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THE TEACHING AND ASSESSMENT OF ENGLISH AS SECOND LANGUAGE IN SCHOOLS
OF THE NATAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENT: AN EVALUATION

by

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Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in the Faculty of Education, University of Natal,
Durban.

December 1984

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that the whole of this dissertation, unless specifically indicated to the contrary in the text, is my own original work and that it has not been submitted for any degree in any other University.

M.J. LÖTTER

Durban

December 1984

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincere thanks to my Supervisor, Dr B.A. Dobie, for his conscientious guidance and help. Without his academic leadership and encouragement completion of this dissertation would have been considerably more difficult.

To my wife Caroli, and my children Derek, Wendy, Michael and Braam, heartfelt appreciation for their forbearance whilst I worked late into the night. To my brothers, Peter and David, and my colleagues in the teaching profession, grateful thanks for their support and co-operation.

Finally, I wish to thank the Director of the Natal Education Department for granting me permission to conduct the survey which forms an important part of this study.

Deo Gratias

M.J. LÖTTER

TABLE OF CONTENTSPREFACE

	Page
1. Introduction	1
2. The Aims and Approach to this study	3
3. Direction of this study	4
4. An outline perspective of English as a World Language	5
5. English as a second language in South Africa	7
6. Conclusion	8

PART ONECHAPTER 1LANGUAGE AS A SOCIAL INSTITUTION

1. Introduction	10
2. Language and Socialisation	11
2.1 Language in Society	12
2.2 Bernstein	14
2.3 Mead	17
2.4 Labov	19
2.5 Whorf	23
2.6 Overall conclusion	26
3. Second Language Learning	27
4. Language and Power in Society	31
4.1 Education and Man's View of Reality	31
4.2 Implications for Policy and Practice	35
4.3 Conclusion	39

CHAPTER 2AN OVERVIEW OF SELECTED WRITINGS ON THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH
AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

1. Introduction	41
2. Aims in the Teaching of English as other Language	44
2.1 A definition of terms	44
2.2 Historical background to the development of aims	44
2.3 Recent views on the aims of teaching English Second Language	46
3. Curriculum Planning and the Second Language	50
4. How Attitude to English Second Language affect the Aims of Instruction and Syllabus content	53
5. Approaches to and Methods in the teaching of English as a Second Language	60
5.1 Background	60
5.2 The range of differences	65
5.3 Specific examples	66
5.4 A communicative approach	69
6. A brief description of some methods most commonly derived	73
6.1 The Traditional Method	73
6.2 The Direct Method	75
6.3 The Audio-Lingual Method	75
6.4 The Linguistic and Cognitive-mentalist Approach	77
6.5 Methods Characteristic of the Communicative Approach	78
6.6 An Eclectic Method	80
6.7 Concluding statement on Method	83
7. A Survey of Literature on the teaching of English as a second language, with particular reference to South Africa	83
7.1 Background	83
7.2 Specific criticisms	90
7.3 Two methodological approaches compared	92
7.4 Selected research and investigatory findings in relation to Second Language Teaching in South Africa	95

CHAPTER 3SOCIAL, POLITICAL AND HISTORICAL FACTORS AFFECTING THE
DEVELOPMENT OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

1. The Origins of bilingual education in South Africa	109
2. The Growth of bilingual education in the Orange Free State	114
3. The Growth of bilingual education in the South African Republic	115
4. The Position of English as a second language in the South African Education System today, with particular reference to Natal	121
5. English-speaking South Africans and Afrikaners in Education in South Africa	125
5.1 The Education Philosophy of the Afrikaners	126
5.2 The Education Philosophy of English-speaking South Africans	132
6. The Significance of the existence of two different philosophies of education in South Africa	137

CHAPTER 4THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE IN SELECTED
COUNTRIES

1. Introduction	140
2. English as a second language in Wales.	140
3. English as a second language in the United States of America	151
4. English as a second language in Canada	160
5. A brief overview of problems surrounding the education of immigrant Blacks in England	167
6. Conclusion	170

PART TWOCHAPTER 5THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS SECOND LANGUAGE IN SCHOOLS
OF THE NATAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

(A) BACKGROUND TO THE WRITER'S SURVEY

1. Perspective	171
2. The Questionnaire	173
3. Description of the questionnaire	174
4. Reasons for separate secondary and primary school analysis	178
5. The general Reaction of Teachers to the survey	178
6. Teacher Response to the Questionnaire	180

(B) RESULTS OF A SURVEY: SECONDARY SCHOOLS

1. Introduction	182
2. Description of the Target Area	183
3. An Analysis of the Responses to the Questionnaire	185
3.1 The Second Language teaching force	185
3.2 The secondary school survey	190
4. Analysis of Responses	191
4.1 The pre-service training of teachers	191
4.2 Home language of teachers of English Second language	192
4.3 Teachers' self-evaluation of their knowledge of aspects of the English Language	193
4.4 An analysis of Teacher responses to questions on method	199
4.5 Extent to which teachers are able to suggest or develop new ideas in their teaching	209
4.6 Further responses to questions on Method	211
4.7 An analysis of why teachers teach English Second Language	220
4.8 An overview analysis of teacher suggestions on in-service training	223
5. Conclusions	228

CHAPTER 6THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS:RESULTS OF A SURVEY

1. Perspective	230
2. Description of the target area	231
3. An analysis of responses to the questionnaire	234
3.1 Teacher assessment of pupil attitudes to English	234
3.2 Distribution of teachers of English Second Language in Natal	235
3.3 Attitudes towards and opinions of teachers on official aspects of English Second Language teaching	238
3.4 The pre-service training of teachers	239
3.5 Responses to questions on methods used to teach English Second Language	240
3.6 An analysis of responses to questions on aspects of method	255
3.7 Freedom of teachers to suggest or develop ideas on teaching English Second Language	262
3.8 An overview of comments on and suggestions of teachers of English Second Language on in-service training	264
4. Conclusions	268

CHAPTER 7CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS ARISING FROM THE STUDY

CONCLUSIONS

Chapter 1: Language as a social institution	270
Chapter 2: An overview of selected writings on the teaching of English as a second language	272
Chapter 3: Social, political and historical factors affecting the development of bilingual education in South Africa	275
Chapter 4: The teaching of English as a second language in selected countries	278

Chapter 5: The teaching of English as a second language in schools of the Natal Education Department: an analysis of some aspects	280
Chapter 6: The teaching of English as a second language in primary schools: Results of a survey of the Natal Education Department	282

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Recommendations arising mainly from Part One	
1.1 Aims, curriculum and syllabus design	285
2. Recommendations arising mainly from Part Two	292
2.1 The training of teachers of English as a second language	292
2.1.1 The pre-service training of teachers	292
2.1.2 The in-service training and education of teachers	300
2.2 Recommendation on the introduction of specialist teachers to teach English as a second Language	303
2.3 Recommendations on the staffing of schools	304
2.4 Recommendations on the internal organisation of schools	305
3. General recommendations	309
3.1 A Recommended approach to teaching English as a second language	309
3.1.1 Suggestions on initial steps in the teaching of English as a second language	310
3.1.2 A more formalised approach to teaching English as a second language at the intermediate stages	312
3.1.3 Towards attaining overall communicative competence	316
3.1.4 Using a reading programme to teach language structures and skills	318
3.2 Recommended changes to the posts structure for teachers	321
4. Recommendations on further research	325

APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE COMPLETED BY TEACHERS (1982)	328
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APPENDIX 2

QUESTIONS POSED TO TEACHERS OF ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE 1977	339
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APPENDIX 3

BIBLIOGRAPHY	340
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LIST OF TABLESCHAPTER 5

Table No		Page
1	Teacher attitudes to the teaching of English Second Language	179
2.	Response rate of teachers to the questionnaire	180
3.	Distribution of Secondary Schools offering English Second Language	180
4.	Basic data on the English Second Language teaching force	183
5.	Home language of ESL teachers in parallel- and Afrikaans-medium secondary schools	188
6.	Home language of English Second Language secondary school teachers in different school settings	188
7.	Home language of teachers in the context of the language character of the community	189
8.	Teachers' self-evaluation in aspects of the English language	194
9.	Rank order of teachers' knowledge of aspects of English	195
10.	Use of "grammar" by secondary school teachers	196
11.	Usage of different methodological approaches, with indication of order of preference for each standard	200
12.	Frequency of literature teaching in secondary schools	207
13.	Frequency of use of own methods by teachers	208
14.	Expressed freedom of choice in aspects of teaching English Second Language, placed in rank order	209
15.	Freedom to suggest or develop ideas in teaching English Second Language	211
16.	Self-rating by teachers of their ability to teach English	212
17.	Self-ratings by teachers of their ability to teach various aspects of the English language	213
18.	Rank order of "very good" self-ratings of 11 aspects of English	214
19.	Rank order based on "adequate" responses to self-ratings by teachers of their ability to teach aspects of English	215
20.	Self-rating by teachers of their ability to teach aspects of functional grammar	219
21.	People from whom the teachers could obtain help and guidance	224
22.	Suggestions on the form of in-service training	226

CHAPTER 6

TABLE NO.	Page
1. Distribution of Primary Schools offering English second Language	231
2. Numerical relationship between English- and Afrikaans-speaking primary school pupils in various regions of Natal	232
3. Basic data on the teaching force in English Second Language	233
4. Attitude of pupils to English	234
5. Numerical relationship between English- and Afrikaans-speaking teachers of English Second Language, expressed as a % of the total	236
6. Distribution of English and Afrikaans-speaking teachers of English Second Language in urban and rural regions in Natal	238
7. Approaches used in the primary school in the teaching of English Second Language, placed in rank order of teachers' preference/usage	241
8. Different approaches in order of usage/preference by teachers for each of the standards in the primary school	243
9. The use of drama in teaching English Second Language	249
10. Teachers' rating of the value of exercises in sustained writing in the teaching of English Second Language	254
11. An analysis of teacher self-ratings of their ability to teach specific aspects of English	256
12. Teacher self-evaluation of competence in teaching aspects of functional grammar	257
13. Teachers' evaluation of their mastery/command of selected aspects of English	259
14. Freedom to suggest or develop ideas in the teaching of English Second Language	262
15. Persons to whom teachers of English Second Language could turn for advice and guidance	265
16. Suggestions on the form in-service training should take	266

PREFACE

1. Introduction

This dissertation is based on a critical review of existing policies and practices in the teaching and learning of English as second language, with specific references to how these policies and practices find effect in the schools of one education authority in the Republic of South Africa - the Natal Education Department. It is an ex post facto study, culminating in certain recommendations towards the alleviation of problems identified.

Teaching and testing are widely considered to be integral to the process of learning any subject, and in particular to the learning of a second language. The comments and analyses which form the substance of this dissertation take an overall, inclusive view of this process - so that aims, appropriate teaching methods and means of assessment are seen as part of one cycle.

After his appointment as Subject Adviser for English Second Language in the Natal Education Department in 1977, the writer conducted a pilot survey (see Appendix 2) among teachers of the subject with a view to identifying problem areas. The survey was conducted by means of personal interviews with over 70% of the teachers concerned at both secondary and primary school levels. An outline of the points raised during the interviews, which formed the basis of a questionnaire administered in 1977, appears as Appendix 2. Letters were, in addition, sent to all schools offering English as a second language, requesting that problems related to it be identified.

From the information gained it was clear that serious problems existed. Among them were the rapid turn-over of staff, inadequately trained teachers, the fact that few teachers had a sound knowledge of a range of effective teaching methods and techniques of assessment, that many teachers were not satisfied with their ability to teach

English as a second language, and that the majority of teachers were anxious for help and guidance in teaching more effectively. Other problems identified were that teachers were not in a position to obtain help and guidance from experienced and expert staff, and that the internal organisation of schools, towards the effective use of available staff to teach English as a second language, needed improvement.

It was clear from the initial survey that English as a second language in the school curriculum, and its teaching, needed to be the focus of an investigation, with a view to improving the situation. The writer began by formalising the interview schedules into questionnaire format, and at the same time studying the relevant literature in an effort to establish whether his own pre-suppositions found support or parallels.

The preliminary survey and initial reading on the teaching of English as a second language suggested that there was a need for this area to be given greater attention by the education system in South Africa. Although the language has been included in the schools' curricula in various ways in South Africa since the nineteenth century, there had been comparatively little original research and development leading to innovation in its teaching.

The parameters of this study are indicated in the title. Although limited to schools of the Natal Education Department, much of what is discussed may be extrapolated to wider and more challenging fields of teaching English as a second language.

This study is in no way intended to be a statistical, psychological, sociological or linguistic study. Nevertheless, reference or allusion to these aspects will be unavoidable, especially in the first part where an overview of language as a social institution and selected writings on second language teaching are discussed. Since schools of

the Natal Education Department are subject to the general education policy of the central government, attention is paid to factors which have led to the formulation of this policy. A brief survey of second language in selected countries provides some useful comparisons with policy and practice in schools of the Natal Education Department.

The second part of this dissertation is based on findings from a second, intensive survey of the existing situation of schools of the Natal Education Department. The conclusions in the final chapter arise from the general reading and observations on the topic, as well as from the survey of Natal schools. Recommendations, also, relate to both parts of the dissertation, including the writer's experience as subject adviser for English Second Language, and are therefore not meant to relate to the survey findings only.

2. The Aims and Approach in this Study

The main concern of the present study is to examine more closely the problem areas identified by the writer, with a view to possible improvement of the standard of English as a second language, particularly in schools of the Natal Education Department. Attention will be focused on teacher and pupil attitudes to English, teachers' knowledge of important aspects of English, use of second language teaching methods, the availability of guidance and help to teachers, and the distribution of teachers of English as a second language in Natal schools. Research methods used include a literature survey, comparative analysis, ex post facto description, and participant observation.

It is clear that the teaching of English as second language to Whites in South Africa is, in the whole context of the social, political and economic situation underlying educational policy and practice, an issue relatively less urgent than some. However, in that the key to improved social relations and harmony in the country could well lie in

greater competence in English among the Whites concerned, the subject of study assumes another significance.

Most writers on English as a second language and its teaching emphasize the importance of three fundamental factors:

- the need for a favourable attitude to English;
- A need to recognize second language teaching as a discipline different from first language teaching;
- The need for an awareness of English as an international language, as the language of science, commerce, industry tourism and trade, diplomacy and modern technology.

3. Direction of this study

The intention in this study is to ascertain what practising teachers think of certain aspects of second language teaching, and to analyse the thoughts (in conjunction with practices in other countries) as a basis for recommendations. For reasons of convenience in data gathering, the study is largely concerned (as indicated in the title) with state schools catering for Whites in the province of Natal. This does not suggest, of course, that related problems in other schools or education departments are any less serious.

Although statistical and psychological inferences are made, these do not form a significant feature of the study. Data gleaned from two surveys will be examined in the light of research and selected other findings on effective ways of teaching second language. The examination will cover social, political, historical, methodological and related aspects which may contribute to making the conclusions and recommendations of this study valid. The focus of the study is concerned with the use of English and refers to language teaching methods known to teachers of ESL, especially in schools of the Natal Education Department. The study is not concerned with linguistic

theory per se and adopts a very practical approach to language as communication.

Since it is one of the fundamental presuppositions of this study that assessment is an integral and on-going feature of second language teaching, assessment is not treated as a separate aspect except where this is necessary for elucidation. Assessment, then, is seen as part of method.

As a prelude to this study it seems advisable to give a short account of how extensive English has become as a world language, to emphasize its importance as an area of research in South Africa.

4. An outline perspective of English as a World Language

English is the most widely used language in the world today. Reasons for the growth of English as a lingua franca are numerous and much truth lies in Voltaire's observation that "the first among languages is that which possesses the largest number of excellent works" (Broughton et al., 1980: 3). Broughton notes that about one-half of the books published each year in the world are in English. This is a major contribution towards making English the most widely read and spoken language in the world. Treen (1983: 135-6) suggests that world trade, diplomacy, pop culture and science contribute largely to the internationalisation of English. He mentions that major multi-national companies use English as their primary medium of communication. English has replaced French as the language of diplomacy and, according to Treen

is an official language at meetings of countless international bodies, from the Olympic Committee to the Miss Universe Pageant (idem).

To illustrate how English has permeated many other cultures Treen

points out that "English pervades rock music the world over" (idem)!

A closer examination of the reasons why English is taught so widely as a second or foreign language shows that over 80% of scientific and technical publications in the world are in English, over 500 million people spread throughout the world use English as their first language and nearly as many use it as a second language. English is taught in over two-thirds of the world's non-English-speaking countries (Mercer, 1981: 55-56). English has also become the most important language by far of communication in the world of business and science, air travel, diplomacy and tourism (Treen, 1983: 134-8).

The magnitude of the task confronting teachers of English is appreciable against a background of the extent of the language throughout the world. In 1964 Halliday (1964: 293) wrote

English is no longer the possession of the British, or even the British and Americans, but an international language which increasingly large numbers of people adopt for at least some of their purposes, without thereby denying (at least in intention) the value of their own language; and this one language, English, exists in an increasingly large number of different varieties.

This quotation introduces some challenging considerations in devising second language method, and it is possible that in the light of the wide range of contemporary publications and teaching aids, the task of the teacher of English Second Language has become open to more challenges. There is of course no guarantee that the task has become easier.

With models of English evolving in many countries, and the reasons for the need for the language differing from country to country, it follows that approaches to the teaching of the subject will vary. The British Broadcasting Corporation broadcasts numerous lessons in English as second language throughout the world. Even in China, the national television service broadcasts at least twelve English lessons per week (Treen, 1983: 134). India with over 1 500 dialects has

English as a common language (ibid. 135). The number of speakers of English in the world has increased by 15% in the last two decades (idem).

With use of word-processors, tape-recorders and recorded lessons and video programmes, the model of English being taught in most countries is basically similar. Unfortunately, however, in many countries these teaching techniques and aids are not available. Use is thus made of local talent, that is, available indigenous teacher resources. Consequently, the model of English presented may have a strong local flavour, and in time, develop a separate dialect. This concerns particularly the phonic model with the idiom and figurative features of the language being affected. The more standard grammatical structures of English tend to resist local variation because they are, by their nature, prescriptive. Textbooks used are written mainly in countries where English is a first as well as second language, e.g. Great Britain, the United States of America, Canada, Australia and South Africa.

5. English a second Language in South Africa

Second language and its place in the education system has been a problem in South Africa ever since the 18th century. Since this background is a very important factor in determining attitudes to the second language, a separate chapter of this study will be devoted to explaining the development of certain philosophies of education and their influence on second language teaching.

Although second language has been the focus of many struggles centred on languages, the future appears to be considerably more favourable in terms of the recognition of second language. The Report of the Main Committee of the Human Sciences Research Council Investigation into Education, on the Provision of Education in the Republic of South Africa, 1981, usually and hereafter referred to as the De Lange

Report, has introduced or re-awakened matters related to second language teaching which could have an important effect on its place in the curriculum. Second language, and especially English as second language, will need attention in all education systems in South Africa, especially since English has been chosen as the medium of instruction in all Black schools from the senior primary level.

The De Lange Report, in its sub-committee report on Languages and Language Instruction, accepted that a diversity of cultures and languages should be recognized in an education system. The rigid prescription which characterises South African education at present was seen as unacceptable to the compilers of the report. In terms of this, decentralisation of control, with the implication of local group-parental choice, appears to be a step towards accommodating the heterogeneous population of South Africa.

Although the De Lange Report will undoubtedly have a great influence on the course of education in South Africa, some of its recommendations and conclusions are open to question, and will be discussed later in this study.

6. Conclusion

Of all that has been written on the role and teaching of second languages in education systems, selection of relevant aspects is a hazardous and subjective process for which the writer accepts full responsibility.

The writer turns his attention first to the question of language as a social institution, after which a review of selected literature on the teaching of English as second language is provided. The ensuing chapter considers factors which have affected the development of bilingual education in South Africa, and it is followed by a consideration of how English as a second language is taught in

selected countries of the world.

In the second part of the dissertation, the writer presents the results of an investigation into the teaching of English as second language in schools of the Natal Education Department. It is important to note that the two parts of the dissertation are, while obviously associated, not intended to be causatively or serially linked. The questionnaire on which the second part of the dissertation is based parallels rather than reflects the literature surveys in the first part. Where desirable, cross-references are made but the survey of teacher opinion (Part Two) and the library study (Part One) are meant to provide complementary insights into the area selected for study so that the final chapter, which is concerned with conclusions and recommendations, can bring original contributions to bear. The conclusions and recommendations in the final chapter arise from both parts of the dissertation and are intended to form a bridge between Parts One and Two.

.

Parts One and Two have specific though complementary roles in this dissertation. Part One provides a descriptive theoretical overview of the teaching (including assessment) of English as Second Language, and sketches the background against which the situation in Natal is studied. Part Two reports on an empirical study carried out by the writer which, taken in conjunction with Part One, leads to the formulation of certain recommendations. While related, therefore, the two parts are not totally interdependent.

P A R T O N E

CHAPTER 1

LANGUAGE AS A SOCIAL INSTITUTION

1. Introduction

A fundamental thesis of this study is that language as a social institution forms a dynamic element in helping man to formulate his world-view, or view of reality. This thesis is particularly relevant to teachers and learners of a second language, for, as will be shown in the first three chapters, a person's world view very sensitively affects his attitude to the position of the second language in a society.

The relationship between language and society and the role of pressure groups within the power structure of society, referred to by Kess (1976: 123) as "ingroup and outgroup attitudes toward linguistic diversity", will permeate this study. Therefore considerable attention is paid to language as a social institution.

An evaluation of the teaching of language inevitably requires analysis of inter alia social, psychological, historical, political and economic factors, all of which have a bearing on the place and function of language as an institution in society. In this dissertation, such factors and their influence on teaching methods appropriate to English as a second language in South Africa, and on attitudes to it in various countries, including South Africa, will be studied. The immediate concern in the present chapter is to examine views of knowledge and of language as a social institution, which will provide perspectives against which the complexity of the task of teaching a second language may be evaluated.

2. Language and Socialization

Because language is a basic institution of society, and the means by which an individual becomes a participating member of a society (through the process of socialization) it is necessary to consider the connection between language and socialization as processes.

Berger and Berger (1976: 62) explain that the process by means of which a person "learns to be a member of society is called socialization", which entails the imposition of "social patterns on behaviour" (idem). These patterns are usually determined by adults and reflect the adults' acceptance of what society is or should be.

As Berger and Berger explain, the child readily accepts this imposition until he becomes aware of alternatives. Once this occurs "the relativity of social patterns and social worlds " (idem) is grasped by the child. However, whatever form socialization takes "The primary vehicle of socialization is language "(ibid. 64). Berger and Berger argue that language is the fundamental institution of society

because all other institutions, whatever their various purposes and characteristics, build upon the underlying regulatory pattern of language.

(ibid. 81)

The present section will investigate the importance of the socialization process and the role played by language in it. As we will see when discussing how second language is learnt much is made of attitude and motivation. In fact, in discussing motivation for learning second language mention will be made of three kinds of motivation, one of which is closely related to socialization: social group identification. Although main or first language plays a more obvious and important role than does second language in the process of socialization, the role of the second language (which forms part of

the fabric of South African White society will be brought into focus primarily because of the attitudinal connotations associated with second language learning in South Africa.

2.1 Language in Society

The functions of language as an institution of society are not easily defined or described. As Lenneberg and Roberts explain (1961: 493)

The goal of understanding the relationship between man's language and his experience of the world has been a challenge to linguists, psychologists, anthropologists, and philosophers alike.

However, a reading of the works of Mead (1944), Bernstein (1979), and others, leaves one in no doubt that language is regarded as an essential part of the fabric of society. For example, the concept of Weltanschauung, which means a world-view identified with the culture in which the language is nurtured and which in turn helps nurture the culture, found its protagonists in well-known socio-linguists such as Labov. Latterly, Bernstein (1979), Tripp, G.A. Miller (1968) and N. Chomsky (1976) have introduced a more analytical approach to an examination of the role of language in society. However, a common factor to all socio-linguists' interpretation of language as an institution of society is that it is primary and fundamental to the existence of "regulatory patterns" which influence and affect human behaviour in society.

Berger and Berger explain that "language is the first institution encountered by the individual" (op. cit. 81) because his relationship with other members of the family is meaningful to him mainly because of the link established by communication through language. Furthermore, Berger and Berger explain, language "impinges on the child very early in its macro-social aspects", and it "points to broader realities that lie beyond the micro-world of the child's

immediate experience" (idem). Shafer (1983: 2) supports the contention that language is the fundamental institution of society, for he states that "almost all the relationships of which we are aware are through language".

The fact that language underpins human society and that it is inextricably enmeshed in social intercourse is of significance to any study involving the teaching of languages. Related to the idea that language is a social institution is the notion that language, thinking and behaviour are all interdependent. The acquisition of language brings about an awareness of the world and allows the speaker not only to communicate with his world of lived-experience, but also to contribute towards its formation.

Language, like any institution of society (as Berger and Berger, 1978:88 have explained), involves "historicity" and "form". These terms suggest that in any society language develops over an identifiable period of time and that it assumes recognisable and particular characteristics, for example in terms of word order and spelling.

Historicity implies that to an individual language as a social institution began before and will extend after his lifetime, for

The meanings embodied in the institution were accumulated there over a long time, by innumerable individuals whose names and faces can never be retrieved from the past.

(Berger and Berger, 1978:88)

Implicit in historicity and form is the world-view in terms of which the language has evolved - the Weltanschauung.

Sapir (1979: 174), in viewing the role and function of language in society states:

Human beings do not live in the objective world alone, nor alone in the world of social activity as ordinarily understood, but are very much at the mercy of the particular language which has become the medium of expression of their society. It is quite an illusion to imagine that one

adjusts to reality essentially without the use of language and that language is merely an incidental means of solving specific problems of communication or reflection. The fact of the matter is that the 'real world' is to a large extent unconsciously built up on the language habits of the group We see and hear and otherwise experience very largely as we do because the language habits of our community predispose certain choices of interpretation.

A consideration of the views of some major commentators on language in society will now follow.

2.2 Bernstein

Bernstein's (1965) initial proposition that specific linguistic codes were typical of particular social strata in England helped provide a basis upon which the role of language as an institution may be understood. Bernstein's early work suggested that language codes not only conveyed their respective worlds of lived-experience, but also helped to create and maintain these worlds. The basic assumption underlying Bernstein's work is that an individual's social milieu (his relationships and the resulting speech acts) shape his potential as a user of language. Code means the type of linguistic competence which is typical of a type of environment, such environment involving aspects of social class and family structure.

Coulthard explains that Bernstein's original theory of "two culturally determined kinds of language" (Coulthard, 1979: 95) provoked considerable discussion, although by 1979 the idea of a link between socialization practices and language use appeared to have gained general acceptance (idem). In his article, Coulthard draws attention to the wide range of investigation and research to which Bernstein's work gave impetus. The basic assumptions made by Bernstein and the research methodology he adopted are shown to be questionable, but a major benefit has been that attempts to help linguistically "deprived" children have been ongoing:

It seems possible that codes will be abandoned as such and

some more general idea of linguistic depression will be introduced to link a child's environment with the extent to which he falls below his potential linguistic ability.

(Coulthard, op cit. p 100)

It is not the intention of the writer comprehensively to review Bernstein's theories or criticisms of them, for such reviews are widely available. On the other hand no study related to the teaching of first or second language could afford to ignore reference to Bernstein's contribution. Contradictory and inadequate though much of Bernstein's work in this regard has been, it has provided a springboard for further investigation. For example, Coulthard, in appraising Bernstein's approach, points out that

difficulties encountered in using the theory to help restricted code speakers with their language problems, suggest that a new formulation is necessary.

(ibid. 100)

Lee also discusses some of the limiting factors in Bernstein's original formulation of his theory. He points out that a weakness in Bernstein's original research techniques was his exclusive dependence on questionnaires. However, Lee mentions that Bernstein himself

makes it plain that the emphasis is shifting from the theory of codes to social control.

(Lee, 1973: 5)

Bernstein originally names two "codes", and said that a "social relationship based upon a common, extensive set of closely-shared identifications and expectations self-consciously held by the members" is the general condition for the existence of the restricted code of language (1971: 127). An elaborated code, according to Bernstein "is likely to arise in a social relationship which raises the tension in its members to select from their linguistic resources a verbal arrangement which closely fits specific referents" (ibid. 128). Early socialization, particularly by the mother, would clearly help to define the extent of selection or freedom in the social relationship.

Bernstein makes the point that what is presented for learning through

elaborated and restricted codes differs radically. Thus, explains Bernstein, "the relative backwardness of many working-class children who live in areas of high population density or in rural areas may well be culturally induced backwardness transmitted by the linguistic process" (ibid. 151).

Bernstein's theory held that linguistic codes reflect and sustain particular social relationships. The restricted code constructed a different kind of social reality from that constructed by the elaborated code. Restricted code users tended to focus on more concrete than abstract matters. A restricted code allowed lesser scope for subtlety to be verbally expressed - thus placing a greater emphasis on non-verbal expression. Furthermore, according to Bernstein, the user of restricted codes had difficulty in abstract thinking and was more bound to the immediate-concrete. This placed the user at a disadvantage in a formal education system in which the language codes were more elaborated.

Halliday explains that, despite its defects, Bernstein's research "has demonstrated a significant correlation between the mother's linguistic attention to the child and the teacher's assessment of the child's success in the first year of school." (Halliday, 1976: 15).

In these words Halliday draws attention to the role of early socialization, a topic fully investigated by Bernstein's disciples, (e.g. Henderson in Pride and Holmes, 1972, p.314)

Bernstein's theories on the relationship between social class and language usage led him to examine how "cultural experience is translated into cognitive behaviour and academic achievement" (Hess and Shipman, 1979: 169). Hess and Shipman explain that in Bernstein's view

language structures and conditions what the child learns and how he learns, setting limits within which future learning may take place.

(ibid. 170)

From about 1969, Bernstein's work rejected a causal relationship between social class status alone and linguistic code, while in the United States his notion of codes has almost from the start been viewed as self-restricting. Labov (1968) for example found that children who could otherwise have been labeled "restricted" showed effective communication ability when in a culturally familiar setting (see Gumperz, 1970, in Pride and Holmes, 1972, p.219).

Although Bernstein tended at first to imply only a social class link in socialization and language, his fundamental concept that language and society mutually influence each other is important to the present study. Social control through language is a pertinent aspect of any bilingual society.

2.3 Mead

George Herbert Mead's contribution to an awareness of the significance of language as a social institution is important in that he identifies and explains the role of language in social relationships and particularly in socialization. As Berger and Berger explain, Mead stressed that

it is impossible to understand man except as he can be understood in his social context, and this presupposes a language facility which is necessary for effective interpersonal communication.

(Berger and Berger, 1976: 49)

The Meadian concept of society places the self in the primary role of initiator. (Mead, ed. by Morris, 1944) The human being, as actor, becomes the architect of his own social environment, i.e.

the possession of a self provides the human being with a mechanism of self-interaction with which to meet the world - a mechanism that is used in forming and guiding his conduct.

(Blumer, 1972: 16)

In giving expression to his initiatives the self goes into what Mead

calls an act, and the implications of this are significant in understanding the role of the individual, and therefore of language, in society. According to Mead (Mead ed. by Morris, 1944) an "act" is the individual's role-function in helping to form or create his own world of lived-experience. Central to this role-function, under normal circumstances is language.

Mead's interpretation of the world of lived-experience of the individual suggests that he regarded the making of the experience as individual-initiated, although this did not imply that initiatives from without were not significant in forming the individual's schemes of experience. As Luckmann explains:

Schemes of experience are typical ways of 'looking at' and 'coping' with reality.

(Luckmann, 1975: 47)

Schemes of experience are a conglomerate of acts (cf. Mead) which form patterns, or take on some order, in the person involved in the act.

Luckmann explains that these 'schemes'

represent habitualized ways of 'problem-solving', which means that they (the schemes of experience) are based on subjective systems of relevance which determine these contexts (idem).

Put simply, the point is that as the learner moves from a subjective, personal world into one involving social interaction, his "schemes of experience" increasingly become affected by other people.

The interpretation by Mead of the role of language places language in the perspective it has increasingly assumed in the thinking of social scientists and psychologists. Mead's concern for and interest in the effect of society on the individual led him to examine "the subjective aspect of culture, which is the human personality and its social nature" (McGee, 1972: 45). Mead's concept of self (subjective personality) is in fact in the person's Dasein, which is influenced by the society and its prevailing culture. The fundamental medium for

conveying this influence is language, which affects and is affected by the prevailing interpretation of reality in society.

Mead recognised the role of language in the process of socialization in presenting a "three-stage process of development through which the human personality passes in the course of maturation" (McGee, 1972: 46). The significant point is that Mead "saw the self as a process and not as a structure" (Blumer, op.cit. 11). This assumes an appreciation of the fact that

the possession of a self provides the human being with a mechanism of self-interaction with which to meet the world - a mechanism that is used in forming and guiding his conduct.

(idem)

Sapir, his pupil Whorf, and later Bernstein, examined more closely the framework provided by Mead in his role-theory of the function of language as an institution of society.

2.4 Labov

Unlike Mead, who approached the question of language as a social institution from a philosophical point of view, and Bernstein who was concerned with the relationship between class, control and language, Labov (1970) examines the influence of certain sub-cultures on language.

Labov pays careful attention to the definition of language in terms of its social setting which he explains has a direct effect on the style of the language (Currie, 1975: 105). Labov (1972) rejects the concept of correctness as an absolute, and emphasizes language in its social context.

In his study of the New York Black sub-culture Labov confirms what Meillet, Jespersen, Bloomfield and others observed with regard to the

influence of a social sub-culture on language (Luckmann, 1975: 29): the effect of a MIDDLE-class speech model on LOWER-class speech styles.

Labov's contribution may be measured against the moves in recent years in curriculum design for language teaching to recognize that competence in English is not necessarily synonymous with mastery of Standard English. Mercer (1981: 85) point out that the concern in English teaching for the maintenance of Standard English as the norm is an unfortunate policy "because it may serve to alienate children from education itself" (idem). Labov notes that moves in education to eliminate the sub-culture dialect from the curriculum and to replace it with Standard English

contributed to the alienation of Black American adolescents from the school system, because children are more likely to reject school if their mother tongue is treated as educationally worthless. (ibid. 86)

Problems may well be caused by moves in curriculum designers which alienate second or foreign language learners from their vernacular or sub-culture dialect. Rosen (1980: 121) sees the source of the problem of alienation in that: "the mother tongue is acquired almost entirely through linguistic experience and activity, but that the school is the arena for other language learning" (emphasis added).

The solution proposed by Rosen is that

a bridge needs to be built between personal, creative language (of the sub-culture or class-writer's note) and impersonal language.

(ibid. 122)

The idea that language varieties occur in a society, as discussed by Whorf, Labov, Bernstein, Rosen and others has relevance for this study of English as a second language in a heterogeneous society, for no language may be described as homogeneous. Heterogeneity and variation in structures (between different varieties) are normal for all speech communities (Labov, 1972: 203). This appears to be obvious in

heterogeneous societies like South Africa and the United States of America, but, as Labov explains, some linguists avoid this issue and tend to regard languages of certain communities and even societies as stable and homogeneous models.

Labov emphasizes that Black American language, although phonologically and grammatically different from Standard American English, expresses identity and social values of the particular Black sub-culture. Their language is the social institution by means of which they help establish their life-style, and it is the medium of communication with the world. As Sutcliffe explains Black American English is the "carrier of social values and identity" (Mercer, 1981: 127) of this sub-culture of American society.

Whilst Labov concentrates on phonological aspects in linguistic differences between various sub-cultures (frequently related to classes) in society, he stresses that the basic linguistic structures of lower- and upper-class English are not dissimilar. In this regard Labov states that

The concept of verbal deprivation has no basis in social reality: in fact, Negro children in the urban ghettos receive a great deal of verbal stimulation, hear more well-formed sentences than middle-class children, and participate fully in a highly verbal culture.

(Labov, 1979: 198)

Labov adds that "The ungrammaticality of everyday speech appears to be with no basis in actual fact" (Labov, 1972: 203). As pointed out earlier, "ungrammaticality" lost importance when the social situation of the subjects was culturally familiar to them. Their speech retained logicality. This point, fundamental to Labov's approach, has sometimes been underplayed because the work of Labov and others

was exploited in peculiar ways by various intellectuals and semi-intellectuals who claimed public attention by riding on the coat-tails of scholarly and non-scholarly forms of social criticism.

(Luckmann, 1975: 53)

Such politicization of Labov's work tends to play down the recognition he deserves for his contribution to socio-linguistics, particularly the implicit rejection of verbal deprivation, so central to Bernstein's theories.

Much of what Labov questions with regard to general practice in first language teaching has implications for some problems of second language, for although Labov studied first language speakers the purpose of language is an issue affecting both first and second language. He asks whether it is true that all middle-class language is functional and desirable in the school situation and questions the wisdom of the insistence by education planners that all children should master Standard English. (Labov, 1970: 5) It is submitted that any insistence that all second-language learners should adopt a particular language style is also open to question.

Labov poses the challenge in this way: curriculum planners should determine how the acquisition of Standard American English will enable Blacks to analyse and generalise in their use of language (idem). The Black who is obliged, even compelled, to use Standard American English would understandably be at a disadvantage in his performance at school where White middle-class language norms prevail. Labov distinguishes between performance at school and performance at home. He explains it thus:

Teaching the child to mimic certain formal speech patterns used by middle-class teachers is seen as teaching him to think logically.

(Labov, op.cit. 10)

He sees this as a fundamental fallacy which "illicitly identifies a form of speech as the cause of middle-class achievement in school" (idem), and may be interpreted as an expression of traditional prejudice against speakers from the lower-class.

The implications of Labov's findings for second language teaching can only be fully appreciated when one considers that basic to all modern thinking on teaching method is the requirement that children's backgrounds, their interests, and social prejudices have to be taken into account in devising effective teaching methods.

2.5 Whorf

Whorf was an anthropologist and linguist who, as a result of studies mainly among native Americans, believed that the real concern of the linguist

is to light up the thick darkness of the language, and thereby of much of the thought, the culture, and the outlook upon life of a given community.

(Whorf, 1971: 73).

According to Whorf, man through language not only reveals himself and the world he belongs to, he also manifests how he helps shape his world through his cognitive processes. Whorf explains:

Each language is not merely a reproducing instrument for voicing ideas, but rather is itself the shaper of ideas, the program and guide for the individual's mental activity, for his analysis of impressions, for his synthesis of his mental stock in trade.

(ibid. 212)

According to Whorf language helps determine "a general manner of thinking, including the way space and time are construed." (Adams, 1972: 8). He explains it thus:

Every language and every well-knit technical sublanguage incorporates certain points of view and certain patterned resistances to widely divergent points of view.

(Whorf, 1971: 247)

A hypothesis formulated by Whorf to explain the relationship between man and his world may be seen as a linguistic-relativity hypothesis. Miller explains that

this hypothesis asserts that our language influences the way in which we perceive the world, it serves as a culturally built-in filter of our experiences, thus determining the selectivity of consciousness.

(Miller and Buckhout, 1973: 65)

Lenneberg explains that underpinning Whorf's interpretation of language acquisition and usage is

the assumption that the individual's conception of the world (including perception, abstraction, rationalization, categorization) is intimately related to the nature of his native language.

(Adams, 1972: 157)

Whorf's theory is relevant and important to the study of second language since it focuses attention on the bilingual who could be confronted by the problem of a duality in his conception of the world. The confusion implicit in this duality may be a reason why bilingual education programmes are not accepted as educationally sound by many educationists. Bilingual programmes, which will be discussed later in this study, may assume various forms, but the common aim is to

give all children the opportunity to become fully articulate and literate and broadly educated in two languages and sensitive to two cultures.

(Andersson and Boyer, 1970, Vol I: 69)

Miller and Buckhout concede that the Whorfian hypothesis seems to have difficulty in explaining that, although the bilingual person

may perform specific mental operations in the language that he first learned the operation in, he is able to understand the problem and give the answer in either language.

(Miller and Buckhout, 1973: 66)

Perhaps the fundamental weakness of the Whorfian hypothesis is that it was arrived at after a study of isolated language communities, e.g. that of the Hopi. The language of these communities was comparatively restricted in terms of vocabulary, (the Hopi having, for example, only

two colour categories).

An important theory which forms part of the Whorfian hypothesis is that "the structure of the language one habitually uses influences the manner in which one understands his environment" (Whorf, 1971: vi). This hypothesis has interesting implications for helping to understand why certain communities, especially in a bilingual society, have traits and customs, and prejudices and preferences, which distinguish them from other communities.

Although Whorf's linguistic relativism is controversial, it has some importance for the second language learner. The claim that

the cue to a certain line of behaviour is often given by the analogies of the linguistic formula in which the situation is spoken of, and by which to some degree it is analysed, classified, and allotted its place in that world which is 'to a large extent unconsciously built up on the language habits of the group'

(Whorf, 1971: 136)

is arguable. As Kess (1976: 82) points out, literal acceptance of Whorf's theory would mean that "our dealings with the exterior world would be in some way different if we had grown up speaking another language". Whorf's theory does not explain the differences in thinking and concept formation caused by cultural differences, but Kess sees Whorf's theory as having relevance for the role of language as an institution of society. He explains that should language be taken to be "a collection of vocabulary words" (Kess, 1976: 83), the habit-factor inherent in the use of these words may affect "the way we interact with the real world" (idem).

Whorf's hypothesis makes one aware of an important factor in second language teaching and that is recognition that the learner may have a different view of reality, even a philosophy of life, from that of the teacher whose first language he is trying to learn. This duality will be examined more closely in chapter 3 of this study.

Much of what Whorf contributed in his studies on language helps the teacher of second language to understand that, for his method to be effective, he must accept that language is not only society-related, it may even be community-related. This has important implications for syllabus design, curriculum planning and the methodology of second language.

2.6 Overall conclusion

A survey of the works of many sociolinguists leads one to the conclusion that

language evidently plays a central part in the processes of social objectivation and social transmission of such thought, value, and attitude configurations as have a relevance and validity that goes beyond individual experience.

(Luckmann, 1975: 20)

Berger and Berger are conclusive in this regard: "First of all, of course, it is the child's micro-world itself that is structured by language" (1976: 82). They attribute to language the function of giving order in terms of identifiable objects and patterns in the child's world of lived-experience. The idea that the "micro-world of the child is structured in terms of roles" (ibid. 83) relates to Mead's role of language as a social institution. This appears to be a common factor among most socio-linguists, i.e. language is a dynamic, role-playing and role-making social institution without which human society would be inert. From the foregoing it may generally be accepted that language plays a significant role in STRUCTURING one's interpretation of society and one's life-world. It seems logical, also, that there must be a close relationship between language and thought. This relationship will not be enlarged upon in the present work. Instead, the writer proceeds to consider some recent statements on how a second language is learned. These statements are made in the context of language as a social institution.

3. Second Language Learning

Learning a second language is different from acquiring a first language. Increasing attention has been paid in recent years to research on how language is learnt, yet there are no universal conclusions. According to Dulay (1982), Burt (1982), Krashen (1981), Allwright (1979), Chiang (1983), Rubin (1981) and others there appear to be some identifiable processes which come into operation when a person learns a second language. Chiang et al. (1983:31) show that first language acquisition and second language learning involve different processes. They add, too, that,

the language learning (writer's emphasis) capability of adolescents and adults who are acquiring (sic) a second language differs from that of children who are acquiring their native language

(ibid. 21)

Dulay et al. (1982: 45) point out that three internal factors play a role in second language learning: "two are subconscious processes, which we call the 'filter' and the 'organizer', and one is a conscious processor called the 'monitor'" (idem).

Dulay et al. (ibid.) explain that the term filter refers to "affective factors that screen out certain parts of learners' language environments". It is attitude, in conjunction with factors such as necessity and prevailing emotional circumstances, which filter what a learner hears of a language. Later in this work, in the next three chapters, the significance of attitude will be explained more fully and in terms of practical cases.

The implications of the concept of a "filter" in the language learning process alert one to a fundamental hypothesis of the present study:

that inculcation of a positive attitude to English is necessary for successful teaching to take place. Inherent in the concept of a "filter" are factors basic to a theme running through the present study: the need for motivation in learning English as a second language. As Dulay et al. explain (1982: 47) "motivation in second language acquisition (sic) may be thought of as the incentive, the need, or the desire that the learner feels to learn the second language". Dulay et al. drawing on research material, note that with regard to second language there are three kinds of motivation which influence language learning: "integrative motivation, instrumental motivation and social group identification" (idem). (Dulay et al. define two of the three kinds of motivation listed here as follows (ibid. 47/48):

- integrative motivation may be defined as the desire to achieve proficiency in a new language in order to participate in the life of the community,
- instrumental motivation "may be defined as the desire to achieve proficiency in a new language for utilitarian reasons, such as getting a job"

The third, social group identification, Dulay et al. define (ibid. 50) "as the desire to acquire proficiency in a language or language variety spoken by a social group with which the learner identifies". This third kind of motivation in respect of second language learning would apply to those who want to integrate into the social and cultural life of the speakers of their target language. This may apply particularly to immigrants but would also apply to people who for personal, professional, cultural or economic reasons want to be able to communicate competently with speakers of the language they aim to learn.

