe it. Or if a teacher reacts negatively to a student's wrong answer, the students may look at him/herself as a failure in that subject and will live up to that, however, if the teacher reacts to the answer encouragingly the student will feel that he/she can do better and will live up to that.

In conclusion, the classroom is seen as a political arena, as its members are involved in conflict on who gets the share of the classroom discourse. Those who get access to the classroom discourse have power and dominate those who have little or no access. If the observations that teachers tend to give more attention to boys than girls are anything to go by then the boys have power over girls as they have more access of the classroom discourse than the girls. Since people get the sense of themselves through the eyes of the significant others (the powerful groups) then it implies that the use of discourse by the dominant groups in the classroom (teacher and boys) that marginalizes the less powerful group (girls) tend to influence the less powerful groups' understanding of the self and their position in the society. Thus the labels that these powerful groups will give to the less powerful group through the use of the classroom discourse may influence the symbolic position of the students in education as well as in their lives.

2.2.6 Summary

The literature review and theoretical framework section has discussed a number of pertinent issues in the study. These issues form the basis of the study and will help in the analysis and discussion of the results. They include the following:

First, that different teachers use different strategies to make their lessons successful. The strategies that have been discussed in the review are just some of the examples but they still form the base of the study.

Second, that boys and girls are treated differently at school as well as at home, through the language used and the attention given. The understanding of sexism in language and the term is important in this study as it will help in explaining why teachers and parents have different perceptions on the boys and girls in school or at home and why girls and boys have different perceptions about themselves and about each other. It will also help in suggesting ways of improving the classroom interactions as well as the writing of the textbooks.

Third, teachers do not only use verbal communication to send messages to their students but also non-verbal communication. This means, therefore, that in analysing classroom discourse it is

important to also analyse the non-linguistic aspect not only the linguistic aspect of language, as the two work hand in hand. Understanding the importance of non-linguistic aspects of language will help in analysing the influence of teacher behaviour and learning environment on the achievement of girls in education.

The chapter also critically discussed three theories, namely Critical Discourse Analysis, Symbolic Interactionism and Labelling, which have been used to guide this study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the methodology that was used in this study. It describes the subjects, the methods and tools that were used for data collection, and also the methods that were used to analyse the data. Though the study has used both qualitative and quantitative techniques of research it is basically qualitative. This is reflected in the methods and tools that were used for data collection as well as the way data has been analysed.

3.1 Approach

The study is basically qualitative, though it has a few elements of quantitative research. The qualitative approach was chosen because the thesis' focus is on the discourse that is used for daily interaction in the classroom. Therefore analysing the words and actions of teachers and students in class and not simply number of times something is done or said is important. Its purpose is to unveil the kind of words and actions that are used in the teaching and learning process and how they may affect the students' achievements of educational goals. In addition to this, the frequency of how certain words or actions are used in class is also of importance in this study. The study analyses the number of times certain words and actions are used in the teaching and learning process and how they may affect the students' educational achievements. These frequencies are tabulated and presented in graphs for easy understanding.

3.2 Research techniques

3.2.1 Sampling

Data was collected from four secondary schools in Zomba from 12th to 20th March 2006. The schools are one All Girls Secondary School (AG), one All Boys Secondary School (AB), two Government Co-education institutions (GC 1 and GC 2). These schools were chosen because they offer an ideal environment for data collection as opposed to private schools and community day secondary schools, which have too many students in one classroom. Furthermore, in conventional government and grant-aided secondary schools one gets the necessary support. They also have well organised daily programmes, conducive teaching and learning environment,

and teachers that are well trained which makes it easy to sample and collect data that can be easily discussed and compared.

With six government secondary schools in Zomba, the two were purposely sampled by looking at the accessibility of the school bearing in mind the time and the instruments needed for data collection. Shapka and Keating (2003) observed that when the two sexes are in the same classroom, they receive unequal amount of attention and support. However, the all female classes may alleviate the exposure to gender biased messages. In view of this observation, the single sex institutions were included to check if the discourses used in these classes are indeed different from that used in mixed classes. In other words, the single sex schools were used to triangulate the data.

Thirteen lessons were observed to collect the data: Four lessons from GC 2 and three lessons at each of the remaining schools. It was planned to observe four lessons in each school but due to some logistical problem this was not possible. Two sampling techniques were used, convenience and random sampling. The convenience sampling was used because some of the teachers were not willing to participate in the study and others were too busy to participate. When the teachers who were willing to participate were identified, systematic random sampling was used because only four lessons were to be observed. Every third name on the list of twelve willing teachers was included in the study. However, in some of the schools the teachers that were sampled and agreed to be observed did not turn up for their lessons, hence the discrepancy in the number of lessons observed. At GC 1 only one lesson was a mixed class, the other two were single sex classrooms, one all boys and the other all girls. This was so because the school decided to carry out research to see how girls will perform if they are separated from the boys. This was noted after the researcher had already gone to observe the classes.

Of the thirteen lessons, five were handled by female teachers and the rest by male teachers. The lessons were recorded and transcribed. It was felt that a small sample size is better than a large sample size, bearing in mind the work that is involved in transcribing lessons. It was also felt that “a sample representative of its population is more important than the sample size” (Tauliatos & Compton 1988:68). This means therefore that though there are only thirteen lessons to base our

conclusions on, the sample is a cross section of proportional representation of all the lessons in the schools. This is so because when sampling it was made sure that the following are represented; males and females, experienced and inexperienced teachers, as well as the training institutions the teachers are coming from (refer to table 1 in appendix 1).

Data was also collected from the textbooks that the teacher used in preparation as well as during the lessons that were observed. This was done with the understanding that during or after the lessons the students have a chance to read these books. Since language is seen as an instrument of transmitting principles of social order and systems of beliefs that defines unequal social values for males and females (Sheldon 1993), students exposure to language that assigns unequal values during lessons may have an effect on the students understanding of themselves in the society. This may be enhanced by the students' exposure to textbooks that also use discourse strategies that assign unequal values.

The following books were analysed:

1. McAdam, B. (1967) *Foundation Secondary English: An English Course for the Junior Secondary School in Africa*. Longman
2. Malawi College of Distance Education (1995). *English Composition Writing Skills set 1 – 3*
3. *New Secondary English Book 1 (2001)*. Blantyre: Longman
4. Kalibwanji, O. (2001) *Chanco Senior Secondary Biology*. Chancellor College Publications
5. Howse-Chisale, C., Chauma, A., & Kishindo, P. (2000). *Bukhu la Chinyanja la Ophunzira 1*. Blantyre: Longman.
6. Mshanga, J., Kampira, L. & Mwanza A. (2002). *Strides in Physical Science Book 1*. Blantyre: Longman
7. Kayala, B., & Kapelemera, N. (2002). *Strides in Agriculture book 3*. Blantyre: Longman.
8. Chikwakwa, R., Kaphesi, E., & Suffolk, J. (2002) *Senior Secondary Mathematics book 4*. Blantyre: Macmillan

3.2.2 Data collection

The study used three techniques to collect the data, observation, textbook analysis and interviews.

a. Observation

In this study the role of the observer was that of a non-participant observer, which means the observer was not actively involved in the activities of the classroom. The observation was structured because “investigations using structured observation lend themselves more to checks and controls necessary to establish the liability and validity of observational data” (Touliatos & Compton 1988:146). The observation technique was used because the researcher wanted to get firsthand information on the kind of discourse strategies used in class, which may not have been collected if interviews were used.

Bearing in mind that the presence of the observer may interfere with the delivery of the lesson, which may affect data collection, the teachers were briefed on the aim of the study two days before the observations. The researcher made sure that the teachers understood that the study was not about critiquing their teaching methods but understanding of the discourse that they normally use in class. However, it cannot be ruled out that some of the teachers modified their lessons to fit in the aim of the study.

The researcher was basically looking at the type of discourse strategies used by both the teacher and the students in class. The following discourse strategies and how they were used in class by the teacher were checked: examples, visual aids, questions, feedback, instructions, explaining and discussion. As regards the questions, the researcher was looking for how and to whom teachers use open, closed and probing questions in class. For the students, the researcher was interested in the following discourse strategies and how they were used: initiating talk, responding to teacher’s questions, reacting to fellow students’ answers, reacting to teacher’s comments and asking questions.

Since this study aimed at identifying the different discourse used in class, the language behaviour (content and structure), paralinguistic behaviour (non-content vocal cues that

accompany speech), and kinetic behaviour (gestures, posture, facial expressions, interpersonal spacing, touching) of the teacher was observed.

b. Textbook Analysis

The researcher was looking for the discourse strategies that the textbooks are using to impart new information to the students and how they are used. The following are the discourse strategies that the researcher was interested in: instructions, explaining, feedback, illustrations, and stories/comprehension passages.

c. Interviews

Interviews were conducted where clarifications were needed on something that was observed in the class. Basically the teachers are the ones that were interviewed as they were in control of the lessons.

3.3 Research tools

Three tools were used for data collection: observation checklist, textbook analysis checklist (refer to appendix 5 and 6) and audio tape recorder.

3.3.1 Textbook analysis checklist

In analysing the textbooks, a textbook analysis checklist was used (refer to appendix 6). This was designed in such a way that the expected discourse strategies were listed and the researcher had to check if these were used and how they were used.

3.3.2 Observation check list and tape recorder

A tape recorder and an observation check list (refer to appendix 5) were used to collect data in all the lessons. The observation checklist was used to collect data that could not be captured by the recorder, for example gestures, facial expression and number of times the students raised their hand to answer or ask questions. The audio-tape recorder was used to capture all the verbal communication that was taking place in the class, because “it permits a complete and unbiased transcription of responses later” (Touliatos & Compton 1988:184). The tape recorder also helps to get the exact words spoken, as well as tones; in addition, it is also helpful if one has to be free

to do something in the course of the event (Kane 1995). Since the researcher had to observe the non-verbal cues used in the lesson, the audio-tape recorder proved to be helpful, nothing was missed and it gave a chance to the researcher to analyse the data at a convenient time.

3.4 Data Analysis

The data collected was quantitatively and qualitatively analysed. The quantitative analysis involves presenting data in an efficient and meaningful summary form through frequency distribution. Frequency distribution shows the number and percentage of people or items that fall into different categories. Even though this research is basically qualitative this method of data analysis was included because some of the data that was collected could not be easily explained qualitatively.

Because of the small size of the sample a non-parametric test was used to analyse the data. The chi-square is the non-parametric test that was used to determine whether observed distributions differ from one another. The level of significance (alpha or alpha level) for deciding whether differences are sufficiently large that their occurrence cannot be attributed to chance or so small that their occurrence on the basis of normal fluctuations caused by sampling error is relatively probable was .05 (Refer to appendix 3 for Chi-Square chart).

According to Creswell (1998), qualitative analysis of data involves three procedures: descriptive detail (in which the author describes what he/she has seen), classification (in which the text or qualitative information is taken apart, looking for categories, themes and dimensions) and interpretation (which involves making sense of the data, the 'lesson learnt'). Data in this research was analyzed using Creswell's procedures. Thus the data collected from the classrooms and books was read through to make sense of the themes, ideas, relationships and categories that emerge from the data. By listing all the themes, ideas and concepts, coding categories was developed. The data was coded and sorted out in the coding categories, from which conclusions were made.

The lessons were also transcribed to have a clear picture of what was actually happening in class. In transcribing the lessons the following abbreviations were used: ST to refer to structuring

where the teacher is explaining the concepts; EV to refer to evaluation where the teacher is actually evaluating students answers; RES to refer to student's response to the teacher's solicitation; and SOL to refer to solicit where the teacher is actually looking for a response from the students.

3.5 Limitations of study

There were a few limitations in this study. The first was that it was difficult to capture most of the students' responses because they were not speaking loud enough for the recorder to capture the voice. This made transcription of the lessons difficult. The second problem was that some of the teachers that were booked to be observed did not come for classes at the appointed time. It seems they were not comfortable to have someone sit in their class and study their discourse. Though the researcher briefed them on the purpose of the research, it seems most teachers did not trust the researcher, they thought the researcher was there to supervise and critique the lessons. The other limitation was that the teachers and students seemed to have modified their behaviour to fit in with the studies objectives.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the results of the research in view of the literature and theoretical base. It provides the textbook discourses that have been identified, analysis of the discourse strategies that the teachers use in class to interact with students and an evaluation of the discourse strategies the students use for daily interaction in class. The chapter also provides an assessment of how these discourses symbolically position boys and girls in the education setting as well as their daily lives.