The second part of the internal processing in learning a second language is called the "organizer" (ibid. 54) which analyses and gives logical order to

- (1) the systematic progression of changes in interim rules, or transitional constructions that learners use before a

structure is finally acquired;

- (2) the errors that systematically occur in learner speech; and
- (3) the common order in which mature structures are learned.

The point to bear in mind in this regard is that learning of a second language is not necessarily dependent upon a series of academic lessons (Kess, 1976: 236). Second language is learnt as a behaviour and conscious efforts at didactics may be seen as extra assistance. As Kess explains "the bilingual learns the language as a form of communication that is geared to results" (idem). The result, or goal of language learning is its effectiveness as a communication device.

It is the function of the organizer to process information with regard to the target language which the filter allows through. The role of the teacher of second language would be to facilitate the functioning of the organizer by helping to order language structures, systematically eliminate recurring errors and guiding the learner in enriching language use.

The final part of the learning process is called the "monitor" (after Krashen) which, according to Dulay et al. (ibid. 59) enables the learner through "conscious linguistic processing" to formulate sentences and to make corrections to faulty use of language. With regard to the "faultiness" of language Politzer and McGroarty (1983: 180) observe that in addition to grammatical convention, it is also

the appropriateness of communication according to such sociolinguistic parameters as topic, place, or interlocutor

which determine the "correctness" of language. This, in effect, is the fundamental point underpinning the "communicative approach" to language teaching: that appropriateness and convention are both seen as criteria for the evaluation of language use.

In discussing the "monitor" concept Maley (1983: 295) distinguishes between learning and acquisition. He explains that "learning is

characterized by the need for a conscious effort of concentration on what is being learned" whereas acquisition "is largely a subconscious process, in which the human organism abstracts, processes and organizes relevant information from the linguistic environment and stores it in long-term memory ready for immediate retrieval".

Dulay et al. (ibid. 59) explain that the monitoring function is dependent upon the level of formal teaching the learner has been subjected to, his age and personality, and the purpose of the language being used. The function of the "monitor" is still unclear because many learners of second language "are observed to produce quite complex language without being able to state any rules at all". This, has bearing on the rationale underlying the communicative approach to teaching second language, where a language is learned through use.

Rubin sees the functions attributed to the "monitor" as part of a device to acquire knowledge. She explains this strategy thus:

The good language learner may be a good guesser, that is, he gathers and stores information in an efficient manner so it can be easily retrieved.

(Rubin, 1981: 18)

Rubin also makes the point (ibid. 23) that the good language learner "monitors his own speech and the speech of others". But more relevant and significant to the present study is Rubin's observation that the learner "may actively look for clues to meaning - in the topic, setting, or attitudes of the speakers". Later in the present study, when recommendations on approaches to teaching English as a second language are made, this strategy will be seen to underpin a structured thematic approach.

4. Language and Power in Society

Power, and access to power, greatly determine status in society and language as a social institution is unavoidably linked to power structures and groups. Decision-making in society may be vested in

one language group, and attitudes to a particular language or group may be closely linked with attitudes to the language used and the social construction of reality represented. These attitudes may be extended by education.

4.1 Education and Man's View of Reality

Man's view of reality affects his interpretation of knowledge. Lawton (1973: 22) explains that the two basic views of knowledge, the Classical and Romantic views, "represent two very different stances to education as a whole." The Classical approach has as its aim the acquisition of knowledge; it is subject-oriented, instruction is likely to be didactic, and evaluation by competitive examination (ibid. 23). The Romantic approach, on the other hand, is child-centred, concentrates on attitudes and values, is based on personal involvement and co-operation and self-assessment (idem).

The psycho-metric or objective approach to the interpretation of knowledge entails, according to Esland (1971: 75), the view that

zones of knowledge are objects which can be considered to have meaning other than in the minds of the individuals in which they are constituted, irrespective of their human realization.

This view sees knowledge as a body of information, ideas, concepts, thoughts and feelings which the child is required to learn and understand. Strasser defines objectivity as

a free man's recognition of his orientation to, and being normalised by something which is not himself.

(Strasser, 1963: 85)

A more subjective view is one "which insists that man is seen as existentially related to his social structure" (Esland, 1971: 77). This view recognises man's involvement in his world of lived experience. According to it, the concern is

diverted from how man absorbs knowledge so that he can

replicate it, to how the individual creatively synthesizes and generates knowledge, and...(to) its social origins and consequences.

(idem)

The lived-world of a person is that "world-creating, word-sustaining" (Bollnow, 1967: 181) activity through which he comes into contact and perceives his surroundings. This contact may be intentional and it may be incidental. The point is that it takes place and is reciprocal. The nature of a lived-world clearly affects how a person learns, and may determine attitudes to learning material.

From medieval times the focus of learning

regarded knowledge as something to be deduced from certain a priori principles and axioms, principles derived from Aristotle or the Bible or sometimes the Christian Fathers.

(Bantock, 1965:86)

The very nature of this approach to learning was authoritarian, and Bacon, among others, rejected it because it found its rationale in too narrow a source. As Bantock states, the approach was seen as "being shut up in the cells of a few authors (chiefly Aristotle their dictator)" (idem).

If we look at the classroom practices of a teacher they reflect his approach to the nature of knowledge. Esland (1971:72) explains that teachers

through their pedagogy and subject presentation, are making critical, albeit taken for granted, decisions about the future of their pupils, the legitimations of which are located in professional knowledge.

The nature of knowledge appears therefore to be the crux of any philosophy of education upon which an approach to teaching is based. Every teacher is confronted by an interpretation of the socially-constructed realities which surround him. His teaching methods usually reflect this interpretation. For example, the approaches and methods used by teachers in the United States of America and in the U.S.S.R. are vastly different (Bronfenbrenner, 1971).

Social reality may be largely objective, if people are passive in their acceptance of the societal forces which contribute to the creation of a world view. Esland explains that for some people

the individual consciousness recognises objects as being 'out there', as coercive, external realities.
(ibid. 75)

Such people, in their passivity, would ignore

the intentionality and expressivity of human action and the entire complex process of intersubjective negotiation of meanings.

(idem)

This is one view, but the complexity of the matter does not allow for easy interpretation of the inter-play between the human being and society. One of the most important contributions to the idea of the connection between man and his society was George Herbert Mead (1944), whose work has already been cited (Mead, edited by Morris).

Mead developed

a highly original theory of socialization which stressed, in convincing and detailed analyses, the role of communicative processes for the development of individual consciousness and personality structure.

(Berger and Luckmann, 1979: 23)

It was people like Mead (1944), Cooley, William James, John Dewey and others who played a significant role in realigning the traditional interpretations of the nature of knowledge because they placed a new emphasis on the interactive nature of man and his dependence on communication. Their work made and continues to make profound influence on teaching methods and approaches, in particular in terms of greater involvement of the learner in the process.

The teacher as person is in a very important situation since he is able to influence and affect the pupils in his charge. He may, for example, see himself as representative of the society out-there, that

which should be acted upon. He may expect his pupils to be submissive in their acceptance of what is presented to them. Depending on methods used, pupils could of necessity be static and even easily moulded into whatever form the society, through its agent the teacher, may desire. The influence of the teacher in this regard will vary according to the impact he makes in his communication with the pupils.

Esland sees the interpretation of knowledge by the teacher as crucial to the success or failure of an educational system. He explains (1971: 78)

We shall argue that teachers have certain core assumptions about their 'subjects', about pedagogy, the intellectual status of their pupils, and some ideas of what constitutes thinking, including its presence and supposed absence in particular situations.

As Durkheim explains, the transmission of the form of society is effected through education (Durkheim, 1972: 2), but the essential prerogative of human education is that it is creative and continually changing and being changed by society. This places a challenging responsibility on the teacher who, as an employee, and member of society, is subject to both written and unwritten constraints, but should endeavour to be constantly explorative in his role. However, in being innovative and resistant to excessive constraint the teacher should bear in mind that "there is a discipline in the school as in the community" (idem).

The central proposition of the sociology of knowledge is that "man's consciousness arises out of his social being" (Esland, 1971:79).

The approach holds that "consciousness is always intentional" (Berger and Luckman, 1979:34) and that it is directed at the reality of the world of lived-experience. It is thus totally subjective.

Berger and Berger explain that the child's micro-world is structured by the roles he plays (Berger and Berger, 1976: 83) and as "roles

represent institutions" (idem) language is the fundamental social institution with which the child comes into contact in his interaction with his micro-world. Berger and Berger explain further that language "confronts the child as an all-encompassing reality", and that

almost everything else that he experiences as real is structured on the basis of this underlying reality - filtered through it, organized by it, expanded by it.

(idem)

Education, of which language is obviously a basic medium, is in terms of the references cited much affected by the particular society in which it occurs. By extension it is reasonable to propose that a society can greatly affect the role of language as an agent of socialization, and the attitudes towards languages which occur in that society. Attitudes may well be affected by a particular interpretation of knowledge.

4.2 Implications for Policy and Practice

One can hardly progress much in education philosophy or practice unless one includes in one's inquiries and speculations a study of the nature of knowledge, especially in terms of how it finds expression in the education system which may arise from it. Any education system presupposes the existence of a curriculum structure which gives expression to the education philosophy underlying the system. This curriculum entails an interpretation, definition and a use of knowledge, but, nevertheless, the philosophical framework provides the parameters within which this definition and interpretation occurs. A philosophy of education is expressed in the implementation of the curriculum. This gives rise to what should be included in the curriculum. Lawton (1973: 31) explains:

Given that the adult world and its knowledge is of relevance to the child, and given that it is desirable for the child to be introduced to various kinds of knowledge, since a curriculum cannot include all knowledge, there is a problem of selection: what kind of knowledge should be given priority in schools?

The selection, as has been suggested briefly in this chapter is influenced by the view of reality and interpretation of knowledge of those who exercise power in formulating policy. As Bernstein (1979: 363) points out:

How a society selects, classifies, distributes, transmits and evaluates the educational knowledge it considers to be public reflects both the distribution of power and the principle of social control with that society.

Apple (1979:15) refers to Wexler's analysis of the interrelationship between society and the schools' curricula by pointing out that (1979: 15)

to understand fully how schools function we must study schools as institutions that 'process knowledge', as institutions that serve an ideological function.

Apple quotes Young to stress his point that how knowledge is interpreted and used depends in practice on how those who exercise power in society see it:

Those in positions of power will attempt to define what is taken as knowledge, how accessible to different groups any knowledge is, and what are accepted relationships between different knowledge areas and between those who have access to them and make them available.

(ibid. 35)

A society's epistemology (theory of knowledge) may be defined in closely-knit, restricted terms which may produce in an education system curricula which are inflexible, restricted and static in order to ensure the survival of a particular form of society. As Apple (1979: 127) explains

curriculumists help establish and maintain institutions that affect students and others in a myriad of ways. Because of these effects, they must be aware of the reasons and

intentions that guide them. This is especially true of ideological and political purposes, both manifest and latent.

Apple's emphasis on the political and ideological factors will be seen later in the present study to have particular relevance to an appreciation of how the study of English as a second language is related to the system of education in South Africa. It seems safe, therefore, to accept that an interpretation of the nature of reality which is linked to a particular view of man and his role in society, shapes the evolution and formulation of ideologies which in turn affect the structure of the education system used to transmit and propagate these beliefs.

Bernstein (1979) explains that his research into language over the years was aimed at showing how the "class system acts upon the deep structure of communication in the process of socialisation" (ibid. 110). Furthermore, Bernstein, in discussing education in society, claims that we "need to examine the social assumptions underlying the organisation, distribution and evaluation of knowledge" (ibid. 217).

Apple observes that Bernstein and others have maintained that

the structuring of knowledge and symbol in our educational institutions is intimately related to principles of social control in society.

(Apple, 1979: 2)

He explains further that Bernstein sees that

the individual's underlying perception of the social order of which he or she is a part provides the locus of his understanding.

(ibid. 32)

Halliday observes that

Bernstein and his colleagues have studied different types of regulatory behaviour by parents in relation to the process of socialization of the child, and their work provides important clues concerning what the child may be expected to

derive from his experience in constructing his own model of language.

(Halliday, 1976: 12)

This relates to Bernstein's interpretation of the role of society in the distribution of power and knowledge and the structuring of experience. He sees, "educational knowledge as a major regulator of the structure of experience" (Bernstein, 1979 : 85), but it is significant that he traces the force behind this regulation to the power structure in the society. Halliday regards Bernstein's "theories of cultural transmission and social change" (1976: 44) as some of the most important contributions to an understanding of language as a social phenomenon. He explains that according to Bernstein's theories

The behavioural options are, typically, realized through language; and with a functional interpretation of the semantic system we can begin to appreciate how it is that, in the course of expressing meanings that are specific to particular contexts of situation, language at the same time serves to transmit the essential patterns of orientation in the total context of the culture.

(ibid. 45)

In the light of this statement it seems clear that language, and the vision of reality it represents, is a most important indicator of social reality and of routes to power in society.

The study of language and the learning or teaching thereof presupposes its recognition as one of the most important social institutions. Although this study, per se, concerns itself with English as a second language in White education, the reality of South African society compels awareness of attitudes towards English as a second language amongst the vast majority of the population, viz. the Blacks.

Earlier in this study, in the Preface, attention was paid to how English has become an international language. In South Africa attitudes amongst Blacks reflect a desire to learn English. For example, English has been chosen as the medium of instruction in Black

schools. Moreover, educated Blacks, according to available newspaper reports, tend to watch TV I in preference to television programmes in Black languages.

As will be shown in chapter three of this study, there is undoubtedly a very close relationship between the distribution of knowledge in South Africa and the power structures, with the latter tending to control education.

Although there is still considerable uncertainty about many aspects of the relationship between a person's language and his view of reality, a feature common to most writers on this subject is their acceptance that language is in many respects a culturally-bound phenomenon. On this premise, it may be argued that language reflects and influences a person's view of the nature of reality and consequently knowledge.

The next chapter will give an overview of selected writings on second language teaching and learning, mainly to show the vast scope this discipline has assumed and to outline thinking on curriculum planning and second language. This last point helps support some of the thoughts on the relationship between language and attitudes which have been outlined in this chapter.

4.3 Conclusion

The function of this chapter has been to draw attention to the important role of language as a social institution. As such, language affects the processes of socialization, interpretation of knowledge, and existence of power structures. Any formulation of policy and practice in respect of language teaching needs to take cognisance of such factors. In the South African situation, particular historical and social circumstances affect attitudes to and competence in English as a second language, as will be shown in chapter three.

The principal conclusions arising from this chapter are, as with conclusions from all other chapters, grouped at the beginning of chapter seven in order that greater cohesion may arise from the various conclusions and so that these conclusions may as a body form the basis of recommendations.

In the next chapter, the writer begins to review selected literature pertaining to the teaching of English Second Language.

CHAPTER 2
AN OVERVIEW OF SELECTED WRITINGS ON THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A
SECOND LANGUAGE

1. Introduction

Because English has become the most widely used language in the world, methodology pertaining to the teaching of English as a second language has become a world-wide concern in education systems. Such methodology has come to be recognised as a separate academic discipline from that in respect of English as a first language.

In this regard Finocchiaro writes (1969: 447)

TESL (teaching English as a second language) is not the same as teaching English to native speakers. On the contrary, it embodies the principles and methodology (sic) of teaching a foreign language.

Lewis (1974: 32) explains that second language method lies between that for first language and that for a foreign language.

In How to Teach a Foreign Language, first published in 1904, Otto Jespersen (1967: 4) observed that

modern languages, which were formerly treated like Cinderella at schools and universities, begin to feel of age, and want to have a word to say, because they cannot put up with various arrangements which may have been more or less satisfactory for the classical languages, but do not suit modern languages at all.

Jespersen to whom the writer chooses to refer fairly extensively because of his considerable influence on approaches to the teaching of languages, suggested that learning a modern language, including English, should form part of curricula at both schools and universities. He pointed out (p. 5) that

the purpose in learning foreign languages ... must be in order to get a way of communicating with places which our

native tongue cannot reach.

Among the "places" Jespersen had in mind were

the best thoughts and institutions of a foreign nation, its literature, culture - in short, the spirit of the nation in the widest sense of the word.

(ibid. 9)

Simeon Potter (1964: 130) later concurred that learning another language "implies approaching a new world and it inevitably leads to a widening of intellectual experience".

The fact that teaching English as a second language has enjoyed so much attention in the last 90 - 100 years is attributable largely to the growth of the need for the language as English-speakers have become scattered throughout the world. As Jespersen (1967: 232) stated, "Only two or three centuries ago, English was spoken by so few people that no one could dream of its ever becoming a world language". Jespersen quoted Richard Mulcaster who wrote in 1582

The English tongue is of small reach, stretching no further than this island of ours, nay not there over all.

(idem)

Jespersen mentioned that in 1714 an Imperial Dictionary of the four chief languages of Europe, that is, Italian, French, German and Latin was published. He noted that even the shortest list of "chief languages" today would include English.

In 1844 a textbook contained the following in regard to English in Norway:

Only the merchant, the sailor and the mechanic study this language, on account of its practical utility ... English is, as it were banished from all learned, that is, all public schools ... However, there is some reason to hope that a change for the better may be expected.

(Sirewag, 1966: 265)

The latter were prophetic words for in 1869 English was introduced as a school subject in Norway, and in 1896 "was made a compulsory subject

in all secondary schools as a foreign language" (ibid. 264). By 1935 English "was made the first foreign language, as a result of its introduction into the last two years of the primary school courses (at the age of 12+)" (idem).

Jespersen speculated on possible reasons for the expansion of English and noted that "political ascendancy would probably be found in most cases to have been the most powerful influence" (Jespersen, as published 1967: 233).

To illustrate how English spread outside England as a mother tongue, Jespersen (1967) quotes the following figures which he regards as conservative (idem):

Year	English Speakers
1500	4 million
1600	6 million
1700	8,5 million
1800	20 million
1900	116 million
1926	170 million (<u>idem</u>)

Porter (op.cit.: 29) adds that by 1964 there were 250 million speakers of English. In England and Europe over the years 1800-1900 the population who were speakers of English grew even more dramatically, and generally in excess of the natural population increase (McEvedy and Jones, 1978). As early as 1936 there were 191 million non-native speakers of English who spoke the language as their second language.

These developments led to the need, as early as the mid-19th century, for methods for the teaching of English as a second and foreign language sometimes called 'English as other language', to be formulated. Consideration will now be given to such formulation.

2. Aims in the Teaching of English as other Language

2.1 A definition of terms

Before an overview of the aims of teaching English as other language is given, it is necessary to define what is meant by some of the key terms to be used.

Second language may be defined as that language to which the learner is exposed in his daily life other than his mother tongue. Dulay et al. (1982: 10) see second language acquisition "as the process of learning another language after the basics of the first language have been acquired starting at about five years of age and thereafter". First language, commonly referred to as the mother tongue, is the language the child is born into. It is the language he learns to use first and the language in which he would be more readily likely to communicate. Although Dulay et al. (1982) do not distinguish between second and foreign languages, Finochiaro does. She (1974) makes the point that the learner is likely to have more contact, in social intercourse for instance, with second language than he would with a foreign language he is learning.

The term acquired is often reserved for a learner's first language, though, as will be noted, writers do refer to an individual "acquiring" a second language.

2.2 Historical background to the development of aims

Jespersen wrote in 1904 (1967: 8) that teaching a modern language (apart from mother-tongue) requires its own methodology. He identified four basic tenets to success in teaching a language other than the mother tongue:

The teacher must make the pupils feel interested in the subject;

pupils must feel that their instruction in the languages gives them access to broaden experience;

they must see that the literature to which they have gained access contains numerous works which also have messages for them;

they must, to as great an extent as possible in the course of instruction also have gained an interest in the land and the people concerned.

What Jespersen wrote here applies to the contemporaneous teaching of English as a second language. Usually a learner of English has the advantage of more frequent contact with the language, as well as with its culture and literature, than does a learner of other languages, because of the all-prevailing nature of "English" culture. This is as true of South Africa as of anywhere else, for example in relation to media exposure.

According to Thomson (1957: 183) a spontaneous desire to want to learn the target language must underlie all aims and methodological approaches.

Thomson (idem) asks three questions which suggest the value of languages developing to meet the changing demands of society, without necessarily being inhibited by sets of rules:

Is it not lucky that they (the languages) did so without the assistance of the official scholars? Would they (the official scholars) not have resisted every change, and exerted all their influence on the side of pedantry? Could these languages have had the freshness, youth, exuberance of new powers which they did possess if they had developed in leading strings?

(ibid. 183)

Thomson reminds us that languages grow and change despite the presence of pedants, and an implication is that teachers need constantly be alive and open to change.

Just after the turn of the century, Storr (1903: 262) made some interesting observations on aims in teaching English as a foreign language. He saw the aims in teaching English as a foreign language as follows:

Now the immediate objects aimed at in learning a modern language are these: (1) the power to read it; (2) the power to write it; (3) the power to speak it; ... a fourth, intermediate between (1) and (3), the power to understand it when spoken.

In summing up aims in teaching modern languages, which include English as a foreign language, Storr stated

whatever our ultimate aim may be, common sense and psychology unite in urging us to begin with conversation.
(ibid. 263)

This is the basis of the approach devised and made popular in Europe by Gouin (cited ibid. 263 - 264). However, as Storr pointed out, exclusive dependence on the colloquial approach in teaching a second language does not ensure retention of what has been learnt.

Although Storr used his experience in teaching French as a foreign language to suggest postulates of his method, what he wrote applies to the teaching and learning of any non-mother tongue language. Much of what Storr extracted from the teachings and practices of people like Gouin (1903), and Jespersen (1904) is relevant today in the formulation of aims in second language teaching and also in concomitant method.

2.3 Recent views on the aims of teaching English Second Language

Lewis (1974: 32) distinguishes between a second and foreign language. He sees second language as existing between the mother tongue and a foreign language on a linear scale. Alatis (1980: 98) supports this interpretation of second language, but adds the important determinant of the needs and the objectives of the learner of the second language.

Lewis (op. cit. 33) explains that

A second language, especially if it is acquired early and involves some of the considerations affecting the acquisition of the first language, is more deeply embedded than a foreign language in the fundamental psychological development of the child.

He adds an important rider to the effect that a second language, because it reflects the society or community in which it exists, may come in different varieties (ibid. 35). The Bernstein concept of "elaborated" and "restricted" linguistic codes and Labov's ideas of socially-linked language, support this. The identification of varieties of second language, especially English as second language, because it is taught in most countries of the world, has important implications for the formulation of aims and curriculum planning. Haugen (1961: 399) emphasizes the fact that while motivation to study a second language and formulate aims are important, cognizance should be taken of the fact that the target language must be relevant, meaningful and valid to the individual.

J. and F. Stoddart (1968: 9) suggest the following reasons for teaching a language other than the mother tongue:

Firstly, they have to be able to cope efficiently with everyday life in this country (England), which means they must be proficient in the oral skills of listening and speaking so that they can both understand what is said to them and be understood by others (while, to a lesser extent, they must be able to read signs and notices, and write notes and letters).

Although what the Stoddarts present here as an aim is basic and simple, it touches the core of teaching English as another language for elementary social intercourse. They recognise, however, that a sophistication of aims is necessary to do justice to the teaching of English as another language. The Stoddarts add, therefore, that

they (the learners of English as a second or foreign language) have to continue their education through English, which means that they must also be proficient in the skills

of reading and writing so that they can obtain information from books as well as record what they have learnt (idem).

Since aims in the teaching of a second language determine what policy is to be followed, much attention needs to be paid to defining aims suitable to the society in which an education system functions. It would, therefore, be shortsighted not to take cognizance of the social psychology of the target group. Many authoritative writers, for example Hughes (1937), Lewis (1974), Judd (1981), Labov (1980), Miller (1965), and Bernstein (1979), note in their writings that

the socio-political environment in which the English language instruction occurs has a direct impact on the shape of ESOL (English to Speakers of Other Languages) instruction.

(Judd, 1981: 59).

Judd explains at length in his paper (op. cit.) the differences between English as a second, and foreign or additional language. His definition of English as a second language does not agree with that generally accepted in South Africa. Judd sees the second language situation as one

in which non-native English speakers spend a vast majority of their time communicating in English.

(Judd, 1981: 61)

This is not necessarily the case in South Africa. From Judd's point of view the situation in South Africa is that of English as an additional language. Judd's reason for defining these various categories is to help define aims and devise methodological approaches and strategies for teaching English as a second or other language. He observes, for example, that

in an English-as-a-second-language situation, programs need to stress all four language skills. Students must also be exposed to a variety of registers in English and must develop an ability to interact with a variety of native speakers in a variety of different circumstances.

(ibid.: 60)

Wilkins agrees with Judd:

.....the criterion of our success as teachers is not

whether our pupils can remember so many sentences, so many phrases, so many words that they have been taught, but whether they can construct new utterances in the language.

(Wilkins, 1974: 3)

These statements anticipate the kind of aims integral to a "communicative approach" in the teaching of English as second language. This approach, which has attained much significance in contemporary times, will be referred to later in this chapter; meantime, the underlying direction may be summarised as follows.

Language is seen to serve the primary purpose of communication and as a device for appropriate communication. Appropriateness is decided by factors such as topic, relevance, setting and the attitude of the speaker. The communicative approach is not measured against knowledge of linguistic form, or rules of a language. Communication is never seen as an absolute for it depends on circumstances and the purpose of the language used. Since all language use is meaning-based it follows that one of the primary aims of the communicative approach is facilitating the conveying of meaning through the use of language. Secondly, as Richards explains (1983: 113)

While much of the learner's efforts in speaking a foreign language centre on developing the vocabulary and syntax needed to express propositional meanings, it is native-speaker syntax and usage that is ultimately the learner's goal.

Further to this, Richards explains that "communication largely consists of the use of language in conventional ways" (idem), which are only fractionally affected by knowledge of grammatical rules and linguistic form.

One of the most important aims in the communicative approach is, then, appropriate language use. This relates to conventions demanded or expected by the native use of the language, but focuses more on the person-to-person relationship. It implies an awareness of language strategies appropriate, for example, to sex, age, social setting, roles of the two or more people involved in the act of communication,

familiarity, and, at a more advanced level, keeping "the channels of communication between people and to establish a suitable rapport" (ibid. 117).

It is against this background that second language teaching policy finds formulation. A point at issue is the reason a second language needs to be taught. The answer must surely be clear in the mind of the policy-maker, teacher and the learner. To ensure that the teaching of English as second language is not a futile exercise, the policy-maker, primarily, needs to be sensitive to the socio-political factors in the society which affect attitudes to the second language.

3. Curriculum Planning and the Second Language

There are various schools of thought on the place of the second language in the curriculum. Ultimately it is a question of how important it is for the second language to be learnt. Furthermore, should the second language, or the culture it represents, in any way pose a threat to the mother tongue and its culture, the teaching of the second language may deliberately be down-graded in the curriculum. Conversely, should the second language be seen as necessary for social intercourse, commercial exchange, military liaison, intellectual development, and, generally, self-improvement, the place of the subject in the curriculum will be assured of some prominence - as is the case for English in South Africa among Afrikaans-speaking Whites.

Kess (1976: 235), in a chapter on bilingualism and education states:

Traditionally, of course, teaching a language as a special subject in the curriculum with the same time and space limitations as mathematics, geography, or history, has not been very effective.

Kess appears to be referring to the teaching of a second language in a situation where exposure to the language is limited to the school class periods allocated to it. However, he does make an important observation about making language teaching part of the programme in

which exposure to it is limited. He writes (op. cit. 235)

The language experience is divorced from social reality and is associated with a particular time slot in the daily scholastic schedule.

The alternative would be to introduce bilingual education. This would entail teaching pupils some subjects for an extended period through the medium of the second language.

In South Africa E.G. Malherbe in The Bilingual School (1946) presents a case for bilingual education. However, since the question of the place of the second language in the school curriculum has rarely been only an educational one in South Africa, Malherbe's arguments fell on deaf ears. Policy-makers in South Africa, at least over the last thirty years, have been convinced that only mother-tongue as the medium of instruction can help the child to realise his potential: intellectual, spiritual and cultural. In a report of the Human Sciences Research Council entitled "Die Voertaal (medium van onderrig) in 'n stelsel van gedifferensieerde onderwys", published in 1970, J.H.C. Oosthuizen states (p. 26)

Uit dit wat hierdie hoofstuk voorafgegaan het, het dit duidelik geword dat onderrig deur medium van die moedertaal die enigste pedagogies-didakties verantwoordbare wyse is waarop 'n kind deur 'n onderwyser tot volle ontplooiing van al sy moontlikhede en tot volwaardige volwassenheid begelei kan word.

Act 39 of 1967 (The National Education Policy Act of South Africa) as amended makes mother tongue instruction mandatory.

Oosthuizen's dogmatic stand reflects the Christian National Education conviction that only mother tongue instruction is educationally acceptable. We shall see later in the chapter, and when the position of English as a second language in the United States of America is discussed, that there are other approaches which are educationally defensible. Those which come to mind are the immersion or melting-pot

approach in the United States of America and Canada, parental choice, and bilingual programmes of various formats.

The concept "voertaal" as used in South Africa reflects the conviction that it is fundamental: a translation of the word reveals the important connotation of the language being "the language which feeds you", i.e. by which you live. The concept "begelei" used by Oosthuizen confirms the Christian National Education philosophy that in educating the child the adult (parent/teacher) accompanies him to an acceptance of what he believes is right and proper.

The relative merits of specific language period allocation versus bilingual education are irrelevant to this study, because it is a fait accompli that socio-political factors make bilingual education in South Africa acceptable to policy-makers only where it is unavoidable. In a bilingual programme some subjects are taught through the medium of the mother tongue whereas others are taught through the medium of the second language, or other language, as the case may be. In Natal, where the establishment of parallel-medium schools has been encouraged for many years, bilingual education exists only where small populations make it unavoidable.

The place of English as a second language in schools' curricula has absorbed the attention of many educationists, because, as stated earlier in this chapter, there has been a world-wide extension of the subject in education systems. E.G. Lewis and C.E. Massad (1975: 21) see English as filling a need in the world for a "language of wider communication". In terms of this conviction they identify important distinctions which they feel have to be kept in mind in formulating aims in the teaching of English as a foreign and as a second language. Such distinctions are important when structuring school curricula.

Lewis and Massad state (ibid. 24) that

Though it would be wrong to make distinctions between a

foreign and second language, it remains true that in acquiring a foreign language the student cannot rely on non-institutional forces which, however, can be relied on to advance the learning of the second language.

They stress that in learning a second language the learner has the advantage of acquiring the language "under the stress of immediate environmental requirements" (ibid. 25), something which does not normally characterise the learning situation for the learner of English as a foreign language. Motivation in second language learning is an extremely important concept, and has been discussed in section 3 of Chapter 1 preceding.

4. How Attitude to English Second Language affects the aims of Instruction and Syllabus content.

Methods, approaches and underlying principles are of primary concern in the teaching of second language. Attention will be paid to them in section 5, to follow later.

Most writers on teaching English as another language have laid great stress on general attitudes to it. For example, Lewis (1981), Massad (1975), Jespersen (1904), Finocchiaro (1974), Stern (1967), and others, have in their writings, identified attitude as perhaps one of the most important factors affecting the teaching of English as a second or foreign language. Lewis and Massad state, for example, (op. cit. 25) that

both a favourable attitude as well as positive motivation facilitate the acquisition of the second and the foreign language; but in learning the former, attitude is more important since motivation is provided by the strength of the immediate influence of the ethnic group whose language is involved.

This is particularly significant for South Africa for historical factors have played a most important role in determining attitudes between language groups.

Wilkins' observation (1978: 78) that

usually for historical and political reasons, particular languages may be regarded with great favour or great hostility,

is relevant to the position of English as a second language in South Africa. Wilkins adds (ibid. 48) that

English, for example, is often better learned in those parts of the world where there has been fruitful collaboration for many years than in those countries where the political power of the English-speaking world for more than a century is somewhat resented.

For many years in South Africa, particularly in the latter half of the 19th century, there was fairly general animosity towards the English language amongst Afrikaans-speakers, a point to be expanded upon in Chapter 3. Reasons for this will be discussed in the next chapter. However, with the advent of the Republic of South Africa in 1961 and the consolidation of political power in the hands of the Afrikaner, and the realisation that English is an important international medium of communication, attitudes to the English language appear to have become more favourable (Hauptfleisch, 1977: 25). A report of the Human Sciences Research Council published in 1977 (Hauptfleisch, 1977: 25) shows that 89,3% of Afrikaans-speaking people are in favour of two (or more) official languages. In this report, 78,3% of Afrikaans-speaking people see a need for a second language, thus mainly English, in their normal social intercourse.

Sharp makes an interesting observation when he discusses the question of the formulation of a policy for teaching English Second Language. He emphasizes that "the linguistic background of the area in which the school is placed naturally affects its policy" (Sharpe, 1973: 23). He explains too, that in Wales

the aims of these (Welsh) authorities were worthy of note, for two of them intended to ensure 'reasonable facility' in both languages (English and Welsh) by the time of transfer to secondary education, and a third desired that all pupils should be completely bilingual, and not merely proficient in

their second language, by statutory school-leaving age.

The point is that before aims can be formulated, cognizance should be taken of the relationship between the two languages as well as of that between the speakers of the languages. To sum up,

The process of arriving at agreed aims and schemes, with the essential element of choice built in, is a slow one, but it is the only practicable way of improving language education in a bilingual community.

(ibid. 25)

The importance of attitudes to the second, or language other than the mother tongue, is stressed by many writers for various reasons. One of the most important is that attitude affects the position of the second language in the school's curriculum. Sharp (op.cit. 11) states that teachers are

coming to appreciate more and more the importance of attitudes and their impact on the educational system, and living in a bilingual community arouses strong feelings about language in most people.

In this regard Sharp explains (ibid. 33) that much of the success of teaching a second language depends upon the teacher's knowledge of language and the problems related to its teaching in a bilingual society like South Africa.

In a country like Canada which also has problems arising from its system of bilingual education, especially in Quebec, a vital feature of the British North American Act was the retention by the provinces of control over their own schools through which they "were able to transmit their language and traditions" (Wagley and Harris, 1958: 181). These authors explain that the bitter feuds of the past between the French- and English-speaking Canadians find their roots in the unwillingness on both sides to learn the other language. However, necessity prevailed and many French-speaking Canadians were obliged to learn English for daily use and communication in business (ibid. 191). This was so because the English-speakers were and still are much in the majority except in the province of Quebec. This led to increased

social integration and the improvement of relationships between the two language groups (ibid. 193). The point, once again, is that language, and in particular learning of a second language, paved the way for improved relations between language groups in a society. This in turn led to more effective teaching of the second language because attitudes and motivation were positive.

In the case of Canada the French-speaking Canadians, although originally not favourable in their attitude to the English language, learnt it of necessity. This, in turn, led to better contact between the two languages groups, and later improved relations. As Lewis and Massad (1975: 25) explain:

a second language is ordinarily acquired under the stress of immediate environmental requirements.

This is true of the situation in South Africa, Canada and Wales, among other countries. Also in the general context of relationships between two language groups in a bilingual nation, Hughes (1937: 75) notes that

the bilingual nations of the world today are special types of the group mind, with pathological characters of their own that may be explained genetically and historically.

What Hughes says is true of South Africa with its bilingual White population where the position of the second language in the curriculum is affected by socio-political factors, as will be explained in the next chapter.

As a survey of literature on teaching of English as a non-native language this chapter has as primary concern the methodology appertaining to the teaching of English. As already noted the internationalization of English has necessitated the development of new systems and methods to teach English as an acquired language. Stern (1964: 90) did considerable research on methodology in respect of teaching modern languages. There is a striking similarity between the basic principles of method he enunciates and those identified by

Jespersen (1940), Palmer and Storr (1903). Stern (op. cit. 90) outlines three principles which should underpin method for teaching English as an acquired language. Firstly,

For primary school language courses it will be necessary to select material which is related to children's language, interests and activities.

He adds the rider that cognizance should be taken of the fact that method should accommodate the changing demands which occur with progress.

The second principle (idem.) Stern considers basic to method is that

The various language skills and knowledge to be developed can be classified as follows: (i) auditory comprehension; (ii) accuracy of phonology; (iii) fluency in speaking; (iv) correctness of grammar; (v) silent reading comprehension; (vi) writing; (vii) cultural background and information; (viii) social conduct within the L 2 (second language) community; (ix) skill in translation into the native tongue; (x) skill in translating into the foreign language; (xi) understanding of the nature of language.

Stern points out that these eleven points should be seen as milestones towards mastery of the acquired language. The third principle identified (idem. 91) is that the measurement of progress in learning another language can be most accurately done in terms of "a definite corpus of lexis and grammar" for each stage. Stern stresses that the body of semantic and grammatical knowledge must be seen as a reference against which progress may be judged. In this regard Judd (1981: 63) notes that

Curricula that stress pattern drills and rote memorization of vocabulary, dialogue, and grammatical paradigms will fail to prepare the students to deal with the realities of the English Second Language situation.

This observation by Judd reminds us that second language method cannot easily be defined or formulated into prescriptives.

What Stern outlines may be seen as an elaboration of what the pioneers

of teaching English as an acquired language identified, when it became increasingly apparent that teaching English as the mother tongue and teaching it as another language are two separate language disciplines.

Finocchiaro did much research on teaching English as a second and foreign language specifically. In her work "Teaching English as a Second Language", she writes

Today research results in linguistics and psychology, as well as empirical observation of learning situations, point to the overwhelming necessity for developing the learners' understanding and speaking skills before introducing them to reading and writing. (1969: 4)

This important methodological principle is in complete agreement with what Stern and others have identified as basic steps in devising an effective methodology for teaching English as another language.

In fact Finocchiaro supports what Stern writes when she explains that

the aim of the English teaching program should be to develop in the learner the four basic aspects of communication - understanding, speaking, reading and writing - within the social and cultural situations normal to the persons.

(ibid. 8)

It is appropriate at this stage to examine a little more closely the principles and their underlying concepts which leading writers have identified as basic to second language methodology. Perhaps the most important concept is that of cognizance of the culture and character - the social psychology - of the society in which the second language is taught. Cassirer (1964: 44) explains that "Every national language has its own spirit; each contains a characteristic formative principle". He goes on to point out that the "new notion of the 'spirit of language'" (ibid. 145) underlies much of the thinking on the nature of language for years thereafter. Cassirer's view is that

a language is more than a medium of communication. The reserve of middle-class English, the volubility of the Latin tongues and the excessive politeness of Mandarin are examples of 'spirit' in this context.

Cassirer's point here is part of the reason for a distinction between teaching method for English as a first and as a second language. An effective methodology would presumably recognise the distinction, as would a teacher sensitive to the "spirit of the language" being taught. Finocchiaro (1969: 447), in discussing methodology for teaching English as other language, points out that there are basic considerations which have to be borne in mind when planning a programme of lessons for English either as a foreign or as a second language. However, she observes that the basic principles of methodology are similar. Some differences which she identifies are:

Some of the features of the sound system, structure, and vocabulary that might be deferred in a non-English-speaking country would have to be given priority (in second language teaching) because of the necessity of students to participate actively and immediately in a completely English-speaking school or community situation.

(ibid. 447-448)

Here Finocchiaro is referring to a non-English-speaking person receiving instruction in English in all subjects in the school curriculum. This is the situation with which she is familiar in the United States of America, where until recently the "melting-pot" approach was exclusively used to anglicize non-English-speaking immigrants (Lewis, 1981: 232). The melting-pot approach, which is now in disfavour in bilingual education programmes, was aimed at bringing non-English-speaking immigrants as quickly as possible into the mainstream of life in the United States of America (Time magazine, 13 February, 1978, p. 41). Bilingual education programmes have largely replaced those based on the "melting-pot" approach, and seek to allow at least some retention, by a learner, of his mother-tongue language and culture.

The second difference Finocchiaro identifies is in terms of the opportunity a learner of English as a second language has of attuning his ear to the sound system of the language because of his frequent, perhaps daily, contact with it. The person learning English as a foreign language does not have this advantage. This difference would necessarily affect teaching method.

The third difference between teaching methods for English as a second language and as a foreign language is "the pace of introduction of the language content" (ibid. 448), which Finocchiaro explains "would have to be accelerated" (idem) in second language teaching. This has important implications in planning a programme of work and devising method.

5. Approaches to and methods in the teaching of English as a Second Language

5.1 Background

A survey of what has been written on approaches to the teaching of English as a second language teaching entails the identification firstly of comment on general approaches, and, thereafter, of that on specific teaching method. Such a survey is material for a dissertation on its own, and inclusion only of a broad overview is intended here.

As will be seen, no one approach has gained general acceptance. Therefore, it is advisable to provide a critical review of some of the approaches which have gained support. The writer's aim is no more (and no less) than to report the response with which different approaches have met. This will help identify and explain more specific methodological directions as described in Chapter 4.

One of the pioneer linguists, Sweet, wrote in 1899 that

until every one recognises that there is no royal road to languages ... the public will continue to run after one new method after the other, only to return disappointed to the old routine.

(Sweet quoted in Christophersen, 1973: 12)

Much has been written on the relative merits of different approaches to teaching second language. The Reform Movement of the 1880's under the leadership of Sweet, Viëtor, Palmer and Jespersen, contributed to the evolution of the "Direct Method". The Direct Method entails the use of the target language in communicating with the learner. It presupposes an ability by the teacher to manipulate, adapt and exploit the target language towards eliciting in the learner communicative competence. Later, methods involved a study of language structure - an approach about which I.A. Richards and Chomsky (Christophersen, 1973: 18) expressed reservations in terms of the teaching of second language. The structural linguists had inspired the so-called audio-lingual approach, and in 1968 Chomsky wrote (ibid. 19)

My own feeling is that from our knowledge of the organisation of language and of the principles that determine language structure one cannot immediately construct a teaching programme. All we can suggest is that a teaching programme be designed in such a way as to give free play to those creative principles that humans bring to the process of language learning, and I presume to the learning of anything else. I think we should probably try to create a rich linguistic environment for the heuristics that the normal human being automatically possesses.

(idem.)

Chomsky rejected the tendency for structural linguists to see too close a connection between linguistic description and language teaching. What Jespersen and Chomsky felt about the virtually innumerable semantic and syntactic combinations possible in constructing phrases, clauses and sentences, suggests why approaches like pattern-drill and the learning of lists of language structures could never enable the language learner to attain a proficiency in the language, comparable with that in his mother tongue.

Some approaches and methods in second language teaching method

have not taken social factors into account. Ramirez and Stromqvist have investigated the effectiveness of the Audio-Lingual approach to second language teaching methods, centred mainly on practice and drilling. They observe that English Second Language teaching method was for many years characterised by basic assumptions,

e.g. mastery of linguistic structures precedes fluency;
 linguistic structures should be sequentially ordered; and
 acquisition of linguistic form precedes function
 (Ramirez and Stromqvist, 1979: 145)

They contend further that practices of

having students repeat meaningless sentences devoid of a context are regarded as ineffective because they ignore the communicative needs of school children.
 (idem.)

Emphasis has been added in the above quotations, to show that the most important and dynamic qualities of language (according to the writers) include fluency, function and communicative needs. Recognition of the importance of such qualities underlies the communicative language teaching approach which has emerged in recent years.

What Ramirez and Stromqvist also appeal for is the formulation of an approach to English Second Language teaching in which the background and the interests of the pupils are taken into account. In some, the approach used should be relevant and meaningful to the learner.

Ramirez and Stromqvist reiterate what Sweet, Palmer, Passy and Jespersen wrote nearly a century previously. The difficulty over the years appears to have been what Saviile-Troike (ibid. 145) identifies, viz.

Most of the English Second Language methods and materials now in use in our elementary and secondary classrooms, represent relatively minor adaptations from those designed initially for adults.

Second language policy and teaching methods must recognize that second language teaching is a separate discipline, and that methods suitable

for adults who want to learn a second language differ from those suited to children.

In devising approaches to the teaching of second language another basic consideration is the difference between first language acquisition and second language learning. Research by inter alia Tripp, Lenneberg (1961), Mace-Matluck (1979) and Corder (1965) shows that the second language is more easily learned since the learner has already acquired a language - his mother tongue. Mace-Matluck states

If, however, language is acquired, then there does not seem to be any physiological or psychological impediment to learning a second language, if the opportunity and motivation are present in the environment.

(Mace-Matluck, 1979: 697)

Furthermore, Corder states that "learning a second language is not the same as acquiring language again" (cited idem).

Although there are similarities between learners of a first and of a second language, there are important differences. Second language learners, for example, are usually older, and as Mace-Matluck points out "their grammar-forming mechanism already has acquired a first language" (ibid. 698), which provides the second language learner with a source from which to draw. Second language learners may approach their task with more objectivity and motivation, since their learning is often the result of choice.

Interlanguage influence or interference is a phenomenon which according to Dulay et al. (1982), "refers to the influence of old habits when new ones are being learned" (1982: 98), and "linguistic borrowing" (idem).

Selinker explains that a second language learner has

- (1) knowledge underlying production in his native language
- (2) knowledge --- about the TL (second language)

- (3) knowledge underlying attempted production of a TL norm (Selinker, 1975: 37)

The relevance of Selinker's identification of these three categories of knowledge is that they are observable as

- (1) NL (native language) utterances
- (2) IL (interlanguage) utterances
- (3) TL (target language) utterances (idem)

Selinker sees "interlanguage" as "an attempted production of TL norm" (idem).

The fact that English is not a simple language to learn is commonly accepted amongst non-native speakers of the language. Originally it was believed that English does not fit into ordered and predictable patterns or rules. This characteristic led Ogden to endeavour to simplify the English language to a basic vocabulary of 850 words in an attempt to help those learning it as another language.

Ogden's efforts came to nothing because he ignored, or overlooked, the basic characteristic of language, i.e. that it has its roots and formation in the culture of the people who speak it, and that it is a fundamental institution of society. However, Ogden can be credited with the realisation that the teaching of first and second language must employ different methods.

Perhaps Walker (1978: 20) best sums up the general problem of the general approach to teaching English as a second language:

Techniques such as the phonetic approach, the grammatical concept, or the linguistic method, stress one particular approach to learning English.

An overview of some approaches and methods used to teach second language will help arrive at an eclectic method which may meet with all requirements.

5.2 The range of differences

It is perhaps safe to claim that there are as many approaches to the teaching of first and second language as there are teachers. However, there emerge a few basic methods, of which others could be classed as modifications, adaptations and variations. Methods of teaching second language are largely determined by the approach adopted. Approaches are general outlines or frameworks within which methods are developed. Anthony (1965: 95) explains the distinction between approaches and methods thus:

Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach.

Methods of teaching second language are therefore dependent upon the interpretation given to the nature of language by the underlying approach. Mackey discusses the nature of language in terms of the mechanist view which regards human activity, including language, as "a chain of material cause-effect sequences" (Mackey, 1966: 6), and the mentalist view which holds that language cannot be studied as a physical activity (idem). Clearly, any approach to and method of the teaching of language depends on a view of language per se.

Lewis (1974: 79) identifies three very broad approaches to language teaching: the empiricist approach, the generative/transformational approach, and the bi-polar or epigenetic approach. Lewis (ibid. 97) reaches the conclusion that the teacher or curriculum designer should take cognizance of

what is known of general development - cognitive, affective, social, and environmental

in order to understand how a child learns a language and how best to devise suitable teaching methods.

The methods used by a teacher depend largely on the broad general

approaches to language to which he subscribes. For example, any one, or a combination of, the following may underpin whatever method the teacher selects to teach second language: the mentalist approach of generative transformational grammar of Chomsky (1976), Halliday's (1973) functionalist theory; the behaviourist-based Audio Lingual approach; the integrated sociolinguistic approach arising from the thinking of Bernstein, Whorf, Sapir and Labov, and Miller's theory of a plan of semantic and syntactic rules. In effect, methods should involve the implementation of practical ways of bringing to fruition the underpinning approaches and theories.

The communicative approach is one which does not accept the convenient categorisation of language teaching method according to one particular theoretical basis. It draws from a number of disciplines. Hymes, in explaining the linguistic theory and description which informs the communicative approach, states that it breaks

irrecovably with the model that restricts the design of language to one face towards referential meaning, one toward sound, and that defines organisation of language as solely consisting of rules for linking the two

(Hymes, 1979: 15).

It is clear that approaches to teaching second language are not easily classifiable in terms of clear-cut theories. However, since teachers, including those who are the focus of this study, like to think in terms of certain identifiable methods of teaching, these will be examined briefly.

5.3 Specific examples

Various writers have drawn attention to different methods of teaching. Haskell (1978: 19-21) identifies five: 1) The Grammar-Translation Method; 2) The Direct Method; 3) The Audio-Lingual or Aural-Oral Method; 4) Variations on a Theme; 5) An Eclectic Method. He observes that there is considerable overlapping among these methods.

Christophersen (1973: 16-21) identifies the development of what he calls the Direct Method. He also alludes to the behaviourist-based "pattern-drill" (Audio-Lingual) method, and contrasts it with an approach based on "transformational-generative grammar", in terms of which the learner is able to develop an infinite range of utterances in the target language, through an understanding of basic rules.

Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance introduces us to an inherent weakness of the Audio-Lingual Method - that it tends to play down the learner's ability to create entirely original sentences. It seems that the Audio-Lingual Method may be successful as a teaching device, in the initial stages, but that if its application is prolonged it may actually inhibit a learner's independent use of language. Christophersen (1973) sums up by noting that despite its weaknesses (for example, being too open to haphazard use by untrained teachers), this method still seems to be amongst the more successful for teaching a second language in the initial stages.

On the local scene (though inclusion of his contribution may seem incongruous at this stage) Lanham (cited by Kloss, 1978: 53) identifies an approach which entails "novel oral work in Grade I", and "new reading lessons in Grades 2 and 3". That Lanham proposes these activities to commence at the first year of schooling, suggests that his approach is designed for children who have little contact with the English language in their normal social intercourse, e.g. for Black children in homelands where English is virtually a foreign language. This is supported by the stress Lanham places on pre-prepared lessons for the teacher, and a fair amount of drilling of structures and skills to be learnt by the children. The approach uses Audio-Lingual methods. Lanham explains the need for a provision of pre-devised lessons for teachers who may lack expertise. Of these there are many, and

unattractive as it may be to those who cherish language teaching as an art, there is little doubt that the tradition of English teaching in Africa remains resistant to

teaching as an art, there is little doubt that the tradition of English teaching in Africa remains resistant to innovations which rely heavily on the initiative and resources of the teacher.

(idem)

Sharp (1973: 49-50), drawing from W. Jones who wrote specifically on bilingualism in Welsh education, lists five methods: 1) The traditional formal method; 2) The Direct Method; 3) The Reading Method; 4) The Oral Method; 5) The Bilingual Method. Sharp says that the method which should be chosen "is the one which works in local conditions" (ibid. 51). He adds that although this begs the question, "it suggests that the topic (choice of method) cannot be considered in the abstract" (idem).

Leschinsky (1982: 28) examines the following methods: 1) Die Grammatika-Vertaalmetode; 2) Die Direkte Metode; 3) Die Verloop van Eerstetaal- en Tweedetaalverwerwing; 4) Die Leesmetode. She reaches the conclusion that there is no such single best method for second language instruction, and in discussing the relationship between linguistics and language learning adds that

In hierdie stadium kan daarop gewys word dat metodes van taalonderrig gewoonlik die uitvloeisel van 'n besondere taalbeskouing is. Die linguistiek (die wetenskaplike studie van taal) kan nie ten opsigte van taalonderrig voorskriftelik optree nie, maar taalonderrig kan ook nie linguistiese uitsprake ignoreer nie.

(Leschinsky, 1982: 28)

The examples of approaches named above tend to be rather categoric and self-limiting. In recent times, the "communicative approach" to the teaching of second language has come to the fore, and this will now be described.

5.4 A communicative approach

A communicative approach to teaching second language has since the early 1960's become increasingly popular amongst students and teachers. Selinker who first used the term "communicative strategy" defined it as "an identifiable approach by the learner to communication with native speakers" (Ellis, 1984: 39). The fact that this approach has found favour with teachers and students of English as a second language appears to be attributable to two factors. First, there has been the belief that a knowledge of language form and structures is essential to successful learning of the target language. Secondly, some traditional methods of examining second language have stressed the written component at the expense of oracy. (This disposition, and the reasons for it, will be examined more fully in Chapters 7 and 8 of this study.) The so-called CLT approach argues that besides a knowledge of language form, the learner should possess skills in language use.

The communicative language teaching approach has been given increasing attention in various countries by writers such as Xiaoju (1984), Johnson (1983), Halliday (1979) and Gower (1983). They point out that although underlying features of "CLT" are identifiable in methods long used by teachers of second language, the focus of attention on it in recent years has provided it with a valid theoretical basis. Brumfit and Johnson (1979: Preface) explain that communicative language teaching has been increasingly used in foreign language teaching method. They add (*idem*) that language teaching as a "practical rather than a theoretical activity" draws on a variety of disciplines, including linguistics.

Pride (1981: ix) sees communicative competence, which is the aim of the communicative approach, as fundamental to the individual's effective use of language, whereas "language performance" tends to

refer to control over form and structure. Fillmore sees the rationale for a communicative approach to second language teaching in what he calls microsociolinguistics, which he sees as "the study of language behaviour in encounters between people on particular social occasions" (Fillmore, 1981: 2). Like Brumfit and Johnson (1979), Fillmore sees communicative competence at a practical operative level where the situation in which speech occurs affects its meaning. He sees a communicative approach as resting on

discovering and describing the elements, the structures, the processes and the constraints which are somehow made available to the language user as instruments for communicating

(Fillmore, 1981: 11)

This suggests that communicative competence is seen to arise or develop from performance; its strength is measured in terms of functional effectiveness. In helping to clarify the underlying linguistic theory Hymes identifies two aspects: "linguistic competence and linguistic performance" (Hymes, 1979: 7). He sees linguistic competence as the internalized knowledge of the structures of a language which enable the speaker to use language effectively without being conscious of the actual structures he may be using. The task of theory is to make explicit this tacit knowledge. Hymes suggests that in contrast to linguistic performance, linguistic competence is not readily affected by sociocultural factors.

Ixaoju (1984: 2), as director of an English language teaching project in China, appears to accept that communicative competence in a language is dependent on sociocultural considerations. He states (idem) that it is a "primary principle in language teaching to have students learn the language through using it", adding that "use means communication, and communication does not simply mean two people uttering sentences in turn" (idem). Xaoju, whilst not concerning himself with theoretical assumptions underlying a communicative approach, does, by implication, see basic linguistic principles underpinning this approach. Gower (1983: 235) argues that a

communicative approach, although in many respects little new to many experienced teachers of English as a second and foreign language, gives a "theoretical validity to classroom practice" (idem). Furthermore, explains Gower, this approach has stimulated a shift of emphasis towards speaking as an effective method of language teaching.

Brumfit and Johnson, in a collection of papers, (1979: 1) argue that language teaching has moved away from an emphasis on "mastery of language structure" where certain language structures and rules were required to be learnt. They see that this main concern for "form" in language learning has gradually refocussed on a greater concern for "meaning". Hymes and Halliday (ibid. 2) attribute this shift in emphasis to the efforts of linguists, especially Chomsky (1961) in the initial stages. It was he who reduced the influence of a "Bloomfieldian structuralism" in language teaching, i.e. a concern for linguistic description, to a concern for meaning. In Bloomfieldian structuralism, explain Hymes and Halliday, the focus of attention is the study of form. Hymes and Halliday (ibid.: 3) do, however, note that Chomsky's transformational theory of grammar has one feature in common with structural linguistics, and that is the importance attributed to the study of language structure in learning a language.

The essence of a communicative approach to teaching second language is recognition that language use as distinct from the usage of language is the main concern. Usage, as opposed to use, implies adherence to more formalised performance criteria (James, 1983:14), whereas use refers to a more spontaneous situation. Widdowson (1979: 117) explains that students "who have received several years of formal English teaching, frequently remain deficient in the ability to actually use the language, and to understand its use, in normal communication, whether in the spoken or the written mode".

Evaluation of communicative competence offers difficulties since it is

no easy task to define basic criteria. This difficulty is further aggravated in that suitable evaluation material is not readily available, especially to teachers of English as a second or foreign language. Generalizations about material to assess communicative competence in English are likely to lead to misconceptions. Morrow (1979: 143) states that the design of suitable systems or techniques of evaluation for a communicative approach "still reflect, on the whole, ideas about language and how it should be tested which fail to take account of these recent developments in any systematic way" — referring to developments in suitable instruments to assess communicative competence.

Xiaoju notes that in a communicative approach effective communication is the main concern, and explains that assessment of this does not mean that "recitation, mimicry, copying, or reproducing formulae" (Xiaoju, 1984: 12) should be assessed. He stresses that in devising a valid system of evaluation of communicative competence relevance should be a primary consideration, i.e. the situation in which the language is used should be taken into account. Xiaoju argues that "effective communication entails two things: linguistic accuracy and sociolinguistic appropriacy" (*idem*). Davies' study of error evaluation led her to the conclusion that any system designed to evaluate communicative effectiveness must take into account the fact that the assessor's language background and knowledge of the learner's language background is likely to affect assessment (Davies, 1983: 308). This makes it obviously difficult to devise an instrument for evaluating communicative competence, unless it is designed in terms of immediate requirements and specific circumstances.

Ellis (1984: 39) observes that evaluation of a learner's competence in communicative English is bedevilled by the notion that the norm is the "educated native speaker's performance" in using the language. The norm should, in fact, be competence in the language, but, as Ellis explains, "where the criterion is communicative effectiveness, there

is no such well-defined reference-norm" (idem) for communicative competence. However, in an endeavour to find a basis upon which evaluation strategies may be developed, Ellis suggests avoidance and paraphrase. Ellis, drawing on work done by Tarone et al., explains that by examining language use against these two strategies, an accurate evaluation may be made of a learner's communicative competence. As Ellis suggests, this may be done impressionistically or by systematic tabulation of the language used. Like most techniques of evaluation, such methods would depend heavily on the knowledge and sensitivity of the assessor.

The communicative approach to language learning, in respect of second language, implies active participation by the learner in terms of a reciprocal relationship with his teacher or learning material. The process is a two-way one, with more stress being laid on that process rather than on product or on dated notions of "correctness". Meaning is the ultimate goal, approached through a semantic study of language in use rather than by means of structural knowledge. Methods deriving from this approach clearly involve active response and, perhaps, less formality so that enjoyment of the learning situation is assured.

6. A brief description of some methods most commonly derived

Having drawn attention to certain key approaches in teaching, the writer proceeds now to consider examples of methods which derive therefrom.

6.1 The Traditional Method

This method finds its origins in the "Latinate" approach which involves translation from the source language into the target language, and vice versa. Further to the rote learning of grammatical rules, the learner is required to apply them in translating an extract into his native language. The learner is also required to memorise

lists of words and proverbs in the target language, and then to use this knowledge to translate pieces of work from the written culture of the target language into the native tongue (vide Haskell, 1978: 19; Askes, 1978: 20; Sharp, 1973: 49).

The Traditional Method has some merit in that it assures a sound basis of structure upon which the learner can draw to communicate, albeit in a stereotyped and staid manner, in the language being learnt. There is, however, little concern in this method with language as a part of culture.

Fluency and ability to manipulate the language are usually not features of the style of a person taught according to this method, and in many instances the target group comprises students who require an academic knowledge of the language in order to fulfil basic requirements for further study or limited use in specialised fields in which knowledge of the target language is required. In effect the traditional method serves a purely pragmatic purpose and is probably more suited to learners of a third language.

Ability to communicate in the spoken word is rather limited among people taught by this method, but the objective is usually not to provide the learner with an additional means of social communication. Sharp observes, for example, that this method

provides clear-cut teaching content and progressive schemes of work, however wrong or irrelevant these may be by the standards of modern linguistics and language development.

(Sharp, 1973: 49)

People who wish to acquire knowledge of a language sufficient for elementary communication, e.g. tourists, may resort to this method of learning.

6.2 The Direct Method

This is a combination of the various methods formulated by the Reform

Movement, led inter alia by Viřtor, Sweet and Gouin (Christophersen: 1973: 15, Askes: 1978: 23). It was refined by Palmer, Jespersen and others (Haskell, 1978: 19) who based their second language teaching methodology on the premise that all communication in lessons should occur in the target language. The learner was not to be exposed to models of his mother tongue, and then required to translate into the target language. Protagonists of this method felt that it helped the learner to train his ear to the idiom and phonic structure of the target language. In a sense, the direct method anticipates a stress on communicative competence.

Wilkins explains (1978: 40) that "people learn what they see and hear more readily than something which they only hear". That is why the Direct Method presupposes on the part of the teacher a facility in the target language which will enable him to manipulate its subtleties and nuances sensitively in projecting a dynamic model of effective communication.

An inherent weakness of the Direct Method is that it may tend to inhibit the learner's use of language as a medium of communication. This inhibition may occur under circumstances where the teacher's use of the target language as a medium of communication is restricted.

6.3 The Audio-Lingual Method

According to Fries and Skinner, cited by Haskell (op.cit. 19) this method shares some of the basic features of the Direct Method for example, the target language is used as much as possible. Structural linguists and behaviourists have affected the method: structural linguists aim at describing language in the most accurate and economical way (Kess, 1976: 2). They see "language as a set of habits acquired within the social group in which the child was growing up" (Rivers, 1980:44). Thus, Audio-Lingual teaching could vary according to the particular social setting of a learning group. Behaviourist

psychology worked on the assumption that what could be observed in terms of stimuli and responses was relevant to the study of language and how it is learnt. Exponents of this school of thought are Watson, Thorndike and Pavlov who analysed learning in terms of stimulus-response connections (Bolles, 1979: 53).

The influence of the structural linguists made the Audio-Lingual Method even more ordered than it previously was. For example, the structural linguists recognised that language is learnt naturally through an amorphous process which, for the sake of developing practicably implementable methods, may be categorized in terms of the continuum of listening-speaking-reading-writing. Mastery of language presupposes a harmony of three systems: phonology, morphology and syntax (idem).

In referring to the Audio-Lingual method Pattison (1968: 151) states that "to make a language widely available its recurring patterns have to be graded and practised". The problem is to identify the "recurring patterns". They are theoretically limitless, and should there be common order to them, this order in turn would be finely sensitive to the social psychology of the community.

Behaviourists see second language learning as far more than simply an academic exercise in substitution. They, in fact, see second language learning as involving language and culture replacement. In the light of this, comparisons with the native tongue are made in order to illustrate similarities and differences (thereby disregarding one of the basic tenets of the purely direct method) in order to identify and eliminate errors in the learning of the target language.

6.4 The Influence of Linguistic and Cognitive-mentalist Approaches

Chomsky exercised considerable indirect influence on the thinking on language teaching. His distinction between competence and performance

upset the prevailing belief that language is learned by imitating, memorising and being rewarded for saying the correct things

(Dulay et al., 1982: 6)

Thus, Chomsky's ideas undermined confidence in the bases of the Audio-Lingual approach. Chomsky claimed that all people came into the world with an ability to learn language. This innate "language acquisition device" (in respect of first language) was activated by contact with language, an occurrence which also helped internalize the "grammar" of the target language. He rejected the contention that language was conditioned habit, contending rather that it was an innate ability, i.e. a potential not necessarily expressed in language use.

The cognitive-mentalists also reject the point of view that language is a product of the stimulus-response situation. Miller (1968: 202), for example, notes that behaviourist theory

in describing certain relatively simple correlations between stimulation and response has encouraged experimental psychologists to extend and test their theories into the realm of linguistic behaviour.

Later Miller adds

I will merely say that, in my opinion, their results thus far have been disappointing.

(idem)

Chomsky "considered language as a mechanism for generating sentences" (Mackey, 1966: 21). Moreover, his "theory attempts to explain how the

limited number of structural elements in a language can produce an unlimited number of sentences" (idem). Chomsky claimed that transformational-generative grammar provided

a system of finite, explicit rules potentially capable of producing all and only grammatical sentences of the language.

(Finocchiaro, 1974:8)

Logically, according to Chomsky, language is rule-governed behaviour. Chomsky, as a theoretical linguist argued that linguistic theory involved the identification and categorising of units of language. This approach formed the foundation upon which he based his description of linguistic behaviour. His distinction between competence and performance helped form the rationale upon which a communicative approach to language teaching has developed because it helped focus attention on the need for effective use and usage of language as a medium of communication. It was actually dissatisfaction with Chomsky's notion of linguistic competence which led to the development of a communicative approach. The current concern, as in a communicative approach, is with the speaker's use and usage of the language in effective communication.

6.5 Methods Characteristic of the Communicative Approach

The aim of the communicative approach is to produce language learners who will be able to use the language to communicate their thoughts and feelings competently. As Xiaoju (1984: 3) explains, "there is need and a purpose for communication and something to be communicated". The thought provides the secret to an effective communicative method. If the language (in terms of this study, second language) is unrelated to the learner's world of lived-experience, the chances are that the students may "divorce language from communication" (idem).

In language teaching method, the important consideration basic to the

development of any successful communicative approach is the appropriateness of the target language. As Stevrens explains

This notion of 'appropriateness of the target language' is a fundamental advance in language teaching, from the pedagogical point of view.

(ibid. 3 .

He rejects the long-held belief that "the same basic course, textbook and ancilliary materials were equally suitable for any and all pupils" (idem). This rejection embraces the very germ of the communicative approach and concomitant methods of teaching, which methods need to be concerned with a direct involvement of pupils.

Methods pertinent to the communicative approach depend heavily on involvement of the learner in determining content. This could ensure relevance and interest and take into account the level of competence already demonstrated by the learner.

The communicative approach, like several others, incorporates activities related and relevant to the life of the learner. After orienting the content material as closely as practicable to the life and interests of the learner, communicative skills may be developed by activities such as the following:

- role play related to scenarios with which the learner is familiar, e.g. telephone conversations, conversational situations, active social situations requiring spoken communication;
- reading and writing related to and arising from the above and that which may be necessary to facilitate competent communication.

Method, then, concentrates on and facilitates involvement in practical situations of language use. A wide range of material and activities may be used to make this type of teaching effective. For example,

illustrations, films, comics, slides, magazines, newspapers, tape-recordings, radio and television may be used to keep the communicative aspect of the language foremost in the mind of the teacher and the learner.

The point of any lesson or series of lessons in which communicative methods are used is that the content must be relevant and interesting and the learners must be kept linguistically active. Using the target language in varying situations, preferably familiar to the learner, is fundamental to the successful application of the communicative approach.

6.6 An Eclectic Method

In the light of the range of approaches mentioned above, it seems that one which combines the better aspects of each, and which may be said to be eclectic, offers the greatest opportunity for success.

Earlier in this study, in discussion of method, mention was made of the fact that in practice teachers resort to an amalgam of different practices in order to arrive at the most effective method to suit

their aims and circumstances. Mention has been made, too, of the need to adapt teaching method to the social psychology of the society in which the teaching of the second language takes place. In the sense that method inevitably reflects or depends upon approach, the implication is a need to take into account a multiplicity of varied factors prior to the formulation of a method for a particular purpose. Haskell sees that solution in an eclectic "approach" which he defines as

one which utilizes the best (most appropriate and/or useful) parts of existing methods.

(Haskell, 1978: 21)

Stevens makes the point that several disciplines are involved in any successful language teaching method. He explains that linguistics, phonetics, psychology, education and various audio-visual aids contribute to the development of an eclectic method (Stevens, 1965: 3).

However pragmatic and circumstance-bound ecleticism may be, it rests on basic principles which seem fundamental to the formulation of suitable method (Haskell, 1978: 19; Mackey, 1966: 10 ff; Finocchiaro, 1974:4 ff):

6.6.1 The language presented in the learning process must be relevant and appropriate to the learner. This is especially the case in devising a method suitable to second language teaching where positive attitudes have to be inculcated in the learner. A basic step in achieving this is to make what has to be learnt interesting and meaningful.

6.6.2 The training of the ear through techniques of mimicry. The learning of songs, rhymes, jingles and recitations, and memorisation of models of the target language may be initially used, but the boredom factor inherent in their use may be high. The use of these techniques is particularly important in

situations where the learner has limited exposure to or contact with English. The incorporation of the principle is essential to familiarise the learner with the sound system of English - something basic to competence in speaking the language.

- 6.6.3 Emphasis should be placed on consolidating and reinforcing language structures of the target language, and not focussing attention on differences between it and the mother tongue. This principle recognises that the second language learner must acquire a sufficient knowledge of structures and skills in the target language in order to exploit it in his communication. Since adequate exposure to the target language may not be sufficient for the consolidation of structures and skills learnt, this should be built into the method (Anthony, 1965: 95).

Corder, in discussing the use of audio-visual techniques in teaching second language, makes an important observation about method. He explains that language learning entails largely the acquisition of complicated skills, and to achieve this effectively a method should be designed to give the learner as much practice as possible in the limited time available. In doing so, Corder explains

we shall have achieved considerable economies and a notable intensification of the learning process.
(Corder, 1965: 342)

- 6.6.4 Reading and writing should preferably occur only after adequate grounding in the aural and oral aspects of the target language. These two activities should confirm that the learner has acquired a sufficient mastery of the phonic system of English, as well as structures and skills, to enable him to read and write competently.

6.7 Concluding statement on method

Methods vary as do approaches, and find their justification in terms of particular contexts, aims and circumstances. The writer has attempted to survey a selection of possible methods.

The structured thematic approach, described in the final chapter of this study, is an effort to blend the various methods outlined here. The point is that this approach is designed to establish a balance between the needs of the learners and the prescriptive requirements of the syllabus. These may not be reconcilable under all circumstances.

7. A Survey of Literature on the teaching of English as a second language, with particular reference to South Africa

7.1 Background

Although South Africa has long had a second language included in the curricula of all of the white education departments, there has been relatively little written on the subject in this country. As will be shown in chapter 3, the place of the second language in the schools' curricula is inextricably enmeshed in the socio-political history of South Africa. However, an awareness that there was a need for a specific approach to teaching second language existed in this country in the middle of the nineteenth century.

The Report of the Education Commission, the De Villiers Commission, stated in 1879 that

A knowledge of two languages is better than one, but, especially in the early stages, it is a distinct drawback to have two languages taught... (it) is clearly a drawback and yet we have to keep the teaching of the two languages up.

(Fourie, 1950: 18)

The problems deriving from accommodating two languages in the schools'

curricula are still with us today.

Hughes, in a paper delivered in 1934 (1937: 73) stated that

Bilingualism is a world problem already affecting about thirty countries and likely to spread further. Usually arising in a scene that has been the battleground of two-nation groups, it has aroused much passion. The need is for less heat, more light.

Hughes (1937) provides a backdrop to the South African situation in which the place of the second language in the educational system needs to be seen. In discussing the position of the second language Hughes (1937) refers to some pioneer work done by Saer, which had a significant influence on teaching the subject.

Saer's findings are significant because they helped place the teaching of the second language in this country on a scientific basis for the first time. Saer based his approach on what he called the "cool arbitrement of Science": (idem). He held the view that bilingualism, per se, was rarely an advantage, and "that bilingualism in the early years of childhood was invariably, or necessarily, a disadvantage" (idem). Saer held definite views on the stage at which the second language should be taught. He explains:

We are convinced that children should, from the beginning, be taught at school by means of their mother tongue, that they should continue to use it, be introduced to its printed symbols, and read and write exclusively in that language, until they have attained such a mastery of it that the second language can be introduced without the risk of mental confusion.

(Saer, 1924: 99)

However, Saer did add that no harm could be done where the child picked up the second language through the play-way method (Saer cited by Hughes, 1937: 73). Saer's point of view on this matter draws attention to an aspect of curriculum planning in respect of second language teaching which still requires research: the optimum age for the formal learning of second language to begin.

Hughes points out that to see the question of bilingualism in South Africa purely from the academic point of view, as Saer has done, over-simplifies a very complex matter. He refers extensively to prominent social psychologists of the day to illustrate how complex and complicated the question of bilingualism in a bilingual society is. He lists (*ibid.* 75-78) four characteristics, borrowed from Adler, which he considers fundamental to the social psychology of second language teaching in a society like South Africa: a feeling of inferiority by one of the groups; a hyper-sensitivity to even fair and constructive criticism; an inclination to intransigence; and a tendency to regard one's nation (language-group) as the chosen race.

It is against this complex background that the inclusion of the second language in the education system in South Africa should be seen. The factors affecting attitudes to second language are not only historical, they are part of the social psychology of the South African community. Perhaps Bovet's conclusion that

in so complex a problem we must still go on with careful,
dispassionate research,

presents the sensible approach to this very difficult problem (Bovet, 1937: 86). The research Bovet (1937) appeals for has not been readily forthcoming in South Africa, although surveys and overviews of the position of second language teaching in schools' curricula are beginning to enjoy the attention of educationists.

Much of what has been written about the position of the second language in the South African education system revolves around the question of the medium of instruction in schools. The struggles between Afrikaans- and English-speakers, which have characterised South African history will be outlined in the next chapter. During these struggles the position of the second language in the schools' curricula has remained safely entrenched, albeit under sufferance at times.

Coetzee (1937: 89), a prominent Afrikaner educationist, outlines three reasons for the inclusion of the second language in the curriculum in South Africa.

Our first aim must be to maintain the Union solution of the official equality of both English and Afrikaans.

He adds that

our second aim must be the education of every citizen to the level of a working bilingualism, i.e. every citizen must be as far as possible 100% proficient in his own language and from 50 to 100% proficient in his other language.

(idem)

The third aim which Coetzee identifies is "the fullest use of the mother-tongue as medium of instruction throughout all stages of learning" (idem). This last aim presupposes a school system based on mother-tongue instruction, and brings into focus the dispute about the educational validity of single- and parallel-medium schools.

There has for many years been controversy about the merits and demerits of single- and parallel-medium schools. The problem centres on exposure to the language and culture of the other language group. In South Africa, with regard to the Whites, this refers mainly to English and Afrikaans differences.

In South Africa bilingual schools take one of two forms: dual-medium where the two language groups form a class unit and teaching takes place alternately in English and Afrikaans, and parallel-medium where the language groups are in separate classes in the same school, with the medium of instruction being exclusively the mother tongue. Dual-medium classes have been illegal since the passing of Act 39 of 1967, the National Education Policy Act. In practice, however, owing to uneconomical pupil numbers, parallel-medium schools may have dual-medium classes in which pupils are in a mixed-language class-group.

One of the champions of bilingual schools (whether parallel- or

dual-medium) in South Africa was Malherbe who wrote extensively on the subject. He believed that contact between the language groups in the schools would not only be mutually enriching (Malherbe, 1946: 103, and 1977:103-105), but would lead to mutual understanding. He believed that these schools would help engender a positive attitude between the language groups which would in turn be conducive to better teaching of the second language. However, it must be noted that Malherbe was a protagonist of mother-tongue instruction:

As an educational principle the use of the child's home language as a medium of instruction, especially in the early stages, is sound.

(Malherbe, 1946: 114)

This supports what Saer (1924) found in his research years before. Malherbe states

another fundamental consideration in second language teaching method, i.e. that

education to be effective must utilize the child's own environment and experience as a foundation on which to build.

(idem)

Most authorities on second language teaching do indeed lay stress on this principle.

Opponents of bilingual schools feared that one language and its culture would dominate the other, thereby inhibiting growth and development. A report published by the Human Sciences Research Council in 1970 listed four main claims against using the second language as the medium of instruction:

- (1) Hoernlê bevind dat dit 'n nadelige uitwerking het op die verstandelike ontwikkeling van leerlinge.
- (2) Malherbe hou dit verantwoordelik vir vertraging.....
- (3) Schmidt en West sê dit benadeel die leerlinge se woordeskat en maak hom armer aan ideë.
- (4) Schmidt beweer dat dit die denkproses bemoeilik en vertraag, en onnodige vermoënis veroorsaak.

(Oosthuizen, 1970: 13)

It will be seen in chapter 4 of this study that any system of bilingual education is determined by the needs of society. For example, the rapid integration of immigrants into the mainstream of American life was considered an important aim of bilingual education in some states and therefore the "melting-pot" approach was used.

Botha (1944: 19) argued strongly for mother tongue instruction in schools. He used the arguments of people like Saer (1974), Hughes (1937), who accepted the principle of mother tongue instruction as the basis of all sound education. Other writers and educationists who strongly supported mother tongue instruction in schools were C. Coetzee (1937), B.F. Nel (1943), P.J. Meyer (1945), and signatories of the Christian National Education declaration published in 1948. This document and its influence on the place of the second language in South African education will be discussed in the next chapter. Suffice to remind ourselves of the characteristics of a bilingual society which Adler identified, and Hughes used, to show how complex the question of bilingual education can be.

The complexity of the problem of mother tongue instruction in a bilingual society is appreciated when one reads that

what is best for the child psychologically and pedagogically may not be the best for the adult socially, economically and politically and, what is even more significant, what is best for the child and the adult may not be the best or even possible for the society which, through its collective efforts, provides the individual with the advantages he can not personally attain.

(Bull, 1964: 528)

This observation has relevance to the South African situation when one notes that

each official language has its own sphere of influence. English, for instance, is regarded as the language of commerce, industry, technology and, to a lesser extent, the trades. ~~For Blacks, Indians and many...Coloureds it is, moreover, the language of education.~~ Afrikaans, on the other hand, is the language of the civil service, the

police, the army, agriculture and, to a lesser extent, labour.

(Lanham and Prinsloo, 1976: 47)

During the language struggles, particularly in the Transvaal and the Orange Free State after the Second War of Independence, 1899-1902, the question of the medium of instruction in schools and the compulsory learning of the second language, posed problems about the relative standards between the two languages. As Fourie (1950: 13) states

During a transition period after the enactment of the 1911-12 Language Ordinances there was considerable uncertainty as to what 'the lower standard of attainment' implied

in teaching and evaluating second language in comparison with the first language. Fourie mentions (idem) that as recently as 1925 an Inspector of Education, C.L. Hofmeyr, declared:

We ... do not distinguish sufficiently between a first and a second language in our teaching methods, and schools are in an embarrassing position with reference to the second language.

Hofmeyr pointed out that simply to make the second language a little easier than the first language

is a wrong and misleading principle and the cause of many things which have gone wrong with our language teaching.

(idem)

In 1945 van Vuuren (173) wrote that too many teachers adhere to obsolete and ineffectual methods in teaching the second languages. He stated (idem)

te veel van hulle nog te verknog is aan metodes en opvattinge wat in sommige opsigte te ouderwets, en ander te formeel van aard is, sodat hulle daarmee nie veel meer kan bereik nie as om die leerlinge in 'n mate af te rig vir 'n eksamen wat nie alleen hoofsaaklik skriftelik van aard is nie, maar wat daarbenewens nie genoegsaam toets of wat die kinders leer op funksionele wyse deur hulle gebruik kan word nie.

Over two decades later, Hartshorne (1966) made a similar observation. As recently as 1981, too, the "Languages and Language Instruction"

sub-committee report of the De Lange Report stated (p. 56) that the quality of teaching in second language remained poor.

Clearly, much has still to be done in South Africa to improve the general standard of second language teaching. As Van Vuuren (1947) points out, the methods used were designed mainly for preparing the children for written examinations, ignoring, in the main, the functional aspect of language learning.

7.2 Specific criticisms

In 1941, a report by a committee appointed by the Minister of Education stated that the standard of English B (English Second Language) was lamentable and that this was attributable to the use of inappropriate methods in teaching English as a second language (van Vuuren, 1945: 2). In the Education Gazette of 17 February 1944 it was reported that in respect of English Lower (English Second Language) the answers to the public examination questions were full of elementary language errors (ibid 3). Once again the blame was placed on inappropriate teaching methods.

Another factor which contributed to the poor teaching of the second language was the lack of bilingual teachers. Coetzee (1963: 265) explains that the lack of bilingual teachers contributed to the fact that by 1942 unsatisfactory progress had been made in teaching the second language. With respect to Natal, specifically, Coetzee quotes the following figures to show that by 1944 little progress had been made:

- (a) Onderwysers wat vakke van die laerskool deur medium van albei tale kan onderrig: 40%;
- (b) onderwysers wat laerskoolvakke nie deur medium van hul tweede taal kan onderrig nie: 20%
- (c) onderwysers wat nie in staat was om hulle tweede taal te onderrig nie: 40%.

(ibid. 266)

Hartshorne supports Coetzee when he notes that

the English-speaking community appears to have difficulty in providing enough teachers even for its own schools, and therefore English will continue to be taught in Afrikaans and Bantu (sic) schools by non-English-speakers.

(Hartshorne, 1966: 3)

The writer's survey, presented in chapter 5, shows that by 1982 the position had hardly improved. For example, in that year only 47,5% of all of the teachers in Natal were officially rated as bilingual.

In 1969 a survey by the National Bureau for Educational and Social Research (Malherbe, 1977: 115) stated that "language instruction in the secondary school standards contributes very little to making the second language a living language". The most recent report on second language teaching was compiled by the Human Sciences Research Council. In it the compiler, Leschinsky, states that

onsekerheid bestaan in sowel die Republiek van Suid-Afrika as in SWA/Namibië ten opsigte van die geskikste metode wat vir tweedetaalonderrig gebruik moet word.

(1982: 2)

It appears, thus, that little progress has been made in respect of second language teaching in South Africa. An increasing number of writers are, however, beginning to devote their attention to second language teaching method. Some of these will now be considered.

Kloss, in considering remedies for the generally poor standard of second language teaching in South Africa, suggests the following courses of action:

Remedy No. 1: An overhauling of the methods in the teaching of English as a school subject. This might be effected by introducing new teaching methods such as the "English through Activity" technique designed by Arnold and Varty, or the techniques suggested by Professor Lanham.

Remedy No. 2: Supplementing language teaching proper by using English as a tool for "constant reading". This could be done in a number of ways, three of which (are):

- (i) Comeback of the dual-medium school;
- (ii) Content teaching through the medium of the target language;
- (iii) Setting up of special foreign-language centered schools.

(Kloss, 1978: 33)

Kloss's mention of the methods of Arnold and Varty and Lanham should not be construed to mean that these are the only effective methods for the teaching of second language. In fact they would be rather tiresome for the second language student who has progressed beyond the elementary stage of saying-and-doing, which is a feature of the Arnold and Varty method.

7.3 Two methodological approaches compared

The ETA method adopted by Arnold and Varty to the teaching of English as a second language to Blacks, takes into account the fact that the target group may vary from children for whom English is a second language, to those for whom it is virtually a foreign language.

Michau (1975: 170) explains that

ETA has adopted many of the characteristics of the audio-lingual method which is noted for its production of favourable motivation towards the learning of language.

However, a weakness of the ETA method with regard to the teaching of English as a second language is its heavy dependence on pattern-drilling where pupils are required to learn lists of words and phrases at each level of schooling (*idem*). According to Michau, since the ETA method "relies heavily on praise and encouragement as an incentive to further learning" (*idem*), it does seem that a great deal of credit for success in using this method is dependent on the specialised training of the teacher more than on the intrinsic effectiveness of this method.

In her study of the Arnold-Varty ETA method, Michau explains that the language-related activities are not sufficiently graded to the

different school standards (ibid.). Concomitantly, material used for the programme of lessons needs to be structured to reflect progress.

In a comparison of the ETA method with non-ETA methods (ibid.172) Michau shows that at the initial stages of teaching the results were similar (idem). However, in the higher standards the ETA method appears to be more effective, possibly because pupils were older (in control and experimental schools) and likely to be motivated by new methods because learning English opens avenues of advancement and employment.

Although Michau reaches the conclusion that the ETA method "is a very successful method of teaching English in comparison with methods generally used in the junior primary school" (idem), it should be remembered that a negligible number of Black teachers are adequately trained to teach English as a second language according to other methods. Although Young (in Lanham et al., 1978: 196) writes optimistically about progress being made in the training of Blacks to teach English as a second language, the success of the programmes he mentions is not fully documented. Where such teachers have been specifically trained in the English Through Activity (Arnold and Varty) methods, however, success rates have shown a growth. However, these methods are not used in any schools of the Natal Education Department and have little relevance in the context of the present dissertation.

Lanham's (1975) suggestions are not new to Natal as the Natal Education Department has been using their basic tenets in English Second Language teaching in the lower primary school for many years.

The suggestions lay emphasis on eliminating in phonic drill exercises mother-tongue interference in the target language.

In the reading lessons and related exercises such as spelling,

Lanham's ideas aim

not to replace traditional by simplified spelling, but to facilitate access to traditional spelling via what may be compared to a 'pidginised' variety of the standard orthography.

(Kloss, 1978: 53)

This appears to have been successful amongst Blacks (ibid. 54), but whether the approach would enjoy similar success in White schools is still to be ascertained.

In a minority report to the Language Teaching sub-committee report to the De Lange Committee (pp. 87-101) Lanham makes suggestions regarding a syllabus for and approach to second language. His attempts to order what should be accomplished in teaching English as a second language provoke concern about excessive prescription. Furthermore, some of the suggestions on what should be covered in the second language curriculum appear to assume an expertise and language sophistication far beyond that attained by most White teachers of the subject, let alone Black teachers, the majority of whom have little or no relevant academic and professional training. Lanham's comments constitute a minority report to the De Lange Committee. In fairness, however, cognizance should be taken of an important distinction underpinning Lanham's thinking, that is, the need to discriminate between attaining literacy, and aims and syllabus design for English Second Language teaching programmes.

The De Lange Report and implications of the Languages and Language Instruction sub-committee report will be discussed in 7.4.1 below.

7.4 Selected Research and Investigatory Findings in relation to Second Language teaching in South Africa.

Certain reports and research publications on the topic under consideration have aroused considerable interest in recent years, and reference will now be made to selected examples.

7.4.1 A report in three volumes, subtitled Language Loyalty in South Africa, published by the Human Sciences Research Council between 1977 and 1980, provides a comprehensive survey of the attitudes of White South Africans to the second language. Although this report does not deal with teaching method, it focuses attention on one of the most important considerations in devising a teaching method for English Second Language, viz. the attitude of the community and the learner to the language and its culture. One recalls the emphasis laid on attitude by writers such as Lewis (1981), Massad (1975), Jespersen (1904), Finocchiaro (1974), and Stern (1967).

In volume 2 of the report, Hauptfleish makes an important observation. He notes that (p. 3)

Basically, in the study of attitudes and concepts concerning language in South Africa it must be remembered that one is dealing with two different sets of values and social norms and socio-historic traditions, and that the factor one is studying - language - is the most important dividing factor.

He explains further that

it is difficult to deny that language identity has historically proved to be the single most effective token of ethnic solidarity in this country.

(idem)

However, Hauptfleish (1977) quotes figures from a survey of Human Sciences Research Council which show that attitudes

amongst the Afrikaans-speakers to English are now very positive:

The number of Respondents who were prepared to speak the Second Language

<u>Afrikaners</u>	<u>ESSA</u> *
Yes 90,4%	83,6%
No 9,6%	16,4%
Total 100,0%	100,0%

(ibid. 20)

It is of interest that in Volume I of Hauptfleisch's report on Language Loyalty in South Africa, that 89,3% of Afrikaans-speaking South Africans were in favour of two (or more) official languages.

Hauptfleisch concludes that "it would seem that the Afrikaners are generally more prepared to speak the second language" (idem). However, one should note that this survey was conducted among urban dwellers, and not those in the rural areas where Afrikaans-speakers predominate and where they have considerably less contact with speakers of English.

Hauptfleisch's figures reflect what Prinsloo found before 1972 when he examined the attitudes of Afrikaans- and English-speaking students to their second language. He found, for example, that 92,1% of the Afrikaans-speakers and 85,4% of the English-speakers felt that it was necessary to have two official languages in South Africa. (Prinsloo, 1972: 72).

*ESSA: an abbreviation for English-speaking South Africans - considerable attention will be devoted to this section of the White South African population in the next chapter.

7.4.2 One of the most recent studies by the Human Sciences Research Council, unpublished at the time of writing, examines the question of aims and method in second language teaching. In it Leschinsky distinguishes between short and long-term aims in teaching the subject, using mainly overseas authorities as her sources. She refers to the aims outlined by a Human Sciences Research Council Work Committee on Languages and Language Teaching:

Daar word beoog om by die leerling die taalvaardighede (begrypend luister, praat, lees en skryf) te koördineer en te bevorder sodat hy -

- (a) in staat sal wees om Afrikaans/Engels spontaan as kommunikasiemedium te gebruik; en
- (b) die waarde van Afrikaans/Engels as die ander amptelike taal en as kultuurdraer sal besef en wil benut.

(1982: 10-11)

In summing up Leschinsky (1982: 16) notes that functional competence in the second language may be regarded as the most important short-term aim in second language teaching. She adds that this aim should be attained by pupils who have completed normal schooling.

Leschinsky (1982) examines briefly various methods of teaching second language and reaches the conclusion that one's choice of method is influenced by one's attitude to the language.

7.4.3 A report by the Human Sciences Research Council (1981) is likely to have considerable influence on education in general, and language teaching in particular. Commonly referred to as the De Lange report, it is supplemented by 18 sub-reports on a variety of subjects related to education in South Africa, including languages and language instruction.