4.1 Textbook Discourse Strategies

The study sought to identify the discourse strategies used to transfer new information to the students, in the textbooks that the teachers and students use in class. The textbook analysis revealed that the books used a variety of strategies to make sure that the students get the information without difficulty. The mostly used strategies in the books include; instructions, illustrations, explanations and comprehension passages.

4.1.1 Strides in Physical Science Book 1

Instructions and feedback

In this textbook instructions are given when the students are required to be involved in an experiment. The feedback is then given in a form of an explanation to what is to be expected from an experiment or what has been observed and what that observation means.

Pictures/illustrations

The textbook has a lot of illustrations that have been used to explain different concepts. Chapters 1, 5 to 11 are full of illustrations of experiments and symbols, these illustrations do not feature human beings. Chapters 2 to 4 have a lot of illustrations featuring human beings. Table 1 below shows the number of times the females and males were featured in the pictures.

Table 1: Number of times the males and females featured in the pictures in *Strides in physical science book 1*

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Females	12	31.8
Males	15	39.4
Males + Females	3	7.8
Objects	8	21.0
Total	38	100

Although it seems the males have been featured more than the females, the pictures seem to be balanced in terms of theme. For example, Chapter 2 has a picture of a girl dragging a 50kg bag of maize and another picture with a boy pushing a 50kg bag of cement. In the same chapter there is a picture of a boy and a girl pulling a fishing net. In the first example notice that both the boy and the girl are responsible for a bag with the same weight, this means that girls can also do what boys can.

In Chapter 3 there is a picture of a man washing dishes and another with a man cooking. In most cases cooking and washing dishes are seen as women's chores but in this book it is the men doing these chores (refer to table 1 in appendix 2).

Explanations

The writers of the textbook are basically addressing the reader – they have used second person plural/ singular '**you**' throughout. For example, ***you** would have noticed that ..., during your discussion **you** might have ..., what do **you** feel? and **you** need energy to cook your food.*

Questions

The textbook has also used a number of questions to help students understand the content of the textbook as well as to give the students a chance to self assess their progress in the learning process. The textbook uses both open and closed questions. Open questions are those questions that require the students to use reasoning, own experience and observation. While the closed ones check recall, knowledge and understanding of a process, in other words they look for specific answers. Figure 1 below shows the distribution of questions in the book.

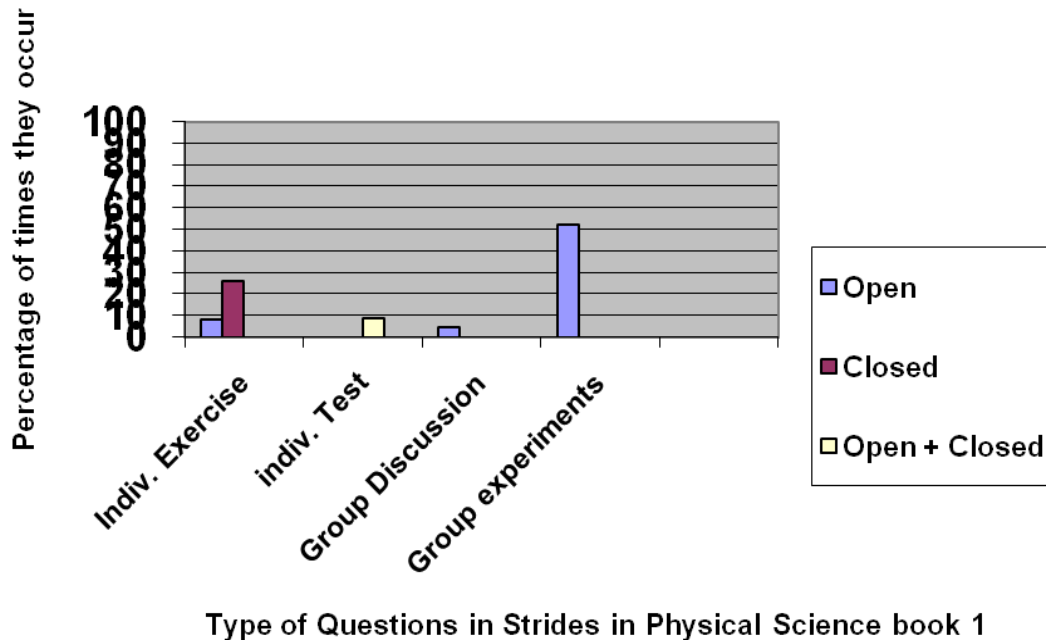


Figure 1: Types of questions against percentage of times they are asked

Source: field data

Figure 1 above indicates that the book uses open questions more than closed questions. Open questions are used in group experiments (52.1%) more than in individual tests (8.3%), while closed questions are used frequently in individual exercises (26.4%). The book also has 9 revision tests for each chapter and for these tests both open and closed questions are used.

4.1.2 Chanco Senior Secondary Biology

Questions

The textbook does not have exercises for the students or the study groups apart from the 26 *experiments* the students have to do. No direct feedback is given on the experiments. After

giving an explanation of the new information the author lets the students do the experiment to observe what has been explained for themselves. The language used in the experiment is basically commands, since the students are given instructions as to how to do the experiment. The subject is omitted, and the sentences begin with an action verb. For example, *obtain four beans, put the cork in a small aquarium tank..., pin one of the seedlings to a cork..., select two potted plants/seedlings and cover the tip of one of the seedlings with a cap.*

Explaining

Explanation of the new concepts is given throughout the book. The author does not involve the students in the learning process, as a result the language distances the reader from whatever is happening – the student is viewed as an observer and not part of the action.

Summary

Each chapter has a summary of what has been discussed in the chapter – the language used in the summary is also distant.

Pictures/illustrations

The pictures in this textbook all deal with the technical aspects of Biology. The textbook has the following pictures: Plants, Cells, Experiments, Seeds, Graphs, Human digestive system, Blood circulation in humans, Human heart, Respiratory tract, Human skeleton, Human nervous system, Life cycle of a mosquito, Female reproductive system, Menstrual cycle of a human being, Pregnancy, Human sperm, Foetus immediately before birth, Position of kidneys in human beings and Structure of a nephron.

4.1.3 English Composition Writing Skills Set 1- 3 & Test

Explaining

There are a number of exercises the student is required to do. Feedback is given in a form of explanations on how things are expected to be. In explaining these issues the book uses second person singular/plural ‘**you**’ through out. For example, *by the end of this unit **you** will be able*

to..., if **your** aim is to specify, state exactly or describe fully ..., **you** sometimes use these tense to express a future action ... and **you** can also begin a story with a descriptive passage ...

Examples

This book has a lot of examples that are used to clarify the new concepts that the students have been introduced to. The book has featured the boys more than the girls in the examples.

Table 2: Number of times boys and girls are featured in examples

Gender	Frequency	Percent %
Boy	31	62.0
Girls	19	38.0
Total	50	100

Table 2 above, shows the number of times the boys and girls are featured in the examples in *Secondary Composition Writing Skills*. The table indicates that the boys are featured more (62.0%) than the girls (38.0%). This data shows that more attention is on the males than on their female counterparts. This is also reflected on page 93 of the book where there are examples of those who give instructions. The book lists the following:

- Teacher – teachers explain to people how to do or write something in class
- Football team coach – the coach instructs *his* team
- The building foreman – the foreman gives instructions to *his* team to build according to plan
- The manager – explains to heads of department how to run their departments. *His* instructions help the organization to achieve its aims and objectives
- The salesman – explains to *his* customers about the quality and value of his goods

Note, it is only the teaching profession that is not actually linked to a particular gender, the rest are linked to the males as reflected in the use of the third person masculine *his* in the explanations.

4.1.4 Foundation Secondary English: English Course for the Junior Secondary School in Africa

Explaining

The book gives out new information to the reader through explaining. The language used is inclusive, that is to say the language includes the reader as part of the action and not as an observer. In most cases when explaining or introducing an idea the second person singular/plural '**you**' is used. For example, ***you** will find the first sound harder... and **you** will find a number of rules...* Sometimes the first person plural '**we**' is used. For example, ***we** say at Christmas when **we** are referring to the period of Christmas and in this section **we** will be discussing ...*

In other cases the book uses the third person singular in explaining examples. It has been observed that every time the book is using third person, '**he**' is used.

Examples

The book has a lot of examples to help the students understand the new concepts. The boys are featured more (63.0%) in the examples than the girls (37.0%). Table 3 below shows the number of times the males and females are used in the examples. The examples address different issues including professions. It has been observed that the professions in this book are not gender sensitive as they are using the generic term man, the textbook has the following professions: *Landlord, Policeman, Headmaster and Chairman*

Table 3: Number of times females and males are featured in *Foundation secondary English: English course for the junior Secondary School in Africa*

Gender	Frequency	Percent %
Males	198	63.0
Females	117	37.0
Total	315	100

Pictures/illustrations

The pictures in this book may be classified into two categories, those that feature boys and those that feature both sexes; there are no pictures that feature girl(s)/ woman alone. Table 4 below

summarises the pictures that are found in *Foundation secondary English: English course for the Junior Secondary School in Africa*.

Table 4: Pictures found in *Foundation secondary English: English course for the Junior Secondary School in Africa*

Pictures featuring boys	Pictures featuring both sexes
- Boys sitting along the banks of a river 5 boys sitting under a tree eating fruits 2 boys sitting in a class with a male teacher teaching - One boy seems to have fainted with another boy helping him and another running apparently for help - Boy driving a car, with one passing by waving to a man running towards the car. In the background there is woman carrying a basket on her head while holding a little girls arm.	- A mother and a boy carrying a basket and 3 women and 2 boys sitting on chairs apparently in a bus - Mother pounding something and a boy carrying some fruits and flowers - A market place with people selling various items, a man and a boy seem to be negotiating for better prices 3 boys watching men and women working in a tea estate 2 men and 2 women sitting together eating.

Reading texts

The reading texts are one long story, which has been divided into smaller bits to make reading easy, with Mavuto and Zuze as the main characters. It evolves around Mavuto and Zuze's life at school as well as home. No other female characters are mentioned apart from the mothers of the two boys. The story also addresses the issue of professions and just as in the examples, no profession is associated with the females. The story has the following professions: *Headmaster*, Teacher (male), Driver (male), *Policeman*, Thief (male) and School president (male)

Questions and feedback

There are a lot of exercises to be done by the student. The questions are basically closed on the grammar points and both closed and open for the comprehension questions. No feedback is given on the questions.

4.1.5 Senior Secondary Mathematics book 4

Instructions

No instructions are given in this textbook except for the topic on *probability* where students are expected to do an experiment.

Illustrations

The textbook has used a lot of illustrations which makes the lessons easy to follow but all of these are technical. These include: graphs, circles, tables, triangles, and three-dimensional figures.

Explaining

There is a lot of explaining in this textbook to help the students understand the concepts. The textbook is using a number of strategies in explaining. One of the strategies is the use of the first person plural, when emphasizing or illustrating a point. For example, *when **we** multiply..., **we** can see why..., **we** can illustrate... and if **we** know...* In some cases names or objects are used as subjects of the problem or explanation. For example, Betty and Dorothy, in a school, Mary and Madalo.

The textbook also uses the second person plural/singular “**you**” especially when reviewing what has been learnt in the previous lesson or when referring back to what has already been discussed. For example, ***you** have learnt how to factorise..., **you** found that... and last year **you** learnt...*

When introducing students to new information, that is the content, language that is distant is used. The textbook does not directly address the students. The reader is not part of the action but an observer. The technical terms become the subjects of the sentences. For example, *Data can be summarized and compared by use of averages..., In a rotation the object is rotated..., The scatter graph in the example... and Equations are statements...*

Examples

The textbook has a lot of examples but being a Mathematics textbook most of these are figures and calculations. In cases where the calculations involve word problems in which examples are drawn from the ordinary life the textbook has featured boys, girls, and objects as subjects of the problem. It was observed that object/neutral names are used frequently (61.0%) than boys (21.7%) and girls (17.3%). Neutral names in this case refer to the names in local language, because it is difficult to say whether a name refers to a boy or girl if it is in a local language e.g. Chilungamo, Dalitso, Takondwa, etc. Table 4 below summarises the number of times the boys, girls and objects are featured in the examples.