The De Lange report outlines eleven principles for the provision of education in the Republic of South Africa, and those relevant to the present study are:

Principle 1

Equal opportunities for education, including equal standards in education, for every inhabitant, irrespective of race, colour, creed or sex, shall be the purposeful endeavour of the State.

Principle 2

Education shall afford positive recognition of what is common as well as what is diverse in the religious and cultural way of life and the languages of the inhabitants.

Principle 3

Education shall give positive recognition to the freedom of choice of the individual, parents and organisations in society.

Principle 4

The provision of education shall be directed in an educationally responsible manner to meet the needs of the individual as well as those of society and economic development, and shall, inter alia, take into consideration the manpower needs of the country.

Principle 5

Education shall endeavour to achieve a positive relationship between the formal, non-formal and informal aspects of education in the school, society and family.

Principle 9

In the provision of education the process of centralization and decentralization shall be reconciled organizationally and functionally.

Principle 11

Effective provision of education shall be based on continuing research.

These principles recognise two important facets of South African society: its diversity, and the right for the various socio-linguistic groups to retain their identity. The exclusive predominance of any one group with its philosophy of life or world view, is apparently anathema to the spirit and letter of these principles. The concept of privilege and preference for certain groups is also rejected with the acceptance of the principle of equal opportunity for all.

The third principle has, by implication, the suggestion that parental choice may play an important role in education. This has interesting possibilities for second language, and the question of parental choice and medium of instruction. The third principle would, however, have to be reconciled with that which follows where the need for educational responsibility is emphasized.

The fifth principle is likely to have repercussions on curriculum design and planning for second language. For example, in second language in non-formal and informal education the emphasis would probably be on oracy and more task- or vocationally-directed English. This principle is in fact already being partially applied in the design of the Lower Grade syllabus for English Second Language which was implemented in the fourth phase of schooling from the beginning of 1984.

The ninth principle is particularly important to the position of the second language in the curriculum because it would lead to syllabuses more locally bound, although meeting the requirements of minimum standards prescribed by a central authority. This type of arrangement would add impetus to the

flexibility needed in approaches to the teaching of second languages.

The last principle quoted recognises a need which has been neglected in second language. This is particularly so in view of the rapidly increasing numbers of learners of second language in Southern Africa. (De Lange Report, 1981; Hauptfleisch, 1977)

Of particular interest in the present context is the Report of the Languages sub-committee to the De Lange committee and this will now be considered.

- 7.4.4 The report of the sub-committee on "Language and Language Instruction" (1981) pays attention to the formulation of aims and objectives in teaching English as a first and as a second language.

Towards more effective planning the report of the languages sub-committee distinguishes between aims and objectives, i.e. that aims are by definition general, and objectives more specific and directly focused on an aspect of the syllabus (1981: 55).

The sub-committee report, in commenting on aims and objectives in teaching English as a first and second language, makes the important observation that the most carefully formulated aims cannot compensate for inadequate teaching (56). This, seen in the light of the fact that most teachers have little or no background to teach second language (*ibid.* 57), makes the need for teacher training a crucial matter.

The "Languages and Language Instruction" sub-committee report to the De Lange Committee (1981) sees communicative competence

as the first and most important aim in the teaching of English Second Language. The second aim in second language teaching suggested by the committee, i.e. that one of the official languages be appreciated as a vehicle of culture amongst those whose mother tongue is the other language, draws attention to the importance of the second language in this country.

It is significant that the "Languages and Language Instruction" (De Lange, 1981) report sees second language as an important social institution. For example, attention is focused on the development of social attitudes when suggesting objectives for learning how to talk (and, by implication, listen to) the second language. In fact, in operationalising the objectives this report clearly lays much emphasis on language in use in daily situations. This emphasis on a communicative approach is extended into the language activities of reading (including comprehension) and writing.

A very useful contribution of the "Languages and Language Instruction" (De Lange, 1981) report is that, in suggesting objectives, it approaches the study of literature from two points of view. Firstly, literature is seen as a complement to and enrichment of communicative competence, and, secondly, as a means of taking the second language learner closer to the level of first language.

There is little doubt that this report has contributed to an awareness that second language is an important part of the curriculum in the various education systems in South Africa. In fact it may be safely claimed that the role of second language in establishing and cementing harmonious relations in South Africa is likely to be more appreciated with the publishing and dissemination of the contents of this report.

The report notes that then-existing nationally-determined syllabuses for English Second Language tend to become less prescriptive and less specific as progress through school occurs. This appears to be a development which Lanham in a minority report appended to the report of the "Languages and Language Instruction" (De Lange, 1981) committee regards as undesirable.

He quotes van Wyk-Smith's view that a syllabus should provide teachers with:

- a. a clearer interpretation of the aims of the syllabus;
 - b. a more specific listing of the skills expected;
 - c. clearer guidance as to how these skills can be attained:
- and
- d. most importantly, the theoretical framework whether traditional grammar, modern linguistics, rhetoric, phenomenology or whatever, within which all this must take place
(ibid. 80)

Van Wyk-Smith's (1981) views appear to apply to a whole range of matters relevant to the teaching of English Second Language. His view that "a clearer interpretation of the aims of the syllabus" (ibid. 80) is necessary, would perhaps enjoy support among teachers of the subject. But this is also where conflict could arise, in terms of two or more differing language philosophies, or of awakening old historically-based hostilities. This latter is quite possible in South African society with the sensitivities which exist among Whites between the two language groups, as will be explained in chapter Three. It seems that syllabus aims should perhaps be couched in general terms so that teachers may use their own initiative and adopt approaches to accommodate the needs of the community served. The surveys conducted amongst teachers of English Second Language in schools of the Natal Education Department, showed (Appendices 1 and 2) that teachers resisted

prescription. For example, the "thematic approach" designed to encourage communicative competence depends heavily for its success on its adaptability to learners' requirements, circumstances and available facilities. Any artificial imposition, explicit or implicit, would tend to squash initiative, adaptation and inventiveness.

Available evidence indicates that the revised syllabuses for English Second Language are suitably broad and open, allowing teachers opportunity for adaptation and interpretation to suit particular needs.

The English Second Language syllabus for standards 5 - 10 is currently under review, and the writer has been involved in the design of a proposed new syllabus. Though unable to divulge the contents of a syllabus yet to receive official sanction, at the time of writing, the writer submits that a prerequisite for the successful implementation of any new syllabus is an intensive course in teacher training; this would especially be needed among Black teachers, the majority of whom are under-qualified.

The "Languages and Language Instruction" (De Lange, 1981) sub-committee referred to above emphasises the need for suitably qualified teachers for the successful implementation of aims established in the syllabuses. A decade before the De Lange Report, a Report of the Education Commission of the Study Project on Christianity in Apartheid Society stated:

When children from widely differing environments are placed together in one class, they require teachers unusually sensitive and competent, and teaching material of unusual variety and flexibility to ensure that all their needs are met.

(Sprocas, 1971: 16)

This suggests the magnitude of the problem facing teachers of

English Second Language in South Africa in schools offering the subject.

The need for a manageable degree of flexibility in a syllabus is virtually essential in a heterogeneous country like South Africa. This applies also to the aims defined since flexibility would enable teachers, and the communities they serve, to place their own adaptation on a syllabus within the framework of the general norms and standards of academic respectability.

In the South African education system there is a close link between the syllabus and the system of evaluation of pupil performance. In this regard the minority report of the De Lange language committee makes an important point:

The validity of examinations should be measured against the statement of aims and objectives, not against the syllabus (80).

However, a few lines later the minority report states

it is my opinion (Lanham's) that the teaching of English in secondary and high schools lacks content and direction because present directives (statements of aims and syllabus content) are too broad and vague.

(idem)

There is validity in what Lanham says here, especially in view of the fact that the majority of teachers of English Second Language are inadequately qualified to teach it.

The thinking behind the ideas under discussion, as presented in the languages sub-committee of the De Lange Report, seems to emanate from the following assumptions:

- that English first and second languages syllabuses should be similar;

- that a syllabus with a high degree of specificity will solve the problems which exist in the teaching of these two subjects.

The crux of the matter is that a solution to the problem of poor teaching in English first and second languages (as claimed by van Wyk-Smith (1981) and Lanham) (1978) lies in the quality of those teaching. Solutions to this problem will cover a wide spectrum and may include better selection of teacher trainees, and better teacher education - both pre-service and in-service. The fact that a high percentage of non-native speakers of English teach English Second Language, underlines the need for an effective and massive teacher-training programme. A first step would be to define aims so that the needs of the community may be built into these aims, possibly as objectives.

It is a matter of concern that an influential report like that of the sub-committee on languages and language instruction of the De Lange Report should propose greater prescription in defining syllabus aims, albeit in an appended minority report:

We are convinced of the need for the more objective, specific statement of objectives in view of the extensive failure of English (if not current syllabus).

(1981: 81)

The fact that so many teachers are untrained to teach second language is not discussed fully in this report. Even the best syllabus would not make for better teaching under circumstances where the teachers have not been prepared adequately to teach the subject.

For the sake of clarity it is important to note that the terms of reference of the De Lange Committee apply to the whole

spectrum of South African education, covering all races and age-groups. The aims suggested in the languages sub-committee report, for example, have been couched in general terms, whilst at the same time covering the exigency of teaching second language for specific purposes. The aims suggested for second language teaching are to co-ordinate and improve the pupil's ability in language (including listening, speaking, reading and writing) so that he

- (a) will be able to use English/Afrikaans spontaneously as a medium of communication, and
 - (b) appreciate the value of English/Afrikaans as the other official language and carrier of culture.
- (1981: 63)

In the minority report by Lanham some vague concepts e.g. "the emotional route in the study of literary works..." (*ibid.*) have been introduced which seem to neglect that the learning of second language is a socially-determined phenomenon, especially in terms of identifying and defining aims. Lanham's concept of using the "emotional route in the study of literary works and also by means of language studies" (*ibid.* 87) to understand the "mind" of the speaker of the mother tongue, may be relevant to second language, but it does seem to relegate some important aspects of teaching to a place of lesser importance, especially in respect of the formal teaching situation in schools.

The second aim in the teaching of the second language, quoted above, is worthy of commendation because it focuses attention on an aspect of second language learning which is often overlooked. This is that second language contributes to an extension of experience and intellectual growth. It would perhaps be more accurate to state in this aim that second language provides the learner with a wider base from which he is able to extend himself. This is particularly so because

English Second Language is an international language, and as we saw earlier in the present study, the language of commerce, tourism, science and literature.

The last sentence of the second aim given in the sub-committee report, "Writers from the pupil's own language and culture will be prominent in these works", should not be accepted at face value. If it means what it reads, it conflicts with one of the generally accepted tenets of effective teaching in second language, i.e. that the source material should be in the target language.

The third aim defined in the report of the sub-committee reads

The pupil will recognize intent in messages seeking to persuade or influence. He will have a critical ability in recognizing and interpreting propaganda in all its forms.

(ibid. 87)

This aim is praiseworthy but is secondary to the acquisition of language skills for use in effective communication.

In discussing method in second language teaching, the sub-committee report lays considerable emphasis on the influence of the syllabus. The syllabus, in turn, cannot be seen without a clear identification of aims and objectives. In the rationale to the aims and objectives, the sub-committee minority report argues that

it is believed that present directives to teachers are too broad and vague and there is an excess of latitude in interpretation.

(ibid. 95)

The fact that the sub-committee language report of the De Lange Committee (1981) favours prescription (i.e. limited scope for interpretation and adaptation) is understandable against the limited availability of qualified teachers of second language

in South Africa. Such teachers may favour carefully spelt-out guidelines because these provide them with the detailed guidance in method and material content which may be necessary in the light of their limited ability to exploit and manipulate the language they are teaching. The sub-committee report to the De Lange Committee (1981) accepts this as necessary and lists in great detail a multiplicity of language functions which it feels should be taught between standards 5 and 10. This check-list approach is apparently contrived to guide uncertain teachers to cover a minimum of language structures and skills in the prescribed time. However, whether this approach would be effective in comparison to an integrated approach based on language-in-use situations, such as implied in the communicative approach to language teaching, is open to question.

The De Lange Report (1981), and the sub-committee report on Languages and Language instruction, have rendered a service to language in education in South Africa because they have focused attention on the problems which have to be solved. This has occurred both intentionally and unwittingly. However, the sub-committee report falls short in many respects in providing a sound basis for planning for better second language education in the future.

CHAPTER 3

SOCIAL, POLITICAL AND HISTORICAL FACTORS AFFECTING THE DEVELOPMENT OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

The English and Dutch (later Afrikaans) languages in the education systems in South Africa contributed to a struggle lasting more than a century, after which the bilingual nature of South African education became established. The struggle between the two main White language groups has affected attitudes to the languages and the purpose of this chapter is to trace these influences on bilingual education so that the teaching of English Second Language may be seen in context.

1. The Origins of bilingual education in South Africa

The organisation of formal schooling in the Colonial Cape in the late 18th and early 19th centuries was affected by the particular country under whose rule the area fell from time to time. During the Dutch rule, because of the scattered population, much use was made of private teachers (Rose and Tunmer, 1975: 150). During De Mist's governorship (1803 - 06) an effort was made to introduce some measure of centralised control over education. Walker (1959: 137) points out that the Dutch Reformed clergy were strongly opposed to De Mist's efforts to secularise education. Before progress could be made, however, Britain gained control of the Cape again, in January 1806.

Under British rule, the government, in conjunction with the main churches of the day,

established a free system of education, and got teachers out from England and Scotland. These schools did not succeed, because instruction was to be given in the English and Latin languages. (Rose and Tunmer, 1976: 151)

The Herschel system, which followed, established elementary schools which were free, with instruction "either in the Dutch or English language" (idem.) In the upper schools "education was to be

exclusively in the English language" (*idem*). The use of English as the medium of instruction was a result of the declared policy of the government of the day. As Coetzee (1963: 45) explains:

In 'n gowermentskennisgewing kort hierna (1812) het hy (Governor Cradock) andermaal ouers en onderwysers die noodsaaklikheid van 'n algemeen verbreide kennis van Engels op die hart gedruk.

This policy of deliberate anglicization through the schools was doomed to failure for at the time the Dutch-speaking people comprised nearly 90% of the White population in the Cape (*ibid.* 48). The failure of this system was hastened by the difficulty in obtaining suitable English-speaking teachers.

The policy of anglicization intensified under the governorship of Lord Charles Somerset. For example, Somerset extended the scope of anglicization by making the use of English compulsory in most official walks of life. In July 1822 he issued the following proclamation

Whereas it has been deemed expedient, with a view to the prosperity of this Settlement, that the Language of the Parent Country should be more universally diffused, and that a period should now be fixed, at which the English Language shall be exclusively used in all Judicial and Official Acts, Proceedings, and Business, within the same by having authorised competent and respectable Instructors being employed at public expense, at every principal place throughout the Colony, for the purpose of facilitating the acquirement of the English Language to all classes of Society

These Teachers having now arrived, the moment appears favourable for giving full effect to His Majesty's Commands; and I therefore, here by order and direct, by virtue of the Power and Authority in me vested, that the English Language be exclusively used in all Judicial Acts and Proceedings, either in the Supreme or Inferior Courts of this Colony, for the first day of January of the Year of our Lord, One Thousand Eight Hundred and Twenty-seven; and that all Official Acts and Documents of the several Public Offices of this Government, (the Documents and Records of the Courts of Justice excepted) be drawn up and promulgated in the English Language, from and after the 1st day of January, One Thousand Eight Hundred and Twenty-five

(Eybers, 1918: 23)

The exclusive use of English "in all Judicial and Official Acts, Proceedings, and Business" proved to be unacceptable to the vast majority of the White population. In fact this proclamation is thought to have contributed, amongst other factors, to the Great Trek. Although the policy of anglicization per se was not a major cause of the Great Trek, there was great dissatisfaction with it amongst the Dutch-speaking community. One incident which contributed greatly to the anti-government feeling amongst the Dutch-speakers of the eastern frontier community of the Cape Colony was the hanging for high treason of a group of their people at Slagtersnek in 1815, for allegedly fomenting rebellion. However, a general feeling of disillusionment at Somerset's efforts to anglicize the Dutch prevailed. As Muller states (1974: 181) "Daar was ontevredenheid oor Engelstaligheid van skole in grensdorpe".

The impracticality of Somerset's decision was soon appreciated and a proclamation was issued about four years later, postponing "the exclusive adoption of the English language in courts of law" (Eybers, 1918: 107). However, the significant point is that in both the original proclamation and that postponing the introduction of English as the exclusive language in the courts of law, especial mention was made of the steps to be taken to make this a practical reality, viz. the overseas recruitment of suitably qualified teachers. This is quite clear in the Proclamation of December, 1826:

Whereas it is expedient to postpone the period at which the use of the English Language is to be exclusively adopted in all Courts of Justice in this Colony, until such Arrangements shall be made as may facilitate the introduction of this beneficial measure, and render its utility at once certain and permanent;, and that it shall and may be lawful to continue to use the Dutch Language in the Proceedings of those Courts where it is now used; anything in the said Proclamation of the 5th day of July 1822, to the contrary notwithstanding.

(ibid. 107)

The phrase "unavoidable causes" used in the proclamation merely

emphasizes the fact that the educational system at the time was not geared to producing bilingual speakers of English and Dutch.

Despite the provisions of this proclamation and the fact that very little existed in the education system to help Dutch-speakers learn English, Ordinance No. 16 of 1846, Clause 19, stipulated that

All sentences, documents, etc. to be in English. Evidence to be viva voce, and in open court.

(Eybers, 1918: 235)

The Cape of Good Hope Constitution Ordinance (3 April 1852), Clause 89 stated

And be it enacted, that all debates and discussions in the Legislative Council and House of Assembly respectively shall be conducted in the English language, and that all journals, entries, minutes, and proceedings of the said Council and Assembly be made and recorded in the same language.

(ibid. 55)

In order to make these political decisions practicable the education system had to be drastically changed. The basic problem was the lack of suitably qualified teachers. Active recruitment of teachers in Britain took place (as in the days of Lord Charles Somerset) and "the calibre of the teachers in the leading schools was considerably improved, (Malherbe, 1975: 80). The Government Free Schools established by Lord Charles Somerset were, however, initially unpopular because, as Malherbe (ibid. 81) states, they were established "for a special purpose, viz. the anglicization of the Boers".

The reaction of the people was to establish a large number of private schools for the greater part of the inhabitants preferred paying the total cost of education themselves, to receiving gratis instruction for their children in schools where their mother tongue was not taught" (ibid. 81). In fact the Christian-National Education policy, expounded in 1948, was a final outcome of the long struggle to have mother tongue as the medium of instruction in schools. In Natal, for

example the first C.N.E. school was established with Dutch as the medium of instruction. (van Niekerk, 1975: 20)

The Report of the Main Committee of the Human Sciences Research Council Investigation into Education on the Provision of Education in the Republic of South Africa (the De Lange Report) recognises that because of the sensitivity of the question of medium of instruction (De Lange, 1981: 142) the regulation of medium of instruction in education should be "only broad", and that decisions on this matter "should be delegated to lower or appropriate operational levels" (idem). The implication is that, should resort be made to private schools, as was the case with the establishment of the C.N.E. schools, the question of medium of instruction would be resolved by the controlling body of the school.

The Superintendent of Education in the Cape Colony at the time identified the basic weakness in the system when he wrote in 1856:

For, however important the diffusion of the English language through every district of the colony is justly acknowledged to be, on many and obvious grounds, there is another object in the educational institutions of this country to which this is secondary, viz. to form good citizens and men, by instructing them in the relations of social and civil life and to fit them for a higher state of existence, by teaching them those (sic) which connect them with their Maker and Redeemer. This, the most important business of the teacher, must commence with early youth and, therefore necessarily, in the language which is vernacular, not in that which is acquired.

(Malherbe, 1975:)

These remarkable words of wisdom were unfortunately to be lost in the politicking that characterised education for the next fifty years. The need for an education system recognising sound educational principles and social needs was imperative in the heterogeneous societies of Southern Africa.

As late as 1865 the Education Act of that year provided that

in first and second class schools, the instruction during ordinary school hours shall be given through the medium of the English language.

(Rose and Turner, 1975: 155)

Moreover, the "third class schools" (idem) which in effect were cheaper for the parents to send their children to, had the prerogative of deciding which medium of instruction they would use.

The struggle for the recognition of the Dutch/Afrikaans languages proceeded apace and by 1912 the Consolidated Education Ordinance No. 11 of 1912 stipulated that the medium of instruction up to and including standard 4 should be the mother tongue (Coetzee, 1963: 94), provided that the other official language were included in the curriculum. After standard 4 the "other language", the second language, would also be used as a medium of instruction for some of the subjects in the school curriculum. The ordinance made mandatory what had been practised for many years in some communities. Variations depended upon the character of the community. The implications of this in respect of method for the teaching of the second language can be appreciated when one realises that little thought had been given to such method.

2. The Growth of bilingual Education in the Orange Free State

In the Orange Free State, which was even more predominantly Afrikaans-speaking than the Cape Colony, an Ordinance (No. 3 of April 1854) was passed to establish the Dutch language by law as the chief language of the Orange Free State" (Eybers, 1918: 296). However, there was the stipulation that it was a requirement for all clerks in the magistrates' and other offices to be adequately bilingual in both Dutch and English:

And be it further ordained that all clerks in the Landrosts' and other public Offices shall have a sufficient knowledge

of both the Dutch and English languages to be able to act as interpreters in all cases.

(Eybers, 1918: 297)

The implications were significant, for in practice employment in the public service was limited to bilingual speakers of Dutch and English. Obviously, the teaching of English as a second language received unprecedented attention. However, even at that stage there was no distinction between methods used in teaching English as a first language and as a second language. In this regard Malherbe, 1975: 357) notes that the lack of suitably qualified teachers made the system of education ineffective. He states, for example, that

..... farmers entrusted almost anybody, having the least semblance of an education, with the instruction of their children (idem).

A pragmatic approach was adopted to the teaching of the English and Dutch languages. For example,

In the village schools both Dutch and English had to be taught. On the farms it was left to the majority of the inhabitants to decide whether they wanted instruction in English.

(idem)

However, the matter was not that simple since employment in the public service, and further education at the tertiary level, required a "sufficient knowledge of English" (cf. O.F.S. Ordinance Nol. 3 of April 1854, above).

3. The Growth of bilingual Education in the South African Republic

In the South African Republic (Transvaal) the language issue was the centre of much controversy. This was especially so with the influx of many English-speaking immigrants, commonly known as "Uitlanders", to work on the gold mines and related industries. In regard to the language issue in the education system the immigrant mine-workers

"objected that their children be turned into Dutchmen" (Malherbe, 1975: 288).

The South African Republic "Volksraad" (Parliament) was aware of moves afoot to use English instead of Dutch as the medium of instruction in schools. In October 1884, therefore, it passed the following resolution:

Resolution of the Volksraad, 3 October 1884, Article 749:
The Raad, considering that there is reason to believe that there are schools which are supported from the treasury, and in which the medium of instruction is not the Dutch language - as is demanded by law - instructs the Government to make enquiries into these circumstances through the Superintendent of Education and to apply the law strictly.
(Eybers, 1918, 476-477)

With the defeat of the South African Republic and the signing of the Peace Treaty of Vereeniging, 31 May 1902, the pendulum swung to the other extreme. In fact Resolution 207 of 1884 was repealed by Proclamation 34 of 1901, and the policy of anglicization under Milner came into operation. The effects of this were widespread especially on the final form of education policy in South Africa.

The fear of being "turned into Dutchmen" had its counterpart amongst the Dutch-speaking Boers, who had similar fears, but of being turned into Englishmen. This became a very real fear after the Anglo-Boer War of 1899 - 1902 when Milner made concerted efforts through his "Kindergarten" to anglicize the Boers.

Malherbe (1975: 288) points out that the efforts of Milner and his Kindergarten to denationalise the Dutch-speaking population were doomed to failure because "the Dutch language (the mother tongue of the bulk of the population) was given no chance as a medium whatever". Milner's Education Ordinances Nos. 7 and 27 1903, for example, laid down regulations for the use of the Dutch language as well as the teaching of religious education:

Any scholar shall at the request of his parent or guardian

receive instruction in the Dutch language for 3 hours a week. The instruction under this section may be additional to instruction in Bible history and Religious instruction given in the Dutch language (if desired), under the provisions of the last preceding section (which made Religious instruction optional), provided that the total time devoted to instruction given in the Dutch language, under this section and the last preceding, shall not exceed 5 hours per week.

(Malherbe, 1975: 317)

This endeavour to make the Dutch language subservient to English, and in time relegate it to oblivion, was destined to fail. The Afrikaner people devised ways and means of ensuring the survival of their language and culture.

It was unfortunately so that Milner's endeavours to diminish the influence of Dutch merely polarised the Dutch- and English-speaking people in South Africa. This polarisation spread to the schools, and, as we have seen, the Dutch-speakers established their Christian-National Education schools in order to keep their children from Government schools with their "unacceptable" education system. This polarisation was partially reduced by the passing of the Education Acts of 1907 (the Smuts Act) in the Transvaal, and of 1908 (the Hertzog Act) in the Orange Free State.

Both these Acts accepted the principle that the medium of instruction in schools should be the mother tongue. Unfortunately both Acts were the result of negotiation and compromise and therefore, according to Malherbe (1975: 341), not entirely to the satisfaction of the Dutch-speaking population. For example, both Acts had the provision that "beyond Std. III the medium (of instruction) may be Dutch in not more than two subjects" (*idem*). As Malherbe concludes, The language regulations may, therefore, be summarised by saying: Every child may learn Dutch, but every child must learn English". This unsatisfactory state of affairs lasted until 1912 after the establishment of the Union of South Africa when the English and Dutch languages were given

equal status in the law.

The Smuts and Hertzog Acts of 1907 and 1908 incorporated important principles which were to pave the way for defining in legislation the position of the first and second languages, after Union. These principles are still basic to present education policy in South Africa. Fourie explains them thus:

First, the mother tongue was made compulsory as the medium of instruction for the elementary course - which implied that the other language would be used only while being taught as a subject. Secondly, the syllabuses, or 'codes', just after the enactment of these Acts for the first time contained the concession that 'a lower standard of attainment' in the language not used as the medium (of instruction) would be accepted. Though no one at that time could have had a clear conception as to what this 'lower standard of attainment' would later come to imply, the important point was that the necessity of such a concession had been realised.

(Fourie, 1950: 9)

The acceptance of these two principles opened the way for the recognition in the education system of the need for the inclusion of the second or other language. The language clauses of the four Provincial Education Departments passed after the establishment of the Union of South Africa in 1910, were based on these two principles which reflected knowledge of some or all of the following characteristics of the subsequent education system in South Africa:

- (a) The mother tongue is the medium of instruction for the elementary course in all Government schools, and for practically all children in the secondary schools.
- (b) English- and Afrikaans-speaking children, who mostly live in unilingual home and social environments, are separated into unilingual school environments.
- (c) The second language, not being the medium of instruction or of intercourse in or outside the classroom, is used only when taught as a subject.
- (d) The second language is, as a rule studied on what is called the 'lower grade'. The 'lower standard of attainment', which is thereby implied, has become, in

comparison with the standard of proficiency in the language taken on the 'higher grade', very 'low' indeed.

(ibid. 10)

The Education Ordinance of Natal reflects the preference for parallel-medium as opposed to separate schools for each language group. The Education Ordinance of 1946 left the choice of medium to the parents, but with the promulgation of the National Education Act No. 39/1967, mother tongue instruction up to and including the tenth year (standard 8) of formal schooling became compulsory.

As in the Cape Colony, the Dutch-speaking parents in the Transvaal under the guidance and leadership of the Dutch Reformed Church initiated the establishment of private Christian-National Education schools based on Calvinist doctrine and mother-tongue instruction. However, that this was followed by a spirit of conciliation which characterised the formation of the Union of South Africa in 1910, is reflected in Clause 145 of the South Africa Act of 1909:

145. The services of officers in the public service of any of the Colonies at the establishment of the Union shall not be dispensed with by reason of their want of knowledge of either the English or Dutch languages.

The relations between the two language groups had been disturbed by the attempts to establish the English language at the expense of the Dutch language. The struggle continued to make Dutch (and later Afrikaans) a language equal in every respect to English. The role of the "Genootskap van Regte Afrikaners", and of writers like A.G. Visser, C.J. Langenhoven and E. Marais played an important part in this regard. Youth movements such as the "Voortrekkers" (founded in 1931) helped sharpen an awareness among Afrikaner youth of their language and cultural heritage. The "Federasie van Afrikaanse Taalen Kultuurverenigings" played and still plays an important role in furthering the influence of Afrikaner traditions and culture in Southern Africa. However, perhaps the organisation which played the most important role in the Afrikaners' struggle for equality in

education was the N.G. Kerk, and its two "sister" churches.

The N.G. Kerk took the lead after the Anglo-Boer War of 1899 - 1902 in countering Milner's efforts to anglicize the education system. Numerous C.N.E. schools were established to prevent the Dutch-speaking children from having to attend state schools in which the medium of instruction was mainly English. Van den Berg (1982: 70) explains that

Christian National Education (C.N.E.) first emerged significantly in South Africa at the time of the Anglo-Boer War (1899 - 1902) as a response to the threat of Afrikaner cultural extinction at the hands of the various British authorities.

The crux of the controversy alluded to here was the question of mother-tongue instruction. The teaching of English as a second and first language was accepted throughout South Africa, for as Malherbe (1975: 320 - 321) points out

In almost every official report, even those since the war (the Anglo-Boer War of 1899 - 1902) mention is made of the keen desire amongst the Dutch inhabitants to acquire the English language.

Malherbe explains that it would be misleading to suggest that after Union the language question had been defused. In fact the contrary prevailed, for as Schmidt explains (cited by Malherbe, Carson and Jones, 1937: 76) the Afrikaners continued to feel that their language and culture was threatened. Schmidt points out that the Afrikaners attached tremendous importance to the debilitating effects on national pride of efforts to minimise the role of the mother tongue.

An event occurred in 1939 which had an important effect on education in South Africa. A Christelik-Nasionale Onderwyskongres was called with this appeal:

The attempts through the years to Anglicize the Afrikaner child were renewed during 1937 to 1939, and once more

threatened the future existence of our nation (volk). It has now become necessary to present the policy of Christian National Education clearly to the Afrikaner nation (Afrikanervolk). (Malherbe, 1977: 50)

This led to the issue nine years later of the first important document outlining C.N.E. principles. The document reflected general Afrikaner educational philosophy and its importance will be discussed later in this chapter.

Similarly, after the publication of the De Lange Report in 1981, with recommendations which to the committed Afrikaner suggested a dilution of some important C.N.E. principles, another Volkskongres was arranged in 1982.

4. The Position of English as a second Language in the South African Education system today, with particular reference to Natal

In order to obtain a picture of the position of English as a second language in the education system in South Africa, it is necessary to juxtapose the two official languages: English and Afrikaans. This juxtaposing would, however, be incomplete were the increasing importance of the nine different languages spoken by Black ethnic groups overlooked. It is significant that the South Africa Act of 1909 made no mention of the languages of Blacks. The Republic of South Africa Constitution Act of 1961 (as amended), provides for English, Afrikaans and the Black languages:

- (a) Section 108 of the Republic of South Africa Constitution Act of 1961, which guarantees equal status to English and Afrikaans as official languages;
- (b) the Constitution Amendment Acts of 1963 and 1971 which provide that, notwithstanding the Constitution Act, the State President may recognize one or more Bantu (now Black) languages as additional official languages in Transkei (1963) or other Bantu (Black) homelands (1971).
(Kloss, 1978: 15)

Policy in respect of White education in each province is determined by the central government in terms of Act 39 of 1967, as amended, with administration the responsibility of each province. There are important principles in the Act which have a direct bearing on the official languages in education. They are:

Article 2(1) The Minister may, after consultation with the Administrators and the council (National Education Advisory Council), from time to time determine the general policy which is to be pursued in respect of education in schools, within the framework of the following principles, namely, that -

- (a) the education in schools maintained, managed and controlled by a department of state (including a provincial administration) shall have a Christian character, but that the religious convictions of the parents and the pupils shall be respected in regard to religious instruction and religious ceremonies;
- (b) education shall have a broad national character;
- (c) the mother tongue, if it is English or Afrikaans, shall be the medium of instruction, with gradual equitable adjustment to this principle of any existing practice at variance therewith;
- (f) education shall be provided in accordance with the ability and aptitude of and interest shown by the pupil, and the needs of the country, and that appropriate guidance shall, with due regard thereto, be furnished to pupils;
- (g) co-ordination on a national basis, of syllabuses, courses and examination standards and research, investigation and planning in the field of education shall be effected, regard being had to the advisability of maintaining such diversity as the circumstances may require.

With regard to Natal the Education Ordinance No. 46/1969, as amended stipulates the following with respect to the medium of instruction:

- 14 (1) The medium of instruction of every pupil admitted to a Government or Government-aided school prior to the 1st day of January 1970, shall be that official language chosen by

the parent.

- (2) As from the commencement of the 1970 school year the medium of instruction of every pupil admitted to a Government or Government-aided school for the first time shall be the mother tongue of the pupil.
- (3) The medium of instruction of pupils in the ninth and tenth standards shall be the official language chosen by the parents.
- (4) The mother tongue shall be the official language in which the pupil is more proficient.
- (5) The principal shall investigate the language proficiency of a pupil admitted to a Government or Government-aided school for the first time.
- (6) The medium of instruction of a pupil whose home language is neither English nor Afrikaans shall be the official language which the pupil knows or understands better.
- (7) The medium of instruction of a pupil who does not know or understand either English or Afrikaans shall be the official language chosen by the parent.
- (8) If a pupil is equally proficient in both official languages, his parents may choose his medium of instruction.

The Natal Education Ordinance 46/1969 (Clause 15(i)(a)) also stipulates that all pupils shall be taught both official languages. Provincial Notice No. 59/1955 dated 3/2/1955 (regulation under Natal Ordinance No. 23 of 1942) states inter alia the following with regard to second language teaching

1. The second official language shall be taught by the direct method, and for this purpose conversation lessons may be given on topics selected from other school subjects, current events and from every-day life.
2. Below Standard I the second official language may, with the approval of the Director, be taught by way of games and oral lessons. In these classes the duration of any one lesson shall not exceed 15 minutes.
3. In Standards I and II the minimum allocation of time to be devoted to the study of the second official language

shall be two and one-half hours per week, and the duration of no lesson shall exceed one-half hour. No written work shall be done below Standard II.

4. In Standards III to V (inclusive) the minimum allocation of time to be devoted to the study of the second official language shall be four hours per week.
5. In Standards VI to X (inclusive) the minimum allocation of time to be devoted to the study of the second official language shall be three hours and twenty minutes per week.
6. In all standards there will be at least one lesson in the second language every school day.

The fact that regulations prescribing method (clause 1 above), and time devoted to teaching the second language at the different levels at school, had to be promulgated, indicates that the position of the second language in the school curriculum was sensitive enough to require the support of legal authority.

The practical implementation of the policy defined by law is of course affected by the social climate of a particular community. The second language is particularly sensitive to this, because it has been an important issue in the social and political struggles between the Afrikaans- and English-speaking sections of the South African population.

Unlike Natal the other provinces in South Africa discourage the establishment of parallel-medium schools. They do not allow the official existence of schools in which the medium of instruction is other than one of the official languages. The general policy in this regard in South Africa is that

immigrants must lay no claim to State-run dual-medium schools where some of the teaching would be done through the medium of the ancestral tongue.

(Kloss, 1978: 30)

In Natal, however, such schools exist for German-speakers in

predominantly German-speaking communities. Both official languages are, nevertheless, compulsory.

The different interpretations given to the position of the second language in the education system in South Africa have their origins in differing philosophies of life, and therefore of education, which may be at variance with those of other groups in the heterogeneous society of South Africa. The two distinguishable philosophies that pervade thinking in education in South Africa may loosely be called those of the Afrikaner and those of the English-speaking South Africans, and these will now be broadly compared.

5. English-speaking South Africans and Afrikaners in Education in South Africa

The existence of two philosophies of education amongst White South Africans is a reality arising from historical and social (including economic) conditions. However, there is not necessarily a clear-cut division based on only language. Before a synopsis is given of the two main philosophies, recent developments related to these need to be summarised. These developments are likely to influence the course educational thinking will take in South Africa particularly when the trend towards polarisation on a language basis is taken into account.

Statements made in publications of certain teacher societies on the question of the course that education planning should take in future, have tended towards encouraging a distinct polarisation between Afrikaans-speaking and English-speaking educationists in South Africa. This is a most regrettable development and holds little good for education in future. It also re-awakens the battle-cries of yesteryear when the two language groups were struggling for social and political supremacy in South Africa.

The official organ of the Natal Teachers' Society, Mentor, has in recent editions (June 1983, 65: 2; April 1982, 64: 2; and as referred to in Mondstuk, a Transvaal teachers' journal, October 1982 No. 124) included articles and reports which are likely to have been offensive to many Afrikaans-speaking educationists. Much has been made of the allegedly insidious influence of the Broederbond, but such talk acts as a smokescreen to disdain for the Afrikaner philosophy of education. Mentor carried articles in which it was claimed that because of Broederbond conniving, senior posts in the Natal Education Department were given to Afrikaners. No mention was made, however, that the vast majority of English-speaking teachers have made little effort to become bilingual, thereby becoming eligible for promotion to the top posts.

The Natal Teachers' Society is not the only teachers' society prone to these practices, which surely antagonise Afrikaners. The Transvaal Teachers' Association, and teachers' societies of Black and Indian teachers have also been responsible lately for awakening sectarian sentiments to the detriment of Afrikaners. Such developments predictably affect attitudes to English-speaking South Africans and to the role of the English language, among Afrikaans-speaking teachers.

Since the two mainstream philosophies of White South Africans affect thinking and planning in education, and therefore the position of the second language in the curriculum, they will now be discussed in more detail.

5.1 The Education Philosophy of the Afrikaner

A strong mechanistic-behaviourist attitude focussing on Protestant Christian doctrine, as originally expounded by John Calvin, traditionally underlies the thinking of the Afrikaner in education. This attitude finds its roots in the belief that behaviour can, and should to a large extent be, regulated and ordered by controlling the

stimuli. This applies particularly to the context of parent/adult-child relationship in education.

Coetzee explains that: "Die Calvinistiese opvoeder is die onderwyser, 'n ouerlike gesagsdraer en 'n van Godswêl geroepene" (1960: 27). Moreover, according to Coetzee (ibid. 207) the Calvinist educator must regard it as his duty to transfer to the youth the Calvinist philosophy of life and awareness of the world. He explains, too, that the teacher's task is to convey to the youth that which is acceptable to his, i.e. the Calvinist, philosophy of life (idem.).

Recognition of the national-cultural Afrikaner heritage as the second pillar upon which the potentialities of children should be realised, is influential in the Afrikaner's philosophy of education. The Church, because of the promise made by the parents at the christening of the child, must be involved in the education of the child. In this regard Taute explains (1959: 281) that in the Calvinist view

Die Christen, soos die aanhanger van ander godsdienste, wil (verder) natuurlik nie sien dat sy kind deur enigiets wat in die skool plaasvind van sy geloof beroof word; intendeel, hy verlang dat die skool daartoe sal bydra om die godsdienstige lewe van die kind op te bou.

In practice, according to the philosophy, the Christian and National cultural bases cannot be separated. Hence this philosophy of education is known as "Christian-National Education".

One of the most important documents in which the Afrikaner philosophy of education is outlined is that published in February, 1948, by "Die Instituut vir Christelik-Nasionale Onderwys" under the auspices of the "Federasie van Afrikaanse Taal- en Kultuurverenigings". According to Coetzee (Rose and Turner, 1975: 119) the declaration issued by the Institute for Christian National Education (ICNO) was intended to be "a clarifying statement written for Afrikaners by Afrikaners". This declaration presents in outline form the basic tenets of the Afrikaner

philosophy of education. It is clear from the declaration that language is of central importance because as an institution of society it is significant in the development of the child, especially in terms of cultural heritage. The emphasis on language is noted in the following basic articles of the Christian-National education declaration:

Article I: Basis

We believe that the teaching of education of the children of white parents should occur on the basis of the life and world view of the parents. For Afrikaans-speaking children this means that they must be educated on the basis of the Christian-National life and world view of our nation. In this life and world view, the Christian and National principles are of basic significance and they aim at the propagation, protestation and development of the Christian and National being and nature of our nation. The Christian basis of this life and world view is grounded on the Holy Scriptures and expressed in Creeds of our three Afrikaans Churches.

(ibid. 120)

It is clear that the Christian-National charter lays great stress on religious education. It states quite unequivocally that religious education must be denominational in terms of the creeds of the three Afrikaner churches. Moreover, this declaration requires that all subjects must be taught in relation to the Calvinist doctrine.

Article 2: Christian Education.

In order to let the light of the revelation of God which is contained in the Scriptures shine in the school, we believe that religious instruction according to the Bible and our Creeds should be the key subject in school.

(ibid. 121)

The Afrikaner philosophy sees education as a medium for transmitting and propagating the national and cultural heritage of the Afrikaner people. Towards this end education must be the carrier of the national-cultural tradition of the Afrikaner people.

It is clear from the document cited that underpinning all thinking in the Afrikaner's philosophy of education is the Christian religion as

(seen from the Protestant Calvinistic point of interpretation), and that the Afrikaner's identity as a separate nation-people is based on this. This is borne out in the formulation of the aim of education given in Article 5 of the Christian-National charter:

Article 5: Aim of Teaching and Education

The essence (being) of the process of education as we see is this: that the younger generation should inherit what is good and beautiful and noble in the cultural possession of the nation, that the younger generation take over that possession according to their own gifts and needs and that they develop it further and expand it according to the life- and world-view of the nation.

(ibid. 122)

People imbued with a more open-ended, liberal tradition of thinking in education may find this philosophy too prescriptive and narrow. It is necessary, however, to see this philosophy of education in the context of the struggle that the Afrikaner has had to survive as a people and to create his own national identity. In many ways the philosophy may be seen as survivalist.

The Christian-National Education philosophy is explicit when it defines what should be included in the school curriculum. Article 6 of the charter makes it clear that all subjects shall be Christian and National in their bases, that the creeds of the three Afrikaner churches must be the only bases for religious instruction, and that

Article 6 (3) Mother Tongue.

We believe that the mother tongue is the basis of all teaching and education and that the mother-tongue should be the most important secular subject in school. It must also be the only medium in the teaching of all the other subjects, except in the case of other modern languages. Bilingualism cannot be set as the aim of teaching and a beginning can be made with the learning of the second official language only after the child is properly grounded in his mother-tongue and has acquired a sound understanding and knowledge of it.

(ibid. 123)

Article 6 of the Christian-National Education charter makes a

revealing observation about the second language which is clearly regarded as being not only of lesser importance than the mother tongue, but of little importance in the school curriculum. It would be accurate to interpret the spirit of this clause as regarding the study of English as an extra encumbrance on the Afrikaner child imposed upon him by the circumstances of society. However, at a Vereniging vir Christelik-Hoër Onderwys symposium held in 1981 van der Merwe (Mondstuk, Sept., 1981: 3) updates the Afrikaner attitude to the position of the second language in the school curriculum:

Ons moet medeburgers van 'n ander taalgroep verstaan. Hier kan die Christus-opdrag veel beteken: 'Jy moet jou naaste liefhê soos jouself'.

The publication of the C.N.E. charter occurred at a time when feelings between the two language groups were running high for it was shortly after the Second World War and the "imperialist" visit of the English royal family in 1947. Seen in this light and that of the struggle for survival against the governments dominated by English-speakers in the past, the Afrikaners in article 6 of the C.N.E. charter aimed at discouraging contact between the two language groups. Furthermore, the need for the Afrikaans language and culture to become strongly and firmly established with its own character and identity, provided a convincing motivation for C.N.E. philosophy.

The Afrikaner philosophy of education makes it clear that the structure of education should be patriarchal. This accords with the Protestantism of Calvin upon which the doctrine of the Afrikaner churches is based. Consequently, it appears that the Afrikaner believes that even in an open education system, open in the sense that it applies to a heterogenous society, some things should never be questioned: the authority of the Bible and complete acceptance of the traditional socio-political norms and the customs and nationalist values of the Afrikaner. A noted South African political historian, Scholtz, attributes the survival of the Afrikaner as a separate people to their patriarchal philosophy. He writes

vir die jong wordende Afrikaanse volk het die patriargale stelsel wat voortgeduur het een van die vernaamste behoudende faktore geword.

The very survival of the Afrikaner as a nation with own identity, culture, values, beliefs, customs and norms was seen largely to depend on the acceptance of the authority of the church and national heritage.

At an Education Volkskongres in Bloemfontein in 1982, Prof. van der Walt, of the Potchefstroom University for Higher Christian Education, in a lecture reported in the press at the time appealed for a revision of the Christian-National Education philosophy and concomitant policy. His argument was that this "lifebuoy" of Afrikaner education and identity, as he called it, had become misunderstood by the other language groups in the country, and that it symbolised to them Afrikaner domination. According to van der Walt, as reported, the Christian-National Education principles had become suspect to many non-Afrikaners who saw them as favouring the development and progress of the Afrikaner in society and education.

Van der Walt (as reported) expresses a fear by many non-Afrikaners: they see themselves in a position similar to that in which the Afrikaner was, prior to his assumption of political control in South Africa. This reversal of roles helps one appreciate the complexity of the bilingual nature of education in South Africa, seen against the background of different philosophies of education.

Rose and Turner (1975: 119) explain this suspicion thus:

The problem, as non-Afrikaner South Africans see it, is that what was intended as sectional may - through contemporary political Afrikaner dominance - become national.

Van den Berg (Mentor, Nov., 1982: 71) notes in support of this concern

that all central government education legislation since the C.N.E. declaration in 1948 "reveals a striking commitment to C.N.E. policy".

Despite the definite prescription of the original C.N.E. doctrine, recent developments in Afrikaner thinking suggest that the original rigidity of the philosophy is assuming a flexibility and adapting to modern requirements. Viljoen (1981: 76) appeals for greater awareness amongst the Afrikaners that they are part of a heterogenous people and, therefore, should make use of their love for their language to encourage other people to become one of them. Viljoen states

Die Afrikaner moet die gebruik van en liefde vir Afrikaans werklik van harte gun vir die nie-Afrikaners en veel meer daarvan bewus word dat Afrikaans nie meer die taal van slegs die Afrikanervolk kan bly nie.

Further to this Viljoen (1979: 14) makes a significant observation when he states that

Klem op eenheid van alle blanke Suid-Afrikaners het in die laaste tyd soms die valse indruk gewek dat beklemtoning van Afrikanerskap 'embarrasserend' is.

He stresses that the concepts "Afrikaner" and "South African" are not mutually exclusive.

5.2 The Education Philosophy of English-speaking South Africans

Included in the group known as ESSA, are the large number of South Africans who regard themselves as speakers of both languages. The latter are traditionally not part of the Afrikaner group because of their 'dilution' by the English language and culture. There is evidence, from sources which will be mentioned later, that English-speaking South Africans are inclined towards a "liberal tradition" of western thought in their philosophy of education, deriving ultimately from the philosophers of classical antiquity.

Plato, for example, reached the conclusion that education for specific purposes was never an end in itself. He saw education of the whole man as the ultimate goal:

For we are not speaking of education in his narrower sense, but of that other education in virtue from youth upwards, which makes a man eagerly pursue the ideal perfection of citizenship and teaches him rightly how to rule and obey.

(idem)

Both Plato and Aristotle (for example in his Metaphysics) have an open-ended approach to education, with a balance between education for specific purposes (e.g. a vocation) and education of the whole man, the latter being more important. The focus is on the realisation of the potential of the individual, without the imposition of constraints.

From the roots of western classical civilization in Greece, through the centuries, great philosophers and liberal thinkers have influenced philosophies of education. These include St. Augustine, John Locke, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, John Stuart Mill, Hegel, Kant, and W. James (Great Books of the Western World, 1952, Vols. 18,35,38,42,43,46,53) and John Dewey. It is in the ethos of this liberal philosophy of life and education that many English-speaking South Africans still find their spiritual home, and the basis for their philosophy of education. A common thread in the thinking of this tradition is a stress on individual responsibility and a rejection of stereotyping. Personal autonomy is of ultimate importance.

An accurate overview of the philosophy of education befitting English-speaking South Africans is difficult, for, by their very nature they reject classification, and, secondly, their composition is heterogeneous. In 1960 Coetzee (Rose and Turner, 1975: 117) stated

In the history of education of South Africa very little has been done in developing a pertinent English South African philosophy of education.

Of late, however, English-speaking teacher societies in particular have been giving careful thought to the formulation of a philosophy of education generally acceptable to English-speaking South Africans. An acceptable interpretation of their philosophy of education could be summed up as follows:

Looking at the whole of a question, without restrictions or simplifications; looking at ends and purposes, not merely at methods and means, and scrutinizing the latter in the light of the former.

(Thomson, 1957: 11)

Thomson exposes an essential point of difference between the Afrikaner and English-speaking South African philosophies of education, when he explains that a philosophy of education "implies a scepticism of much that the popular mind accepts as unquestioned, and a delay of judgement until the whole matter has been thought out" (idem). This rejects the imposition of certain doctrines, norms and beliefs which underpin C.N.E. philosophy.

It may be suggested that permeating the philosophy of education of the English-speaking South Africans is a striving towards

the development of the individual as rational, humane, compassionate and tolerant, who, having formed his own convictions and guided by them, is prepared to live as a reasonable citizen in South Africa.

(Mentor, March 1980: 78)

It is perhaps fair to assume that generally-speaking, English-speaking South Africans as a group, attach more importance to the individual per se, as opposed to the individual as a member of a group. The individual's right to realise his potential, the inculcation of tolerance and a spirit of reasonableness, are the cornerstones of the educational philosophy acceptable to most English-speaking South Africans.

In contrast to the Afrikaner philosophy, that proposed by the Natal

Teachers' Society (idem) states

A state school's official position should be conscientiously neutral in all highly controversial areas including religious dogma.

The Natal Teachers' Society document sees religion as an essential part of education, provided that it is dealt with in a non-sectarian manner. Nevertheless, consistent with their liberal approach, the Natal Teachers' Society recognizes that communities have the right to establish sectarian schools.

In an effort to define a philosophy of education for English-speaking South Africans, the Johannesburg College of Education conducted a survey amongst English-medium institutions of education. Arising from the responses the following aim was formulated"

education must cater more for the personal needs of the individual child, than for the needs of the state (South African Journal of Education, Vol. 2 No 1/2, 1982: 38).

The results of the survey suggest that English-speaking South Africans tend to favour seeking out values, rather than having them imposed upon them. Although the validity of the survey may be open to question, it is the only recent exercise which provides some indication of what a sample of teachers in South Africa regard as a philosophy of education appropriate to the thinking of English-speaking South Africans.

The Johannesburg College of Education survey shows that the concept "growth of the whole child" is basic to the philosophy. In response to a statement that "the education of 'the whole child' is modernistic nonsense", 95,2% of the teachers disagreed. This rejection of the statement leaves little doubt about the attitude of many English-speaking teachers to education.

The survey cited suggests that the philosophy of English-speaking

South African teachers differs from that of their Afrikaans-speaking counterparts, bearing in mind the proviso previously mentioned that there are not clearly demarcated philosophical divisions based on language. English-speaking teachers do not, for example, "see the teacher as an agent for inculcating the views or interests of the state" (idem). The survey suggests too that English-speaking teachers "want more autonomy for the persons concerned in the educational situation, and less control by the state or education authorities" (idem). The validity of this conclusion from the survey is open to much doubt, because of the limited number of questionnaires involved.

These comments on English-speaking South Africans and their philosophy of education are not necessarily an accurate description. They are, however, a general indication of what English-speakers concerned with education think. The Johannesburg College of Education survey indicated a high degree of agreement amongst the respondents on aims in education. This suggests that a general philosophy does exist although it still needs to be refined and clearly defined.

An important feature of the philosophy of education of English-speaking South Africans which should be mentioned for the purposes of this study is that, although it lays much emphasis on the value of flexibility of thought and the rejection of bigoted and narrow sectarian prejudice, this philosophy accepts the existence of definable norms. It is the pursuit of truth which accepts that "ultimate values exist and individual man is required to seek out and conform to them" (Mentor, March 1980: 68), which provides this philosophy of education with the force and direction it needs to be meaningful as a basis for the formulation of aims and curriculum planning.

In general, English-speakers tend to see formal schooling against a world backdrop. The limitations of nationalism are rejected as too narrow and restrictive. For example,

the school should offer a range of activities designed to help pupils comprehend the world and themselves.

(idem)

This is a clear recognition that South Africa is inextricably part of the world community, something which is generally regarded as of minor importance by the Afrikaner with his intense concern for his national uniqueness.

A significant recent development is the inclusion in the De Lange Report of the following principle:

Education shall afford positive recognition of what is common as well as what is diverse in the religious and cultural way of life and the languages of the inhabitants.

(1981: 14)

This recognition of the religious, linguistic and cultural heterogeneity of South African society has far-reaching implications for education in the years to come.

6. The Significance of the existence of two different philosophies of education in South Africa

The historical background to the evolution of the Afrikaner philosophy of education in this chapter, followed by a short summary of the education philosophies of the two main White groups in South Africa, confirms the complex background to the teaching of a second language in this country. The implications of this are important since they affect planning towards an effective approach to the teaching of English as a second language.

In this chapter mention was made of the unhappy tendency towards polarisation between the two language groups, partially as a result of political developments and partially because of statements made in some publications.

The main concern of this study, the teaching of English Second Language, cannot be divorced from developments in education in South Africa. One of the most serious problems in teaching the subject is the lack of adequate staff. Hartshorne (1966: 3) notes that

The English-speaking community appears to have difficulty in providing enough teachers even for its own schools, and therefore English will continue to be taught in Afrikaans and Bantu schools by non-English speakers.

More recently, Dennis Etheredge, Chairman of the Centre for Continuing Education and a Director of Anglo-American, stated in a speech that "only 25% of all teachers employed by the Transvaal (Education Department) have English as a home language" (Reported in the Sunday Times, 3 July 1983, p.18). This statement led to prolonged correspondence on why English-speaking South Africans do not enter teaching. The remarks made by Hartshorne and Etheredge link with a reaction by the chairman of the Transvaalse Onderwysersvereniging, the largest White teachers' society in South Africa, to Transvaal Teacher Association statements which were interpreted as anti-Afrikaner. In the October 1982 edition of the T.O. journal, the chairman stated the following:

Die Engelssprekende moet hom liewer in groot erns bepaal by die kinders van die Engelssprekende gemeenskap en ook die mannekrag daarvoor uit eie geledere voorsien.

(Mondstuk, October, 1982: 4)

The view thus expressed suggests that an urgent investigation into the reasons why English-speaking teachers (particularly of English, whether as first or second language) are not readily available in South Africa is required. The shortage of suitable teachers is clearly an urgent problem in the teaching of English Second Language.

To regard English as merely another subject for inclusion in the curriculum would be misinterpreting the delicate balance between the philosophies of the two white language groups. In incorporating the

subject into the curriculum various important factors have to be seriously considered, for they have a bearing on whether the teaching of English as second language will be successful. Much of the present study will be devoted to examining why the problem exists, and suggesting possible solutions.

CHAPTER 4

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

1. Introduction

Earlier in the present study, the point that a particular epistemology finds reflection in a philosophy of education was noted. Such epistemology understandably provides order and direction in the development of curricula, which in turn give expression to the ideas underpinning the education system. Media for transmitting the knowledge-system intrinsic in the system of education are the curricula, syllabuses, teachers, textbooks, supervisory and inspection services, and the various pressure groups which may have an influence on education in a particular society. The sensitivity relating to the position of the second language in an education system, examined in chapters two and three of this study, emphasises the importance of an awareness of the influences and attitudes affecting it. The position of the second language, particularly English as a second language, in the curricula of selected areas of the world will be examined to illustrate the complexity of the position.

2. English as a second language in Wales

Wales is in many respects similar to parts of South Africa in respect of the incorporation of the second language in the education system.

The question of English as a second language in Wales has been the focus of studies, surveys and decrees stretching back as far as 1536, when Henry VIII, in an Act of Union, stated that it was his intention to

'reduce them (the Welsh to the perfect Order, Notice and Knowledge of His Laws of this His Realm and utterly to extirpate all singular and sinister usages and customs differing from the same....'

(Lewis, 1981: 99)

More than four centuries later, in 1962, a government report stated that "English has been the only official language in Wales since the Act of Union of England and Wales, 1536 (Stern, 1969: 21)".

The fact that the Welsh language was for so long not even given recognition as a possible second language, stems from the belief in Henry VIII's time that Welsh was considered one of the "singular and sinister usages (Lewis, 1981: 99)" of the Welsh people.

Henry VIII further enacted that "henceforth no person or persons that use the Welsh speech or language shall have or enjoy any manner of office or offices within the realm." (idem). As Aucamp observes "With the Reformation Movement of Henry VIII, English was made not only the political but also the religious language of Wales" (Aucamp, 1926: 18).

Even in the reign of Elizabeth I unceasing efforts were made to squash the Welsh language. In this regard the Church played a very influential role because as Lewis states (1981: 99) "at all levels, from bishops to the parish priest, the Welsh language was denied a place". There was, however, considerable resistance to these efforts. Proof that a people's vernacular dies hard lies in the fact that until 1860 Church notices appeared in both English and Welsh because a large percentage of the population in certain regions was unilingually Welsh-speaking. (idem)

In 1921 the population census showed that of the over 2,5 million people in Monmouth and Wales 38% could speak Welsh, and 59% English. 30% were bilingual, and Welsh speakers accounted for only 6% of the total population in these two regions of Britain (Aucamp, 1926:

18 and 19). Fifty years later the census of 1971 (total population 2,7 million) showed that vast areas of Wales were inhabited by people who still spoke Welsh as their mother tongue (Lewis, 1981: 108, and Sharp, 1973: 19 and 20). These figures show that despite strict laws and social pressure against the use of the Welsh tongue it survived over four centuries, until 1965 when the British Government adopted the principle of "equal validity for Welsh and English in Wales" (Stern, 1969: 21).

The population figures showing the distribution of Welsh-speakers throughout Wales are important for they help to illustrate the complexity of the language issue in Wales. This complexity finds its roots in the heterogeneous make-up of the population distribution in respect of speakers of English and Welsh as first languages. Furthermore, this complexity has its bearing on the design of the education system in Wales, especially with regard to the teaching of English and Welsh, both as first and second languages.

With regard to the teaching of Welsh as a second language Mercer (1981: 153) points out that the discipline has until recently been the step-child of the education system in Wales, taught on an ad hoc basis. She observes that

even Britain's own indigenous minority languages (Welsh and Gaelic) have historically been given little or no place in the school curriculum and a policy of standardisation towards English is maintained.

(idem)

In the reverse situation, the teaching of English to Welsh-speaking children, there is likewise very little attention to theoretical basis. As Sharp explains,

the learning of English by Welsh children is not firmly based on linguistic studies, it is not carefully planned over a period of years, and it depends on the special interest and enthusiasm of a teacher, or group of teachers in an area, or of a language organiser.

(1973: 18)

The point which emerges is that where the teaching of a second language lacks planning or thorough organization, it is not likely to be very effective. The impact of the Industrial Revolution with the resultant migration into Wales of hundreds of thousands of English-speakers, mainly from England, upset the numerical balance between the Welsh- and English-speaking inhabitants of Wales. Lewis (1981: 103) explains: "the rural counties have traditionally been regarded as bulwarks of the Welsh language". Moreover, these regions are also "heavy losers by out-migration almost from the beginning of the era of intense industrialization in 1950" (idem). Lewis (ibid. 111) quotes figures which indicate that between 1861 and 1911 the "ration of non-native-born fluctuated slightly between 38 and 34 percent". After this there was a slight drop-off because migration into Wales virtually ceased but nevertheless, "the Welsh language continued to decline because the second and third generation migrants - though native-born were predominantly, if not exclusively, English-speaking" (idem).

Trudgill (1980: 130) states that Welsh "is the first language of about a quarter of the population of Wales". Lewis, too, points out (1981: 118) that in 1961 only one-quarter of the total population in Wales could be considered to be bilingual and he adds "the decline in the proportion of monolingual speakers of Welsh has been extraordinary - from 540 000 in 1891 to 26 000 in 1961" (idem). Monolingual speakers of English on the other hand increased from "from 41% in 1891 to 74% in 1961" (idem).

Lewis explains that it is clear that the bilingual inequality amongst Welsh-speakers is on the increase, and it appears that the Welsh language as a medium of communication will be kept viable only by means of artificial measures (idem). In support Stern (1967: 36) observes:

In Wales English has a dominant position and leaders in Welsh opinion have for some time been concerned about the decline of the Welsh language. Accepting realistically the view that

a knowledge of English as well as Welsh is necessary, the cultivation of an early Welsh-English bilingualism through the schools has come to be adopted. The Gittins Report reached the conclusion that attitudes to early bilingualism are generally favourable (Schools Council: Committee for Wales, 1972: 10). Furthermore, this report states that "each local education authority should set up at least one experimental Bilingual School" (*idem*), with a view to encouraging and extending the use of the Welsh language.

Stern's observation, quoted above, is an excellent example of how the demands on an education system affect the definition of aims in the teaching of a subject such as the second language. It should be observed that the aim of "an early Welsh-English bilingualism through the schools (Stern, 1967: 36)" would come in for much criticism from linguists who feel that the acquisition of the mother tongue is paramount, and that bilinguality is of secondary importance. Helen and Harold Friedman (1982: 14) stated in this regard

that a child must attain a threshold level of competence in the target language to be able to profit from instruction in that language and that development of second language skills is dependent upon the adequate development of mother tongue skills.

The point, however, is that sociological, political and practical considerations have their impact on the educational perspectives forming the foundation upon which the curriculum and the second language syllabuses are based. Wales provides us with an excellent example.

A closer examination of the position of the English and Welsh languages, and the relationship between them in Wales, will help to sketch the background which is necessary for an understanding of why certain policies and approaches have been adopted in the teaching of both English and Welsh as second languages in Wales.

In Wales there appears to be a fluid and ever-changing pattern of relationships between English and Welsh. This explains why a number of different policies apply to both second and first language

clearer picture so that some useful and interesting comparisons with South Africa may be drawn.

A fundamental feature which drastically affects the formulation of an education policy is the fact that the percentage of Welsh-speakers in Wales ranges from 3% to 81% depending upon locality. In practice, therefore, "the linguistic background of the area in which the school is placed" (Sharp, 1973: 20) determines to a large extent the language policy with regard to bilingual education. By "linguistic background" Sharp apparently means the language environment from which pupils come, i.e. whether English- or Welsh-speaking. Sharp adds that

the teaching medium is determined by the process where the groups are homogeneous or divided naturally into first language groups of approximately class size, but the difficulties arise when the minority group is not large enough to be treated as a separate unit.

(ibid. 20/21)

What complicates the position in Wales is the fact that "many older people today, while being fluent speakers of Welsh, have never learned to write it" (Trudgill, 1980: 125). This situation has had its repercussions on the growth of the Welsh language because there has been a decline in the number of works of literature as well as textbooks on the teaching of Welsh.

However, an awareness of being Welsh has become apparent in Wales since the early 1960's, and concerted efforts are being made through the education system to help the Welsh language regain its former strength in relation to the English language. This makes for interesting and significant comparisons between developments in Wales and those in the United States of America and South Africa. We shall see, for example, when the bilingual education policies in South Africa and the United States of America are compared, that the status of the second language in the school curriculum affects its growth and importance throughout the society.

Sharp explains that

Welsh, the language of the minority, though historically the national language, has had to press its claims forcefully in order to survive and, hopefully, to develop.

(Sharp, 1973: 21)

In support of an awakening in Wales of a conscious support for the Welsh language, the Schools Council Committee for Wales notes that

over the period 1947 - 1970 the remarkable growth of the new 'Welsh Schools', now 43 in number, which were established in predominantly English-speaking areas, provides evidence of a general will amongst the Welsh to extend their language.

(Schools Council Committee for Wales, 1972: 13)

In his comprehensive study Stern (1967: 37) alludes to the struggle by Welsh for survival, when he explains that

Towards the end of the century (19th cen.) some leaders of Welsh opinion became concerned about the decline of the national language and gradually secured a place for it in the system of education. By 1907 the Board of Education expressed a 'wish that every Welsh teacher should realise the educational value of the Welsh language' and its code of Regulations stated 'The curriculum should, as a rule, include the Welsh language Where Welsh is the mother tongue of the infants, that language should be the medium of instruction in the classes'. The next step towards bilingualism was the advocating of the teaching of Welsh as a subject to pupils in English-medium schools from the age of seven upwards.

From this brief survey of the background to the relationship between Welsh and English in Wales, it is clear that the matter is emotionally charged. There has been, for example "an emotional reaction against and comparative neglect of English which, it is argued, is strong enough to take care of itself" (ibid. 21).

Nevertheless, English is essential to almost all Welsh-speakers in all avenues of life. Hence the inclusion of English in the education system is generally accepted by Welsh-speakers, but the form it takes depends on the learner's geographical location in Wales. As Lewis (1981: 119) explains

The first dimension is the proportion of the Welsh-speaking to the total population in the several localities. This is the measure of the local or regional density of Welsh speech, and is referred to as the 'intensity index'. The second dimension is the proportion of the national total of speakers of Welsh represented in any area, and this is what is designated as the 'distribution index'.

These two dimensions have been fundamental factors in the formulation of the education policy appertaining to the teaching of four languages: English first and second language, and Welsh first and second language.

In the light of the dimensions identified by Lewis, the formulation of a unitary policy for the second languages has been well-nigh impossible, although under the circumstances it would be educationally undesirable to have a unitary policy in English Second Language. In fact, the complexity has spilled over in to the field of teaching both English and Welsh as first languages. Sharp states:

English in the schools of Wales embraces both first and second language approaches, though except in the early stages and for the purposes of discussion, these cannot be completely separated, for they merge increasingly as the child's proficiency in English develops.

(Sharp, 1973: 21)

This statement sums up what occurs in Welsh education with respect to the teaching of languages in Wales.

In 1953 a report issued by the Ministry of Education "suggested that all children in Wales should be taught both Welsh and English" (Trudgill, 1980: 136). Although the bilingual policy has been generally accepted, a pragmatic approach to its implementation is dictated by the complexity of the situation in Wales. Trudgill explains

Generally, however, one can say that in most parts of Wales, whether anglicized or not, one can find some schools at both primary and secondary level where Welsh is taught only as a subject, others where it is used as a medium along with English, and others where Welsh is the only medium and

English is taught as a subject.

(idem)

The Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education (Wales): Primary Education in Wales (The Gittins Report), 1967, reached the following conclusions (quoted by Sharp, 1973: 22)

Although a Welshman is what he is without the language, since he takes part in the ways of life and traditions of Wales, and vicariously lives in the language, he would, we feel, be a fuller Welshman if he possessed his ancestral tongue.

The compilers of the report, nevertheless, appreciated the complexity of the language-in-education situation in Wales, and consequently the formulation and implementation of policy was left to each Local Education Authority. The Schools' Council Research and Development Project on "Attitudes to and motivation for the learning of Welsh and English in Wales" conducted two years after the publication of the Gittins Report, showed that all Local Education Authorities either had or were in the process of formulating an education policy in regard to the teaching of the Welsh and English languages.

Local Education Authorities in Wales adapt the practical implementation of education policy with regard to second language to suit local circumstances. In terms of Welsh as a second language one of the most serious problems confronting the education authorities is to find teachers qualified to teach Welsh. Other Local Education Authorities, for example, have established "bilingual schools or classes where there was a demand, and that a thorough knowledge of language teaching methods and techniques" (Sharp, 1973: 23) is found amongst available staff.

One Local Education Authority adopted a policy similar in ways to that in operation in South Africa. Sharp explains that this particular Local Education Authority

stated that the language better known to the child on admission should be the main medium of instruction for that child, but that the minor language should be introduced

orally at the age of five and used increasingly as a medium of instruction for some other subjects.

(idem)

However, in Wales, the two language groups are kept together in bilingual schools, whereas in South Africa, especially in provinces other than Natal, bilingual schools are strongly discouraged.

As a general observation the aim of most of the Local Education Authorities in Wales in respect of the second language is to educate the primary school pupil in his second language (usually Welsh!) so that when he proceeds to secondary school he should have acquired reasonable facility in it. The aims set in the secondary school in second language are somewhat ambitious, requiring that the pupil should have attained complete bilinguality on leaving school. The aims briefly referred to above are praiseworthy, but as Sharp (1973: 24) points out

The effectiveness of language policy depends just as much on what happens in the latter stages (of schooling), and it could be suggested that far too much attention has been given to the initial stages.

This criticism touches on an issue in second language teaching about which finality has yet to be reached: the stage at which the teaching of the second language should be formally introduced into the curriculum.

The policy in secondary schools in Wales again depends on the Local Education Authority's interpretation of the needs of the community served. Sharp explains that

classes were organised in one of two ways, either separately for Welsh first language and Welsh second language pupils, or in mixed groups. Schools in Welsh areas tended to adopt the first method, whereas mixed language groupings were usual in the anglicized areas, where the percentage of fluent Welsh speakers was very small.

(idem)

Some schools, for example, are bilingual throughout and "in most

schools using Welsh certain classes are taught through this medium while parallel-medium classes are taught in English" (idem).

Earlier in the present study considerable time was devoted to explaining how attitudes and emotions with their roots in history, affect the position of the second language in an education system. Such effects are clearly evident in Wales. Migration, mainly from England, and industrialization in Wales, virtually swamped the Welsh tongue into extinction in some areas. A study conducted by Hechter concluded that

the industrial context from 1921 onwards begins to explain increasingly more of the decline in Welsh speaking with time. On the other hand the effect of English migration tends to be muted over time. By 1951 industrialization explains relatively more of the decline in Welsh speaking than does English migration.

(Lewis, 1981: 127)

The "Attitudes Project of 1969" conducted two years after the Gittins Report, brought to light an interesting development which further alarmed the Welsh nationals who were fighting for the survival of their language. This project showed that

as the pupils grow older their attitude to Welsh tends to become less favourable. Thus the learning situation for English improves with age certainly as far as motivation is concerned.

(Sharp, 1973: 26)

However, perhaps the most significant finding of the survey was that

The pupil's linguistic background proved to be the most highly significant source of variation in attitudes, and of those variables examined it is the only one capable of being modified in the school by policy decisions.

(idem)

The attitude of teaching staff to a second language is obviously very important. In a country like Wales, where the vernacular has in effect become the second language in most areas, very few people do not appreciate the tremendous importance of being fully proficient in English. Antagonism towards English is thus rare among teachers.

An ideal in second language teaching is to enable the learner to speak the language with a facility equal to his use of the first language. However, this can only remain an ideal, because even in a small country like Wales there are a multiplicity of complicating factors which make the formulation of an effective method for teaching second language very difficult.

3. English as a second language in the United States of America

The influence of the United States of America on the teaching of English as another language came to the fore about twenty years ago. A strong impetus was the Second World War. However, there had long been a growing concern in the United States about the teaching of English to millions of non-English-speaking immigrants who entered the country after the First World War and again during and after the Great Depression. The heterogenous nature of the population made any solutions complex, since the mother tongue of the target group varied considerably from region to region, and, frequently, even within an area. This necessitated adapting approaches to the needs of each particular language group, e.g. the Mexican cotton-pickers required a very limited knowledge of social English which would enable them to perform the restricted tasks for which they had come to the United States of America. On the other hand, the immigrants who settled in urban areas mainly (Italians, French, Germans, Poles) needed to acquire a standard of English which would enable them to communicate at a fairly sophisticated level, particularly in commerce, trade and industry. (Steyn, 1980: 92)

The impact of the remarkable process of anglicization of immigrants in the United States can be appreciated when the magnitude of the task is examined. For example, 20 years ago the number of school-going people whose mother tongue was not English exceeded 3 million (Bishop, 1971: 305). The following table taken from Time magazine, (June 1983: 20) illustrates how the flood of immigrants from non-English-speaking nations continues apace:

<u>Nation</u>	<u>1983</u>	<u>1970</u>
Mexicans	2,1 million	822 300
Iranians	200 000	20 000
Salvadorans	200 000	-
Japanese	175 000	104 000
Armenians	175 000	75 000
Chinese	153 000	41 000
Koreans	150 000	8 900
Filipinos	150 000	33 500
Arab Americans	130 000	45 000
Israelis	90 000	10 000
Samoans	60 000	22 000
Guatemalans	50 000	-
Vietnamese	40 000	-

The difficult task facing teachers of English as a second language in the United States is complicated by the fact that English is the medium of instruction in all state schools. However, the Bilingual Education Act stimulated interest and provided support for 130 bilingual education programmes in the United States of America (Tucker and d'Anglejan, 1973: 37). Apparently, "Most of these programmes are characterised by the use of English and a local vernacular (e.g. French, Spanish, Navajo) as the media of instruction during some portion of the school day" (idem).

The new world of the Americas had had to meet the challenge of numerous immigrants of different nationalities since its early history. With the colonisation of America, the main language groups among the immigrants were Spanish, French, and English. The colonies which had mainly English-speaking immigrants soon assumed English as the official and unofficial language of communication. With massive immigration in the 18th, 19th and 20th centuries, the population of the colonies, and later of the United States of America, increased dramatically. For example, between 1881 and 1890 five million Europeans immigrated to the United States of America, and in each decade thereafter until the 1920's an average of about one million immigrants entered the United States (Steyn, 1980: 51). This huge

influx was integrated into the various education systems in the United States by using what is commonly called the "melting-pot" approach. This approach "decreed that foreign speaking children be taught solely in English to speed their assimilation into the mainstream" (Time, 1978: 41). The anglicization of the millions of non-English-speakers occurred in a remarkably short time. The acculturation of immigrants was facilitated by their acceptance of the American modus vivendi which "placed them on the road to accepting American life-styles, customs, and the English language" (Foster, 1982: 324). Steyn attributes the remarkable pace of the anglicization of the immigrants to the education system (Steyn, 1980: 51). In support he mentions that in New Mexico, although only 5% of the population was English-speaking only, 69% Spanish-speaking only, and 26% bilingual, a law was promulgated in 1891 to compel all schools to teach through the medium of English only. By 1903 fourteen states had adopted the "English only" policy, ten years later there were 17 states, and by 1923 half of the states of the United States followed suit.

Bilingual education programmes as an alternative to the "melting-pot" approach developed in other states in an effort to cope with the huge numbers of non-English-speakers in the United States (Foster, 1982: 342). These large numbers could not benefit from English-medium instruction, and excited democratic political pressure to change the system.

The official purpose of the federal bilingual programs is to help foreign-speaking children use their native tongue to learn English rapidly, then switch to a regular school program.

(Time, 1978: 41)

These programmes were, in many cases, introduced after much controversy. With a change to Republican government the programmes came under scrutiny and in March 1981 President Reagan

charged bilingual programs with deliberately impeding the acquisition of English skills among minority groups and thereby limiting their vocational preparation.

(Foster, 1982: 342)

There is still considerable controversy around the effectiveness of the bilingual programmes, with most educationists supporting the use

of the mother tongue (as the medium of instruction), at least in the first few years of formal schooling. Andersson and Boyer explain that

the meeting of two languages and the clash of cultures created tensions, which the Bilingual Education Act is designed to alleviate and can perhaps alleviate if it is expanded and adequately funded.

(Andersson & Boyer, 1970, Vol I, p.v)

The position in the United States in respect of the teaching of English as a second or foreign language has remained fluid over the years, and, in fact, vast sums of money have been invested in projects to assist teachers of the subject.

Numerous organisations such as the Office of Education, the Bureau of Indian Affairs, the National Defense Act Institutes, and professional organisations such as TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) have instigated various experiments and programmes related to the effective teaching of English as another language. Most efforts have been directed at the primary and secondary levels, but the programme for adult groups (those requiring a working knowledge of English, i.e. English for specific purposes) have also received considerable attention of late (Foster, 1982: 342 - 344; Time, June 1983: 20).

As is the case in Wales, the position of English as a second and/or other language in the United States education systems is difficult to place in terms of mandatory policy because each state, and frequently each county in a state, has discretion in terms of education policy.

According to Stern (1967:48-49) the majority of parents have avoided optional bilingual programmes where these occur. The Bilingual Education Act of 1967 was intended to

conserve our (the United States) language resources and to advance the learning of the child, irrespective of the language.

(Andersson and Boyer, 1970: Vol. I, v)

This Act has had an effect on bilingual education in the United States, for in a study conducted in 1980 it was found that "Twelve states require bilingual education programs, 19 states allow them, and 3 states forbid such programs entirely" (Nickel, 1982: 638). However, legislation was being promulgated at the time of the survey (1980) to legalise bilingual education in the three states which forbade it (idem). Nickel's survey reveals, too, that "the remaining 18 states have no law that applies specifically to bilingual education" (idem), and that by 1980 26 states were providing financial support for bilingual programmes.

According to Lewis (1981: 367) there are two basic approaches to bilingual education in the United States of America:

The first is concerned with institutional aspects - what kind of schooling may rightly be regarded as bilingual. The second approach is concerned with individual or developmental aspects - what kind of program for a particular child, looked at over a period of four or five years or more, constitutes a satisfactory bilingual education.

Lewis elaborates on these two approaches by quoting a definition given in the original Draft Guidelines to the Bilingual Education Programs:

Bilingual education is instruction in two languages and the use of those two languages as mediums of instruction for any or all of the school curriculum.

(idem)

In 1974 a rider was added to this definition to the effect that

The term 'program of bilingual education' means a program of instruction designed for children of limited English-speaking ability in elementary or secondary schools with respect to the years of study to which such program is applicable. There is instruction given in and a study made of English to the extent necessary to allow a child to progress effectively through the educational system, as well

as in the native language of the children of limited English-speaking ability with appreciation for cultural heritage.

(ibid. 368)

This rider has had an important influence on the teaching of both English and other languages in the United States. Its significance lies in the fact that it recognises that instruction through the medium of the mother tongue is educationally sound. The melting-pot theory is currently seen as educationally unsound, although it may have been politically expedient. Comparisons with other countries which have educational systems which incorporate a bilingual programme, show clearly the need for two essentials:

- the recognition and acknowledgement that in any bilingual education programme the mother tongue should be the language of instruction, especially in the initial stages;
- once a degree of proficiency has been attained in the other tongue, it may be used as the medium of instruction, but this should be introduced gradually.

The term bilingual education, as used in the United States, describes a programme in which some of the tuition (other than the second or other languages) occurs through the medium of the second or other language (Beveridge, 1982: 214), a process discouraged in South Africa where the second language is taught as a separate subject for one period a day, all other instruction being through the medium of the mother tongue.

The two basic essentials suggested for the formulation of a bilingual programme should be seen in the context of a particular country or community. Thus the bilingual programmes in the United States must be seen against the fact that that country has only one official language. In South Africa, on the other hand, bilingual programmes are not allowed, although there are two official languages. The situation in Canada is different, which shows that educational authorities (inevitably acting on political decisions) find different solutions to the same problem.

The massive area of the United States, the diversity of its immigrant population, and the varying needs of the people in respect of proficiency in English, all contribute to a complex and changing picture of the position of second language teaching in the numerous education systems.

Foster identifies six major language groups for which education programmes have to be designed in the United States (1982: 343):

- (i) immigrants who are unable to speak English;
- (ii) children from non-English-speaking homes in the United States;
- (iii) children bilingual in English and one of a variety of other languages, e.g. German, Italian, French;
- (iv) children literate in English but lacking competence in the language of their parents;
- (v) children with very limited competence in English, their mother-tongue;
- (vi) the vast majority of children, able to speak English only.

With this complex position it is not surprising that numerous bilingual education programmes have been tried in the United States of America. This in turn has focused attention on the training of second language teachers. Nickel's survey in 1980 showed that most states identified the following areas as very important in the training of teachers for bilingual programmes:

1. fluency in the second language,
2. training in the teaching of English as a second language, and
3. sensitivity to the culture of customs associated with the second language.

(Nickel, 1982: 638)

There is still considerable opposition to bilingual education programmes. One reason is that there is an alleged danger that the educational needs of one cultural group may be subordinated to that of

the dominant group from whom qualified teaching staff would be available. The aim of the programmes is of course to avoid such domination. (Lewis: 1981). Another disadvantage of bilingual education programmes is that they tend to encourage separation into group identity instead of common nationalism. For example, the Soviet Union deliberately introduced bilingual education programmes to emphasize differences between people within its borders and those with the same language but outside of the U.S.S.R. (Lewis, 1981: 13). Consequently much experimentation is taking place to help arrive at an effective system of education to accommodate the increasing numbers of people who are required to learn a second language. One experiment in bilingual education was the Coral Way Elementary School Experiment in Miami, Florida. This experiment was one of the first in bilingual education in the United States. An article in Time magazine, February 1978 (41) explains:

In Miami's Coral Way Elementary School, which inaugurated the bicultural method to cope with the huge influx of refugees from Cuba in 1963, all students study for half a day in Spanish and the other half in English.

The curriculum formulation in this experiment was preceded by thorough planning and careful preparation in discussion groups involving the principals, members of the county committees and the teachers. Consequently carefully programmed courses for English Second Language and Spanish Second Language were planned and appropriate methodology devised. Considerable stress was laid on across-the-curriculum contact between the second language and other subjects, e.g. Science, Music, Maths, Art and Physical Education, because "in these areas intracultural relations would be initially the greatest" (Stern, 1967: 115). The rationale used here and the objective of across-the-curriculum integration of subjects has its parallel in the first language where modern practice is to adopt this integrated approach.

The Coral Way Experiment helped focus attention on three important factors which seem essential for the success of a bilingual programme

in an education system:

1. the programme must be designed and tailored to fit the school and the community;
2. the teachers must be educated in their first language and trained in the use of modern pedagogical practices;
3. ample time must be provided for detailed planning and correlation of the instructional programmes.

(Stern, 1967: 111)

It is submitted that these factors are important in any situation where a second language is a compulsory part of the curriculum, although the addition of the need for specialised training to teach the second language would be necessary. As the present study progresses the significance of these factors to the teaching of English Second Language in South Africa, and Natal in particular, will be demonstrated.

This short overview of the position of second language teaching in the education systems in the United States of America shows awareness of the need for a viable and effective programme for the teaching of second languages. Otheguy (1982: 313) explains that

the oversimplifications that characterise the bilingual education debate are most insidious with regard to the popular belief that the preservation of languages other than English in this nation plants the seed of social strife. Language alone is seldom the cause of unrest.

Later he concludes

the term bilingual education in the United States makes it difficult to offer conclusive generalizations about bilingual education as a force of social cohesion or disintegration.

(idem)

To sum up, much is being done to develop an approach to bilingual education, especially the teaching of English as second language, which will meet the tremendous variety of demands placed on the education systems by the heterogeneity of the population. Various programmes, one of which was outlined above, have been tried. The educational autonomy of each state in the United States of America allows for each state to devise its own approach to solving the problem of bilingual education, and particularly teaching English to non-native speakers of the language.

4. English as a second language in Canada

Like South Africa, Canada has two official languages: English and French. English-speakers outnumber their French counterparts by two to one. Furthermore, the economic strength of the country lies mainly in the hands of the English-speakers, partly because of the proximity of the United States of America (Andersson and Boyer, 1970:21).

In common with South Africa, Canada has had a stormy history of conflict between the two language groups. This has affected inter-language attitudes and therefore the position of the second language in the education system. The British North America Act of 1867 extended the provision of separate schools throughout Canada (Aucamp, 1926: 88). However, as Aucamp points out, the section of the British North America Act dealing with language rights was vague (*ibid.* 69). This vagueness led to language minorities in the different provinces claiming that language privileges were included in the clauses of the Act. However, these claims were approved by the provincial legislatures and "in several provinces laws were enacted restricting these language and religious privileges in education" (*idem*). These developments were symptomatic of the tensions which have frequently characterised relations between English and French-speakers in Canada.

To complicate the situation further, the education systems in Canada are either Roman Catholic or Protestant dominated, with the former being mainly in the French section of the population.

An examination of the systems of education in Canada, especially with reference to the position of the second languages, shows that a significant consideration is the attitude of the English and French-speakers to each other. Lewis notes (1981: 12) that "all systems of education in heterogeneous societies ... have to do with

the distribution of power in society". This is an important point which has direct relevance to South Africa, where political power (and, increasingly, economic power) is centred in one language group - a situation which inevitably affects inter-group attitudes in ways which should be obvious. In Canada, the fact that the French-speaking population enjoys status only in one province (Quebec), complicates any study of the position of the second language in the various education systems in Canada.

Bilingual schooling, in the sense of using both English and French as media of instruction for all or part of the curriculum, is being experimented with in various programmes in Canada. However, the majority of education systems include the second language in the curriculum as a separate subject, with the mother tongue being the medium of instruction. (Andersson and Boyer, 1970, Vol. I,v)

Although there are many parallels between the situation in respect of English as a second language in South Africa and in Canada, the problems facing educationists in Canada seem to be centred on negative attitudes between the two main language groups. MacNamarra (1972:8) states that

it is unlikely that the mutual trust, sympathy, understanding, and friendship of the two linguistic groups will be achieved by schools alone - not unless they receive the massive support of parents and of society in general,

but the attitudes are historically and politically engendered, rather than linguistically.

The relationship between language groups in any society depends to a large extent on historical factors and the position of the second language in the society. In this regard Lewis explains "In nearly all the countries where bilingual education is a contentious issue, social life is fragmented (Lewis, 1981: 203). He adds, however, that

bilingualism is often accused of being the cause of such segmentations, but in fact only in areas of long-standing

social tension - as in Belgium or in Canada - do the problems posed by bilingualism become critical.

(idem)

A preliminary report of the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism noted that English- and French-speaking Canadians manifest basically different attitudes. This report (1965: 64) states that English-speaking Canadians tended to want the second language, French, to be included in the school curriculum from the beginning. On the other hand, "French-speaking Canadians insisted on the right of the French minorities to be taught in their own language" (ibid. 65). The fear existed that the French language might disappear. This fear, common amongst language groups in the minority, permeated much of the thinking of the French-speakers on bilingual education. As the report states, the complexity of this issue was aggravated by the fact that differences were accentuated by the Roman Catholic and Protestant religious differences.

The Official Languages Act of 1969 was aimed at protecting the bilingual heritage of Canada by making both English and French the official languages of Canada. According to this law, the two official languages

possess and enjoy equality of status and equal rights and privileges as to their use in all the institutions of the Parliament and Government of Canada.

(H. and H. Friedman, 1982: 2)

However, in Quebec, where French-speakers are in the majority, this law did not satisfy the people. The language struggle continued until 1977 when Bill 101, the "Charter of the French Language" made

French the official language of instruction, and gave only the existing English community the right to educate their children in English. (idem)

All non-French-speaking new arrivals to Quebec were obliged to send their children to French schools.

Bill 101 must be seen against the fact that, although dominant in

Quebec, the French-speakers are a small minority in Canada. Consequently they feel threatened, and therefore strive to implement measures to "keep the French language in its own province (Quebec)" (idem).

Economic necessity and the value of English in seeking employment, have made the French in Canada accept that the school curriculum must include English as a second language. In this regard Lewis, (1981: 245) quotes Lieberson who states that in Canadian society there is "definite evidence of structural pressure towards bilingualism generated by occupational demands". Furthermore, the Friedmans (1982: 4) quote Cochrane, Director of Instructional Services in the Protestant School Board of Greater Montreal, who explains that "English-speaking schools have had French immersion classes for several years". These classes begin at the kindergarten level to grade 2 with complete French immersion, and decline until grade 4 where French comprises 40% of teaching time. This is maintained until the conclusion of formal school. Cochrane adds that the only course in English in these English-speaking schools is English language arts (idem).

With regard to the French schools, Cochrane explains that English immersion classes were scheduled to begin in 1983 on a basis similar to the French immersion courses in the English schools. The reason for this is that "the knowledge of English is a definite asset in seeking employment" (idem).

In Canada, like South Africa and Belgium, because the second language is a national language, the objectives of bilingual education are

national co-operation (and survival), creating interest in the other language and its culture, and providing enough economic, social, and political development of the country.

(Lobelle, 1972: 12)

Lobelle suggests too that the

proximity of second-language speakers and the availability of second-language learning situations in everyday life, (idem)

In 1962 a commission was appointed by the Governor-General of Canada

to inquire into the report upon the existing state of bilingualism and biculturalism in Canada and to recommend what steps should be taken to develop the Canadian Confederation on the basis of equal partnership between the two founding races.

(Report of Royal Commission, 1965: 151)

More specifically, the commission had to report on

the situation and practice of bilingualism and to make recommendations designed to ensure the bilingual and basically bicultural character of the federal administration.

(idem)

This preliminary report arrived at the following conclusions: that further long-term and on-going research was necessary to arrive at a modus operandi which will help Canada "surmount the present crisis" (ibid. 144).

The report also stresses the need for a change of attitude between the speakers of the two main languages, adding that

one of the problems is that part of the Canadian people does not realise that a gulf has opened, and that we have to rethink our partnership.

(idem)

As a result of this report the need for an effective approach to second language teaching in Canada became an important feature of education planning towards the end of the 1960's. In 1970 the Canadian federal government budgeted 50 million dollars

to spur the initiation and implementation of effective programmes of second language instruction with a view to promoting widespread functional bilingualism and biculturalism.