Table 5: Number of times boys, girls and objects are featured in the examples in Mathematics book 4

Gender	Frequency	Percent %
Boys	5	21.7
Girls	4	17.3
Neutral names/objects	14	61.0
Total	23	100

Questions

Basically the book requires the students to be doing most of the work as such it has about 77 exercises with an average of 10 questions per exercise, all questions are closed.

4.1.6 Strides in Agriculture Book 3

Illustrations/pictures

The textbook has lots of illustrations to help the students understand the concepts. Almost all illustrations are technical except for three pictures which have people doing various things. The pictures are: (1) People standing outside Salima PTC, (2) A man on a ladder working on his house and (3) Four women at table. The other pictures include: Plants, Livestock, Pests and Seeds

Questions

Each unit or chapter has its own review questions. Apart from these the textbook is using question as its main technique of transmitting information. Almost all 75 questions that are in the book are open. These questions are asked before new information is given to the students. The questions are supposed to be discussed with a partner.

Most of the questions directly address the students, through the use of second person singular/plural **'you'**. For example, *can **you** remember..., how do farmers in **your** area..., what do **you** think... and how would **you** know...*

Feedback

Feedback to the questions is given in a form of possible answers. On the basis of the answers to the questions on students experience new information is provided. In giving the students feedback the students are addressed directly through the use of second person plural/singular **'you'**. For example, ***you** have seen..., **you** will find..., **you** may have noted... and **you** will remember...*

The same language is also used when referring back to something that has already been discussed or something that was learnt in the previous lesson or years. For example, *in form 2 **you** learnt... and **you** already know...*

Explaining

The explanation is given soon after the feedback. When new information is being presented the language is distant – the students become spectators and not part of the action. The content words become the subjects of the statements. For example, *soil depth, as a physical property of soil, is..., soil consistency refers to..., weeds can be grouped... and female goats are known...*

4.1.7 New Secondary English book 1

Explaining

There is a lot of explaining in this textbook to introduce the students to new concepts as well as to help them understand. In most cases the textbook is directly addressing the students through the use of second person singular/plural ‘**you**’. For example, *now that **you** are..., in this course **you** will..., if **you** find that... and when **you** write...* the textbook also uses the first person plural “**we**” when new information is being presented or when referring to something that has already been discussed or learnt. For example, ***we** use the past tense when..., **we** use them more frequently..., **we** use at when **we**..., sometimes **we** have more than one word for something..., when **we** read stories told through pictures..., as **we** mentioned..., in unit three, **we** saw..., earlier in this textbook **we** saw... and in unit seven **we** practiced...*

Questions/Activities

There are a lot of exercises in the textbook that require the students to do much of the work. The activities are presented as commands to the students, by the use of active verb at the beginning of the statement. For example, *read aloud..., keep a record..., arrange the following..., look at the sentences... and describe...* These activities come soon after new information has been given to the students.

Pictures/illustration

There are a lot of pictures in this textbook, featuring both males and females. The males are featured (51.2%) more than the girls (14.6%). The pictures also feature boys and girls together. Boys and girls are featured together (34.1%) more than the girls. Table 5 below summarises the number of times the boys and girls are featured in the pictures of the textbook in *New Secondary English*.

Table 6: Number of times the boys and girls are featured in the pictures

	Frequency	Percentage
Males	21	51.2
Females	6	14.6
Both	14	34.1
Total	41	100

Reading texts

The textbook has a lot of reading texts for the students to practice their comprehension skills and grammar points. It has 16 units and each unit has a reading passage.

The reading texts have featured female and male characters. Some texts have animals as characters in the story. Males are featured (58.8%) more than females (41.2%), the rest of the characters are animals. Table 7 below shows the frequency of how males and females are featured in the reading texts.

Table 7: Number of times males and females are featured in reading texts

Gender	Frequency	Percent %
Males	10	58.8
Females	7	41.2
Total	17	100

There are a lot of professions that have been featured in the reading texts. It has been observed that none of these professions represent females. The professions are as follows: *Spokesman* for ESCOM, Teachers (male), *Headmaster*, Coach (male), Bus inspector (male) and *Policeman*.

4.1.8 Buku la Chinyanja la Ophunzira Buku 1

Explaining

There is a lot of explaining done in this textbook. The textbook addresses the students directly by the use of the prefix ‘**mu**’ (you) which is added to the verb especially when referring to previous lessons, giving instructions or when directing their attention to a particular item. For example, *mmutu 1 mudaphunziramo...*(in unit 1 you learnt...), *mutu uno muphunzira* (in this unit you will learn...), *naka ka nthano kena koti mungatolepo phunziro...*(here is another educative story) and *werengani kuti mumve...*(read and understand)

When new information is being presented to the students language that is distant is used, the students are now spectators and not part of the action. The content words become the subjects of the expressions. For example, *chilankhulo chilichonse chili ndi mau...*(each language has words...), *ndagi kapena zilapi zimakhala...*(riddles have...), and *chifupikitso ndi kulemba...*(summary and writing).

Pictures/illustration

The textbook has a lot of pictures, most of them feature both males and females (70.0%). Very few pictures feature men/boys alone (20.0%) and girls/women alone (10.0%) (Refer to table 2 in appendix 1).

Reading texts

The textbook has a lot of reading passages, in fact each unit or chapter has its own comprehension passage, and the chapter is named after the reading passage. Table 3 in appendix 1 summarises the reading passages in the textbook.

The reading passages in this textbook aim at building an informed nation. The textbook has taken special interest in addressing the issues of girl child education. For example, in unit 1, 8 and 13 the reading passages discuss the importance of sending girls to school and what the girls are capable of doing if given a chance to shine.

Questions

The textbook has a lot of activities or exercises to be done by the students. After every reading passage there are comprehension questions. Apart from these there are other questions on grammar which come soon after explanation of these grammatical or linguistic features. The questions are in a form of a statement that tells the students exactly what they are supposed to do. For example, *tsopano yankhani mafunso otsatilawa* (now answer the following questions), *pangani ziganizo ziwiri zosiyana...* (Construct two different sentences), and *tiyeni tsopano lakatulani ndakatuloyi...* (Now recite the following poem).

4.1.9 Discussion

It was observed that the instruction strategy was mostly used in the science textbooks. The instructions help the students to do experiments, research and calculations without help from the teacher. As observed the instructions are written in such a way that they give commands to the students as to what they are required to do. It is clear that the instructions are directly addressing the students regardless of the sex. This means that every activity in the science textbooks can be

done by both boys and girls', giving the picture that science is for both boys and girls. No activities are categorised in terms of gender.

Illustrations have been used extensively in almost all the textbooks that were analysed. However, the study has revealed that in most of the textbooks the males are featured more than the females (refer to Tables 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7 above). This observation agrees with Stanley's (2001) observation that in most textbooks males appear more frequently than females, as if females are less important than males. The use of more male pictures than females may hinder the learning process of the girls as it sends the message that females are not as important as males. However, the authors of the textbooks should be commended for making an effort to balance the theme of gender in the textbook, except for *Foundation Secondary English*. For this particular textbook it may be because it is an old publication published in 1967, but since it is used in today's classes the teacher should be conscious of the kind of textbooks they bring to class.

Chimombo and Mandalasi (2000) observe that pictures are "worth a thousand words". According to them, pictures help in memory retention and are useful in arousing interest, this may be the reason the textbooks have a lot of pictures. Mtunda and Safuli (1986) add that pictures help the students to build new experiences and also correct their misconceptions. This means that the pictures, apart from helping in the teaching and learning process, also help the students to develop new perceptions of the world. For example, the pictures in Chapter 3 of *Strides in Physical Science Book 1* that show a man cooking or washing dishes or a picture in *Buku la Chinyanja Buku 1* that shows a boy washing dishes, apart from helping the students to understand and learn new concepts also puts them in a position to change their perception towards these chores. The students will understand that men can do what is perceived to be women's work or women can do what men can, for example, dragging 50kg bags.

Romaine (1999) observes that the use of masculine forms such as "he", "man", and compounds like "mankind" in a generic sense to include women, is evidence that English is sexist. The data from *Foundation Secondary English* and *English Composition Writing Skills* where we have professions like *salesman, foreman, landlord, chairman, policeman and headmaster*, and where all the definitions refer to males only (refer to data on page 50), reflect this observation. The use

of these generic terms also sends the message that women are inferior to men and that they do not have the power to ascend to such high positions. Kandaswamy (2004) in support of the same argues that if students read such textbooks the girls learn that they are worthless and boys learn that women never contributed anything to develop the society, conditioning them from an early stage that women are inferior. This is because the reader being an active receiver of discourse as Stuart Hall argues, s/he has the chance to question the use of the generic term instead of using the a more balanced term.

Bearing in mind that questions are instruction cues or stimuli that convey to students the content elements to be learned and directions for what they are to do and how they are to do it (Cotton 2001), the authors of the textbooks that were analysed use this strategy of questioning on a large scale. The questions are both closed and open questions depending on what the authors are trying to achieve. It was observed that the open questions are usually asked before new information is presented to the students and the closed questions are asked after new information has been given.

The authors use the explaining strategy to give more detailed information on new concepts in the books. In almost all the books that were analysed the authors are directly addressing the students. This is clearly seen through the use of second person plural or singular “you” and the use of the prefix “mu” (you) in Chichewa, for example “*you* need energy to cook *your* food” and “naka kanthano kena koti *mungatolepo* phunziro” (here is another educative story). In other cases, the authors use the first person plural “we” for example, “*we* say at Christmas when *we* are referring to the period of Christmas”, the use of “we” shows that the authors view the students as part of the teaching and learning process. The students are seen as active participants.

In other cases the language that is used is distant, that is the authors are not directly addressing the students but rather just giving information without really involving them. In this case instead of using “you” or “we” the content words become the subjects of the statements for example, “soil depth”, “physical property of soil is...” This strategy is essentially used when new information is being given.

The use of “you” and “we” in explaining or asking questions breaks the gender boundary. Every student male or female feels part of the learning process; no one is left out because of the discourse used.

It was noted that most of the lessons that were observed the teacher did not bring the textbooks she/he used for preparation of the lesson to class. However, the students were encouraged to get the books in the library for study later after the lesson. That is to say, though the students did not have the chance to encounter the books in the classroom situation they have the chance to encounter the books in the library. This means therefore that, not bringing to class textbooks that have discourse that marginalises one sex does not protect the students from the discourse since they will encounter the textbooks anyway.

4.2 Teacher discourse strategies

4.2.1 Turn allocation in class

The study also analysed the discourse strategies that teachers use to interact with students in class. It was noted that all the teachers observed used the I-R-E turn sequence identified by Greenleaf and Freedman (1993). Thus the teachers always initiate talk either through structuring or soliciting (I). After the teacher had spoken s/he gave the student the turn to give an answer or comment, as well as to ask a question (R) and finally the teacher evaluated students’ responses (E). For example, the transcript below from an English lesson in Form 2 at GC 1, clearly shows how this turn sequence was used in class.

GC1 English 2

- Teacher: **ST**...So the topic we will learn is not a new topic we have learnt about prepositions previously at primary school, Secondary school form one. **SOL** What do we understand by the term prepositions? What is a preposition? (*looks around and nominates a student, boy*) yes?
- Boy: **RES** a word that precedes a noun.
- Teacher: **EV** precedes a noun? **EV** Yea that’s right **SOL** who can give a better explanation on what a preposition is? What is a preposition? (*nominates a girl to answer the question*)

Girl: **RES** a word that comes before a noun.

Teacher: **EV** that goes before a noun? **SOL** Anybody who can explain better? Yes?
(*nominates a boy*)

Boy: **RES** a word that come before a verb.

Teacher: **EVA** before a verb? **SOL** Are you sure? (*nominates a boy*) Yes?

Boy: **RES** it is the word which shows the actual place where the problem is.

Teacher: **SOL** a word which does what?

Boy: **RES** (*repeats the answer*) shows the place...

Teacher: **EV** are you sure? **SOL** Yes? (*nominates another student boy*)

Boy: **RES** a word qualifying a noun

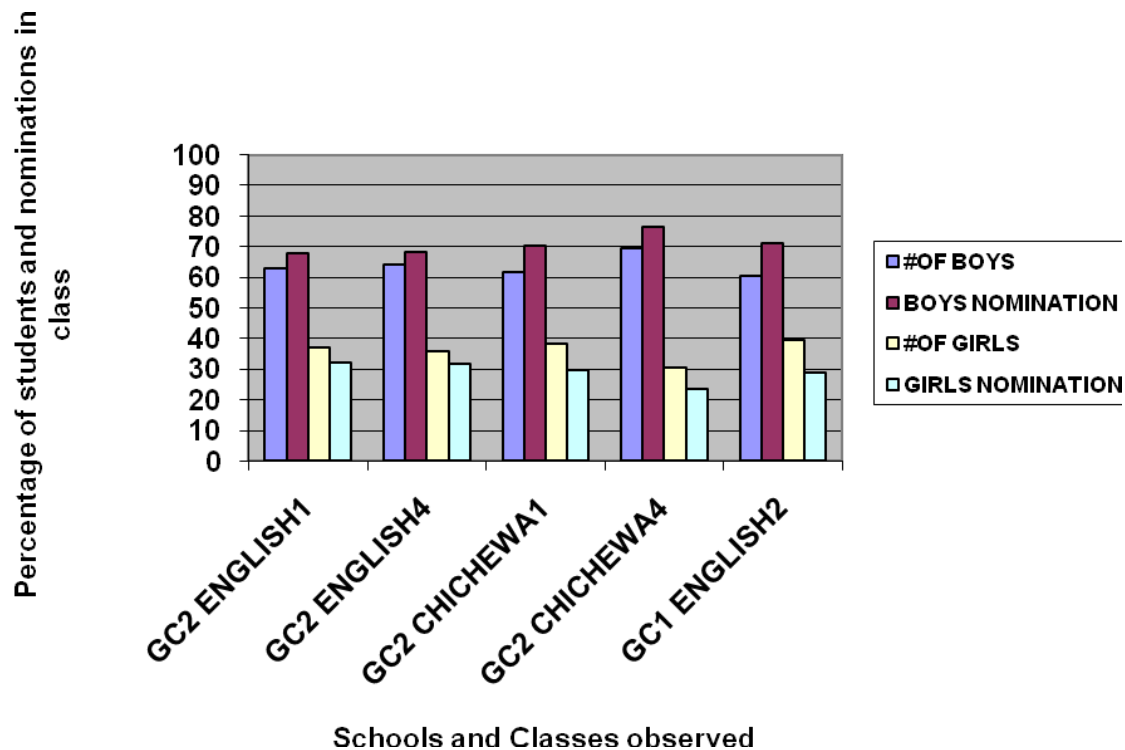
Teacher: **EV** no its not it. **SOL** Which words qualifies a noun?

Class: **RES** adjective

Teacher: **EV** it is an adjective yes?

4.2.2 Turn allocation versus number in class

It was noted in all the classes that were observed that there are few girls than boys in the classes. For example, there are 22 boys (62.9%) and 13 girls (37.1%) in GC 2 English 1, 26 boys (60.5%) and 17 girls (39.5%) in GC 1 English 2 (refer to Figure 2 below). Even though there were fewer girls than boys in the classes the teachers managed to balance the nominations. The chi-square test was used to determine this. With the degree of dependence being 1, all the probability values of observed versus expected nominations in class exceed the value of probability of 0.05, this means therefore, that the difference between observed and expected nominations of boys and girls in the mixed class is not significant (refer to table 4 in appendix 3).



Figur

e 2: Distribution of Gender and Nomination by class

Source: field data

4.2.3 Individual nominations versus class nominations

From Figure 1 below it can be seen that the boys were given more time to talk than the girls. In the girls' classes the teachers preferred to give more group questions than individual questions. From the table it can be seen that in all-girls classes the girls answered questions as individuals 19 times representing 20.4% and as a class 74 times representing 78.7%. In the all-boys' classes the boys were called to answer questions as individuals 41 times representing 60.3% and as a class 27 times representing 39.7%.

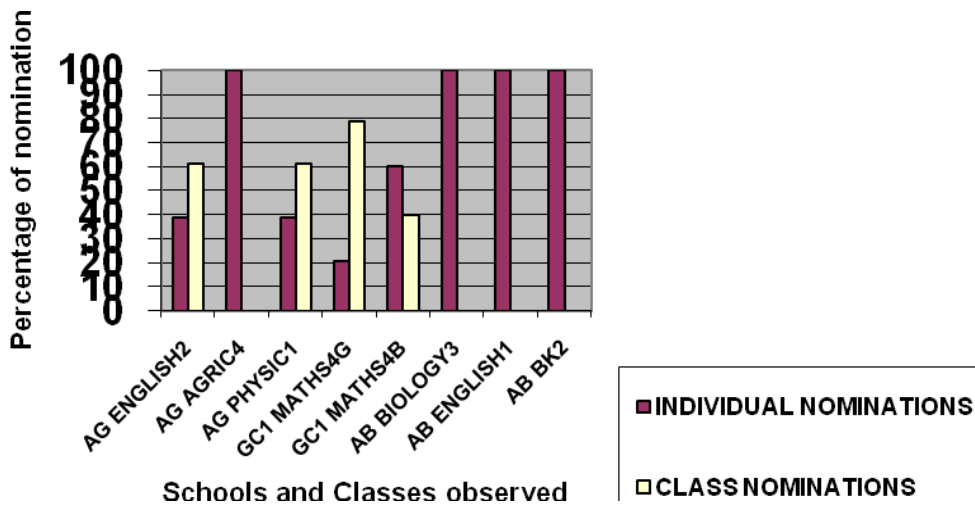


Figure 3: Distribution of Nominations by class

Source: field data

4.2.4 Teacher reaction to students answers

The transcript below from GC 1 Mathematics All Boys shows how teachers evaluated students' answers through repetition of their answers.

GC 1 Mathematics all boys

- Teacher: **ST...** From those terms among the three terms, the common factor which is X now we are saying **SOL** how can we have the remaining terms in the brackets?
- Boy: **RES** we are going to divide X into the terms
- Teacher: **EV – REPEAT** we are going to divide X into the terms **ST** which means the question should be x into X^3 **SOL** x into X^3 the answer is what?
- Class: **RES** X^2
- Teacher: **EV – REPEAT** X^2 **ST** then we go for x into $7x^2$ **SOL** if x goes into $7x^2$ what will be our answer? X into $7x^2$
- Boy: **RES** $7x$

Teacher: **EV – REPEAT** is $7x$, **POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT** good! **ST** Then finally X should go into 10 **SOL** what? $10x$ on our answer should be? If x goes into $10x$ what will be our answer here?

Boy: **RES** 10

Teacher: **EV – REPEAT** its 10 **ST** then closing the brackets we have factorised $x^3 + 7x^2 + 10x$ now the question is, **SOL** is our factorisation finalised?

Note that every time the students gave an answer the teacher repeated the answer as a way of telling the students that the answer was right. In certain cases the teachers used the same strategy of repeating the answer to show that the answer is not the one that the teacher was looking for. The difference is that in the case where the answer is wrong the teacher will repeat the answer with question intonation. If we refer back to transcript on GC 1 English 2 it can be clearly seen that the teacher was using this strategy. Every time the students gave an answer which was wrong she would repeat it in the form of a question. This indicated to the students that the answer was wrong. Another example showing a teacher repeating students' answers is this transcript from a form 1 English lesson from GC 2:

GC 2 English 1

Boy: **RES** three parts

Teacher: **EV – repeat in form of question** three parts is it? **SOL** Does a composition has three parts? We don't know? Is there anyone who has [sic] a different idea? Three parts? Alright what are the parts? What are the three parts of a composition?

Boy: **RES** title

Teacher: **EV – repeat in a form of a question** title? (*write on the board*) **SOL** title part of a composition? Anything else? **ST** Alright so we said three parts so we are saying title one, **SOL** two?

Girl: **RES** (*could not capture the answer*)

Teacher: **EV + SOL** did you hear what she said?

Girl: **RES** paragraph

Teacher: **EV – repeat in a form of an answer** paragraph? (*writes on the board*) **ST** three parts of a composition **SOL** another thing? What is the third thing? We said three not so?

The difference between this teacher's strategy and that in GC 1 Mathematics 4 is that this teacher though she questions the correctness of the answer does not fully discard the answers but writes them down on the board for further analysis. This particular strategy helps the student to realize that the answer is wrong but not worthless. In other words, the answer is not relevant to the discussion, but not completely wrong. This in turn helps the student to work on finding the correct answer to the question.

In other cases, the teacher did not comment on students' responses or repeat the answers but moved on to ask another question. This indicated to the students that the answer given is right. For example, this transcript from a Form 2 English at AG shows the teacher responding to students' answers by simply ignoring the answer and moving on to solicit and nominate another student.

AG English 2

Girl: **RES** the teacher's eyes are different from mine.

Teacher: **SOL** number 4?

Girl: **RES** this desk in this school is different from the desk from that school

Teacher: **SOL** number 5?

Girl: **RES** John's blue shirt is different from Peter's shirt (*had problems in pronouncing John's blue shirt*)

Teacher: **ST – helping the student to pronounce the sentence** John's blue shirt

Girl: **RES** John's blue shirt is different from Peter's shirt

Teacher: **SOL** mh

Girl: **SOL** number 5?

Teacher: **RES** you have to make sure that you are attentive am not going to give the number **SOL** yes?

Girl: **RES** those in Malawi are different from those in Zambia

Teacher: **SOL** yes

There were also other strategies that the teacher used to evaluate students' right answers. Table 8 below gives a summary of teachers' reactions to students' right answers and the frequency these were used. The study was interested to see how comments were distributed in mixed classes and also if there is a difference in how these comments are used in single sex classes.

Table 8: Distribution of comments for right answers in class

School, Lesson and Class	Reaction to right answers	Frequency
--------------------------	---------------------------	-----------

		Boys	Girls
GC 2 Chinyanja 4	Zikomo (thank you)	3	-
	Repeats the answer	18	10
GC 2 Chinyanja 1	Zikomo kwambiri (thank you very much)	11	6
	Repeats the answer	16	3
	Zoona (true)	1	1
	Chabwino (ok)	-	1
	Smiles	-	1
GC 2 English 1	Alright	9	2
	Thank you	1	-
	Repeats the answer	7	3
	That's good	-	3
GC 2 English 4	Repeats the answer	7	3
	ok	10	1
	Asks probing question	3	1
	That's true	1	-
AG English 2	That's good	-	1
	Repeats the answer	-	4
	Ignores the answer and moves on	-	10
	That's nice isn't it	-	1
AG Agriculture 3	Repeats the answer	-	16
	mmh	-	1
AG Physical science 1	Repeats the answer	-	5
	Excellent	-	1
	Alright	-	1
	ok	-	1
	That's right	-	2
GC 1 English 2	That's right	2	-
	mmh	1	-
	Repeats the answer	4	-
	Writes on the board	-	1
	Ignores and nominates another	8	7
GC 1 Mathematics (boys)	Repeats answer	14	-
	Good	3	-
GC 1 Mathematics (girls)	Repeats answer	-	13
	Ignores and moves on	-	1
	Asks probing question	-	3
	Use class to evaluate the answer	-	3
AB Biology	Exactly	2	-
	That's correct	6	-
	Yes	1	-
	Repeats the answer	4	-
AB English	Yes	6	-
	Repeats the answer	21	-
AB Bible knowledge	ok	8	-
	Repeats the answer	5	-

Source: field data

The teachers also used the whole class to evaluate answers but it was observed that this strategy was not properly used in some cases making the student responsible feel embarrassed, as for

example in the following transcripts from a Form 4 GC 1 Mathematics All Boys and GC 1 Mathematics All Girls.

GC 1 Mathematics All Boys

Teacher: **ST** Let's analyse this one **SOL** is there any truth (*laughs together with the class*) do we have any (*laughs*) truth here? Which factor is missing here?

Class: **RES** x

Teacher: **ST** let's check (sic) our polynomial has a degree of what? 3 and if the polynomial has highest degree of 3 it means after factorisation you should have 3 factors now this way **SOL** how many factors do we have here according to your expression here (*addresses the boy who gave the expression they are analysing, RES silence from the boy*) **SOL** ok another question how many terms are being multiplied here?