(Tucker and D'Anglejan, 1973: 37)

Unlike South Africa, where mother tongue instruction is mandatory throughout, provincial education ministries are autonomous in this

regard in Canada. Consequently, experimentation occurs for it is unrestricted by legal prescriptions. Various second language teaching programmes have been in operation in Canada since 1970, but basically there are two types:

One employing traditional second language teaching methods in which French or English is taught as a subject for a specific number of minutes per day, and the other, new approach, involving a home-school language switch used as the means of instruction for all or portion of the school curriculum.

(idem)

In an effort to devise a second-language education system in Canada various programmes have been developed. One which has gained considerable recognition is the St. Lambert Experiment. In this experiment, which within a period of five years from 1965 - 1970 gained acceptance by parents of 36% of the eligible children in the region, the approach was to "immerse" the second language learner in the target language (ibid. 16).

In the St. Lambert Experiment, in respect of the English-speakers, tuition into the second year of schooling "remained all-French except for fifty minutes of instruction each day by a teacher of English" (Andersson and Boyer, 1970: 23). The researchers involved in this experiment concluded that

The results for the second year of the French program, during which a minimum training was given in English, show a general improvement in French and English language achievement and in mathematics so that the second year Experimental Class performs as well as, and in some cases better than, either English or French control classes in most abilities examined.

(ibid. 23)

Tucker and d'Anglejan observe that after five years of the novel approach to second language teaching used in the St. Lambert Experiment

the experimental pupils appear to be able to read, write, speak, understand and use English as well as youngsters instructed in English in the conventional manner

(1973: 19)

This approach to teaching second language was found to be not detrimental to the intellectual and cognitive development of the children. Tucker and d'Anglejan conclude that this experiment has significant implications for second language teaching in Canada, and that only after many years will its contribution to second language teaching method be fully appreciated.

The "immersion" approach to teaching, as used in the St. Lambert Experiment, has, however, still to be fully researched and evaluated. As Giles explains, these programmes may "produce balanced bilinguals in English and French with an enriched background in mathematics and science: (1971: 32), but that

real bilingualism, even with understanding teachers, supportive parents, a good curriculum, and an ongoing research program, is very difficult to achieve.

(idem)

Tucker, in commenting on the effectiveness of the immersion approach to second language teaching observes that although this approach to teaching may be effective in teaching a pupil content subjects and a second language simultaneously, this

does not mean that the most effective way to educate every child - regardless of the demographic, sociopolitical or other circumstances - is by submersion in a second language.

(Tucker quoted by H. and H. Friedman, 1982: 14)

It appears that in Canada that much still has to be accomplished in respect of second language teaching. This is confirmed by the various experiments at present being conducted in Canada. Furthermore, according to Canada's Commissioner of Official Languages in 1982 "only 2 of 59 institutions of higher education

required a knowledge of both English and French for admission" (Woodcock, 1982: 21). The Commissioner notes too that

in French-language universities students have an incentive to learn English because they must frequently use English-language materials in their courses, and because they live and work in a largely English-speaking continent.

(idem)

Moreover, a survey conducted by the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada "found that 36 of the 59 institutions encouraged the study of a second language" (ibid. 22).

The need for an effective programme of bilingual education to accommodate both the French and English languages has become an important priority in education planning in respect of the second language in the curriculum. As Stern explains, the value of bilingualism and biculturalism as personal attributes or as education objectives, (Stern quoted by Swain, 191: 4) is beyond question in modern educational thinking in Canada. It will require much research, careful handling of socio-political sensitivities, and the inculcation of positive attitudes by each group to the other's language, before general success is attained in a national programme of bilingual education in Canada.

5. A brief overview of problems surrounding the education of immigrant Blacks in England

In recent years England has had to cope with influxes of English-speaking immigrants, mainly from Africa and Pakistan (Stone, 1982). As a result, measures had to be introduced to enable the children concerned to be accommodated as rapidly as practicable into the mainstream of the English education. Where the mother tongue was in fact English, this was different in many ways from that provided for in the typical school in England. In addition to immigrant persons, second-generation Blacks have encountered language problems in schools because of the varieties of English and its dialects which

are to be found; to the extent that an official report noted that

the gulf in trust and understanding between schools and West Indian parents was caused mainly by the poor performance of these children in English schools.

(Report of the Committee of Inquiry into the Education of Children from Ethnic Minority Groups, 1979: 6)

Stone (1982: 74) explains that over the last two decades

the racial composition of the working class in Britain has changed and teachers in urban schools have found that they must educate working class black children.

Numerous problems have developed over the years and many solutions have been attempted. The so-called ESN schools (educationally sub-normal schools) were established to endeavour to compensate for the fallacious belief that because children did not perform in schools they were educationally sub-normal. These schools failed because they were regarded as forms of discrimination against the Blacks (idem).

Another solution was the establishment of MRE schools (multi-racial education schools) which Stone (ibid. 76) saw as a disguised way of presenting Black pupils with a diluted form of education. However, as Stone explains, the teachers in these schools are convinced that they are

an enlightened minority desperately trying to hold back the engulfing waves of prejudice and racism both amongst their pupils and (very much) amongst their own colleagues.

(idem)

In a study conducted by a Committee of Inquiry into the Education of Children from Ethnic Minority Groups, one of the most important findings was that

for the majority of West Indian children in our schools, who were born and brought up in this country, linguistic factors play (no) part in underachievement.

(1979: 5)

What was more significant was that it was found that

the attitudes towards West Indian children's language held by some teachers.... may have an important bearing on their motivation and achievement.

(idem)

This focuses attention on perhaps one of the most important issues in language teaching, i.e. that teacher attitudes are crucial in successful second language teaching. Secondly, with regard to English as a second language in particular, conceptions about aims in teaching it should be modified to accommodate the characteristics peculiar to the cultural or class background of the learners.

Rosen (1980: 12) identifies the problem facing second language teachers in this way:

the language of education is historically evolved and fashioned It remains inaccessible until the learner has made it interact with his own experience and past learning.

(idem)

This is part of the problem facing Black pupils in England. Labov sees the solution thus

The most useful service which linguists can perform today is to clear away the illusion of 'verbal deprivation' and provide a more adequate notion of the relations between standard and non-standard dialects.

(Labov, 1979: 198)

Here Labov identifies the crux of the problem of underachievement amongst West Indian and other Black speakers of English.

Sutcliffe (198: 116) appeals for teachers

to set up more opportunities for performance and interaction for black children in schools, and to that end look carefully at the community's setting for language development and associated styles of learning.

(ibid. 143)

In fact, Sutcliffe's appeal touches the essence of the difficulties Black pupils in English schools face, i.e. that with better communication between education planners and the schools on the one hand, and the Black communities on the other, many misconceptions and

prejudices which undermine the education of so-called "linguistically deprived" children would be eliminated.

Reference to the teaching of Blacks in England may at first appear to be out of place in a discussion on the teaching of second language in various countries. However, it is submitted that for numbers of these children (whether immigrant or not, and whether mother-tongue speakers of English or not) educational problems arise because of prejudices against their use of English - in a sense, they are like second-language speakers. The Blacks under consideration are, of course, totally different from Blacks in South Africa and solutions to the educational and language problems of these groups are inevitably very different.

6. Conclusion

This chapter has set out to describe some aspect of policies and practices relating to the teaching of English Second Language in selected parts of the world. A principal conclusion is that solutions to problems arising are not simple, and are affected by local conditions and prevailing political circumstances. The aim has been to provide a comparative overview so that the situation in South Africa (and particularly among Whites in Natal) may be seen in perspective. Conclusions arising from the chapter are presented together with other conclusions in Chapter Seven.

This completes Part One of the dissertation, which has attempted to provide a critical and descriptive overview of factors influencing the position of a second language in a system of education. Such factors have been shown to include the views of theorists, historical considerations, attitudes towards the second language, and the overall role or function of language as a social institution, particularly as a route to social mobility and power.

Part Two, commencing overleaf, focuses on an investigation by the writer.

P A R T T W O

CHAPTER 5

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE IN SCHOOLS OF THE NATAL
EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

(A) BACKGROUND TO THE WRITER'S SURVEY

1. Perspective

Having provided, in Part One of this work, an overview of the context in which the teaching of English as a second language tends to take place in the contemporary world, the writer proceeds now to examine in some specific detail how such teaching occurs within the schools of a particular education authority. Policies and practices in the Natal Education Department will be reported upon in the light of the trends which generally find favour elsewhere, with a view to critical assessment and the formulation of suggestions which could ease problem areas.

Part Two comprises three chapters. The first (Chapter 5) provides general information on schools of the Natal Education Department, and the results of a survey made into aspects of the teaching of English as Second Language in secondary schools. The ensuing chapter reports on a similar survey of the situation in primary schools, and concludes with an overall statement of problem areas and possible measures of amelioration.

The methods of obtaining data for Part Two of this work were primarily of two types: interviews and the administration of a questionnaire. The interviews formed part of a pilot investigation by the writer in 1977 when, in his position as Subject Adviser for English as Second Language in the education authority under discussion, he was in regular personal contact with virtually the entire teaching force

concerned. The interviews, which were unstructured but which covered broadly similar topics, allowed the writer to identify some of the particular concerns, interests and problems of the teachers involved. Further to this, a letter was addressed at that time to each school offering English as a second language, requesting that problems in teaching the subject be identified. Later, some of the information gleaned was used in the formulation of a questionnaire distributed to secondary- and primary school teachers of English as Second Language.

Findings from the interviews and problem survey are not per se to be presented in this dissertation, neither are they claimed to have resulted in any data other than general information of use in drafting the questionnaire. The latter, as a research instrument, contributes substantially to the material in Chapters 5 and 6 and therefore some introductory statements on it are necessary.

Using a questionnaire to obtain information is, according to much of the literature in educational research, a notoriously unreliable method. The dangers inherent in the drafting, the dangers of a low response and the problems of misinterpretation have all been well documented, Nisbet and Entwistle (1970) are typical of those who warn against questionnaires, and they re-iterate a statement made by Flexner in the thirties:

The questionnaire is not a scientific instrument. It is a cheap, easy and rapid method of obtaining information or non-information, one never knows which.

(Nisbet and Entwistle, 1970, p 53)

Nevertheless, questionnaires are popular sources of information and, depending on the target group and how they are administered, may well be more useful than the quotation suggests. In the present case, the respondents were all educated teachers with professional qualifications, and, because they mostly knew the writer personally (although their actual responses were anonymous) it seems likely that those who did complete the questionnaire were in some way committed to

its aim, viz. to lead to an improvement in the teaching of English Second Language.

2. The Questionnaire

The questionnaire (Appendix 1) was designed primarily to elicit information from teachers of English Second Language. It is important to note that the aim of the questionnaire was to elicit information on then current modes and practices among the teachers concerned. There was deliberately no intention to bring to bear or to suggest to the respondents the "oughts" as, for example, suggested in the literature. The writer set out to ascertain what was then happening, in order to establish a basis from which to make general observations and suggestions. Insight from the writer's reading and general research would, it was planned, take effect at the stage of recommendations. The following basic characteristics marked the devising and compiling of the questionnaire:

- (i) the front page required answers which would not discourage the respondent; simple questions on professional background were included;
- (ii) since teacher attitudes and opinions were basic to this study, it was decided to include a section in which teachers would be able to define the school in which they taught, in terms of given general categories;
- (iii) it was assumed that teachers would be familiar with the wording used in the questions, for the terms and references were in general usage among teachers;
- (iv) although many questions required straight-forward answers, there were opportunities for teachers to comment or elaborate;
- (v) the questionnaire was designed to accommodate the whole range of standards (from the third year of formal school - the first year of second language teaching in Natal - to the final year, ten years later), since teacher mobility between the standards, especially in the schools having a full age-range, could have complicated the issue had separate

questionnaires been compiled for the various phases of schooling;

- (vi) the rating scales were kept simple;
- (vii) the anonymity of the respondents was guaranteed;
- (viii) in order to facilitate coding of information, questions were phrased in terms of categorized aspects of English Second Language teaching;
- (ix) to facilitate the coding of information obtained, choices given were specific, and aimed at a particular aspect of the language or its teaching.

The timing of the distribution of the questionnaire was calculated. Firstly, October is a time of the year when the pressure of "trial examinations" at the senior certificate level (the final year of schooling), internal testing programmes, and the main sports in the co-curricular programme, are all at a low ebb. Secondly, by this time of the year most teachers have had sufficient opportunity to form opinions on matters related to the subjects they teach. Thirdly, teachers have had time to develop relations of confidence with their colleagues in their work situation.

The letter accompanying the questionnaires to the schools was addressed personally to the principal of each school offering the subject. The principal was requested to ask teachers to complete the questionnaires in the language of their preference. No deadline was set, although principals were requested to return the completed questionnaires as soon as practicable.

3. Description of the questionnaire

The questionnaire was compiled with a view to ease of answering, whilst at the same time obtaining information required for this study. The writer had the advantage of being acquainted with many of the teachers of English Second Language. The choice of terminology used in the questionnaire was familiar to the teachers since it had been

used for at least five years at in-service courses, seminars and in guides.

The first numbered question in the questionnaire was aimed at obtaining teachers' descriptions of the types of schools at which they taught, as well as the implicit characters of the communities served by the schools. Many of the choices made proved to be useful in analysing teacher responses.

The options given to the teachers were:

- rural in character
- urban in character
- parallel-medium
- co-educational
- situated in an upper-middle class area
- situated in a middle-class area
- situated in a lower middle-class area
- situated in a mixed-class area
- general academic in character
- school with a technical bias
- school with a commercial bias
- combined high and primary school
- purely junior primary school
- combined junior and senior primary school
- situated in a predominantly Eng.-med. community
- situated in a predominantly Afr.-med. community
- situated in a parallel-medium community.*

The range of 17 choices given was deliberately wide in order not to inhibit teachers in their classification of the schools. On analysis, however, the predominant choices were the first and the last three.

* A school may fall into more than one of these given categories, eg. a parallel-medium school in a rural area which is predominantly Afrikaans-speaking.

One of the important aims of this survey was to ascertain teacher and pupil attitudes to English. Two questions, one on teacher and the other on pupil attitudes, were included in the questionnaire. Linked to these questions were two methods used in teaching the subject. These questions (nos. 2 and 13) formed a very important part of this study.

Question 2 required each teacher to indicate, against the standard or standards taught, which of a list of selected general methodological approaches were used at the level taught. This question may be considered one of the most important in the survey, since responses to it give an indication of (i) the teachers' familiarity with the approaches given, (ii) teachers' ability to adapt method to circumstances, (iii) whether teachers tend to neglect some approaches, with the reasons for this neglect possibly becoming apparent through cross-reference to other responses. The range of approaches was purposely limited to allow for easier analysis, while space in the questionnaire provided for more varied techniques to be described.

Despite efforts to use terminology with which teachers were familiar, cases of misinterpretation may have occurred. These will be discussed at appropriate stages later when responses to questions are examined in some detail.

Included in the questionnaire were two questions which required teachers to assess their ability in respect of given aspects of the English language. The information gleaned in these questions was useful in placing other findings in perspective in terms of the whole survey.

Another three questions sought teachers' opinions on the autonomy they enjoyed in the teaching of the subject. One question aimed to ascertain whether teachers considered the English Second Language syllabus adequate. Teachers were also requested to elaborate on their

responses, and some interesting and useful comments were elicited. Related to this question was one which sought to ascertain whether teachers considered official policy on English Second Language restrictive. A weakness in this question became apparent from the responses when it transpired that some teachers enjoyed freedom but only within the bounds of available resources and facilities. Finally, in this vein, there was a question on whether teachers felt free to make suggestions or develop ideas in regard to a given list of areas in the teaching of the subject.

A further question on teaching methods was included later in the questionnaire to provide a more comprehensive basis on which teachers' opinions on certain methodological approaches could be evaluated.

Three questions concerned the initial training and further education of teachers of English Second Language. This provided a link with a question aimed at finding out who teachers turned to for help and guidance. The responses revealed some useful ideas which contribute to the findings of this survey.

A further two questions concerned aims and objectives in the teaching of English Second Language. Generally speaking, responses here were disappointing in that few original ideas were put forward.

Two questions were included to ascertain what aids teachers used most in teaching the subject and to find out whether teachers were inventive and innovative in devising their own aids. The responses reflected an apparent lack of commitment by teachers in regard to this aspect of their teaching.

In general the questionnaire served its purpose well. Teacher opinions, attitudes, ideas and comments on the teaching of English Second Language were readily forthcoming, and these formed the basis of conclusions. These conclusions provide the background for

recommendations towards improving the standard of English Second Language teaching which will be made in the final chapter of this study.

4. Reasons for separate secondary and primary school analyses

There are various reasons for treating the secondary and primary schools apart in a study of the results of the writer's survey. The teaching of English Second Language at the secondary school level is subject-directed, whereas primary school teaching, up to and including the fifth year after commencement of English Second Language, is mainly integrated. Secondly, conclusions reached in the analysis of the responses of primary school teachers would not necessarily be valid for the secondary schools. Thirdly, secondary school teaching is generally more examination directed than primary school English Second Language teaching.

For the purposes of this study, schools incorporating all four, or three of the four phases of schooling, have been classified as "secondary schools". Reasons for this are that these schools are officially secondary schools, language policy is determined by the secondary school section of the school, the principals are trained secondary school teachers, and there is very close co-operation between the secondary and primary school sections. These trends were gleaned from the pilot investigation conducted in 1977. In Natal there are three schools with all four phases of schooling, and three with the final three phases.

5. The general reaction of the teachers to the survey

Since this study concerned teacher attitudes, ideas, opinions and comment on the teaching of English Second Language, it was essential that the co-operation of the teachers be assured. It has already been suggested that such co-operation was excellent. The response rate of

95,4% may be indicative of a willingness on the part of teachers to assist with a survey in the hope that something might be done to improve the standard of English Second Language teaching in Natal schools.

An analysis of some pertinent questions which reflect teacher and pupil attitudes to the subject suggests a generally positive response. The figures given in the following table suggest that there is a marked difference at the primary school level in attitude between English- and Afrikaans-speakers, to the teaching of English Second Language. In the secondary schools, however, the difference is negligible.

Table 1
Teacher attitudes to the teaching of English Second Language

	<u>Pos.</u>	<u>Neg.</u>	<u>No.ans.</u>	<u>Undec.</u>
Secondary schools:				
Afrikaans-speaking teachers	80,5%	4,9%	7,3%	7,3%
English-speaking teachers	80,0%	2,2%	3,3%	14,5%
All sec. teachers of ESL	80,1%	3,1%	4,6%	12,2%
Primary schools:				
Afrikaans-speaking teachers	84,9%	0,4%	3,2%	11,5%
English-speaking teachers	94,4%	0%	0%	5,6%
All primary teachers of ESL	88,4%	0,3%	2,2%	9,5%

The difference at the primary school level is important since it is at this stage of schooling where pupils are highly vulnerable to attitudinal influences by teachers. Moreover, one is reminded of the fact that 66,9% of primary school teachers of English Second Language are Afrikaans-speaking.

The overwhelming predominance of Afrikaans-speaking teachers at the primary school level amongst teachers of English Second Language is attributable to specific factors. The use of general "class", rather than specialist teachers, to teach the subject, and the reluctance of

English-speakers to apply for teaching posts in the predominantly Afrikaans-speaking communities, are perhaps two major factors which contribute to this unsatisfactory state of affairs.

The total percentage of primary school English- and Afrikaans-speaking teachers who indicated that they were undecided, or who did not respond to the question was 9,5%. For the secondary schools this figure was 12,2%. Thus, more than 1 teacher in 5 had not decided whether teaching the subject was "worth the effort". Translated into the number of pupils affected in Natal, this means that 97 teachers affecting about 3 000 pupils are undecided about their commitment to the subject.

6. Teacher Response to the Questionnaire

Reasons for the good response rate include the fact that the survey was conducted by someone in a position of authority over the respondents. However, credit should be given to the teachers who may foster an ideal of wanting to help improve the teaching of the subject. The fact that the questionnaires were sent to schools through the principals may also have contributed to the excellent response.

The response of the teachers may be gauged from the following table:

Table 2
Response rate of teachers to the questionnaire

Secondary schools:

Number of schools offering the subject	=	35
Number of teachers of the subject	=	137
Number of responses to the questionnaire	=	131
Percentage response	=	95,6%

Primary schools:

Number of primary schools offering the subject	=	92
Number of teachers of the subject	=	346
Number of responses to the questionnaire	=	326
Percentage response	=	94,4%

The writer now proceeds to an analysis of the responses by teachers in secondary schools.

(B) RESULTS OF A SURVEY : SECONDARY SCHOOLS1. Introduction

At the time of the survey there were 74 secondary schools in the Natal Education Department. 39 were English-medium only, 15 Afrikaans-medium, and 20 parallel-medium. Of the latter, 5 were Special High Schools, i.e. for children of secondary school age who are unable to make progress in the ordinary secondary schools.

During the survey there were 26 571 English-speaking and 13 394 Afrikaans-speaking pupils in the secondary schools. The number of teachers of English Second Language was 137, distributed throughout 35 schools.

Based on the language spoken by the Whites, Natal is a heterogeneous province. It may be divided into the following "language" regions:

- the Durban urban region: predominantly English-speaking;
- the Pietermaritzburg urban region: predominantly English-speaking;
- the northern interior and north coast rural region: predominantly Afrikaans-speaking;
- the midlands and south coast region: predominantly English-speaking
- two communities where English- and Afrikaans-speakers are nearly equal in numbers, viz. Dundee and Greytown.

The numerical distribution of English- and Afrikaans-speaking pupils in the various schools reflects the language character of the region in which the school is located. It is clear, however, that Natal is predominantly an English-speaking province, a fact which underlies some of the problems faced in English Second Language teaching, as will be discussed later.

2. Description of the Target Area

Within the setting of the five regions in Natal previously identified, there are the following types of secondary schools which formed the target of the survey: Afrikaans-medium only and parallel-medium, including five special high schools.

Table 3

Distribution of Secondary Schools offering English Second Language

	<u>Afrik-med.</u>	<u>Parallel-med</u>
Durban region	5	2
Pietermaritzburg region	2	2
Predominantly Eng.-speaking rural	4	5
Predominantly Afr.-speaking rural	4	9
Even distribution between Eng. and Afr.	<u>0</u>	<u>2</u>
Total	15	20

Afrikaans-medium schools offer all subjects other than other languages through the medium of Afrikaans only. Parallel-medium schools are institutions in which the two language groups, English and Afrikaans, are accommodated in separate class groups. It may occur from time to time that, owing to small numbers of either or both language groups, language groups are combined to form a class unit. When this occurs the instruction is, nevertheless, through the medium of the mother tongue. This is mandatory in terms of the law. This practice does not affect English Second Language, where the medium of instruction is necessarily English.

The decision of whether a school should be single- or parallel-medium is made in consultation with the community served by the school or schools. Therefore policy in Natal in this regard is pragmatic.

The geographical distribution of schools in Natal is an important factor in interpreting the results of the responses, for it largely

determines two matters related to the schools: (i) the type of school, i.e. single- or parallel-medium and, (ii) the language of character of the community. An examination of the numerical relationship between the English- and Afrikaans-medium pupils in the schools in each of the five regions identified, shows which language predominates in each.

In the Durban region there were at the time of the survey 2 748 Afrikaans-speaking pupils and 9679 English-speaking secondary school pupils. In the Pietermaritzburg urban region there were 1 834 Afrikaans-speaking and 3 750 English-speaking secondary school pupils. In the predominantly English-speaking rural regions the numbers of English- and Afrikaans-speaking secondary pupils were 2 154 and 1 466 respectively. The position in the predominantly Afrikaans-speaking rural regions was 2 680 English- and 6 114 Afrikaans-speaking pupils. The remainder of the pupils were in two country town communities where the numerical balance between the two language groups is nearly equal.

The numerical relationship between the two language groups in each of the five regions is an important factor in determining the language character of the community. The importance of this will become clear as the analysis of the responses progresses.

Although the responses from the five Special High Schools were treated similarly to those from the other secondary schools, it should be stated that the integrated approach used at these schools in respect of language teaching is similar to that used in the normal primary schools. English Second Language is a compulsory subject for all Afrikaans-speaking children attending Special High Schools. The Natal Education Department regulations stipulate that at least two hours of instruction per week must be given in the second language.

3. An Analysis of the Responses to the Questionnaire

3.1 The English Second Language teaching force

An analysis of the results of the survey would be incomplete without an overview of the teaching force responsible for the teaching of English Second Language in secondary schools of the Natal Education Department.

The table which follows gives basic data on the teaching force in secondary schools of the Natal Education Department. Information was obtained from the survey, and the following official documents of the Natal Education Department: Staff returns for August 1981, and the Tables of Educational Statistics and Information, 1982. (Figures given in the latter document reflect the position in the previous year).

Table 4

Basic data on the English Second Language teaching force

1. Total number of teachers	137
- teachers in urban regions	45
- teachers in rural regions	92
- predominantly Eng.-speaking regions	35
- predominantly Afr.-speaking regions	47
- Even distribution between language groups	10

2. No of pupils of English Second Language	13 394
- no. in urban regions	4 582
- no. in rural regions	8 812
- predominantly Eng.-speaking rural	2 798
- predominantly Afrik.-speaking rural	5 124
- balance between language groups	990
3. Teachers with less than 2 years' experience in teaching English Second language	60 (45,8%)
4. Average years of experience	4,6 yrs
5. Percentage of teachers trained to teach ESL	11,5%
6. Home language of teachers of ESL:	
- English	90 (68,7%)
- Afrikaans	41 (31,3%)
7. Percentage of teachers in the Natal Education Department officially rated as bilingual	47,5%
8. Percentage of teachers of the Natal Education Department who are "English-speaking"	59,5%
9. Percentage of teachers of the Natal Education Department who are "Afrikaans-speaking"	40,5%
10. Percentage who are Afrikaans-speaking and not officially bilingual	11,7%
11. Percentage who are English-speaking and not officially bilingual	40,5%
12. Total number of schools in the survey:	
- no. of parallel-medium schools	20
- urban regions	4
- rural regions	16
- no. Afrikaans-medium schools	15
- urban regions	7
- rural regions	8

Much of the information given in this table will be used as the basis

for comment on responses to questions in the survey.

It is necessary to examine the distribution of teachers in terms of the types of school and the language character of the communities served by the schools. This distribution is important, because an examination of the responses to the survey has shown that certain shortcomings in the competence of teachers should be seen in terms of the school and the community in which they function. The numerical relationship between the two language groups affects the provision of qualified staff to teach the subject since it appears from the survey that English-speaking teachers are unwilling to accept posts in predominantly Afrikaans-speaking regions. This is confirmed by the difficulty experienced by the Natal Education Department every year in persuading English-speaking teachers to remain in mainly Afrikaans-medium communities.

Presupposing that a native speaker of English is preferable as a teacher of English Second Language to one whose second language is English, one becomes aware of the daunting challenges facing many of the teachers of the subject in secondary schools. The table which follows shows the distribution of English- and Afrikaans-speaking teachers of English Second Language in parallel- and Afrikaans-medium secondary schools.

Table 5

Home language of ESL teachers in parallel- and Afrikaans-medium
secondary schools

	<u>Parallel-med.</u>	<u>Afrikaans-med.</u>
English-speaking teachers	73,0%	63,2%
Afrikaans-speaking teachers	<u>23,0%</u>	<u>36,8%</u>
	100,0%	100,0%

The significance of these figures is appreciated when one realises that in Afrikaans-medium schools, where pupils hear little English spoken in the school, nearly 40% of secondary school teachers are themselves non-native speakers of English.

When one examines the availability of teachers of English Second Language in terms of the socio-geographic setting of schools, the figures gleaned from the survey provide cause for concern. The figures given in the table which follows show the language distribution of teachers of the subject in rural and urban schools.

Table 6

Home language of English Second Language secondary school teachers in
different school settings

	<u>Urban</u>	<u>Rural</u>
Afrikaans-speaking teachers	17,0%	39,3%
English-speaking teachers	<u>83,0%</u>	<u>60,7%</u>
	100,0%	100,0%

In the questionnaire teachers were requested to describe their schools in terms of different criteria. The information gleaned is important to the present study, because it enables one to visualise the distribution of teachers of English Second Language in the context of the language character of the communities which they serve. The findings given in the following table bring into focus the parlous state of English Second Language teacher distribution in Natal

schools.

Table 7

Home language of teachers in the context of the language character of
the community

	<u>Afrik.</u> <u>predom.</u>	<u>Eng.</u> <u>predom.</u>	<u>Even dis-</u> <u>tribution</u>
English-speaking teachers	19,8%	37,4%	11,5%
Afrikaans-speaking teachers	14,5%	14,5%	2,3%

(NOTE: these percentages are of the total number of teachers in Natal).

Should the percentages in terms of each "language region" be examined, the situation changes. In predominantly English-speaking communities 27,9% of the teachers are Afrikaans-speaking, and in predominantly Afrikaans-speaking communities 42,2% of the teachers of the subject are Afrikaans-speaking. In communities where the two language groups are evenly balanced in numbers, 16,7% of the secondary school teachers are Afrikaans-speaking.

The importance of these figures, and those given in Table 7, can be appreciated since maximum exposure to the target language is preferable in the situation of second language teaching.

Pupil exposure to English is likely to be proportional to the extent of English in communities, and lack of exposure places an extra burden of responsibility on the teacher of the subject.

The influence of the high percentage of non-native speakers of English, who teach English Second Language, on the teaching of the subject may be further appreciated when seen against the background of the need for the teacher to provide not only a correct model of English, but also to have facility in the language to manipulate and exploit it to make teaching more effective. Background knowledge,

insight and sensitivity, and an appreciation of good English literature, are likely to be better in an English-speaking teacher than one whose second language is English. This is more important when the teacher is technically unqualified for the task. These arguments place in perspective the situation in Natal schools where a high percentage of teachers of the subject are non-native speakers of English.

3.2 The secondary school survey

Altogether 35 secondary schools received sufficient copies of the questionnaire to enable each teacher of English Second Language to complete one and have it returned through the principal of the school. The number of teachers teaching the subject at the time of the survey was determined from the most recent Staff Return, i.e. that of the first week in August, 1981. The Staff Return is a compulsory official document submitted three times annually by each school to indicate what subjects are taught by teachers.

Each school received sufficient copies of the questionnaire in both official languages. It was assumed that teachers would be inclined to express their thoughts more readily in their mother tongue. The large numbers of Afrikaans-speaking teachers were accommodated by this arrangement. Furthermore, the submission of the questionnaire in both English and Afrikaans, enabled the writer to approximate which teachers were non-native speakers of English, by means of noting the language in which the response was completed.

4. Analysis of the Responses

4.1 The pre-service training of teachers

Of the 131 secondary school teachers who taught the subject at the time of the survey, 127 returned completed questionnaires. Of these only 11,5% indicated that they had received adequate pre-service training to teach English Second Language. To aggravate the situation the average number of years' service in teaching the subject was only 4,6. These two findings help explain why so many teachers rate themselves as defective in respect of important aspect of the teaching of English Second Language.

Another aspect related to the training of teachers for the subject was the paucity of ideas amongst teachers on innovative and inventive methods in teaching English Second Language. Reluctance could emanate from the inadequate training or from a lack of commitment as a result of a feeling of being inadequate for the task. The implications of these points will be considered in the final chapter of this study.

The lack of specially trained teachers should be seen against the availability of teacher training facilities for secondary school teachers in Natal. There are three institutions: one university (in two centres) and two colleges of education. There are many other training institutions in South Africa, but the majority of Natal teachers of ESL receive their initial training in Natal. The problem is further aggravated since most of the English-speaking students who attend the local university opt to do the English First Language methods course in the year in which they complete their professional training. Furthermore, graduates in English from English-medium universities, such as Natal University, concentrate on the study of works of literature, with little or no attention being paid to

language studies. However, the few teachers who had completed the English Second language methods course offered by the University of Natal indicated that it equipped them well for the teaching of English Second Language. Unfortunately, too few students opt to do this post-graduate course as part of their professional diploma.

The Durban Teachers' Training College trains teachers mainly for the primary schools, and since it is an exclusively Afrikaans-medium institution it attracts no English-speaking students to train as teachers of English Second Language.

The College of Education for Further Training is a parallel-medium teachers' training college. It caters for teachers already in service who wish to improve their qualifications. According to the survey few teachers of English Second Language indicated that they have availed themselves of this facility, which, nevertheless, is a recent acquisition to teacher training in Natal.

The pre-service training of teachers for English Second Language is complicated by the fact that too few English-speakers opt to train for this subject. Reasons for this will form an important part of the recommendations arising from this survey.

4.2 Home language of teachers of English Second Language

In a predominantly English-speaking province like Natal it is cause for concern that nearly one-third (31,3%) of secondary school teachers of English Second Language are non-native speakers of English. The picture is aggravated when one recalls that only 11,5% of the survey respondents indicated that they had received any pre-service training to teach the subject.

Another finding which evokes concern is the distribution of teachers

concerned in Natal. It appears that the native English-speaking teachers are not where they are most urgently required, viz. in Afrikaans-medium schools and communities. For example, nearly 40% of the teachers of the subject in Afrikaans-medium schools are non-native speakers of English. In parallel-medium schools the percentage of Afrikaans-speaking teachers who teach the subject is also high at 27%. These facts suggest a reluctance amongst English-speakers to teach English Second Language especially in Afrikaans-medium schools and in predominantly Afrikaans-speaking rural regions. In schools in the latter regions English speakers comprise only 60% of the teachers of English Second Language.

Radical measures will need to be devised in order to persuade English speakers to teach the subject.

4.3 Teachers' self-evaluation of their knowledge of aspects of the English language

In considering the results of the survey it is necessary to bear in mind that self-ratings are usually more favourable than ratings by others.

When the responses to the survey are examined a general picture of a positive self-image by the teachers emerges. Question 5, for example, required teachers to rate themselves in ability in various aspects of the English language. The table which follows gives an analysis of the responses to this question.

Table 8
Teachers' self-evaluation in aspects of the English language
 (question 5, Appendix I)

	<u>Very G.</u>	<u>Sat.</u>	<u>Weak</u>	<u>No ans.</u>
5.1 Ability to speak English	66,4%	33,6%	0%	0%
5.2 Knowledge of grammar	41,2%	55,7%	3,1%	0%
5.3 Reading background	62,6%	36,6%	0%	0,8%
5.4 Teaching method	25,2%	67,1%	6,9%	0,8%
5.5 Knowledge of poetry	35,9%	48,8%	15,3%	0%
5.6 Knowledge of plays	23,6%	46,6%	29,0%	0,8%
5.7 Knowledge of songs, rhymes etc	18,3%	37,4%	44,4%	0%
5.8 Know. of techniques of eval/ass	26,7%	57,3%	15,3%	0,8%
5.9 Ability to write English	48,1%	48,1%	2,3%	1,5%
5.10 Abil. to understand spoken Eng.	86,3%	13,7%	0%	0%
5.11 Correct pronunciation in Eng.	64,1%	35,1%	0,8%	0%
5.12 Corr. intonation in Eng. var.	50,4%	45,8%	2,3%	1,5%
Total	45,7%	43,9%	9,9%	0,5%

A study of the figures given in Table 8 shows that 45,7% of teachers rated themselves as very good, with 43,9% rating themselves as satisfactory, in terms of the whole spectrum of aspects of English listed in the question.

It seems that the highest rating, that for 5.10, i.e. ability to understand spoken English, in which 86,3% of the respondents rated themselves as "very good", may be seen as the standard against which other ratings can be evaluated. Should this rating of 86,3% be taken as the measure against which other self-ratings may be considered, the overall picture of teachers' opinions of their own knowledge appears to be unsatisfactory.

An arrangement of the 12 aspects listed in Table 8 in rank order gives a clear indication of aspects in which teachers feel they are most

competent.

Table 9
Rank order of teachers' knowledge of aspects of English

<u>Order</u>	<u>Aspects</u>	<u>%</u>
1.	Ability to understand spoken English	86,3
2.	Ability to speak English	66,4
3.	Correct pronunciation in English	64,1
4.	Reading background	62,1
5.	Correct intonation in English varieties	50,4
6.	Ability to write English	48,1
7.	Knowledge of grammar	41,2
8.	Knowledge of poetry	35,9
9.	Know. of techniques of eval. and assessment	26,7
10.	Teaching method	25,2
11.	Knowledge of plays	23,6
12.	Knowledge of songs, rhymes, etc.	18,3

It is clear from the above order that most teachers felt that they had a good command of aspects of English which may be termed functional, e.g. ability to understand spoken English, ability to pronounce English words correctly, and suitability of reading background. Each of these aspects obtained a "very good" rating by more than 60% of the secondary school teachers concerned. However, aspects which require an in-depth knowledge, arising perhaps from specialist training, received a "very good" rating by less than 50% of the respondents.

A closer examination of the responses to question 2 of the questionnaire will provide insights which should assist in identifying weaknesses in the teaching of English Second Language. Question 2 required teachers to indicate which methodological approaches they tended to use in the different standards they taught. In their responses the teachers indicated their usage of "grammar" at the

different standard levels as follows

Table 10
Use of "grammar" by secondary school teachers

<u>Standard</u>	<u>Position of grammar amongst methods used</u>	<u>Percentage of time devoted to grammar</u>
6	3rd	15,1%
7	1st	16.4%
8	2nd	15,1%
9/10	2nd	14,7%

Table 9 shows that 41,2% of the teachers rated their knowledge of English grammar as very good. This rating is reflected in the frequent use made of grammar lessons in the secondary schools, viz. in each standard about 15% of teaching time is devoted to grammar. This is high considering that at least eleven other aspects make up the remaining 85% of the time for the subject.

A likely explanation for this is the probable dependence by teachers on textbooks in their teaching of English grammar. Traditional format in English Second Language textbooks allocates much time and space to explanations of grammatical functions followed by "exercises" for practice. Therefore, it can easily occur that a teacher may teach grammar without having a sound knowledge of it, and without being a fluent speaker of English. Whether the teaching under these circumstances is effective, especially at the secondary school level, is highly questionable.

The ability to speak English fluently and correctly is perhaps the most important requirement of a teacher of English Second Language. Consequently, responses to question 5, section 1, regarding ability to speak English, showing that 33,6% of all secondary school teachers of the subject rate their ability in spoken English as only satisfactory, has serious implications. In effect, 33,6% of all secondary school teachers of the subject are able to provide only a satisfactory model

of spoken English to their pupils. This corresponds closely with the percentage of Afrikaans-speaking teachers of English Second Language in secondary schools, viz. 31,3%, and is probably a reason for the high percentage of only "satisfactory" ratings in this important aspect of English. Further cause for concern is that in the predominantly Afrikaans-speaking regions, 42,2% of the teachers of the subject in the secondary schools are non-native speakers of English.

The fact that only 11,5% of the secondary school teachers of English Second Language have had specialised training to teach the subject, is confirmed by the responses to question 5, section 4, where teachers were required to evaluate their command of teaching method. There should be little doubt that a rating of only satisfactory in this vital area of English Second Language teaching is unacceptable. The fact that 6,9% (cf. Table 8, section 5,4) of teachers rated their knowledge of teaching method as weak, focuses attention on a serious limitation which must have repercussions on the teaching of thousands of pupils.

Since there is no prescription of what poetry should be taught in the English Second Language curriculum, it is disappointing that only 35,9% of the teachers rate their knowledge of poetry as very good, with 48,8% rating their knowledge as only satisfactory. There is a correspondence between these figures and those in response to section 6 of the same question, where 23,6% of the teachers rate their knowledge of plays as very good, and 46,6% as satisfactory. These low ratings may explain why teachers appear to neglect drama and role-playing as a teaching technique. Only 17,6% of teachers indicated that they made use of drama and role-playing as teaching techniques.

A possible explanation for these inadequate ratings is that a suitable reading background is a conditio sine qua non of a sound grasp of the value of poetry and drama in teaching any language successfully. The

high percentage of non-native speakers of English who teach the subject may be a reason for this, although according to their own ratings (cf. Table 8, section 5.3) 62,6% of teachers rated their reading background as very good.

The influence on teaching method of the examination system in secondary schools seems to be apparent when one examines the responses to question 5, section 5.7 of Table 8, where teachers were required to rate their knowledge of English songs, rhymes, jingles and recitations. That 44,4% of the respondents rated their knowledge of this aspect as weak, and only 37,4% as satisfactory, may be construed as a reflection of the low value placed in the Natal Senior Certificate public examination on the oral component of the syllabus, i.e. 20% of the total mark. It is logical to deduce that these low ratings indicate that teachers at the secondary school level do not attribute much value to songs, rhymes, etc. in their teaching method.

Another aspect of the English language which appears to have been neglected by teachers of English Second Language is the use of drama as part of general method. This medium is closely related to a knowledge of songs, rhymes, poems and plays which, as pointed out, received low ratings amongst teachers. A probable explanation may be the limited language background and inadequate training in how to use drama to enhance the effectiveness of teaching method in English Second Language.

Techniques of evaluation and assessment in English Second Language are an integral part of teaching method. This survey showed that even in terms of self-evaluation 15,3% of teachers rated their knowledge of techniques of evaluation and assessment as weak, and 57,3% as only satisfactory. The implications of these findings are important particularly since greater emphasis is now placed on continuous evaluation by teachers in the course of pupils' work over an academic year. It follows, therefore, that a greater responsibility rests on

teachers to master techniques of evaluation and assessment.

Other findings emanating from an analysis of the responses to question 5 will be discussed later in conjunction with findings gleaned from answers to other questions.

4.4 An analysis of teacher responses to questions on method.

In discussing the responses to question 5 it was noted that the "very good" self-rating given to knowledge of general method, and also knowledge of techniques of evaluation and assessment, was low: respectively 25,2% and 26,7%. These low self-ratings could be a reflection of the inadequate training received by teachers, as well as the fact that 45,8% of teachers had less than two years' experience in teaching English Second Language.

Question 2 reads: "Below is a list of general approaches to the teaching of English Second Language. Please indicate which you tend to use by ticking in the appropriate squares". An analysis of the responses shows an interesting situation, particularly when the eleven choices given are placed in rank order of preference or usage by the teachers. The following table is a summary of teachers' preference or frequency of usage of the approaches.

Table 11

Usage of different methodological approaches, with indication of order of preference for each standard

Approach	STD 6		STD 7		STD 8		STD 9/10	
	%	Pref	%	Pref	%	Pref	%	Pref
2.1 Formal grammar	15,1	3	16,4	1	15,1	2	14,7	2
2.2 Drill/repetition exercises	16,4	2	14,2	3	9,9	5	6,2	7
2.3 Lessons based on a common theme	16,8	1	16,1	2	16,5	1	14,1	3
2.4 Predominantly aural-oral	5,0	8	5,5	7	5,1	8	4,5	9
2.5 Structured (aspects based on reading)	8,0	6	9,2	6	9,9	5	9,3	6
2.6 Greater stress on the study of lit.	1,3	11	2,2	11	5,5	7	13,4	4
2.7 Greater stress on exercises in sustained writing	10,5	5	11,3	5	13,0	3	15,8	1
2.8 Extensive use of drama/role-play	6,7	7	5,5	8	4,8	9	3,1	11
2.9 Integration with the everyday lives of the pupils	12,2	4	12,4	4	11,6	4	9,6	5
2.10 Linking English with other subjects	3,4	10	3,6	9	4,1	11	5,5	8
2.11 Other method	4,6	9	3,6	9	4,5	10	3,8	10
	100	-	100	-	100	-	100	-

The terms used in listing the choices are, as explained earlier, those with which teachers have become familiar over the years. However, to enable the reader to understand what is meant by each of the terms used, they are explained briefly.

The concept "formal grammar" embraces a knowledge of the grammatical terms listed in the official syllabus, but the emphasis is on the functional use of grammar.

Exercises in drill and repetition entail the consolidation by means of role-playing and exercises in dramatic presentations, and sometimes mere class chanting of phonic exercises of language patterns which form the basis usually of correctly spoken English.

Lessons based on a common theme entail a series of related lessons all emanating from a common general topic around which the lessons and related exercises are constructed.

The term "predominantly aural/oral" relates to drill and repetition but extends into the field of normal verbal communication in various forms: discussions, debates, and dramatic productions.

A "structured approach" means a series of lessons based on a common theme but with the emphasis on progression from one step of language learning to a more advanced stage in a logical and systematic way.

"Stress on literature" refers to the formal study of approved works. The purpose of such study is to acquaint the learner with works of a good standard whilst showing him the basic requirements of good writing.

Exercises in sustained writing entail the writing of extended pieces of either guided, semi-creative or purely original pieces of composition. They include exercises such as the commonly known

"essay" (an original composition on a given topic), letter-writing, dialogue writing, reports, reviews and the like.

"Extensive use of drama and role-playing" entails the integration of these activities to enliven and make more effective aspects of second language teaching. These activities preferably form part of the programme of lessons and are not artificially appended.

An integration of the programme of lessons with the everyday life of the pupils presupposes that the theme forming the basis of the lessons takes into account the interests of the children as well as the type of language and social background from which they come.

Linking English to other subjects embraces the concept of "across the curriculum". This linking attempts to make the subject, English Second Language, more relevant and meaningful.

This range of methods and approaches arose, as already pointed out, from the discussions and interviews which constituted the writer's pilot survey in 1977. When compared with the methods and approaches established in the literature, as reviewed in Part One, the options listed in the questionnaire appear to lack vitality and originality. It is very likely that some of the methods named have theoretical underpinnings which are questionable, and that teachers cling to them because they are not well-read in the methodology or philosophy of second language teaching.

It is important to note that the options listed in this part of the questionnaire were based on an untested but uncomplicated concept of general teacher knowledge and general teacher vocabulary. The fact that few respondents actually made mention of other methods and approaches suggests that a more complicated approach would have been confusing, and also respondents were unfortunately mechanistic in approaching their teaching.

"Other methods" provides teachers with an opportunity to use initiative and be inventive and innovative in their teaching. Examples of what could be included here are: use of video-recordings to discuss language use in given situations, visits to cultural functions, involvement in public speaking competitions, etc.

From Table 11 it appears that in standard 6, the first year of secondary school, the most-used approach is that in which lessons are based on a common theme. The second most commonly used methodological approach involves use of drill/repetition exercises. The close proximity of these two approaches seems to indicate a desire by teachers to strike a balance between making teaching material pleasant and relevant to the pupils, whilst at the same time recognising the need in second language teaching for the consolidation of language structures and skills learnt, by using exercises in drill and repetition. The drill/repetition technique as a teaching method helps ensure that pupils are exposed in a concentrated form to language models and skills that have to be learnt. These would include phonic models initially, but with progress the pupils would proceed to reading and writing models. This continuum may not necessarily always be closely followed, but where basic communication skills need to be given closer attention in improve performance, this approach may be followed.

It is important and relevant at this stage to mention that according to the survey 82,4% of secondary school teachers indicated that they did not regard official policy in English Second Language as restrictive. This relative freedom suggests that teachers can explore new approaches and adapt their methods to the demands of their circumstances. It does, however, place more emphasis on the need for imagination and initiative in the teacher, qualities which were not evinced very much in the responses.

A second explanation of the high usage/preference rating of drill/repetition exercises in standard 6 is that such exercises at a simple level can adequately compensate for weakness in spoken English in the teacher. The high percentage of Afrikaans-speaking teachers at the secondary school level may contribute to the high rating this approach obtained.

It is common (though perhaps unfortunate) practice in schools to allocate the lower secondary school standards to teachers who have still to prove their competence. This could explain why the teaching of grammar is third in the usage/preference rating at standard 6 level: the level of "grammatical knowledge" demanded by the syllabus is not very high, and may be taught by a teacher with only a basic knowledge of grammar.

The syllabus for standards 5 - 7, for example, states in regard to the teaching of language, that (numbering used is that in the official syllabus):

- 3.4 In order to consolidate the essential skills in the use of English, a series of exercises closely correlated with oral and written work should be devised to enrich the pupil's vocabulary and extend his knowledge of idiomatic English. They should provide further practice in, and extension and consolidation of, the work done in standard 5.....

These structures should include:

- 3.4.1 statements, questions, commands, negative and emphatic forms, and direct and reported speech, including the relevant punctuation;
- 3.4.2 the use, meaning and order of words and phrases in sentences;
- 3.4.3 the use of pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, adjectives and adverbs;
- 3.4.4 concord and sequence of tenses

Later in the same syllabus, in the section on language for standards 6

and 7, according to the first of the above quotations, there should be an "extension and consolidation of the work done in standard 5". The demands of the syllabus require that the teacher have the ability to exploit language in order to enhance the effectiveness of his teaching. However, a factor which plays a role at this stage in the teacher's selection of teaching method is the requirement of the syllabus that language skills should be sufficiently mastered to enable the pupils to write idiomatic English. Most teachers of standard 7 showed in the survey that they considered the teaching of grammar the most effective way to achieve this goal. That approach obtained the highest rating in question 2, where teachers were required to indicate which of 11 given approaches they used most frequently in the different standards.

The approach of basing a programme of lessons on a common theme is rated first in standard 8, but only third in standards 9/10. The point seems to be that in standards 9/10 the emphasis is on exercises in sustained writing (cf. Table 11, aspect no. 2.7, for standards 9/10), where the teachers of these two standards indicate that the use of exercises in sustained writing is the most commonly used approach. A probable reason for this is that 53,3% of the marks in the Natal Senior Certificate public examination in English Second Language are allotted to questions requiring sustained writing, e.g. written composition, informal letters, and the formal letter/report/dialogue. These three questions together offer 160 out of 300 marks in the examination.

The influence of the Natal Senior Certificate examination on second language teaching in the secondary schools may well change as a result of adaptations to the system of evaluation in schools of the Natal Education Department since 1982. These changes have laid increased stress on year-marks and coursework, and should encourage teachers to explore new approaches in teaching. Whether such effects have taken place would require another survey some years hence.

In order to help teachers devise a system of continuous evaluation at all levels in the secondary school, the following suggested procedure was issued to schools. In the guide the suggested mark allocation for each component was given:

Oral work: marks obtained from continuous assessment in the course of the year (pupil's performance in normal class discussions to be taken into account)	60 marks
Written work: marks obtained from controlled tests	120 marks
marks obtained from routine schoolwork	120 marks

(Written work may include exercises based on literary works studied. The inclusion of 120 marks obtained in controlled tests is designed to establish a balance between complete teacher-centred evaluation, and that of a standard set by consensus amongst teachers of the subject at the school)*

The actual programme of assessment in English Second Language is left to each school, although it is common practice for a balance to be maintained between pupils' class performance throughout the year, and formal examinations or tests standardized within the school. It was previously pointed out that "grammar" assumed a high priority amongst teachers in standard 7. Teachers of ESL appear to retain this preference for grammar as part of their teaching method, for in standards 8, 9 and 10 it is the second most commonly used approach. The importance of this preference will be considered in the recommendations in the last chapter of this study.

*Information obtained from an internal document issued by the Principal Subject Adviser for English Second Language.

The stress on exercises in sustained writing and grammar possibly explains why there is little emphasis on accuracy/oracy at the standard 9/10 level. Table 11 shows that accuracy/oracy at the standard 9/10 level lies only 9th out of 11 in the usage/preference rating. The low rating given to the use of drama/role-playing as an effective teaching method, where it is of least popularity in standards 9/10, confirms the low emphasis on the use of the spoken word in teaching at that level.

In question 2 of the questionnaire, teachers were asked to indicate to what extent they included the study of works of literature in their teaching of English Second Language. The following table shows how literature becomes increasingly important as the pupils progress through secondary school.

Table 12
Frequency of literature teaching in secondary schools

<u>Standard</u>	<u>Order of frequency</u>	<u>% time used</u>
6	11th	1,3%
7	11th	2,2%
8	7th	5,5%
9/10	4th	13,4%

A likely reason for the greater emphasis on the study of works of literature with advancement in secondary school is that the higher classes (i.e. standards 9/10) tend to have graduate English-speaking teachers with at least one course in English. It has been mentioned that the study of English for degree purposes at English-medium universities in South Africa entails mainly the study of works of literature, with little attention being given to language structures.

In respect of the teaching of English Second Language the aspect "literature" in the syllabus entails the study of poems, plays, and novels selected for the class by the teacher. This study has been fairly superficial in the past, but, as will be seen in the final chapter of this study, a different approach has been recommended in revising the syllabus for implementation in 1985.

Although it was suggested earlier that the examination system may influence teachers in the emphasis they place on different aspects of the syllabus, this is unlikely to be the case in the study of works of literature. The teachers have considerable freedom in the selection of works they wish to use for there is no official prescription or written examination. The only restrictions which may be placed on teachers are the availability of books, poems, and plays, and, obviously, general censorship.

A disappointing finding from an analysis of the figures in Table 11 is that the alternative "other methods" (section 2.11 of question 2) received a low response rating throughout the secondary school.

Table 13
Frequency of use of own methods by teachers

<u>Standard</u>	<u>Rating</u>	<u>Time devoted</u>
6	9th	4,6%
7	9th	3,6%
8	10th	4,5%
9/10	10th	3,8%

The syllabus cannot justifiably be blamed for this apparent lack of originality and inventiveness on the part of teachers, since 62,6% of secondary school teachers regarded the syllabus as adequate. Nor can official restrictions be blamed, for 82,4% of teachers indicated that official policy did not restrict them in their work. Reasons which

may be suggested for the low ratings are: absence of teacher initiative and inventiveness, inadequate or inappropriate training, insufficient time to explore and experiment, and implied restrictions inherent in any examination system. Whatever the reasons may be, the finding reveals a weakness which requires closer examination.

4.5 Extent to which teachers are able to suggest or develop new ideas in their teaching

A feature which is basic to all effective language teaching is the scope a teacher has to give expression to his own ideas towards making teaching more effective. Undue restriction may cause teachers to withdraw into slavish acceptance of minimum standards. The element of innovation and inventiveness in their teaching may be detrimentally affected by restrictions. Since this was considered as an important factor in the working circumstances of all English Second Language teachers, it was decided to include an appropriate question in the survey. This question read: "To what extent are you free to suggest or develop ideas in the teaching of English Second Language in respect of" and a list which appears in the following table was given. The response of the teachers suggests a high degree of freedom in the aspects of teaching which were listed.

Table 14

Expressed freedom of choice in aspects of teaching English Second Language, placed in rank order

<u>Order</u>	<u>Aspect of teaching</u>	<u>% of Teachers free to make own choice</u>
1.	Choice of lesson content.....	90,1%
2.	Method	85,5%
3.	Choice of literature/books to be studied/readers)	71,0%
4.	Choice of techniques of examining/testing ...	59,5%
5.	Choice of volume of work required of pupils ..	58,8%
6.	Choice of textbooks	55,7%

The table reflects a satisfactory picture in English Second Language teaching. Teachers indicated that they have much freedom in three very important aspects of teaching: choice of lesson content, choice of method, and choice of reading material. It can be suggested that these three aspects determine the whether a teacher is able to adapt his methods to the needs of the class-group, or to the particular circumstances prevailing at the school. The remaining three aspects, viz. choice of techniques of examining/testing, choice of volume of work required of pupils, and choice of textbooks, are, under the system of evaluation/assessment in existence in most schools under consideration, understandably subject to more supervision than the first three aspects named.

Freedom to choose techniques of examining/testing receives a high rating (i.e. nearly 60,0%) amongst secondary school teachers. However, since bi-annual progress reports on pupils are a requirement, most schools adapt their system of evaluation for each subject to accommodate this. This need not necessarily be a restriction on teachers, for examining/testing is of secondary importance to lesson content, method and choice of reading material.

The high percentage of teachers (59,5%) who indicated that they felt free to decide on what techniques of examining/testing to use provides some cause for concern when seen against the 26,7% of teachers who rated their knowledge of techniques of evaluation/assessment as very good, with 15,3% as weak (cf. Table 8).

A reasonable conclusion which can be drawn from the responses is that in terms of the overall opportunity to make choices on aspects of teaching the subject, the majority of teachers regarded themselves as free. The following table supports this conclusion.

Table 15

Freedom to suggest or develop ideas in teaching English Second Language.

(question 11 of the questionnaire)

	<u>Free.</u>	<u>Not free.</u>	<u>No answer</u>
1. Method	85,5%	10,7%	3,8%
2. Choice of textbooks	55,7%	38,9%	5,3%
3. Choice of presc. books/readers	71,0%	19,8%	9,2%
4. Choice of tech. of exam/test	59,5%	34,4%	6,1%
5. Vol. work required of pupils	58,8%	36,6%	4,6%
6. Choice of lesson content	<u>90,1%</u>	<u>7,6%</u>	<u>2,3%</u>
Average	70,1%	24,7%	5,2%

This reaction from teachers corresponds largely to the response to question 6 in which 82,4% of the secondary school teachers indicated that they did not feel restricted by official policy in their teaching of English Second Language. It is a pity, however, that although so many teachers apparently felt free, they did not give evidence of having many original ideas.

The freedom enjoyed by teachers of this subject is cause for some concern. Freedom of choice to teachers of whom only 11,5% are trained to teach the subject, and of whom 45,8% have less than 2 years' actual teaching experience in the subject, may not be a good thing. The overall positive self-image of the teachers as reflected in the responses to question 5 (cf. Table 8) suggests that most teachers consider that they are rendering at least satisfactory service as teachers of English Second Language.

4.6 Further responses to questions on Method

Included in the questionnaire was a question requiring teachers of ESL to rate themselves on a four-point scale in their ability to teach

given aspects of English. All eleven aspects listed in the question (question 13 of the questionnaire) have, according to the syllabus, to be taught in high schools in standards 8, 9 and 10, and all except dialogue writing, report writing and the formal study of prose works, plays and poems, are requirements of the syllabus for standards 6 and 7.

Earlier in the questionnaire, in question 2, teachers were asked to indicate against the standards they taught, which general approaches of method they preferred to use. Although an analysis of their responses appears earlier, it will be necessary at times to compare these responses with those to question 13. Moreover, teachers were requested in question 5 to rate their mastery/command of a list of 12 aspects of English, all of which are important in the effective teaching of English Second Language. These responses, too, will be referred to in an analysis and interpretation of responses to question 13.

In terms of all 11 aspects presented in question 13, the overall self-rating of teachers is encouraging. The following figures show that teachers in assessing themselves generally felt adequate-to-better in the performance of their tasks as teachers of English Second Language.

Table 16

Self-rating by teachers of their ability to teach English

- 37,9% rated themselves as very good
- 48,8% rated themselves as adequate
- 6,9% rated themselves as weak
- 0,8% rated themselves as inadequate
- 5,6% did not offer a rating of themselves.

This overall picture in which 86,7% rated their ability to teach

English Second Language as adequate and better, is perhaps, as in question 5, an indication of a confident and positive self-image. However, these self-ratings may be somewhat exaggerated and it is, after all, unlikely that many teachers would have admitted to incompetence - even anonymously!

A closer study of the responses to question 13 reveals useful data. The following table indicates the percentage of teachers who rated themselves in terms of the scale "very good, adequate, weak and inadequate" for each of the 11 aspects listed in question 13.

Table 17

(Question 13 of questionnaire)

Self-ratings by teachers of their ability to teach various aspects of the English language

	<u>V.G.</u>	<u>Adeq.</u>	<u>Weak</u>	<u>Inadeq</u>	<u>No ans.</u>
13.1 Oral	38,9%	44,3%	3,1%	0%	13,7%
13.2 Functional grammar	42,1%	50,9%	2,7%	0,3%	4,0%
13.3 Essay writing	35,2%	56,5%	3,0%	0,8%	4,6%
13.4 Letter writing	44,3%	48,9%	1,5%	0,8%	4,5%
13.5 Paragraph writing	38,9%	55,8%	1,5%	0%	3,8%
13.6 Comprehension	51,9%	42,8%	3,8%	0%	1,5%
13.7 Dialogue writing	34,4%	54,2%	6,1%	0%	5,3%
13,8 Report writing	26,7%	59,5%	7,7%	0,8%	5,3%
13.9 Poetry	35,9%	42,0%	13,7%	2,3%	6,1%
13.10 Prose	38,9%	42,0%	12,2%	0,8%	6,1%
13.11 Plays	<u>30,5%</u>	<u>39,7%</u>	<u>20,6%</u>	<u>3,1%</u>	<u>6,1%</u>
	37,9%	48,8%	6,9%	0,8%	5,6%

The low average for the "no responses" (5,6%) is encouraging since it suggests that most of the secondary school teachers who responded were prepared to evaluate their ability in teaching aspects of English. What is also possibly indicative of the morale of the teachers of this subject is the generally high ratings given.

An interesting picture develops when one arranges the 11 aspects in question 13 in rank order according to the "very good" self-ratings by teachers. The following table gives this picture.

Table 18
Rank order of "very good" self-ratings of 11 aspects of English

<u>Aspect</u>	<u>Order</u>	<u>%</u>
Comprehension	1	51,9%
Letter writing	2	44,3%
Functional grammar	3	42,1%
Oral	4	38,9%
Paragraph writing	5	38,9%
Prose writing	6	38,9%
Poetry	7	35,9%
Essay writing	8	35,1%
Dialogue writing	9	34,4%
Plays	10	30,5%
Report writing	11	26,7%

It came as a surprise to the writer to see that the ability to teach comprehension (commonly called reading-study - comprising reading a passage of prose or poetry and answering questions on it) obtained the highest frequency rating in the "very good" category. This may be because most English-speaking teachers have little difficulty with the use of this type of exercise in the lesson programme. One is reminded that 68,7% of the secondary school teachers of the subject are native speakers of English. It is, however, difficult to reconcile this with the low rating given to the aspect "structured (aspects based on reading - integrated)" in question 2. Here the teachers rated this approach 6th in all secondary school standards, except standard 8 where it was rated 5th. A possible explanation for this apparent inconsistency is that many teachers may be textbook-bound and thus do

not see comprehension in English Second Language teaching method as part of an integrated reading programme. Another possibility is that the majority of teachers are not trained for the task. Such teachers may resort to giving comprehension exercises not as a technique of method, but rather as a test of reading comprehension.

The fact that amongst teachers who rated their ability as "adequate" comprehension was placed 8th (cf. Table 19), seems to confirm the argument that, in the main, English-speakers rate their ability in teaching comprehension as better than adequate. The percentage for the combined "very good" and "adequate" ratings totals 94,7%, which leaves few teachers uncommitted in this regard.

Table 19

Rank order based on "adequate" responses to self-ratings by teachers of their ability to teach aspects of English

<u>Aspect</u>	<u>Order</u>	<u>%</u>
Report writing	1	59,5%
Essay writing	2	56,5%
Paragraph writing	3	55,8%
Dialogue writing	4	54,2%
Functional grammar	5	50,9%
Letter writing	6	48,9%
Oral	7	44,3%
Comprehension	8	42,8%
Poetry	9	42,0%
Prose	10	42,0%
Plays	11	39,7%

It has been suggested that most teachers do not see the use of comprehension exercises as part of an integrated reading programme, and that they use this type of exercise only for purposes of evaluating pupil performance. In order to obtain perspective it is

necessary to point out that many textbooks for English Second Language are designed on the basis of reading comprehension exercises. Most examination question papers include a question based on a passage followed by questions. The Natal Senior Certificate examination question paper for English Second Language is required to include a reading comprehension exercise which is also used as the basis for questions on language structures, resulting from an understanding of language in use. For example, the Natal Senior Certificate (Higher Grade) English Second Language examination contained the following questions arising from an understanding of a given passage:

"What grammatical proof is there that Pitt had many helmets and compasses?"

(Natal Senior Certificate, Dec. 1981, Question 4(e))

The required answer was

"The apostrophe follows the 's' in both cases, indicating plural possessive case".

Another common question on language is to require the candidate to rewrite a sentence from a passage in reported or direct speech.

It is a requirement of the syllabus that the Natal Senior Certificate examination questions based on the reading comprehension be worth 26,7% of the total mark of 300, and 33,3% of the mark of 240, which is the maximum for the written examination. This may influence teachers in their use of comprehension exercises as a teaching technique, although many teachers use them as a means of giving pupils exercise in reading, and to evaluate their comprehension of what has been read.

Letter writing is highly rated amongst teachers in their self-rating of their ability to teach English. A probable explanation is that in letter writing there is a high common factor between English and Afrikaans. It may be suggested, too, that letter writing has a high factor of mechanical procedure, for example, format, address(es), salutation, and conclusion. However, like all exercises in sustained

writing, letter writing requires the ability to write English competently. This may explain why the number of teachers who rate their ability as "very good" is only 44,3% (cf Table 18), with 48,9% rating themselves as "adequate" (Table 19).

In response to question 2 most teachers, especially of standards 7 to 10, indicated that they tended to use "formal grammar" in their English Second Language teaching method. In response to question 13, only 42,1% of teachers rated their ability to teach functional grammar as "very good". This low rating is cause for concern since ability to teach grammar, especially functional grammar as defined in question 13, is a prerequisite for successful teaching in ESL. The low rating is consistent with the response to question 5 where knowledge of grammar obtained a "very good" rating of only 41,2%. Probable reasons for this may be the few adequately trained teachers, and the fact that virtually all teachers who have attended English-medium universities have had little structural English studies in their degrees. Furthermore, there is a likelihood that the large number of non-native speakers of English who teach the subject do not have a readily accessible working knowledge of functional grammar in English. Word order differs between the two languages, and tenses in English and Afrikaans are affected by entirely different rules.

The remaining seven aspects listed in question 13 obtained disappointing "very good" ratings, as can be seen in Table 18. Concern is felt at the fact that only 38,9% of secondary school teachers rated their ability to teach oral as "very good". This possibly relates to the low rating the use of drama/role-playing obtained from teachers, viz. only 17,6% used it much. Since 31,3% of all secondary school teachers surveyed are non-native speakers of English, their background may be a contributory factor, as would be the lack of suitable training and adequate experience.

This survey was aimed only at teachers of English Second Language.

One would, therefore, expect that the majority of teachers would rate themselves as "very good" in at least the main aspects of English Second Language teaching listed in question 13. However, it is disconcerting that almost half (48,8%) rated their ability in teaching the essential aspects of the subject as only "adequate". Furthermore, important aspects such as oracy and the teaching of plays received low ratings. These findings are important since it appears that the teachers, in their own ratings of themselves, feel only adequate in teaching vital aspects of English.

The fact that the ability to teach reading comprehension received a low rating of "adequate" by as many as 42,8% of the teachers, has important implications. There are, for example, few textbooks in English Second Language, and fewer teachers of the subject who do not include exercises in reading comprehension in their programme of lessons. It was mentioned earlier that exercises in reading comprehension are frequently ends in themselves, rather than a developmental medium. This may explain the low rating by so many teachers, for they realise that their ability to improve pupil performance in reading comprehension is limited.

Listed among the aspects in question 13 was that of "functional grammar" which in turn was subdivided into 8 sub-components as shown in the table below.

Table 20

Self-rating by teachers of their ability to teach aspects of functional grammar

<u>Aspect</u>	<u>Very g.</u>	<u>Adeq.</u>	<u>Weak</u>	<u>Inadeq.</u>	<u>No ans.</u>
Parts of speech	41,2%	50,4%	4,0%	0,8%	4,6%
Tenses	44,3%	48,9%	3,0%	0%	3,8%
Concord	42,0%	45,8%	5,3%	0%	6,9%
Vocabulary	42,0%	53,4%	0,8%	0,8%	3,0%
Gender	45,8%	51,1%	0%	0%	3,0%
Diminutives	43,5%	51,8%	0,8%	0,8%	3,1%
Sentence construction	35,1%	54,2%	7,6%	0%	3,1%
Antonyms/synonyms	42,8%	51,9%	0,8%	0%	4,5%
Average	42,1%	50,9%	1,7%	0,3%	4,0%

A close examination of the responses to each sub-section under "functional grammar" in question 13 shows that important aspects such as tenses, concord, and vocabulary, received "very good" ratings by less than half the teachers. The other aspects, except for vocabulary, received "adequate" ratings by almost half the teachers. The ability to teach tenses, concord and vocabulary is essential to successful teaching in English Second Language. These findings suggest an unsatisfactory situation.

Only 35,1% of the teachers rated their ability to teach sentence construction as very good, and 54,2% considered themselves adequate. Concern in this regard is aroused when it is realised that correct sentence construction is essential for effective speaking and writing in English.

Previously in this study evidence was taken from the syllabuses to support the case that expert knowledge of aspects of functional

grammar was not essential for successful teaching in this subject. However, a basic working-knowledge of parts of speech, tenses, concord, vocabulary, gender, diminutives, sentence construction, antonyms and synonyms, and other structural aspects, does seem necessary for successful teaching of English Second Language. As pupils progress into the fourth phase of schooling, teachers clearly need to be more expertly equipped to teach English grammar, than at the lower levels. In second language many pupils because of their non-English backgrounds, do not have their ears attuned to the subtleties of the idiom of English. This is perhaps why resort has frequently to be made to colloquial language with which the child is familiar to explain certain aspects of the language. When explanations of this type are resorted to the teacher has obviously to be equipped to cope, as well as to extend pupils' knowledge.

The fact that "concord" (cf. Table 20) has the highest no-response rate of 6,9 has some interesting implications. Is the reason perhaps that the concept "concord" is something of which many English-speaking teachers are not aware, or is it because the majority of this group of teachers have a fairly superficial knowledge of grammatical terms?

4.7 An analysis of why teachers teach English Second Language

Included in the questionnaire was a question in which teachers were asked to suggest why they taught the subject English Second Language. In response 51,1% of the secondary school teachers indicated that they had no alternative, 47,3% did so of their own volition, and 1,5% failed to respond. Furthermore, 13,0% of the teachers indicated that they were initially compelled to teach the subject, but in due course grew to prefer it to other subjects.

Some of the comments made by the respondents indicate why they changed their preference, and why they later chose to teach English Second Language:

"Initially no alternative, but enjoyed the flexibility of the subject very much, i.e. insofar as literature is concerned";

"more freedom than first language";

"different problems from first language - makes for variety; less emphasis on formal literature study;"

"teacher has considerable freedom as regards content of what is taught and how it is taught. It is not a prescriptive subject and can be made a truly educational experience for pupils ;

"I enjoy the discipline of the Afrikaans-speaking child and find English Second Language more relaxing than teaching main language!";

"originally had no choice but came to see it as a vehicle through which anti-English prejudices could be broken down";

"I feel there is a need for English-speaking teachers to teach English Second Language";

"I derive much satisfaction from it".

It appears from the above comments, which were not called for in the questionnaire, that one of the most attractive features of English

Second Language teaching at the secondary school level is the comparative freedom teachers enjoy. This is supported by the response to question 6 in which 82,4% of the respondents felt that official policy was not stifling. Some comments appended to question 6 are indicative of the general consciousness among teachers of being able to choose their own approaches in teaching the subject:

"I may use my discretion after satisfying the demands of the syllabus";

"I have free reign completely"; (sic)

"Again, I would like to state that the teacher may use his own discretion. Only basic guidelines are provided" (translated);

"No, not at all. This system of relative freedom is effective, for it is often found that different classes in the same standard require completely different approaches";

"teachers are allowed sufficient scope to devise their own teaching methods".

However, some responses indicated that a few teachers felt restricted:

"Not as far as English Second Language policy is concerned. On the other hand the rigid bureaucratic nature of the entire school system places fairly considerable constraints on the English Second Language teacher";

"The only real restriction placed on teachers at present is self-imposed. It is the restriction of initiative and has nothing to do with official policy";

"As soon as any issues pertaining to our present-day life are touched upon, e.g. apartheid, one is open to criticism, charges of disloyalty, etc.";

"The books we use generally explain the work to the pupils very well, although I find that there are insufficient exercises" (translated);

"One must remember the final examination is a written one";

"I'd like to spend more time in teaching the children to talk a better English, since the majority of them seldom seem to write any English after leaving school";

"Should be more concentration on originality, e.g. films (classics), plays, talks";

"We are very short of books - both text- and reading books. The library is also very limited in English novels",

It appears from these comments that where restrictions are placed on teachers these arise from factors such as availability of books, the examination system, lack of initiative, and inhibitions imposed by the norms and standards of the local community.

4.8 An overview analysis of teacher suggestions on in-service training

One of the questions included in the questionnaire was aimed at finding out who the teachers readily called upon for help and guidance in teaching the subject. The importance of these answers became apparent when it transpired from an analysis of other responses that only 11,5% of all secondary school teachers of the subject had received any specialised training, that 31,3% were non-native speakers of English, and that as many as 45,8% of the teachers have less than 2 years' experience in teaching English Second Language. It became clear that readily available assistance and guidance to these teachers was a priority.

From an analysis of the answers to question 12 in which teachers were asked to indicate who they could turn to for help and guidance, the following were the sources from which help and guidance could be obtained:

Table 21People from whom teachers could obtain help and guidance

1. Head of the subject at the school	49,6%
2. Principal Subject Adviser	16,0%
3. Other teachers on the staff	15,3%
4. Nobody/no answer	9,2%
5. Head of Department at the school.....	8,4%
6. Principal of the school	1,5%

Half of the teachers, therefore, resort for advice to their subject heads, i.e. the teacher in charge of the subject at the school. This suggests that a strategy devised to provide a programme for the in-service training of teachers of the subject should focus on the subject head. It appears too that much effort should be directed at motivating, helping, guiding and inspiring the senior teacher responsible for English Second Language at the school.

The survey showed that nearly one-third (31,3%) of the teachers indicated that the source of assistance and guidance to which they could go for help were the Principal Subject Adviser and other teachers. The implications are that these teachers obtain infrequent assistance and guidance, because it is impractical for the Principal Subject Adviser to visit all secondary schools frequently, and peer guidance and advice has the built-in danger of stagnation, especially under the circumstances prevailing in respect of the teaching of English Second Language.

The reason why only 1,5% of the teachers indicated that they could go to their Principals for advice and guidance is that there are very few English-speaking principals of parallel-medium and Afrikaans-medium schools. Moreover, only two Principals of all secondary schools in Natal which offer English Second Language as a subject have any personal experience in teaching the subject.

Nearly one-tenth (9,2%) of the teachers indicated that they had no person to whom they could turn for advice and guidance. The teachers who did not respond to this question were assumed to have had nobody to turn to. Only 8,4% of the teachers obtained any help from the official Head of Department* in charge of the subject, English Second Language, in the school. The reasons for this are probably similar to those proffered to explain why so few teachers turned to the school principal.

Closely related to the matter of advice and guidance is the in-service training and education of teachers. In question 16 of the questionnaire, teachers were requested to suggest the form this should take for English Second Language. The following table lists the most common suggestions and the percentage of teachers who made them.

*The post "Head of Department" is one of the first promotion posts to which teachers may aspire. The incumbent of this post usually has a group of subjects delegated to him for which he is responsible, or, alternatively, he may have a phase of schooling or grouping of standards.

Table 22
Suggestions on the form of in-service training

<u>Form of in-service training favoured</u>	%
Symposia and inter-school regional workshops of new developments.....	35,9%
The issue of guides and model lessons.....	12,2%
School-based demonstration lessons and discussions ...	6,1%
The injection of new and effective teaching techniques	3,0%
Personal visits by the Principal Subject Adviser	3,0%
More instruction in drama and play-production to make lessons more interesting	3,0%
Holiday course and newsletters	2,3%
Regular inter-school visits by the teachers	1,5%

No suggestions or comments were forthcoming from 29,8% of the teachers.

Over one-third (35,9%) of the teachers favoured inter-school contact between teachers where ideas could be exchanged on teaching methods. A high percentage of teachers (29,8%) did not respond to the question. The reluctance may have its roots in a multitude of factors, some of which may be a lack of concern, a feeling that little benefit can be obtained from further training, a feeling of inadequacy, and so on.

It does appear, however, that some teachers are deeply concerned about problems related to their teaching of the subject. Here are some comments taken from the responses to question 16:

"Demonstration lessons by experts in certain fields, with actual children (preferably more average children!!);

- " (i) Suggestions for the use of audio-visual apparatus in lessons;
- (ii) Keep us up to date with modern trends in the teaching of second language;
- (iii) Tell us what other schools in Natal are doing and how we in Northern Natal can improve the standard of English";

- "(a) Discussion of standardisation of written assessment, particularly at the senior level;
- (b) Discussion of the use of drama and role-play";

"Seminars with emphasis on practical application on matters such as (a) identifying and correcting errors in writing and speaking; (b) assessment of oral and written work; (c) teaching literature and composition writing. These seminars should be for small groups (8 - 10 teachers) with common interests, e.g. std. 5 teachers, 4th phase teachers etc. ";

"Drama methods. General discussion of specific works of literature. Discussion of methods of stimulating class discussion".

These random quotations indicate that serious thought was given by some teachers to ways of improving their effectiveness as teachers of English Second Language.

5. Conclusions

The following conclusions arise from the survey analysis:

- 5.1 Very few teachers of English Second Language have received any specialised training.
- 5.2 Teachers of English Second Language enjoy freedom in their choice of general approaches and teaching method, and this pleases them.
- 5.3 Too few teachers, although having a positive self-image, are suitably capable of teaching critical areas of English.
- 5.4 Too many teachers of English Second Language at the secondary level are non-native speakers of English.
- 5.5 Despite 5.2 and perhaps because of 5.1 and 5.4 too few teachers show initiative and innovation in adapting their methods to suit their circumstances.
- 5.6 Tenure as a teacher of English Second Language is of limited duration. This is indicated by the high percentage of teachers with less than 2 years' experience in teaching English Second Language.
- 5.7 The majority of teachers of this subject regard the syllabus as adequate.
- 5.8 The majority of teachers use audio-visual aids in their teaching.
- 5.9 Few teachers appear to appreciate the value of drama as an aid to

improved teaching method.

- 5.10 The in-service training of teachers of English Second Language needs to be designed to meet the requirements of the teachers.
- 5.11 There is some evidence that the reading background of many teachers of this subject, especially with regard to plays and poetry, is deficient.
- 5.12 The role and function of the teacher in charge of English Second Language at the school (the subject head) should be clearly described and defined.
- 5.13 The majority of teachers of English Second Language regard their task as "worth the effort".
- 5.14 Too many teachers do not consider themselves sufficiently competent in teaching important aspects of English.

CHAPTER 6THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS:
RESULTS OF A SURVEY1. Perspective

Successful teaching at secondary school level depends on many factors, not least upon the success of the tuition provided at the primary school. The preceding chapter showed that some aspects of the teaching of English Second Language at secondary schools of the Natal Education Department are rather precarious, because inter alia of underqualified teachers and social circumstances.

The situation at primary schools of the Natal Education Department, where English (like other subjects) is generally taught by non-specialist teachers, gives cause for concern in respect of second language. Concerned and helpful though the efforts of many teachers are, these efforts lose effect if they are misdirected or carried out in an atmosphere which lacks educational leadership.

The writer's questionnaire, when analysed in respect of primary school respondents (N = 326), provides insight into problem areas which need remediation in the interests of the most important persons concerned - the children.

Limitations of the questionnaire method of obtaining information have been discussed in the introduction to Part Two of this study. However, since this chapter is not a statistical analysis but an overview of teacher opinions, attitudes and comments on the teaching of English Second Language at the primary school, the questionnaire with all its inadequacies is considered an adequate source of part of the data for this study.

At the time of the survey there were 194 primary schools in the Natal Education Department. 96 were English-medium only, 25 Afrikaans-medium only, and 73 parallel-medium. For the purposes of this study no distinction was made between primary schools which were exclusively junior primary (i.e. comprising only the 1st phase of schooling), those exclusively senior primary (i.e. comprising the ensuing four years), and those combining the phases. The responses suggested that these distinctions did not appear to be important in affecting teacher attitudes to English Second Language.

2. Description of the target area

As with the secondary schools, the primary schools of the Natal Education Department are divided in terms of language predominance into parallel- and single-medium schools. For the purposes of this study the latter are Afrikaans-medium schools since other single-medium schools do not offer English as Second Language.

The five regions into which Natal was divided to facilitate an analysis of the responses to the survey of the secondary teachers were also used as the basis for the primary counterparts. The table which follows gives the distribution of the primary schools in Natal in the various "language regions" outlined in the previous chapter.

Table 1
Distribution of Primary Schools offering English Second Language

	<u>Afrik-med.</u>	<u>Parallel-med.</u>
Durban region	8	3
Pietermaritzburg region	4	3
Predominantly Eng.-speaking rural	3	27
Predominantly Afrik.-speaking rural	9	32
Even distribution between Eng. and Afrik.	<u>0</u>	<u>3</u>
Total:	24	68

An examination of the numerical relationship between English- and Afrikaans-speaking pupils in the above regions gave an indication of the language predominance in terms of pupils of schools in these regions. The following table reflects this information.

Table 2

Numerical relationship between English- and Afrikaans-speaking primary school pupils in various regions of Natal

	<u>English-speaking</u>	<u>Afrikaans-speaking</u>
Durban region	13 626	3 726
Pietermaritzburg	4 768	1 416
Predominantly English-speaking rural area	19 980	3 150
Predominantly Afrikaans-speaking rural area	4 560	9 212
Even distribution between English- and Afrikaans-speakers	<u>874</u>	<u>733</u>
Total	43 808	18 237

The total number of primary school teachers of English Second Language at the time of the survey was 346 of whom 326 responded to the questionnaire. However, since considerable attention is paid to the relationship between the language character of the school and community, an overview of basic information upon which the following analysis is based is necessary. The table which follows provides this information.

Table 3

Basic data on the teaching force in English Second Language

1. Total no. of teachers	346
- no. of teachers in urban regions	62
- no. of teachers in rural regions	284
- predominantly English-speaking rural regions	80
- predominantly Afrikaans-speaking rural regions	189
- Even distribution between English- and Afrikaans-speakers	15
2. Teachers with less than 2 years' experience in teaching English Second Language	102 (31,2%)
3. Average no. years experience in ESL	7,4 yrs
4. Percentage of teachers trained to teach ESL	42,9%
5. Home language of teachers of ESL:	
- English	108 (33,1%)
- Afrikaans	218 (66,9%)
6. Percentage of total number of all teachers of the Natal Education Department officially rated bilingual	37,9%
7. Percentage of the total number of teachers of the Natal Education Department who are English-speaking	60,2%
8. Percentage of the total number of teachers of the Natal Education Department who are Afrikaans-speaking	39,8%
9. Percentage of teachers who are Afrikaans-speaking and not officially bilingual	15,6%
10. Percentage of teachers who are English-speaking and not officially bilingual	46,3%

(Source of information: the questionnaire, and the following official documents: Staff Returns for August 1981, and Tables of Educational Statistics and Information, 1982)

3. An analysis of the responses to the questionnaire

3.1 Teacher assessment of pupil attitudes to English

It is one of the basic presuppositions of this study that teacher attitudes influence pupil attitudes to English. This is particularly so at the primary school level where the children are more open to adult influence than in the secondary school.

An analysis of the responses to question 18 of the questionnaire, which reads "Please try to comment on pupil attitudes to ESL" shows that the majority of pupils are positive in their attitude to English. The table which follows reflects this:

Table 4
Attitude of pupils to English

<u>BOYS</u>				<u>GIRLS</u>			
<u>Pos.</u>	<u>Neg.</u>	<u>Unsure.</u>	<u>No ans.</u>	<u>Pos.</u>	<u>Neg.</u>	<u>Unsure.</u>	<u>No ans.</u>
75,8%	7,7%	7,0%	9,5%	85,9%	1,5%	3,1%	9,5%

As is the case in secondary girls schools, primary school girls are rated by teachers as more positive towards English than boys. In the primary schools the difference between boys and girls is 10,1%, and this increases to 20% in the secondary school.

The positive attitude of the girls to English in primary school is maintained through secondary school. Boys, however, according to teachers, appear to become less positive in their attitude to English the longer they are at school. At the primary level 75,8% of the boys are positive, whereas at the secondary school level this drops to 63,4%. However, it seems more germane to this study that there is a relationship between drop-off in attitude and a similar trend between the primary and high school teachers - a decrease in positive attitude

from 88% to 80,1%. These figures tend to support the suggestion that teacher attitudes determine to a large extent pupil attitudes. As we saw in chapters 3 and 4 of this study teacher attitudes are particularly relevant in affecting the position of the second language in a school's curriculum. It is not within the province of this study to discuss reasons for the more positive attitude to English amongst girls, than amongst boys. The root is perhaps the cultural phenomenon that girls are normally more conscientious in approach to linguistic studies than boys.

3.2 Distribution of teachers of English Second Language in Natal

To appreciate the importance of the fact that 66,9% of all primary school teachers of English Second Language are non-native speakers of English one should examine the distribution of these teachers in Natal. This is necessary since, as explained in the previous chapter, Natal is linguistically a heterogeneous province.

When one examines the position of English Second Language teachers in Afrikaans-medium schools, it is noted that 93,9% are Afrikaans-speaking. This is important since children in Afrikaans-medium schools have less contact with or exposure to English than their counterparts in parallel-medium schools. They would seem to need a concentrated exposure to a good and correct model of English whenever they are taught English Second Language. Whether a native speaker of Afrikaans is able to achieve and attain this ideal is doubtful.

Although the percentage of Afrikaans-speaking teachers of ESL in primary schools is at 52,4% lower than in the Afrikaans-medium schools, it is still remarkably high for a province where more than 76% (Holcroft, 1976) of the White population is English-speaking.

A practice in some parallel-medium primary schools which helps to keep

the percentage of Afrikaans-speaking teachers as low as 52,4%, is that in which teachers of English-medium classes teach the Afrikaans-medium classes English Second Language. Even in parallel-medium schools, then, there is a predominance of Afrikaans being spoken amongst teachers. There are exceptions where the English-speaking pupils are in the majority. Another point that should be borne in mind is that most of the parallel-medium schools are located in the predominantly Afrikaans-speaking rural regions of Natal. This gives cause for concern when it is realised that in both the school and the community English-speakers are likely to be in the minority, and may explain why English-speaking teachers are reluctant to accept posts at such schools. This is clearly one of the main reasons why the majority of primary school teachers of English Second Language are Afrikaans-speaking.

The table which appears below gives an overall picture of the numerical relationship in Natal between English- and Afrikaans-speaking teachers of English Second Language in primary schools of the Natal Education Department.

Table 5

Numerical relationship between English- and Afrikaans-speaking teachers of English Second Language, expressed as a % of the total

	<u>Eng.-speakers</u>	<u>Afrik.-speakers</u>
Afrikaans-medium schools	2,1%	32,9%
Parallel-medium schools	<u>31,0%</u>	<u>34,0%</u>
Total	33,1%	36,9%

In Table 3 it was recorded that 60,2% of the total number of primary school teachers of the Natal Education Department are English-speaking. The figures in Table 3 are almost the reverse of the relationship between the two language groups in terms of the figures given in Table 5 above. The deduction which may logically follow is that too few teachers who are English-speaking are attracted

to teach English Second Language.

In the pre-dominantly Afrikaans-speaking rural areas of Natal 57,9% of all of the teachers of the subject are Afrikaans-speaking, i.e. a ratio to English-speakers of 7:5. When one examines the relationship in the urban regions, 89,2% of the teachers of the subject are Afrikaans-speaking. This gives a ratio of Afrikaans- to English-speaking teachers in urban schools of 9:1. A likely explanation for this is that in urban areas the schools offering the subject are in the main single-medium (i.e. Afrikaans-medium) schools, and that English-speaking teachers prefer not to be appointed to these schools. A probable reason for this preference is that the teachers of English Second Language are likely to be the only English-speaking teachers on the staff. This may explain why use is made of Afrikaans-speakers to teach the subject. Another contributory factor is that most primary schools use class teachers to teach English Second Language as well as the other subjects in the curriculum. Therefore, Afrikaans-speaking teachers who are non-specialist class teachers would also teach English Second Language, involving a linguistic "shift" which pupils would obviously perceive to be superimposed.

When Natal is divided into urban and rural regions, and the teacher distribution in terms of the mother-tongue of the teachers is examined, the following emerges:

Table 6

Distribution of English- and Afrikaans-speaking teachers of English
Second Language in urban and rural regions in Natal

(Percentages expressed are of English Second Language teachers in primary schools in Natal)

	<u>Eng-speakers</u>	<u>Afrik.-speakers</u>
Schools in urban regions	3,1%	25,4%
Schools in rural regions	<u>30,0%</u>	<u>41,5%</u>
Total	33,1%	66,9%

These figures, which confirm those in Table 5, emphasize the need for the whole question of staff allocation in primary schools to be closely examined by the authorities responsible.

3.3 Attitudes towards and opinions of teachers on official aspects of English Second Language teaching

A high percentage of teachers of ESL indicated that they felt that official policy did not restrict them in their work. 78,5% of the respondents felt free, 16,3% felt restricted, and the remainder either did not answer or felt it made little difference to them. However, on closer examination of the responses to the questionnaire, it appears that 30% of the junior primary school teachers (i.e. the English Second Language teachers in standard 1) felt restricted. Their main complaint was that in terms of the syllabus, reading and writing are not permitted in the first year of English Second Language teaching. Provincial Notice 59/1955 prohibits the teaching of writing prior to the second year after the introduction of ESL into the curriculum. Some comments in this regard made in response to question 6 of the questionnaire by these teachers indicate how strongly they felt:

"Pupils are keen to read" (translated).

"Yes, the fact that pupils may not read" (translated).

"I would very much like pupils to be allowed to read simple sentences in English in Standard 1" (translated).

"Intelligent pupils find oral work boring and are keen to read simple books" (translated).

"Pupils make contact with written English too late in their school careers" (translated).

"I would like pupils to be allowed to do written work as an application of what they have learnt" (translated).