Boy: **RES** one

Teacher: **EV – repeat answer** one, **SOL** which term?

Boy: **RES** x

Teacher: **EV repeat answer** x **ST** he is saying x according to him there is one term which is being multiplied, x **SOL** is he correct? Yes? Is he correct?

Boy: **RES** I think he isn't correct

Teacher: **ST** ok let's take 10 you said we discussed factors of 10 are, or let's have this situation 1, 2, and 5 which means in this situation we have listed factors of 10 we have 1, 2, and 5 such that 1 times 2 we have **SOL** what? 2 and 2 times 5 we are having what?

GC 1 Mathematics All Girls

Teacher: **SOL** Can you give me your graph (*gets a graph from one of the girls –RES the other girls laugh and the owner of the graph looks at the teacher offended, teacher ignores*). **SOL** Is this cubic graph? (*Shows the graph to the other members of the class*).

Class: **RES** no

- Teacher: **ST** tizinena molimba mtima eehh (*laughs*, **RES** *half of the class laughs especially those who knew how a cubic graph should look*) **SOL** did we discuss kuti cubic graph izioneka chonchi?
- Class: **RES** ayi! No!
- Teacher: **SOL** what's the mistake? Amene angalongosole. What's the mistake of this graph? Yes? (*nominates a student*)
- Girl: **RES** (*could not capture what she said*)
- Teacher: **ST** firstly it means the turning points are not accurate. The turning points are where the graph is turning to go the other side, then the turning points are not accurate. Firstly I said the turning point should be a curve. You were supposed to produce an "s" shaped **SOL** what? **ST** Graph, and should be a curve. This is not a curve (*pointing to the girl's graph*) please write corrections and give it to me after lunch (*gives the graph back to the owner*). And second, another problem is some of you were not using **SOL** what?

There were also other strategies that the teacher used to evaluate students' wrong answers. Table 9 below gives a summary of teachers' reactions to students' wrong answers and the frequency these were used.

Table 9: Teacher's reactions to wrong answers

School, Subject, and Class	Reaction to wrong answers	Frequency
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		Boys	Girls
GC 2 Chinyanja 4	Sindinaneneko ine zimenezo (I did not say that)	1	-
	Taona anzako onse akuti ayi (look, all your classmates are saying no)	-	1
	Mmene wamvera iye ndi mmenemo (that is how she has understood the concept)	1	1
GC 2 English 1	Repeats the answer in a question form	12	2
	No	-	1
GC 2 English 4	No	1	-
	Repeats the answer in a question form	1	1
	Ignores and nominates another	-	1
GC 1 Mathematics (boys)	Uses whole class to evaluate	2	-
	Laughs the answer off	1	-
	According to him that's the answer	3	-
GC 1 Mathematics (girls)	Uses the class to evaluate	-	1
GC 1 English	Are you sure?	2	-
	Who can give a better explanation?	1	1
	Smiles	1	-
	Repeats the answer in question form	5	1
	Uses class to evaluate	1	-
	Directs the student	1	1
	Ignores	-	1
	No	1	1
	Laughs the answer off	1	-
AG English	Teacher helps the student through	-	2
AG Physical science	Repeats the answer in a form of a question	-	1
	Ok (dragged)	-	1
	mmh	-	1
	smile	-	1
	Not really	-	1
	That's not right	-	2
AB Biology	Ok (dragged)	1	-
	No	1	-
	Laughs	1	-
AB Bible knowledge	Repeats the answer in a question form	4	-

Source: field data

4.2.5 Discussion

From transcript GC1 English 2 and all the other transcripts that have been presented it is clearly seen that the teacher is the only person who has control over classroom discourse. She/he is the only one who has the privilege to allocate turns in class. There is no way the student will initiate talk in class without being asked to do so. The teacher talks first before giving the students the floor to talk. As soon as the teacher finishes talking, she/he creates an opportunity for the students to talk, and in most cases the teacher will be looking for a response from the students to whatever s/he has said. The student has to give a response that is relevant to what the teacher has asked or talked about. The teacher then evaluates whether the response is wrong or right. If it is wrong the teacher gives the floor to another student and if it is right the teacher may move on to give new information. This process is repeated throughout the lesson.

Since the teacher is in control she/he is expected to consider balancing the turn allocations in mixed classes. In order to achieve this it was observed that teachers used the Question-Pause-Nominate strategy. This is where the teacher asks a question, then pauses and then nominates a student to answer. This strategy gives the students an equal chance to answer questions as the questions are addressed to the class not to individuals, thereby giving those who know the answer the chance to volunteer.

Giving the girls an equal chance to answer questions or nominating them without them volunteering is a discourse strategy that may help the girls to develop their self-esteem as they know that the teacher believes in them too. It sends a message to them that they have the ability to perform like the boys. This is the non-verbal strategy of discourse which conveys meaning to the girls without actually saying the words. However, it was noted that boys and girls were treated differently when they were in single sex classrooms. The boys were given more time to talk than the girls were. Figure 3 above shows the number of times the girls and boys were given a chance to answer questions individually and as a class in single sex classes. The data reflect Shapka and Keating (2003), GAC (1997), and McCormick (1994) assertion that boys are called on more often and are given more praise and more constructive and useful criticism. It might be argued that this is not a problem in this case because there are no girls in these classes to feel inferior, but the attitude that the boys may develop in these classes will be extended to the society. GAC (1997) stipulate that giving boys more attention and portraying them as brave

gives the students a picture that boys are more intelligent than girls. By giving them more individual activities, the teacher may be saying, “You are intelligent and you can do it.” This will be reinforced by the kind of comment that is given to the student, the student in turn develop self-confidence that he can do something on his own.

On the other hand, giving students more choral questions or drills the students may fail to develop self-confidence which in turn may negatively affect their achievement in educational goals. It was observed in the Form 2 English lesson at AG that the teacher used audio lingual method, where the teacher drilled the girls in different sentence patterns. It is not wrong to use this strategy but it should always be used in special cases, especially when the students actually have a problem with the concept. The teacher justified the strategy citing the low level of learners as the reason for using it. With this attitude the teacher felt the students cannot work with little or no intervention from her. The students were not actually given the chance to experiment with the language but to repeat what the teacher says and read what has been written in the book. If this strategy is continuously used the girls will not develop confidence or the skill to do things on their own.

Chamdimba (2003) observes that boys and girls have different working styles. Boys like working as individuals and girls like working as a group. She observed boys and girls working in groups and realised that boys worked through a given activity as quickly as possible by avoiding discussion while girls seemed to be moving together, less concerned about working quickly and finishing the task than with involving everyone in the group in doing a given task. It might be argued that this is the reason why we have more group questions in the AG classes than in AB classes. The teacher’s knowledge on the different working styles between boys and girls might have influenced the teacher’s choice of the discourse strategies to be used in class. However, it is possible for the teacher to use discourse strategies that may help the boys to work together and the girls to develop self-reliance, in this case, more group work and more individual questions for boys and girls respectively.

It was further observed that at GC 1 Mathematics, the teacher treated the boys differently from the girls. Though they were in different classes, the teacher that handled the lessons was the

same. In the all-boys' class he gave the boys time to discover and explain certain mathematical concepts. The class was used to evaluate answers given by individuals. On the other hand, in the all-girls' lesson the girls were not given much time to discover things for themselves, it was always the teacher telling and the questions asked were closed and simple, that is why they were mostly answered in chorus form. For example, transcript GC1 Mathematics All Boys, the boy that gave the wrong answer was given the chance to clarify the answer he gave. That way it helped him realise the mistake he made while in transcript GC1 Mathematics All Girls, the girl was not.

When the teacher at GC1 was interviewed as to why they separated the boys from the girls, he said the school wanted to see if the girls can improve their performance if they learn on their own. Shapka & Keating (2003) observes that all female classes may alleviate the exposure to gender biased messages; this may in turn lead to girls performing highly in the teaching and learning process. But if the girls are treated the way the teachers in the all-girls' classes treated them, they may not develop self-confidence as they are not given the chance to explore or discover things on their own. The teacher is sending the message that they cannot handle these subjects without his/her help or that of others. This will lead to low achievement in these subjects, which will also extend to the other lessons. This is to say, if the girls are continuously given special treatment by the teachers the purpose of having all-girls' institutions may not be achieved as this may not help them develop self-confidence which is needed for educational achievement.

Greenleaf and Freedman (1993) observe that being in the classroom requires a student to respond (R) to a teacher's initiation (I) not only with the correct content but also with the correct interactional turn-taking and communicative conventions, otherwise the students may be ignored, discounted or not heard. Though the teacher has the right to evaluate students' responses s/he must be careful as to how s/he evaluates students' responses as the evaluation may have a negative effect on the students. Orlich et al. (1985) stipulate that repeating students' (right) answers causes the students to ignore their peers as sources of information and subtly conditions the class to wait for information from the teacher. The repetition of answers by the teacher was the most commonly used strategy in the classrooms that were observed.

From the AG English 2 Transcript we see another strategy that teachers use in class as they evaluate students responses. The teacher does not say anything but moves on to solicit another response from another student. Though this might be a good strategy as it does not waste time and it may also help the teacher to avoid saying the wrong things, it seems not to acknowledge students' efforts. Students expect to be rewarded for their efforts either through verbal or material rewards. An answer which goes unrewarded will be viewed as not so important or not so impressive. In this case the student that has given that answer may get discouraged as his/her effort is seen as unappreciated by the teacher. Of course, some of the teachers acknowledged the answers with a smile but not all did this. A lot of teachers showed indifference to the student's right answers.

It can be seen from Table 8 above that the students basically got the same comments from the teachers despite the sex differences. The distribution of comments may seem not to be balanced because the table shows that the boys got more comments than girls. But considering the number of boys and girls in the classes the comments were well distributed among the students. It was also observed that in single sex classes the teachers used the same comments to react to students right answers. This equal distribution of comments will help the students to develop that attitude that there is no one better than that other.

The teachers also used a lot of strategies when reacting to students' wrong answers. Apart from repetition of the answer in question form, the teachers also helped the struggling students through the answer and some evaluated the answers using the whole class. Orlich et al. (1985) observe that teachers' comments on incorrect responses such as "no," "you are way off" act as negative reinforcement, which may reduce the student's desire to participate in a verbal interaction. It may not only affect the student responding but also the other members of the class. It was observed in this study that there were very few cases that the teacher actually said 'no' to a student's answer. One of the examples is found in GC 1 English transcript.

From transcript GC1 Mathematics All Boys and All Girls the teacher is trying to evaluate students' answers by using the whole class, but the way he did it leaves a lot to be desired. In the

first example, the teacher begins to analyse the student's answer with a laugh and the other members of the class join in. This kind of reaction makes the student responsible feel embarrassed and this may lower his self-esteem. The teacher should not be the first one to laugh at students' mistakes, but encourage him/her. In the second example the teacher uses the students' graph to illustrate a point. It is not wrong to use concrete examples but the way it has been done leaves a lot to be desired. Doing this in class makes the student feel embarrassed as everybody in the class knows that she did not do well in plotting the graph. If the teacher wanted to illustrate a point he could have collected all the graphs so that nobody knows whose graph is being discussed. The teacher's duty is to help the students, not to embarrass them. It does not matter whether it is a single sex class or a mixed class, individuals constantly have the view or sense of themselves that is defined and affected by the actions and reactions of others towards them (Teevan, 1986). This sense of self that will be developed in class will also affect the way they view themselves in their daily lives. There are also a number of other strategies that the teachers used to evaluate students' wrong answers.

Basically the boys and girls received the same comments from the teachers. Responding to a student's wrong answer is crucial in the teaching and learning process, because the teacher may either encourage or discourage the students by the way s/he reacts to the answer. It was observed that the teachers tried to use strategies that may not completely put off the student. The most important thing is that both boys and girls received the same comments, which means both were treated equally. Neither gender was given special treatment. This kind of treatment helps the students to develop a sense of belonging, which in turn may help them to achieve highly in the teaching and learning process. It was noted that the same comments were also used in the single sex classes which means there is no difference in the way this discourse strategy is used in the classrooms.

4.3 Students' discourse strategies

The study also evaluated the discourse strategies that students use in everyday interaction in the classroom.