"Simple written work can be started in standard 1".

"The jump between standards 1 and 2 is too big in reading and writing" (translated).

"I feel there is too big a jump from standard 1 English Second Language to standard 2 English Second Language where they are expected to be able to read and write, after only doing oral work in standard 1".

Although there is considerable debate on whether English Second Language teaching in standard 1 should include reading and writing, the majority of the primary school respondents (78,5%) favoured a completely oral programme in standard 1.

There was little difference between the percentage of primary school teachers of the subject who felt that official policy was restrictive, and those who felt that the syllabus was adequate. For example, 75,8% of the teachers felt that the syllabus was adequate, whereas 78,5% did not feel restricted by official policy. The main cause of complaint was the provision that the first year lesson programme had to be purely oral.

3.4 The pre-service training of teachers

An analysis of the responses showed that 42,9% of the primary school teachers of English Second Language had received some form of training to teach the subject.

An examination of the comments made by the teachers in response to

question 4, viz. whether they had received any specialised training to teach English Second Language, provides further insight into this important aspect. Almost all comments indicated that the training they received was inadequate, with most stating that method was not dealt with in their teacher training course.

It is relevant to explain that the only institution in Natal which provides pre-service training for primary school teachers of English Second Language is the Durban Teachers' Training College, an exclusively Afrikaans-medium institution. The pilot survey conducted in 1977 in which more than 70% of primary school teachers of English Second Language were interviewed revealed that all teachers who had received their training at this college regarded it as unsatisfactory. This finding, confirmed in the questionnaire survey of 1981, stresses the need for special attention to be given to pre-service training, which directly affects the quality of English Second Language teaching in Natal.

3.5 An analysis of responses to questions on methods used to teach English Second Language

In order to obtain a general overview of the teaching of English Second Language in primary schools it was necessary to determine what approaches were used by teachers in standards 1 to 5. The table which follows is an analysis of the responses to question 2, in which respondents were asked to indicate which of 11 aspects of English Second Language teaching they preferred to use at the different standard levels in the primary school. This table places the 11 choices given in rank order of preference/usage by teachers of the subject.

Table 7

Approaches used in the primary school in the teaching of English Second Language, placed in rank order of teachers' preference/usage

<u>Order of usage/ preference</u>	<u>Approach*</u>
1.	Lessons based on a common theme
2.	Integrated with everyday lives of the pupils
3.	Drill/repetition exercises
4.	Linking English Sec. Lang. with other subjects
5.	Structured (aspects based on reading)
6.	Formal grammar
7.	Predominantly aural/oral
8.	Extensive use of drama/role-playing
9.	Other methods
10.	Stress on literature
11.	Stress on exercises in sustained writing

The most frequently used approach emerged as that of basing a programme of lessons on a common theme. There seems logicality in the fact that second in order of preference/usage is the approach of integrating a programme of lessons with the everyday lives of the pupils. However, it does seem inconsistent that the option "structured (aspects based on reading - integrated)" should be only 5th in the order of frequency.

*The meanings of these approaches were enunciated in Chapter 5.

A likely explanation is that integrating such aspects of language as grammar, exercises in sustained writing, drama/role-playing, etc., into a programme of reading requires thorough preparation and planning which in turn requires a measure of expertise. Limitation in this regard appears to be reflected here for, as indicated earlier, only 42,3% of primary school teachers had received any form of specialist training to teach the subject. Furthermore, most respondents had indicated that their training was inadequate.

Exercises involving drill and repetition appear to be the third most popular approach amongst primary school teachers. This can be an encouraging indication since this method is needed to consolidate basic language structures and skills which have been learnt. However, should this method be used with little imagination and concern for the interests of the pupils, it can be counterproductive.

In order to provide insight into the preference/usage of certain methods at different standard levels in primary schools, the 11 options listed in question 2 were arranged in terms of their popularity amongst teachers from standards 1 to 5. The following table gives this data.

Table 8
Different approaches arranged in order of usage/Preference by teachers for each of the standards in the primary school

	Std. 1		Std 2		Std 3		Std 4		Std 5	
	%	Pos	%	Pos	%	Pos	%	Pos	%	Pos
Formal grammar	0,5	11	10,7	5	13,5	4	12,4	2	13,2	2
Drill/repetition exercises	11,1	5	17,5	3	17,7	2	11,1	4	8,1	5
Lessons based on a common theme	18,1	2	20,6	1	18,6	1	16,6	1	13,3	1
Predominantly aural/oral	22,7	1	17,7	2	13,5	4	5,5	8	7,2	6
Structured (aspects based on reading-integrated)	2,8	8	9,3	7	12,9	6	9,3	5	7,1	7
Greater stress on the study of literature	0,6	10	0	11	0	11	0,3	11	2,5	11
Greater stress on exercises in sustained writing	1,2	9	1,6	10	6,3	8	6,7	7	11,0	4
Extensive use of drama/role-playing	12,3	4	5,4	8	6,0	9	4,0	9	4,3	9
Integration with everyday lives of pupils	18,1	2	14,9	4	16,5	3	11,3	3	11,3	3
Linking English with other subjects	5,7	6	10,0	6	10,3	7	7,9	6	6,3	8
Other methods	3,9	7	3,0	9	2,7	10	2,2	10	3,0	10

- CODE 1. The abbreviation "Pos" in this table indicates the position of the facet on the usage/preference scale.
 2. The figures in the % column indicate the average time devoted to each option, expressed as a percentage of the total teaching time.

From this table it appears that teachers adapt their approaches to the standards they teach. An example of this is the teaching of formal grammar (the first option in question 2): in standard 1 its use is negligible, in standard 2 it lies 5th, in standard 3 4th, and in standards 4 and 5 it lies 2nd. From this it appears that relative to other options the use of "grammar" is considered by teachers in standards 4 and 5 to be important, for it is placed second only to the approach of basing a programme of lessons on a common theme. Although these two approaches are not mutually exclusive, the responses are indicative of the amount of time teachers devote to each of the 11 options presented in question 2. Seen in its totality, "grammar" is used by more than one-half (51.1%) of primary school teachers of the subject as a method.

The popularity of the use of "grammar" should be seen against the requirements of the syllabus in this regard. The English Second Language syllabus for standard 5, under the heading "language" states:

In order to consolidate the essential skills in the use of English, a series of exercises, CLOSELY CORRELATED WITH THE ORAL AND WRITTEN WORK, should be devised to enrich the pupil's vocabulary, extend his knowledge of idiomatic English and provide practice in basic structures in the building of simple and complex sentences. These structures should include:

statements, questions, commands, negative and emphatic forms, and directed and reported speech, including the relevant punctuation;

the use, meaning and order of words and phrases in sentences;

the use of pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, adjectives and adverbs;

concord and sequence of tenses.

From the above it can be seen that the emphasis intended is on integrating functional grammar into the overall programme of the lessons. Although the level of grammatical knowledge is not too testing, it does require of the teacher an understanding and depth of knowledge which should enable him to explain and use the grammatical concepts listed in the syllabus.

The requirements of the syllabus for standards 1 - 4 in respect of grammar are not too demanding of the teacher. However, since the focus is on the acquisition and mastery of language skills, essential to communication in English, it is necessary for the teacher to be thoroughly conversant with what is required of him to teach the subject.

The English Second Language syllabus for standards 1-4 states in the preamble to the standard 1 syllabus that

by listening to the teacher the pupil will learn to react to words and simple sentences and will himself begin to use simple sentences, give elementary commands and explain very simply, a series of actions.

The following are suggested in the syllabus but it is stressed that they should not be dealt with in isolation but be integrated into the overall approach to teaching the subject. i.e. language in use in situations which are relevant and meaningful to the child.

SUGGESTED TOPICS FOR LANGUAGE AND VOCABULARY
(contextualized)

Greetings and their social usage: e.g. good morning, good afternoon, good night, hallo and goodbye.

Social graces: e.g. please and thank you, after you, I beg your pardon, etc. Forms of addresses and greetings, e.g. Good morning, How are you, etc.

Carrying out and repetition of commands.

The pupil himself: his body, clothing, food, family, home, and school activities.

Animals in and about the house.

Simple replies to questions.

Numerals and counting.

Playthings and toys.

The days of the week, and months (functional and incidental usage only).

Descriptive words: e.g. red, short, fat, long.

Simple children's stories, stories involving animals, legends and fables, told, read and dramatized. Additional aids such as records and tape recordings, are also recommended.

Rhymes, jingles and poetry:

Simple Rhymes, jingles and poems recited together, individually and in parts.

Simple songs, action songs and singing games

- action and movement should be encouraged
- emphasis should fall on pronunciation, intonation, and lively presentation. (This should be done in a natural, spontaneous manner and should not be formally taught).
- Material should be such as to enable pupils to understand the meaning, and sense of rhythm.
- The use of aids such as pictures, the record player and the tape recorder is recommended.

Common expressions, e.g. That's enough; Yes, please; thank you, etc.

Lessons on our city, town, village or farm, to suit the pupils' environment or/and interests.

Extension of vocabulary through discussion of themes within the pupils' sphere of interest and experience.

The vocabulary should develop from the theme, not the theme from the words

(Example: action chains)

The standard 1 syllabus accepts the child's immediate environment as the scope of his linguistic experience. In standards 2 to 5 this scope is gradually extended and becomes more sophisticated although at all times an effort is made to select as the basis for programmes of lessons that which is of interest to the pupils and meaningful to them. This is, in fact, the kernel of the theme-based structured approach to the teaching of the subject which has apparently gained favour amongst the majority of teachers of standards 1 to 5.

An examination of the standards 1 to 5 English Second Language syllabus leaves no doubt that much emphasis is placed on the presentation to pupils of correct models, both phonic and syntactic. Examples extracted from the syllabus in support of this are: (the

number reference in brackets is the syllabus reference number):

Standard 1 "Emphasis should fall on pronunciation, intonation and lively presentation" (1.1.12.2).

Standard 2 "Simple children's and animals stories and also legends and fables read, told and dramatized" (1.2.11).

"Emphasis should fall on pronunciation, intonation, phrasing and lively expression" (1.2.12.2)

Standard 3 and Standard 4

"Telling and re-telling stories, paying attention to logical sequence and use of the correct tenses" (1.2.10 and 1.4.7)

Standard 5 "The importance of oral work in the second language cannot be over-emphasized (3.1)

It will include conversation, narration and discussion, and will cover:

A variety of topics of an everyday nature and of general interest to the pupil, particularly those relating to his immediate surroundings" (3.1.1)

imaginary and actual experiences: (realistic situations should be created in the classroom) e.g. playground situations; first aid; playing shops; post offices; stations; radio programmes such as "Consider your verdict"; telephone conversation; (3.1.2)

what has been read, heard, seen or experienced; (3.1.3)

guided and impromptu dramatisation of incidents taken from other subjects in the curriculum, from the pupil's reading and from events that occur in in his everyday experience; (3.1.4)

guided group discussions based on a topic or centre of interest, e.g. spotlight on the

news, pictures, models, collections, etc.

(3.1.5)

demonstration accompanied by explanation e.g.

how to use a gadget, play a guitar, follow a recipe, mend a puncture, play a game, conduct an experiment, arrange flowers, build models.

(3.1.6)

NOTE:

- (1) Attention should be paid to clear articulation and choice of words so as to counter slovenly speech.
- (2) In the class reading programme, the reading should be done by the teacher and good readers, but weak readers should be given the opportunity of reading prepared passages to the teacher. Poetry and excerpts of prose should sometimes be read aloud, individual pupils taking parts of characters and small groups acting as narrators".

These examples, taken from the syllabus for standards 1 to 5 require of the teacher a command of English of at least a good standard. It is only a competent speaker of English who would have the necessary language ability and be able to exploit language whilst presenting correct models of it in experiential situations.

Since the syllabus gives the minimum of what is expected of teachers in their teaching of the subject, it is disappointing to note that the option "extensive use of drama/role-playing" is rated very low at 9th position in standards 3 to 5, and only slightly higher in standard 2. This is consistent with the responses to question 9 of the questionnaire in which teachers were asked to indicate how often they used dramatisation/role-playing in their teaching.

The term "drama" at this level accommodates virtually any system of language-supported co-ordinated action directed at impressing upon the

learner a meaning or message.

An analysis of the responses to the questionnaire shows that drama is little used in the teaching of English Second language at the primary school, despite the fact that it is a requirement of the syllabus for standards 1 to 5. The table below shows how much use is made of dramatisation in the teaching of this subject in primary school:

Table 9
The use of drama in teaching English Second Language

	<u>Much</u>	<u>Average</u>	<u>Not much</u>	<u>No answer</u>
% of respondents	17,8%	27,6%	52,5%	2,1%

Reasons for this under utilization of drama in teaching method are possibly inadequate training, especially in respect of the use of dramatisation, a misconception amongst teachers that "drama" means only stage productions, the fact that teachers may not have the ability in language to venture into dramatisations, and that this technique requires a suitable reading background from which to draw ideas for adaptation. It may be suggested, too, that in some schools staff and principals may associate role-playing and dramatisation with indiscipline or over-familiar staff-pupil relationships. This may be the case particularly in the more conservative Afrikaans-medium schools.

An interesting feature revealed in table 8 is that much stress is placed on consolidating basic phonic skills in English at the standard I level. This approach is generally popular with English Second Language teachers, for by using it the pupils' ears become attuned to the sounds of the English language.

The close rating in Table 8, of preference/usage of the two approaches: "lessons based on a common theme", and "predominantly aural/oral" in standards 1 and 2 indicates a concern amongst teachers

about the general method they use in their teaching at this stage. Together in second place at the standard 1 level are the two approaches "predominantly aural/oral" and "integration with the everyday lives of the pupils". This is evidence of a concern amongst teachers to introduce pupils to the second language in a manner which should make it interesting, relevant and enjoyable to them. This concern appears to be carried over into the standard 2 year, for here the relating of lessons and their content to the everyday lives of pupils is still high on the preference/usage rating, at 4th.

The survey shows that the approach to teaching in standard 2 is more formalised than in standard 1. In standard 2 the approach "drill/repetition exercises" is rated 3rd. In the next standard it is rated second. It may be suggested that teachers are anxious to instil in pupils essential basic language structures and skills which are required for sentence construction and later exercises in sustained writing. This appears to be a case of misplaced concern, for the syllabus requirements in regard to sentence construction and sustained writing are not very demanding, as can be seen from the following extracts from the syllabus.

Standard 3:

"Arranging jumbled words into their correct order and writing them in sentences.

Arranging jumbled sentences into their correct sequence, and then writing them in a short paragraph.

- (i) by using known key words or phrases, and
- (ii) by using the language structures being taught.

Answering questions in short sentences based on prepared oral work.

The more advanced pupils may be encouraged to develop their own creative writing without oral

preparation."

Standard 4:

"Statements, questions and commands in positive, negative and emphatic forms.

Substitution exercises, completion and extension of sentences based on language structures under discussion.

Writing sentences and short paragraphs on themes under discussion in the oral lessons.

Maintaining relevance with oral work and giving due regard to differentiation - the abler pupils being encouraged to write at a more advanced level - more independent writing may be continued.

Short narrative or descriptive sentences, paragraphs and passages.

Notes to friends and others.

Easy stories.

Short written dialogues."

Standard 5:

"Written work will normally be closely correlated with and arise from oral work.

It may follow a discussion of what has been read, experienced, seen or heard.

Special attention should be given to:

(Correct sentence construction and language usage, and the correct use of punctuation).

The writing of short passages (this may include descriptive and factual paragraphs, reports, diary entries and dialogue);

The writing of short compositions, mainly narrative and arising from the work done orally or read; and personal letters to relatives and friends.

CARE MUST BE TAKEN TO GUARD AGAINST THE DANGER OF REQUIRING THE PUPIL TO WRITE WITHOUT THOROUGH PREPARATION. THERE MUST FIRST BE A SYSTEMATIC BUILD-UP OF VOCABULARY BEFORE WRITING TAKES PLACE.

Spelling must be taught orally and visually, in context wherever possible, and tested in dictated sentences only. Care must be taken that the pupil knows the meanings of the words that he is taught to spell. The teacher should aim at ensuring that the pupils spell correctly the words they use freely in their speech and writing".

From the information taken from the standards 3 - 5 syllabus, quoted here, it is clear that basic structures and skills are the main objectives in teaching second language at this level. The need for pupils to be able to write lengthy pieces of original composition does not arise. However, it should be stressed that the teachers require an expertise which will enable them to teach the pupils acceptable language models - phonic, semantic, syntactic, and communicative which may later be used to exploit language to its potential.

The thematic or structured approach to teaching English Second Language has been receiving considerable attention at seminars and in-service courses over the last 8 years in Natal. This may explain why the option "lessons based on a common theme" was placed first on the preference/usage scale in all standards except standard 1 where it was placed 2nd. However, it is difficult to explain the low rating of the option "structuring a programme of lessons based on an integrated reading programme". Perhaps the teachers misunderstood the meaning of this option. Another suggestion is that a carefully devised and integrated reading programme is essential for the success of this approach, something which not many inexperienced teachers are capable

of compiling.

Further reasons for the low rating of this important option are: the general practice in primary schools of class-group teaching which tends to limit the time a teacher has to acquire a suitable reading background; the majority of primary school teachers of the subject are non-native speakers of English; devising and compiling a structured programme for the subject in large, usually mixed-ability class-groups requires considerable training and expertise. However, many teachers may be reluctant to plan a structured programme too far ahead, since this may tend to make their teaching inflexible to the changing demands of the class-group.

An important aspect of language teaching is the use of exercises in sustained writing to consolidate language structures and skills learnt. Responses to the survey indicate a predictable trend in the use of exercises in sustained writing in English Second Language teaching in standards 2 - 5. Table 8 shows clearly that in standard 2 only 1,6% of the teachers use such an approach, in standard 3, 6,3%, in standard 4, 6,7%, and in standard 5, 11%. This progressive move towards more exercise in sustained writing with progress through the primary school reflects the guidance provided in the syllabus, and the developments suggested therein.

In this regard the questionnaire included a question (no. 10) which asked teachers to indicate whether they regarded exercises in sustained writing as valuable in their teaching method.

The following table shows how the responses varied from standard 2 to 5:

Table 10Teachers' rating of the value of exercises in sustained writing in the teaching of English Second Language

<u>Standard</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>
2	23,7%	76,3%
3	68,7%	31,3%
4	82,5%	17,5%
5	87,9%	12,1%

NOTE; 3,8% of teachers failed to commit themselves in this regard.

In relation to other approaches, it appears that exercises in sustained writing as a method in teaching English Second Language are, in the primary school as a whole, not highly rated. The analysis in Table 10 shows that most teachers regard exercises in sustained writing as a useful ancilliary method in teaching. However, with progress through the primary school these assume a more dominant position in relation to the other method options available. Reasons for this may be the need for more visible material on which pupils may be assessed for the purposes of ascertaining progress, or the concern amongst teachers at the standard 5 level, particularly, to prepare pupils for secondary school where the syllabus is more formal in its structure.

With regard to responses to question 2 of the questionnaire, it is interesting that the option "other methods" received a low rating on the preference/usage scale for all standards in the primary school. Some factors which may have contributed to this are inadequate training, and the fact that class-group teaching tends to minimise the time teachers have to be inventive and innovative.

These arguments appear to be supported by that fact that 84,3% of all primary school respondents did not even rate "other methods" on the preference/usage scale. It may be concluded, therefore, that they did

not venture to use other methods of their own devising.

Since prescribed literature is not studied in the primary school, it was expected that the option "greater stress on the study of literature" should be rated last, with 95,3% of teachers not responding at all (cf. Table 8). The formal study of works of literature in the narrow sense of the word is discouraged at the primary school level. The emphasis is on reading exclusively for enjoyment and information, in that order.

3.6 An analysis of responses to questions on aspects of method

One of the most important questions in the questionnaire was question 13, which read

With reference to ESL teaching method specifically, please rate yourself in terms of each of the sections listed here: (i.e. how do you rate your ability to teach each of the following)

Teachers were presented with 11 aspects of language teaching (cf. Table 11), and asked to rate themselves on the scale: very good, adequate, weak, and inadequate. This scale was deliberately selected because teachers concerned in the survey were teachers of English Second Language, rating themselves. A large range from "very good" to "inadequate" was used, so that teachers would not find refuge in middle-assessment safety. The "very good" rating was meant to suggest a very positive self-image; "adequate" was meant to suggest a measure of uncertainty and anxiety in the respondent about his ability.

Earlier in this chapter time was devoted to explaining the argument that in view of the challenges implicit in the syllabus, it is a conditio sine qua non that a teacher of English Second Language should be at least very good at teaching important aspects of the language. One of the aspects, viz. functional grammar, was divided into eight sections, each of which was intended to indicate the level of overall

knowledge and ability to teach an aspect of functional grammar.

In respect of the scale used it is advisable to keep constantly in mind that the responses are self-ratings; there is, therefore, the danger that the ratings may be exaggerated. However, cross comparisons of responses to comparable questions help to place some of the ratings into a realistic perspective.

Table 11 presents an analysis of the responses to question 13:

Table 11

An analysis of teacher self-ratings of their ability to teach specific aspects of English

<u>Aspects</u>	<u>Very good</u>	<u>Adequate</u>	<u>Weak</u>	<u>Inadequate</u>	<u>No ans</u>
1. Oral	37,4%	51,6%	0,9%	0,3%	9,8%
2. Functional grammar	29,0%	52,8%	3,6%	0,6%	14,0%
3. Essay writing	17,2%	52,8%	9,2%	0,9%	19,9%
4. Letter writing	18,7%	53,7%	6,8%	0,9%	19,9%
5. Paragraph writing	20,2%	55,5%	6,2%	0,6%	17,5%
6. Comprehension	33,1%	51,9%	1,5%	0,6%	12,9%
7. Dialogue writing	11,3%	52,5%	11,7%	1,5%	23,0%
8. Report writing	12,6%	47,9%	14,7%	1,8%	23,0%
9. Poetry	15,6%	48,1%	16,3%	3,7%	16,3%
10. Prose	12,6%	38,0%	20,2%	3,7%	25,5%
11. Plays	11,3%	39,9%	22,7%	5,5%	20,6%

Analyses of previous questions suggested that many teachers used "grammar" as an important part of their approach to teaching the subject. The fact that only 29,0% of the respondents rated their ability to teach this aspect of English as very good suggests that too many teachers are not equipped to do justice to this important aspect of second language. This weakness may find its roots in inappropriate training, or that many of the teachers are a product of the era in which scant attention was paid to formal grammar in schools.

The outline given earlier of aspects of the syllabus left little doubt that teachers had to be able to teach aspects of formal grammar in terms of language-in-action, i.e. functional grammar.

This necessitates a closer examination of teacher responses to sections of question 13 on functional grammar. The following table is an analysis of the responses.

Table 12

Teacher self-evaluation of competence in teaching aspects of functional grammar

	<u>Very good</u>	<u>Adeq.</u>	<u>Weak</u>	<u>Inadeq.</u>	<u>No ans.</u>
1. Parts of speech	22,7%	53,4%	6,4%	1,5%	16,0%
2. Tenses	30,1%	54,0%	2,8%	0,9%	12,2%
3. Concord	18,7%	46,0%	6,8%	1,5%	27,0%
4. Vocabulary	35,3%	51,5%	2,5%	0%	10,7%
5. Gender	35,0%	53,1%	1,2%	0%	10,7%
6. Diminutives	32,5%	54,9%	1,2%	0%	11,4%
7. Sentence construction	25,8%	58,0%	4,6%	0,6%	11,0%
8. Antonyms/ Synonyms	31,9%	51,2%	3,1%	0,3%	13,5%
Average	29,0%	52,8%	3,6%	0,6%	14,0%

When the "very good" rating of 29% for functional grammar is examined in terms of what it comprises, there is cause for concern. In the table above four important aspects, viz. parts of speech, tenses, concord and sentence construction, the ratings of only 22,7%, 30,1%, 18,7% and 25,8% respectively of teachers who considered themselves "very good", suggests that too many teachers are not equipped to teach this aspect well.

The high percentage of "no answers" in response to the section on "concord" is important. It may be suggested that this indicates

ignorance on the part of many teachers of what "concord" in the grammatical context means. It is also significant that 6,8% of teachers rated their ability to teach concord as weak, and 1,5% as inadequate. Considering that these are self-ratings, and therefore probably flattering, there is room for considerable improvement.

The very low "very good" rating of "sentence construction", viz. 17,2%, is a confirmation of one of the worst ratings given in Table 12, i.e. for teaching essay writing. The significance of this can be understood when it is realised that the fundamental structure and concepts of continuous writing need to be mastered by the second language learner by the time he has completed primary school. Whether the teachers of whom only 17,2% regard their ability to teach "essay writing" as very good are capable of this, is doubtful.

As an overall picture the teaching of "grammar" appears to be mediocre, judged from the predominantly "satisfactory" ratings given by teachers of their ability to teach this aspect of English Second Language.

Ability to adapt methods to teaching is largely affected by mastery or command of various important aspects of English. Question 5 of the questionnaire has a direct bearing on two other questions related to method, viz. 2 and 13. In question 5, teachers were requested to rate themselves on a scale ranging from "very good" to "satisfactory" to "weak", in respect of their mastery/command of 12 given aspects of English.

The following table shows how teachers rate their mastery or command of these aspects of English.

Table 13

Teachers' evaluation of their mastery/command of selected aspects of English

	<u>V.Good</u>	<u>Satif.</u>	<u>Weak</u>	<u>No ans.</u>
1. Ability to speak English	58,5%	40,0%	1,2%	0,3%
2. Knowledge of grammar	41,1%	50,9%	3,4%	0,6%
3. Reading background	47,5%	44,5%	5,8%	2,2%
4. Teaching method (for ESL)	21,5%	72,4%	3,4%	2,7%
5. Knowledge of poetry	20,2%	49,1%	30,1%	0,6%
6. Knowledge of plays	12,9%	41,7%	42,9%	2,5%
7. Knowledge of songs, rhymes, etc.	28,8%	53,7%	16,9%	0,6%
8. Knowledge of techniques of evaluation/assessment	14,7%	68,1%	13,8%	3,4%
9. Ability to write English	37,4%	51,2%	10,7%	0,6%
10. Ability to understand spoken English	78,1%	20,2	0%	0,7%
11. Correct pronunciation in English	58,0%	40,2%	0,2%	0,9%
12. Correct intonation in English varieties	45,7%	47,5%	4,6%	2,2%

It may be suggested that the most important information gleaned from this table is that 58,5% of primary school teachers rate their ability to speak English as "very good". The seriousness of this is appreciated when the requirements of the syllabus are recalled, viz. the repeated emphasis on the need for careful attention to be paid to "pronunciation, intonation, and lively presentation". For this to be achieved requires the teacher to be at least thoroughly competent in speaking English. The self-rating of 58,5% means, in effect, that 41,5% of teachers of the subject rate themselves as only satisfactory

in respect of speaking English, which is basic to the teaching of this subject.

Another important aspect basic to successful teaching in the subject is the reading background of teachers. Only 47,5% of respondents rated their reading background as "very good". This accords with the low rating, on the preference/usage scale, of the option in which the programme of work is part of a structure based on an integrated reading programme (Table 8). Furthermore, very low ratings given to the aspects "knowledge of poetry" (only 20,2% rated very good), "knowledge of plays" (12,9% rated very good), and "knowledge of songs, rhymes, etc." (28,8% rated very good), reflect unfavourably on the ability of teachers to cope with the requirements of the syllabus that teachers should tell stories, read stories, recite poetry, rhymes, and sing songs to provide pupils with appropriate models. Whether this can be achieved by teachers of whom 41,5% rate their ability to handle crucial aspects of English as only satisfactory, is open to doubt.

A factor which aggravates the position outlined is the very few speakers of English who teach the subject in Afrikaans-speaking communities and Afrikaans-medium schools. One recollects that 93,9% of the teachers of English Second Language in Afrikaans-medium primary schools are native speakers of Afrikaans. Moreover, in the predominantly Afrikaans-speaking rural regions of Natal the ratio of English- to Afrikaans-speaking teachers of the subject is 3:4.

In the Afrikaans-medium schools with 93,9% of teachers of English Second Language being Afrikaans-speaking, the learner of English Second Language is dependent upon the teacher for the quality of English he learns. However, an ameliorating factor is that most Afrikaans-medium schools are situated in urban regions in Natal which are predominantly English-speaking. This should enable the second language learner of English to make contact more readily with English-speakers. However, whether this occurs is open to conjecture

since the immediate communities served by the Afrikaans-medium schools are themselves predominantly Afrikaans-speaking. Moreover, the model of English the pupil hears in this community in his normal social intercourse is likely to be colloquial.

Another deduction from the data in Table 13 is that only 45,7% of teachers of English Second Language rate as very good their ability to use correctly varieties of English. This has serious implications in view of the intended tremendous emphasis on drama and role-playing in methods of teaching. It is doubtful whether a teacher who is not quite competent in understanding and using different registers in English will be able to cope with the demands of a communicative approach which is meant to be effectively used in teaching English Second Language at this level.

The low "very good" rating for grammar of only 45,1% does not reflect the high rating the teaching of formal grammar obtained on the preference/usage scale in question 2. This seems to suggest that although only 45,1% of teachers rate their knowledge of grammar as very good, teaching of this aspect of language enjoys a high importance rating.

A final comment arises from an analysis of question 5, i.e. the teachers' mastery/command of aspects essential to successful teaching in English. Only 14,7% of the teachers rated their mastery/command of "knowledge of techniques of evaluation and assessment" as very good. A probable reason for this is that many schools have a prescribed system of evaluation and therefore most teachers merely do what is required from them in this regard. This can be problematic when seen in terms of the recommended policy of continuous assessment of pupils' performance.

3.7 Freedom of teachers to suggest or develop ideas on teaching English Second Language

Earlier in this study mention was made of the fact that the majority of primary school teachers did not feel restricted by official policy in their teaching. Also the majority felt that the syllabus was adequate. This picture is reflected in an analysis of the responses to question 11 of the questionnaire in which teachers were requested to indicate whether they felt free to suggest or develop ideas in teaching the subject.

Table 14

Freedom to suggest or develop ideas in the teaching of English Second Language.

	<u>Free</u>	<u>Not free</u>	<u>Free within limits</u>	<u>No ans.</u>
1. Method	84,0%	9,2%	4,0%	2,8%
2. Choice of textbooks	38,7%	47,0%	4,2%	7,3%
3. Choice of prescribed books or readers	43,6%	28,5%		2,8% 25,1%
4. Choice of techniques of evaluation/assessment	52,8%	21,2%	4,0%	22,0%
5. Volume of written work	55,8%	21,8%	1,8%	20,6%
6. Choice of lesson content	82,5%	9,8%	5,5%	2,2%

At first sight the situation reflected in Table 14 appears to be satisfactory. 84% of teachers of English Second Language indicated that they were free to suggest or develop ideas in their teaching method. In practice, however, it appears that few teachers take advantage of this freedom. In question 2, for example, 84,2% of teachers indicated that they did not explore other methods in their

teaching.

The percentage of teachers who indicated that they were free to make their own choice of textbooks leaves a large number who were limited in their choice. This may appear to be a serious impediment to teacher initiative and inventiveness, but need not necessarily be so with a teacher who has the imagination to use textbooks to enrich his teaching method. Whether textbooks are available should, in fact make little difference to a good teacher. However, teachers who have been inadequately trained or who lack competence in English may find safety in strictly adhering to a textbook approach.

More than half the teachers felt free to choose techniques of evaluation and assessment. This is an important finding since prescription in this regard would amount to placing a restriction on the overall freedom of the teachers. Some concern is evoked when it is recalled that only 14,7% of the teachers rated their knowledge of techniques of evaluation and assessment as "very good", and as many as 13,8% as "weak". This suggests that there are too many teachers of the subject enjoying a freedom without having the expertise to make use of it.

As confirmation of freedom to choose method, Table 14 shows that 82,5% of teachers indicated that they felt free to decide on what to include in their lessons. This freedom is essential for the theme-based approach to function successfully. Without it this approach may revert to a series of lessons unrelated to the interests and background of the pupils.

In summary, the responses to question 11 of the questionnaire show that the majority of teachers enjoy considerable freedom to suggest ideas and make decisions on important aspects of English Second Language teaching method. Where this is not so the cause appears to be limited resources (e.g. limited supply of books, obsolete books,

restricted range of textbooks), or adherence by some teachers, possibly because of their principals, to approaches in which freedom and flexibility are not encouraged. Although freedom is a state in teaching which should encourage teachers to explore new ideas and to be innovative, it may have a detrimental effect on teaching should the teachers be incapable of doing justice to this freedom. This seems to be the case with many teachers of English Second Language who, on their own admission, have serious limitations in important aspects of teaching method.

3.8 An overview of comments on and suggestions by teachers of English Second Language on in-service training

Throughout this chapter it has become clear that most teachers would benefit from some form of pre- or in-service training. The absence or lack of adequate training has frequently been identified as a probable cause of the weakness amongst teachers in critical areas of teaching English Second Language. This weakness became apparent from the pilot survey in 1977. Consequently two questions on teacher training were included in the questionnaire.

In question 12 teachers were asked to indicate who the nearest person was to whom they could turn for help and guidance in teaching the subject. One hundred of the 326 questionnaires returned were selected to obtain a representative sample, from which the following is an analysis of the answers:

Table 15

Persons to whom teachers of English Second Language could turn for
advice and guidance

<u>Nearest Person</u>	<u>% of teachers who nominated this person.</u>
Subject or std. head for Eng.Sec.Lang.	33%
Other teachers on the staff	20%
Nobody/No answer given	18%
Principal Subject Adviser	10%
Principal of the School	10%
Head of Department at the School	9%

It is clear that the role of the subject or standard head in providing advice and guidance to the teacher of the subject is important because 33% of the teachers indicated that they turn to this person. There is no officially recognised post of "subject or standard head", but some principals have the initiative to appoint a suitable person to perform this task. However, it appears that not all primary schools use this arrangement and that some form of guidance should be given to principals in view of the important role played by people given this responsibility.

From Table 15 it appears that many teachers rely on peer help and guidance to improve their teaching. The role of the Principal Subject Adviser is equally important, according to the teachers, but owing to the large number of schools offering the subject, personal contact is difficult to maintain. However, contact through courses, seminars and guides plays an important role in this regard.

Nearly one teacher in five, viz. 18%, indicated that they had no person to turn to for advice and guidance. This suggests that attention should be paid in schools to staff development towards more effective teaching. This would be closely linked to the professional

growth of teachers for this forms the general ethos in which improved teaching should take place.

Related to the whole question of staff development and the on-going education of teachers is the high turn-over rate of teachers of the subject at the primary school level. Responses to general information questions in the questionnaire indicate that 34,9% of the primary school teachers of the subject had not completed 3 years of experience, and 18,1% had not completed 1 year at the time of the survey.

Table 16

Suggestions on the form in-service training should take

1. Regular exchange of ideas and worksheets.....	14%
2. School-based seminars	4%
3. Intensive training in all aspects of ESL teaching.....	2%
4. Practical teaching method, demonstrations and guides ...	20%
5. Visit by the Principal Subject Adviser	11%
6. Small groups from the same standard to discuss approaches	5%
7. A holiday school in which practical demonstrations are given of different approaches	3%
8. In-service course for ESL	3%
9. Regional courses: only a few aspects to be dealt with at the time.....	2%
10. Periodic full-scale courses with interim courses	1%
(the respondent did not explain what he had in mind)	
11. Demonstrations of theme-working practice	4%

The respondents did not specify when short courses, demonstrations, etc. should take place, and no suggestions were made on how frequently they should occur.

The fact that 31% of the respondents failed to make any suggestions about the form of training may be as a result of the fact that the

greater majority are not specialist teachers of English Second Language. At the primary level, because of the integrated class-group approach to teaching, most teachers would, it is suggested, be inclined to think in terms of their general ability as teachers, rather than to focus attention on one specific subject.

From Table 16 it appears that the teachers lay great stress on person-to-person practical guidance. In fact 61% of teachers suggested some form of in-service training which includes an element of discussion of practical methods. Few teachers, on the other hand, favoured the all-embracing full-scale in-service courses. The preference is clearly for school-based workshops in which practical ideas may be discussed, demonstrated, analysed and improved.

The fact that twenty of the teachers in the sample (20%) favoured practical teaching demonstrations followed by the issue of written guides, is perhaps indicative of an awareness that they are in need of this type of intensive and on-going help and guidance.

An interesting finding was that only one teacher mentioned the need for better textbooks.

One fact is clear from this survey: teachers feel a need for effective and on-going in-service training or education, to make them more confident and competent as teachers of English Second Language.

4. Conclusions

The following conclusions are some which arise from the survey among primary teachers.

- 4.1 Too many teachers of English Second Language in the primary schools are non-native speakers of English.
- 4.2 Too few teachers of English Second Language have been adequately trained to teach the subject.
- 4.3 Of those who have been trained to teach the subject, most feel that it was inadequate.
- 4.4 Too many teachers rate themselves as only adequate or satisfactory in vital aspects of English.
- 4.5 Too many teachers rate their ability to teach important aspects of English as only satisfactory or adequate.
- 4.6 The background of poetry, drama, prose, songs and rhymes amongst teachers of English Second Language is poor.
- 4.7 The role and function of the teacher in charge of the subject should be clearly identified and defined.
- 4.8 School principals need guidance in respect of structures to improve control and supervision, especially of inexperienced teachers.
- 4.9 Staff development programmes should form part of the induction program for beginner teachers, as well as for creating a method in the school conducive to improved teacher performance.

- 4.10 Consideration should be given to the appointment of specialist teachers to teach the subject in the primary schools, preferably from standard 3 upwards.
- 4.11 An effort should be made to encourage English-speaking teachers to accept appointments at Afrikaans- and parallel-medium schools.
- 4.12 Most teachers of English Second Language in the primary schools regard their task as worthwhile.
- 4.13 The attitude of pupils to the subject is generally positive, with girls being more positive than boys.

A general observation arising from the survey of both secondary and primary school teachers of English Second Language is that although there is clearly a desire to want to perform their task well, too many of the teachers are ill-equipped to achieve this aim. Various reasons for this have been suggested. In most cases concrete steps can be taken to rectify matters. However, basic to all changes which may have to be made is an awareness amongst policy-makers that an inferior education in English Second Language places the Afrikaans-speaking child at a great disadvantage later in life.

A further general observation is that in South Africa communicative competence in English is of paramount importance since the medium of instruction opted for by most Black homelands and states is English. As Bickley (1982: 83) explains,

choice of language or language variety may depend on whether or not the language is required to mediate between persons from different ethnic or national backgrounds.

The choice, English, has been made. Furthermore, as was indicated in the Preface to this study, English is the language of diplomacy, trade, international communication, science, technology and commerce.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS ARISING FROM THE STUDY

In the Introduction to this study, it was stated that a main purpose was to consider ways of improving the overall standard of the teaching of English as a second language in the province of Natal. Certain conclusions, listed under the headings of the preceding chapters form the basis upon which the major recommendations presented later are based.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Chapter 1

Language as a social institution

- 1.1 The teaching of second language should be seen in the context of, inter alia, social, psychological, historical and economic factors peculiar to a society, since these affect the interpretation of knowledge and how it is distributed in the education system, as well as in terms of attitudes to the second language. Moreover, the "official" philosophy of education in a society usually finds its roots in these factors.
- 1.2 Teachers in presenting their subject are involved in important decisions about the future of the children they teach. Furthermore, since teachers, like all men, are not passive to the social pressures and forces exerted on them, their interpretation of the nature of knowledge is important in any education system. Nevertheless, a teacher is not an "isolated self-sufficient individual" (Mannheim, 1956: 25) and is also susceptible to other pressures, especially via his employer, which may tend to make him an agency for propagating that which those in power wish to

propagate.

1.3 Language is the first and fundamental social institution with which the child comes into contact, and, as such, plays a very important role in his socialization. Language not only reflects the culture in which it operates, it helps form the life-world of the people in that culture. As such language is sub-culture-bound, but this should not be construed to mean that a particular dialect is necessarily inferior to any other. The concept of "correctness" in language (which is rejected by Bernstein (1979), Labov (1979) and Whorf (1971)) has important implications for aims and syllabuses for second language teaching.

1.4 A philosophy of education in a democratic society presupposes open-mindedness in thinking and a considering of alternatives. Preconceptions tend to inhibit change. The framework in which the philosophy of education operates should preferably be broadly defined, especially in a society of diverse languages and cultures.

1.5 In most education systems the curriculum expresses what knowledge the wielders of power select and consider worthy of dissemination. This distribution of knowledge usually reflects the political, cultural, economic and social class order which those who determine policy wish to maintain.

2. Chapter 2:

An overview of selected writings on the teaching of English as a second language

- 2.1 Bilingualism is a rapidly-growing world-wide phenomenon. English is the most commonly spoken language in the world and it follows that the study of English as a second language, and of effective teaching methods, is becoming increasingly important.
- 2.2 Aims in the teaching of second language are closely linked to the place it enjoys in society and in an education system. An aim in teaching second language is that it should provide an extension of one's academic, intellectual and cultural horizons. Furthermore, since second language, like first language, and unlike a foreign language, is socially-linked, it is advisable to take local circumstances into account in formulating aims and objectives. In recognising local circumstances one of the basic requisites of successful second language teaching could be accommodated, i.e. the fostering of a favourable attitude to the language.
- 2.3 Most writers stress that there is a difference between foreign and second language learning. This has implications for the teaching method of second language. According to Lewis (1974), the primary difference between second and foreign language teaching method is that the former "is more deeply embedded than a foreign language in the fundamental psychological development of the child". Judd (1981) explains that in learning a second language the target group should be exposed to a greater variety of language registers than would be the case with learners of a foreign language.

Finocchiaro (1969) points out that "Some of the features of the sound system, structure and vocabulary that might be deferred in a non-English-speaking country would have to be given priority (in second language teaching) because of the necessity of students to participate actively and immediately in a completely English-speaking school or community situation".

- 2.4 Arising from the aim of fostering a favourable attitude to English as a second language is the conclusion that effective teaching method requires the attainment of this aim. Since second language teaching method is complex, most attempts to simplify it have failed, mainly because second language, unlike foreign language, is closely related to a particular society. This factor should be borne in mind when deciding on an approach to teaching second language.

Approaches used in second language teaching are affected by the view one has of language and its place in the knowledge structure of society. Method and teaching techniques, on the other hand, are determined by approach. An examination of various methods used to teach English as a second language shows that the most effective approach is for teachers to devise an eclectic method to suit their circumstances. Such an approach stresses the need for teacher freedom to adapt method. For this reason, prescriptive methods such as the Arnold-Varty system of teaching "English Through Activity" may be considered more suitable for English as a foreign language than English as a second language. Writers from Sweet, Palmer, Gouin, and Jespersen (1904), through to modern structural linguists like Chomsky (1979), reject prescription of method in teaching English as a second language.

- 2.5 Although mother tongue instruction is mandatory in all white education systems in South Africa, some adaptations are made because of practical difficulties arising from insufficient

numbers of pupils. For example, there are instances where language groups are combined in dual-medium classes and where instruction occurs in both official languages, English and Afrikaans.

Although the question of mother tongue as the medium of instruction in schools appears to have found favour among educationists, especially in South Africa, there are situations (e.g. newly-developing African and South American states, and some states of the United States of America) where the "melting-pot" or "immersion" approach may suit local circumstances. Furthermore, social circumstances may require adaptations to the policy of devoting specific periods of time in the curriculum to teaching the second language, e.g. the use of bilingual programmes with some subjects taught through the medium of the mother tongue and others through the medium of the second language.

- 2.6 Most recent surveys in South Africa confirm what has been ascertained in South African education since the nineteenth century, i.e. that the standard of English second language is poor, mainly because of inappropriate teaching methods, and the fact that too many teachers of the language are not proficient in it.

- 2.7 The Report of the Main Committee of the Human Sciences Research Council Investigation into Education (1981), on the Provision of Education in the Republic of South Africa, has focused attention on some very important developments in second language education in South Africa. It is likely that many of the recommendations contained in the report will affect the teaching of English as a second language in years to come.

3. Chapter 3:

Social, political and historical factors affecting the development of bilingual education in South Africa

- 3.1 The Church and especially the Afrikaans churches, have always been involved in varying degrees in White education in South Africa. However, since the advent to political power of the Nationalist Party in 1948, the Afrikaans churches have played a dominant role in determining the direction and form of education. Whenever Afrikaners feel that their language is being "threatened" a call to the blood is made, with the Church playing a leading role. This call usually leads to the organisation of national congresses such as those held in 1939 and 1982. In fact the Afrikaans Church played a leading role after the congress of 1939 in the formulation of the Christian-National Education policy which was written at a time when the Afrikaner people felt that their language and culture were being imperilled.
- 3.2 The fact that English was a compulsory medium of instruction in schools during British rule in South Africa, and in the first years after the establishment of the Union of South