4.3.1 Students initiating talk

It was observed that during lessons the students initiated talk through questions, but in most cases it was after being asked if they have questions or comments. The examples below show different instances in which students initiated talk. The first is an instance where the teacher actually asked the students to ask questions if they have any, and in the second example the teacher did not prompt them to ask questions but the student felt the need to do so.

GC 2 English 1

- Teacher: **SOL** ...Is that clear? Alright is there any question before we go on?
- Girl: **RES** I did not understand about argumentative composition
- Teacher: **EV** she says she doesn't understand about the argumentative type of a composition. **SOL** Did I ask if anyone has a question that time? And then by then you didn't have a question? **RES** (*the girl nods her head*) alright **SOL** who, I mean an argumentative type of a composition who can explain that to her friend? **ST** She did not understand the argumentative type of a composition **SOL** is it that you did not understand or just because I didn't write something and you didn't have anything to write and then you need something to write?
- Girl: **RES** I didn't understand
- Teacher: **SOL** alright so?
- ...
- SOL**...alright so is there any question? Before we go any question? **RES** (*no answer, students are heard murmuring*) **ST** I don't expect somebody to do what Joanna does, I mean did right, so when it comes next lesson and you ask a question on introduction or whatever we have discussed alright **SOL** so is there any question? **RES** (*no answer, some are heard murmuring*) alright **SOL** so is there any question? **ST** Alright so, I know you are thinking about lunch. See you next time.

In GC 2 English 1 above the teacher asked the students if they had questions to which they responded by raising their hands and one of them was given the floor to ask a question. It can be seen from the tone that the teacher was not happy with the girl asking a question on something

they have already talked about. The girl asked the teacher about argumentative composition when the teacher was actually expecting a question on introduction.

GC 2 English 4

- Boy: **SOL** (*a boy raises a hand to ask a question, RES teacher gives him the flow*)
SOL how can we introduce someone who is a lady
- Teacher: **SOL** someone who is?
- Boy: **RES** lady has a position in parliament at the same time she takes ... aaaah...a title of a doctor and you want to acknowledge that she is there?
- Teacher: **SOL** for example?
- Boy: **RES** aaaah she is a minister and wants to introduce them as doctor at the same time you want the audience to know that...
- Teacher: **SOL** she is a doctor?
- Boy: **RES** she is a lady
- Teacher: **SOL** ooh how can we do that? Is there any way? **RES** (*murmuring form the students as they try to figure out how to solve this problem*) **SOL** How? What is it? **ST** For being a minister she is honourable, because she did some doctorate she will be? Doctor, **SOL** then...?
- Boy: **RES** madam Dr. **EV – by students** (*the others laugh*)
- Teacher: **EV** Dr Madam? **RES** (*the class laughs*) **ST** everyone will know that Joyce Banda is a lady
- Boy: **EV** no sir there will be complications **EV** (*there are a lot of students speaking at once*)
- Teacher: **RES** no there won't be complications, but he did say a queen so you will say her majesty the her is there which will differentiate to his majesty like that. For doctors there are no specific titles ah for men ah women ah **SOL** yes?
- Boy: **RES** what I wanted to say was ah honourable madam Dr. Joyce Banda **EV – by students** (*the others laugh*)
- Teacher: **EV** honourable madam Dr Joyce Banda? **ST** it is a repetition because you have madam and you have Joyce, Joyce is already is madam (*the murmur*) **SOL** yes?
- Girl: **SOL** is it necessary to say boys and girls?

Teacher: **EV, SOL** is it necessary to say boys and girls?
 Class: **RES** (*they differ in the answer others say yes others no*)
 Teacher: **SOL** is it necessary? **RES** (*they murmur as they discuss*)
 Boy: **RES** no you just say ladies and gentlemen
 Teacher: **EV** no it depends on the gathering, it depends on the gathering. **SOL** Suppose we are we have something like (*he plays a tape*) I have already done that, so they have boys, girls and some officials what do you say? Do you insist on ladies and gentlemen when you don't have ladies and gentlemen?
 Class: **RES** no
 Teacher: **ST** so it depends on the audience. **SOL** Yes last question now?

In Transcript GC 2 English 4 above the students have initiated talk in the class through their questions. They were not prompted by the teacher to ask a question but thought it wise to do so.

4.3.2 Students reaction to classmates' answers

It was also observed that most of the time the students would react to a fellow student's wrong answer by raising their own hand if they know the answer in a bid to help their classmate at the same time competing for recognition from the teacher and classmates. Those who were not confident enough to be heard by the whole class were heard whispering the correct answer. In some cases they would laugh at a fellow student's wrong answer because the teacher was laughing (refer to transcripts GC 1 Mathematics all boys and GC 1 Mathematics all girls) but if the teacher was not they remained quiet. In other cases the students' reaction to wrong or right answer was that of indifference. Thus the students did not seem to notice the wrong or right answers from classmates.

It was also observed that when a question is asked those who do not know the answer will sit back waiting for the others to answer, when a student is nominated to answer the question they will shift their gaze from the teacher to the student answering the question. After the student has answered the question the gaze will shift to the teacher waiting for her final 'verdict'. This kind of reaction brings solidarity among the students. The students feel free to answer questions for they know none of their classmates will laugh at them.

It was observed that there was more support in the Form 2 English lesson at AG. Refer to transcripts AG English 2a and AG English 2b below.

AG English 2a

Girl: **RES** Zuze uses as same pen as Mavuto's **EV** (*the teacher says nothing but the girls correct her and RES she repeats the answer*) Zuze uses the same pen as Mavuto's

AG English 2a

Teacher: **SOL** 10 yes?

Girl: **RES** they bought the same record as their sister.

Teacher: **SOL** Malita number 10

Malita: **RES** the bought the...

Teacher: **SOL** class read that answer please?

Class: **RES** they bought the same record as their sister

Teacher: **SOL** my dear Malita can you repeat that one?

Malita: **RES** they bought the same record as their sister.

Teacher: **EV** yeah good **RES** (*the class claps hands for her without being told to feeling proud of her*) **RES** that's nice eti (*feeling proud of her student*)

Class: **RES** mmh

In Transcript AG English 2a the students felt it was their responsibility to guide their classmate since the teacher said nothing. Repeating what her classmates said indicates that the girl appreciate the help from her classmates. In Transcript AG English 2a the students also felt it was their responsibility to reward their classmate for her effort. An interview with the teacher indicated that this particular girl had learning disabilities and the girls were always willing to support her. With this kind of support the girls feel secure. Even if the teachers have a negative attitude to them the support they give to each other helps them achieve something.

4.3.4 Discussion

Transcript GC2 English 1 and GC2 English 4 reveal that students initiate talk through asking questions. They are either prompted by the teacher or their own need to know. McCarthy (1991) observes that it is only the classroom conversation that has systematic turn-taking under the control of the teacher. This is reflected in how the students are given the floor to speak. Even though in some cases the students asked questions without being asked if they have any question, as in Transcript GC 2 English 4 above, they could not ask the question without being told to do so. If they have something to say they are required to raise their hands, this indicates to the teacher that they want to say something, if the teacher does not respond to that they cannot say anything. Even after the teacher has asked them if they have any questions they still have to wait for the teacher to tell them to do so. This also reflects Sacks et al.'s (1974) observation, cited in McCarthy (1991) that people take turns when they are selected by the current speaker, or if no one is selected they may speak on their own accord, but the latter does not happen in the classroom situation, they have to be selected all the time.

However, the teacher's reaction to the student's questions may act as a discouragement or encouragement to the students. The teacher's reaction to the student in GC1 English 1 may act as a discouragement to the student; it will not be surprising if next time the girl refrains from asking questions. According to the Symbolic Interactionism theory, if a child is frequently told by the significant others that s/he is stupid the child will eventually perceive himself/herself as stupid (refer to section 2.2.4 of this thesis), in the same way if this teacher frequently treats her students like this they may get discouraged and afraid to interact with the teacher, which may lead to psychological withdraw from the teaching and learning process.

The teacher in GC2 English 4 treats both questions from the boy and girl as important, he does not dismiss the questions but tries as much as possible to help the students. With the help of the class he manages to answer the questions. From the tone of the teacher's voice we can clearly see that he is friendly and accommodating. This is the kind of environment that students need for their advancement in education. The girl's question is treated in the same way as the boy's question, which is so encouraging to the girls.

Students' indifference to their classmate's answers may have both negative and positive effects on the students involved. On the one hand, this attitude towards wrong answers may help the student involved feel encouraged to try again next time as there is no observable negative reaction to the wrong answer from fellow students. On the other hand, this attitude to a right answer will discourage the concerned student as there is no observable appreciation of the answer from fellow students.

4.4 How these discourse strategies symbolically position boys and girls in the education setting and their everyday life

The study also assessed how the discourse strategies identified, analysed and evaluated above symbolically position boys and girls in the education setting and their everyday life. It was observed in our earlier discussions that discourse is a resource that can be used in the maintenance of power and dominance in a society or group. In other words, "discourse constitutes part of the resources which people deploy in relating to one another, cooperating, competing, dominating and seeking to change the way in which they relate to one another" (Fairclough 2003:124). Thus discourse has that role to play in putting people in different positions in the society.

The theory of Critical Discourse Analysis as advanced by Norman Fairclough and Teun van Dijk is based on the issue of power and dominance. According to van Dijk (1993), this power and dominance is interpreted in terms of privileged access to discourse and communication. This study has revealed that the teacher has more access to classroom discourse and communication than the students, so he/she has control over the students. The teacher by virtue of his/her position is seen as a source of knowledge, information, beliefs and values, so has excess influence and authority over students. Van Dijk (1993) also observes that the exercise of power through control of discourse by the dominant group presupposes mind control involving the influence of knowledge, beliefs, understanding, plans, attitude, norms and values. That is to say,

those in control have the ability to influence people's knowledge, beliefs and values through discourse.

There are four ways, according to van Dijk (2003), in which power and dominance are involved in mind control. Firstly, the recipients tend to accept beliefs, knowledge and opinions through discourse from what they see as authoritative, trustworthy or credible sources such as scholars, experts, professionals or reliable media. In this study, the teacher is an expert, a professional and trustworthy in the classroom, so he/she can easily influence the students' beliefs.

In view of the labelling theory which stipulates that people tend to live up to their labels, if, for example, the teacher labels the students as worthy or able through teachers reaction to student's answers, the students will live up to that label. This means they will try their best to perform well in class. By saying "zikomo (thank you)", "that's good" or "zoona (that's true)" (ref. table 8), what the teachers were actually saying is "Your answer is worthy. Do the same next time." The student responsible will believe this and next time she/he will have the courage to answer questions in class.

On the other hand, if the teacher reacts negatively to students' answers or questions the student looks at himself/herself as worthless. For example, in Transcripts GC 1 Mathematics all boys and GC 1 Mathematics all girls the teacher is actually laughing at students responses and then the other students join in. This sends the message, "you are dull, how can you give such an answer." It also gives the message to the rest of the class that this student is not to be taken seriously. Such a reaction makes the student feel small and worthless and it will not be surprising if this student refrains from answering questions. In view of symbolic interactionism all these interpretations come in because meaning of a thing for a person grows out of the way in which other persons act towards them. Thus individuals constantly have a view or sense of themselves that is defined and affected by the actions and reactions of others towards them (Teevan 1986). These labels stick because the students have been labelled by someone they trust, someone who is an expert and has control.

The textbooks that are used in class are also sources of knowledge and beliefs. The books were written by experts and professionals, as such, they also have the ability to influence a student's

beliefs and values. For example, the books that were analysed in this study symbolically position women as less important than men or that men and women are equal. The discourses that are used in class by the teacher are often supported by the books that the students read. It has been observed from the previous discussion that the teachers in the mixed classes tried as much as possible to balance their nomination of students to answer questions as well as distribution of comments. But the fact that there are more boys than girls in class sends the message that girls do not need as much education as boys. The provision for more boys' to attend secondary school, reflected in the number of bed space, than girls underscores the idea that boys need education more than girls. The books they use in class supports this by providing comprehension passages with few or no female characters or few or no pictures featuring women. For example, *Foundation Secondary English*, *New Secondary English book 1* and *English Composition Writing skill set 1-3*, have a total of 250 males featured in the examples and pictures of these books against 142 females representing 63.8% and 36.2% respectively.

On the other hand, books like *Strides in Physical Science Book 1* and *Buku la Chinyanja Buku 1* seem to provide an alternative belief or message that women can do what men do. Even though they are few in class they can attain the same achievements as boys. Whether the classes are mixed or not the message is the same: "women can also do it." In this case the boys in all-boys' classes will not look down upon women in the society and in mixed classes the boys will not look down upon the girls in class as well as women in the society.

The second way that power and dominance are involved in mind control according to van Dijk (2003) is that participants are obliged to be recipients of discourse, they are obliged to listen. In this case our students, by virtue of being so, have to attend classes and listen to their teachers who are sources of information. They also have to read the books that are prescribed. This means that if the teacher uses discourse that discriminates one group from the other, and students read books that also use the same discourse; they tend to believe this is true which in turn may affect their achievements in education. They may believe this because in the classroom and the school in general the teacher and the textbooks are the experts and the authority.

Thirdly, van Dijk (2003) argues that there is no public discourse or media that may provide information from which alternative beliefs may be derived. This means that when the students go out into the society they do not find new information that will give them alternative beliefs to what they have acquired in the classroom setting. However, it has been noted in the course of this study that a number of public discourses that are trying to encourage people to send the girl child to school and giving the girl child models were uncovered. These include a number of articles in the newspaper, for example the *Female* supplement in the *Malawi News*, and radio programmes like *Tisankhenji* and *Mayi wamakono*. This means, therefore, that if the discourse in the classroom portrays women as inferior the articles provide an opposing view on issues of equity between women and men.

Lastly, power and dominance are also involved in mind control in that the recipient may not have the knowledge and beliefs needed to challenge the discourse or information. This provides an answer to the critics of labelling theory who say that it is possible for the social actor to resist labels and fight back against them. As was noted in Chapter 1, Malawi is predominantly patriarchal and women are seen as weak in both body and mind whilst men are smart, more competitive and give higher returns from their education (GAC, n.d.), hence more boys go to school than girls. In this case, the knowledge that the girls have is that education is for boys and not for them. This means that if the books, teachers, and the education system label them as worthless by not giving them models, by not giving them attention or not enrolling equal numbers of boys and girls, they will have no ability to fight back; because the knowledge they have is that girls should stay at home and look after the family.

In view of all these, the use of textbooks that are not gender biased like *Strides in Physical Science Textbook 1*, *Buku la Chinyanja buku 1*, *Chanco Senior Biology*, *Strides in Agriculture Textbook 3* and some extent *New Secondary English Book 1* put boys and girls at the same level in class and this may also be extended to their daily lives.

On the other hand, using textbooks like *Foundation Secondary English* in class where there are no female characters in the book puts boys as superior to girls because the girls have no characters to associate themselves with. It has been observed that in this particular textbook the

female characters are the mothers, sending the message that they belong at home as mothers, taking care of children, husband and the home and not going to school and becoming a teacher or policeman. Since boys are portrayed as adventurous and brave they will tend to associate themselves with these characters, hence taking control over the girls.

From the previous discussions the classroom is viewed as a political arena, where teachers and students are seen as interest groups who are constantly fighting to be heard or recognized and the success in the pursuit depends on who has power over the other. In this case, the teacher is already in power by virtue of the position she/he holds. The students, on the other hand, fight to be heard and be recognized by continuously raising their hands to answer or ask questions. Since the boys were many in the classes they dominated the discussions, thus they had more access to discourse hence having considerable control of the discourse. Though the teachers tried to balance the nominations as discussed earlier, it was difficult to notice this since the boys were the ones that talked more. Table 10 below gives a summary of the number of times the students raised their hands to be heard against the number of times they were called to answer questions. Of course, in certain cases the teachers nominated students without them volunteering. It is clearly shown in the table how the students competed to be heard in the lesson. The teacher asks a question and the students raise their hand to be given a chance to contribute in the discussions. Though in minority the girls tried to get more time on the floor but they could not outnumber the boys, giving the boys the chance to control the use of discourse in class. This control of discourse by the boys may lead in girls feeling out of place which may in turn lead to low achievement of the educational goals.

Table: 10 Number of times the students volunteered to answer questions against number of nominations

Lesson	Teacher	Number of times they volunteered to answer questions			Nominations to answer questions	
			Freq.	%	Freq.	%
GC 2 Chichewa1	F					
		Boys	42	60.9	21	67.7
		Girls	27	39.1	10	32.3
		Total	69	100	31	100
GC 2 English 4	M	Boys	54	62.1	30	68.2
		Girls	33	37.9	14	31.8
		Total	87	100	44	100
GC 2 English 1	F	Boys	31	77.5	31	70.5
		Girls	9	22.5	13	29.5
		Total	40	100	44	100
GC 2 Chichewa 4	M	Boys	26	81.2	23	76.6
		Girls	6	18.8	7	23.4
		Total	32	100	30	100
GC 1 English 2	F	Boys	30	75.0	27	71.1
		Girls	10	25.0	11	28.9
		Total	40	100	38	100

Source: field data

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

The study aimed at identifying teacher's, textbook and students' discourse strategies that are used for daily interaction in the classroom and find out the implications they have for the education of the girl child in Malawi. A few selected secondary schools in Zomba were visited and teachers were observed. The books that the students and teachers were using for the particular lesson that was observed were analysed. Students as participants of classroom discourse were also observed and their discourse strategies analysed. It has been observed that there is not much variation in the discourse strategies that the teachers use in class. Even though mixed classes had more boys than girls, it was observed that the teachers made sure that both boys and girls are equally involved in the class discussions, and the teacher discourse strategies were the same. However, the fact that we have more boys than girls might have a negative impact on girl child education as it is sending the message that girls do not need education, hence, not promoting the education of the girl child.

The study also observed that the authors of the books that the students and teachers use in class are actually trying their best to balance the gender issues in the education system. This is the case especially in the recent published books that tend to look at girls as on a par with boys. These books, through their use of balanced pictures, characters and language, may help girls to have a positive attitude towards themselves as they are given the impression that what men can do they can also do. But the older publications did not take the issue of balancing gender issues into consideration. It has been observed that these books tend to focus more on the male character with the female character being given the secondary role. This may give the girls the impression that in the class as well as the society at large they are secondary to males, hence having a negative impact on the promotion of the education of the girl child. Conversely it may give boys a picture that they are superior to females which may lead to them dominating the classes as well as the society at large.

For students' discourse, it was observed that there is no hostility in the classroom. That is to say neither gender is hostile to the other, nor are they unfriendly to students of the same sex. The students seem to support each other. In some cases the students were seen to be indifferent to what their classmates are doing or saying in class. Thus most of the times the students seemed not to notice the wrong or right answers that their colleagues have given so did not show any reaction to the answers. This attitude towards wrong answers helps the students to feel part of the classroom activities and have a sense of belonging. In this case, the girls also have that chance to achieve what their counterparts achieve at the end of the day as they will not feel belittled. However, it was noted that this attitude towards right answers will have a negative effect on the students concerned, as they might feel their answer is not appreciated.

Therefore the different discourse strategies that textbooks, teachers and students use in class have that influence to symbolically positioning boys and girls in the classroom as well as in the society at large. These positions affect achievements of the girls in education negatively as well as positively. The following then are the implications of this study:

- Teachers should be discouraged from using textbooks like *Foundation English* and *English Composition writing set 1 – 3* which give females secondary roles or no roles at all as the books might influence their attitude towards the students. However, bearing in mind the scarcity of textbooks which lead to teachers using old publications, it may be helpful to teach the girl child to challenge the negative representation of females in class and the textbooks. Therefore, there is need to introduce more programmes in schools that will aim at helping girl children to develop a fighting spirit.
- Textbooks like *Strides in Physical Science Book 1*, *Chanco Senior Biology*, *Strides in Agriculture Book 3*, *Buku la Chinyanja Buku 1*, *Senior Secondary Mathematics* and *New Secondary English Book 1* should continue to be used and more textbooks which are balanced should be published. As these will help the girls achieve highly in the educational goals.
- Teachers should be encouraged to continue the use of balanced discourse in mixed classes in order to incorporate both sexes in the teaching and learning process.

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APPENDIX 1: INFORMATION ON SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS

Table 1: showing schools, classes and teachers that were observed plus books that were analysed

School	Teacher (Gender)	Book used	Class	Subject	Qualification of Teacher	Age
All Girls (AG)	M	Mshanga, J. I., Kampira, L. J. & Mwanza, A.L. D. (2002) <i>Strides in Physical science</i> . Blantyre: Longman	1	Physical Science	Diploma in Education (Domasi College of Education)	25 - 29
All Girls (AG)	M	Kayala, B.M. & Kapelemere N. T. (2002) <i>Strides in Agriculture</i> . Blantyre: Longman Malawi	4	Agriculture	Bachelors Degree (University of Malawi)	35 - 39
Government Co-education 1 (GC 1)	F	Not provided	2	English	Diploma in Education (Domasi College of Education)	45 - 49
Government Co-education 1 (GC 1) all girls class	M	Chikwakwa, R., Kaphesi, E. & Suffolk, J. (2002) <i>Senior Secondary Mathematics Book 4</i> . Blantyre: Macmillan Malawi	4	Mathematics	Diploma in Education (Domasi College of Education)	30 - 34
All Girls (AG)	F	McAdams, B. (1967) <i>Foundation Secondary English: English Course fro the Junior Secondary School in Africa</i> . New York: Longman	2	English	Bachelors Degree (University of Malawi)	35 - 39
All Boys (AB)	M	<i>New Secondary English Book 1</i> (2000). Blantyre: Longman Malawi	1	English	Bachelors Degree (university of Malawi)	25 - 29
All Boys (AB)	F	Good News Bible	2	Bible Knowledge	Diploma in Education (Domasi College of Education)	24 - below
Government Co-education 2 (GC2)	M	Not provided	4	Chichewa	Diploma in Education (Domasi College of Education)	35 – 39

All Boys (AB)	M	Kalibwanji, O. B (2001) <i>Chanco Senior Secondary Biology</i> . Chancellor College Publications	3	Biology	Bachelors Degree (university of Malawi)	30 - 34
Government Co-education 1 (GC 1) all boys class	M	Chikwakwa, R., Kaphesi, E. & Suffolk, J. (2002) <i>Senior Secondary Mathematics Book 4</i> . Blantyre: Macmillan Mallawi	4	Mathematics	Diploma in Education (Domasi College of Education)	30 - 34
Government Co-education 2 (GC 2)	M	Malawi College of Distance Education (1995) English Composition Writing Skills Set 1 – 3 & Tests	4	English	Bachelors Degree (university of Malawi)	25 - 29
Government Co-education 2 (GC 2)	F	Not provided	1	English	Bachelors Degree (Mzuzu University)	24 - below
Government Co-education 2 (GC 2)	F	Howse-Chisale, C.N., Chauma, A. M. & Kishindo, P. J. (2000). <i>Buku la Chinyanja la Ophunzira</i> . Blantyre: Longman Malawi	1	Chinyanja	Diploma in Education (Domasi College of Education)	35 - 39

APPENDIX 2: DATA FROM TEXTBOOKS

Table 1: summary of pictures found in *Strides in Physical Science*

Chapter 2	Chapter 3	Chapter 4
• 3 men pushing a car • A girl dragging a bag of maize • A man pushing a bag of cement • A girl cycling • A boy playing ball • Boy and girl pulling a fishing net • Little girl oiling bicycle chain • Man and woman pushing a glass of water on a table • A girl carrying a clay pot • A boy carrying a satchel • Boy hammering nails on a wood board • Car stopping at a stop sign	• Boy carrying 20kg logs of wood • Girl reading a book • Girl going upstairs • Girl carrying 5kg bag of maize on her head • Man carrying 50kg bag of maize • Man writing on a chalk board • Bird • A girl walking • Man tiling the land with a hoe • An athlete (a man) • Car • Man washing dishes • Woman on a phone • Woman preparing fire • Man preparing fire	• A young man and woman discussing how an electric current works • Man cooking • Man wielding a metal • Woman ironing • Woman blowing dry her hair • Bulb and cooker • Young boy playing with electric sockets.

Table 2: Pictures found in *Buku la chinyanja la ophunzira Buku 1*

Males	Females	Other pictures
• A sick man on a bed • Four boys playing • A man and a boy • A boy washing dishes	• A sick woman sitting on a floor • Young girl reading	• A child in a bath tub • Boys and girls collecting litter • Vegetation • A man and three women • People in a room – some sleeping, others sitting down • A woman waving down a young man in a car • A woman sitting on a kitchen chair and a boy chopping wood • People on a queue ready to cast their vote • Teachers and students • Boys and girls cleaning their school grounds • A man and woman talking • Young girl washing clothes with young boys playing football in the background • A wedding procession • An old man sitting on a stool talking to some children • An old man, a man and three children

Table 3: Reading passages in the book *Buku la chinyanja la ophunzira Buku 1*

unit	Title of story	What it is all about
1	<i>a Mpikisana ndi banja lawo</i>	mother and children discussing the issue of men's work versus women's work
2	<i>ukhondo ndi kupewa matenda</i>	discussing hygiene and prevention of diseases
3	<i>kusamalira za chilengedwe</i>	discussing how we can preserve the natural resources
4	<i>chosadziwa</i>	discussing the effects of cutting down trees aimlessly
5	<i>matenda a aDzimwe</i>	women discussing a fellow woman who is failing to look after her husband who is ill, discusses the importance of care and love on patients
6	<i>mchape</i>	a story about the 1995 mchape in Liwonde
7	<i>mwana wa mnzako</i>	about Ganizani a little boy who was ill treated by his step mother and later on prospered
8	<i>mbiri ya Achewa</i>	Chewa History
9	<i>bokosi la zitsulo</i>	about Pala who was not happy because his sister was doing fine in the society, believed women should not be above men
10	<i>chisankho</i>	about Malawi referendum
	<i>pasukulu ya Mchenga</i>	discusses the importance of abiding by the school rules and regulations
11	<i>kulibe chinsinsi</i>	about a dishonest servant
12	<i>chikhalidwe cha a Lomwe</i>	Lomwe culture
13	<i>tsogolo la Kambumba</i>	It is about a little girl who was always busy because she had to look after the home and siblings. This was so because she was the first born and a girl
14	<i>mavuto a Elise</i>	about the death of Elise's husband
15	<i>ufulu wa chibadidwe</i>	human rights
16	<i>mbiri ya a Yao</i>	Yao History
17	<i>samvamankhwala</i>	a discussion about HIV/AIDS

APPENDIX 3 : VALUE OF PROBABILITY AND CHI-SQUARE CHART

Table 4: value of probability of the number of nomination versus the number in class in mixed classes

class	Value of probability
GC 2 English 1	0.1727052
GC 2 English 4	0.15389913
GC 2 Chichewa 1	0.65173792
GC 2 Chichewa 4	0.43032407
GC 1 English 2	0.99974968

Chi-square chart

Degrees of Freedom	Probability										
	0.95	0.90	0.80	0.70	0.50	0.30	0.20	0.10	0.05	0.01	0.001
1	0.004	0.02	0.06	0.15	0.46	1.07	1.64	2.71	3.84	6.64	10.83
2	0.10	0.21	0.45	0.71	1.39	2.41	3.22	4.60	5.99	9.21	13.82
3	0.35	0.58	1.01	1.42	2.37	3.66	4.64	6.25	7.82	11.34	16.27
4	0.71	1.06	1.65	2.20	3.36	4.88	5.99	7.78	9.49	13.28	18.47
5	1.14	1.61	2.34	3.00	4.35	6.06	7.29	9.24	11.07	15.09	20.52
6	1.63	2.20	3.07	3.83	5.35	7.23	8.56	10.64	12.59	16.81	22.46
7	2.17	2.83	3.82	4.67	6.35	8.38	9.80	12.02	14.07	18.48	24.32
8	2.73	3.49	4.59	5.53	7.34	9.52	11.03	13.36	15.51	20.09	26.12
9	3.32	4.17	5.38	6.39	8.34	10.66	12.24	14.68	16.92	21.67	27.88
10	3.94	4.86	6.18	7.27	9.34	11.78	13.44	15.99	18.31	23.21	29.59
	Nonsignificant								Significant		

APPENDIX 4: GC 2 ENGLISH 4 TRANSCRIPTION

GC 2 English 4

- Teacher: **ST**...analysis of various speeches. We shall listen to two, three or more speeches and see how we can correct them so... ok before I proceed I have to take you back I don't know if it is in this class where I said when we are writing the salutation we write it in sentence, ah sentence form, **SOL** was it this class?
- Class: **RES** yea
- Teacher: **EV** ok **ST** and there was a question from ... say since or assuming there is a function where 3 or more presidents are attending who do we start with, the salutation, **SOL** how can we assist them? We have president Muthatrika, president Mugabe of Zimbabwe, president Bush all of them attend, now in the salutation we said we should start from the highest to the lowest, all the presidents have equal powers what should we do? How should the speech started? Yes? (*nominates a girl*)
- Girl: **RES** the visitor
- Teacher: **EV** (*question intonation*) visitor? **SOL** Shaibu what do you think? Visitors? Should we start with the visitors?
- Class: **RES** no
- Teacher: **SOL** so we should begin with
- Boy: **RES** host
- Teacher: **EV** (*repeats*) host, **SOL** the visitor or the host?
- Class: **RES** host
- Teacher: **EV** ok **ST** that what I wanted to correct. In such a situation we should start with the host. In this case we should start with his excellence Dr Bingu wa Mutharika and **SOL** then we go to
- Class: **RES** Mugabe

Teacher: **ST** other presidents that's how we should ah what we should do. (*plays a speech by a female student, the students listen*). Ok so that's the speech I don't know the group, **SOL** do you know it?

Class: **RES** yes

Teacher: **SOL** which group is it?

Class: **RES** 4a

Teacher: **SOL** so what have you noted? Are there any mistakes?

Class: **RES** yes (*raise their hands*)

Boy: **RES** (*could not capture the answer*)

Teacher: **EV** ok, **ST** yea firstly I want to do this firstly I want to do this we have one first the second item should be secondly so avoid that **SOL** yes another thing? Joab?

Joab: **RES** office

Teacher: **EV** office instead of officer ok that is a good observation. **SOL** Yes? (*nominates a boy*)

Boy: **RES** laughing while presenting

Teacher: **EV** (*repeats*) laughing while presenting. **SOL** Yes?

Boy: **RES** the conclusion was not good was not in a good way

Teacher: **EV** (*rephrases*) it was like she was concluding, she starts again and if she is finishing she starts again like that. **ST** So ah that's a mistake, should avoid it when writing a speech. **SOL** Yes? (*nominates a girl*)

Girl: **RES** repetition

Teacher: **EV** (*repeats*) repetition **SOL** for example?

Girl: **RES** thank you, thank you

Teacher: **EV** (*repeats*) thank you, thank you, thank you ok **SOL** Shaibu?

Shaibu: **RES** (*could not capture the answer*)

Teacher: **SOL** for example?

Shaibu: **RES** colluption

Teacher: **EV** colluption instead of corruption

...

APPENDIX 5: OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

QUESTIONNAIRE NUMBER: _____

School: _____

Class: _____

Number of students: Girls: _____ Boys: _____ Total: _____

Subject: _____

Topic of the lesson: _____

Textbook used in the lesson: _____

Date: _____

Time: start: _____

End: _____

Name of observer: _____

TEACHERS INFORMATION

Sex: Female: _____ Male: _____

Age:

50+	
45 – 49	
40 – 44	
35 – 39	
30 – 34	
25 – 29	
24 Below	

Educational qualifications:

Diploma	
Bachelors Degree	
Masters Degree	
Other (specify)	

Number of years in service:

36+	
31 – 35	
26 – 30	
21 – 25	
16 – 20	
11 – 15	
6 – 10	
5 Below	

SUBJECT DATA

TEACHER DISCOURSE

SECTION A

What discourse strategies is the teacher using?

	yes	No
Other topics of discussion apart from the academic topic		
Examples		
Teaching aids		
Questions		
Feedback		
Instructions		
Explaining		
Other (specify)		

SECTION B

1. What is the topic under discussion? (*if the teacher has introduced another topic for discussion apart from the academic topic*)

2. Are both boys and girls involved in the discussion?

Yes:

No:

3. How many times are the boys/girls contributing to the discussion?

Boys:	Girls:

SECTION C

What type of examples has the teacher brought to class?

SECTION D

What teaching aids has the teacher brought to class?

SECTION E

1. What types of questions is the teacher asking the students?
 - a. Open questions
 - b. Closed questions
 - c. Probing questions

2. How many times are the boys/girls asked these types of questions?

	Boys:	Girls:
Open questions		
Closed questions		
Probing questions		

3. How many times are the boys and girls called to answer question?

Boys:	Girls:

4. How does the teacher react to the students' right answer?

Words spoken		Facial / bodily expressions	
Boys:	Girls:	Boys:	Girls:

5. How does the teacher react to students' wrong answers?

Words spoken		Facial / bodily expressions	
Boys:	Girls:	Boys:	Girls:

6. How does the teacher react to students' failure to give an answer?

Words spoken		Facial / bodily expressions	
Boys:	Girls:	Boys:	Girls:

SECTION F

1. What instructions is the teacher giving to the students?

How is the teacher giving out the instructions?

- a. Whole class instructions
- b. Individual instructions
- c. Group instructions

2. How many times does the teacher give instructions to:

Whole class	individuals		group
	Boys:	Girls:	

SECTION D

What language is the teacher using to explain issues in class?

- a. Biased against boys
- b. Biased against girls
- c. Neutral

STUDENTS' DISCOURSE

SECTION A

What discourse strategies are the students using in class?

	Yes:	No:
Initiating talk		
Responding to teacher's questions		
Reacting to teachers comments		
Reacting to fellow students answers		
Asking questions		
Other (specify)		

SECTION B

1. How many times are the boys /girls initiating talk in the classroom?

Boys:	Girls:

2. What is the topic of discussion?

3. How many times do the boys/girls contribute to the topic under discussion?

Boys:	Girls:

SECTION C

1. How many times do the boys/girls volunteer to answer a question?

Boys:	Girls:

2. How do students react to fellow student's right answer?

Words spoken		
	Boy:	Girl:
Boy		
Girl		

Facial/bodily expressions		
	Boys:	Girls:
Boy		
Girl		

3. How do students react to fellow student's wrong answer?

Words spoken

	Boy:	Girl:
Boy		
Girl		

Facial/bodily expressions		
	Boy:	Girl:
Boy		
Girl		

3. How do students react to fellow student's failure to give an answer?

Words spoken		
	Boy:	Girl:
Boy		
Girl		

Facial/bodily expressions		
	Boy:	Girl:
Boy		
Girl		

SECTION D

How many times do the boys/girls ask questions in class?

Boys:	Girls:

NOTES:

APPENDIX 6: BOOK ANALYSIS

FORM NUMBER _____

Title of the book: _____

Author: _____

Class: _____

Year of publication: _____

Publisher: _____

Analysed by: _____

SUBJECT DATA

1. What discourse strategies is the book using?

	Yes:	No:
Instructions		
Teaching aids		
Explaining		
Examples		
Feedback		
Pictures/ illustrations		
Reading texts		
Other topics of discussion apart from the academic topic		
Other (specify)		

2. What language is used to explain issues in all school books?

a. Sexist language

b. Non-sexist language

3. What are some of the sexist/non-sexist words used in the book?

sexists words	Non-sexists

4. What gender is highly featured in the:

	Boys:	Girls:
Examples		
Illustrations /pictures		
Reading texts		

5. How are the girls/ boys represented in the examples given in the books?

Boys:	Girls:

6. What words have been frequently used to represent boys/girls in the examples?

Boys:	Girls:

7. What kinds of pictures/ illustrations are used in the book?

	Yes:	No:
Biased towards girls		
Biased towards boys		
Neutral		

8. What are some of the examples of biased/neutral pictures/illustrations used in the book?

Biased towards girls	Biased towards boys	Neutral

9. What topics are found in the book?

10. How many topics in the book directly/indirectly deal with issues of boys/ girls?

Boys		Girls	
Directly	Indirectly	Directly	Indirectly

11. What are the topics discussed in the reading texts in the books? (What other topics of discussion are dealt with in the books?)

12. What language is used to represent girls/ boys in the comprehension and literature texts?

- a. Sexist language
- b. Non-sexist language

13. What are some of the words that have been frequently used in the reading texts to represent boys/girls?

Boys:	Girls:

NOTES: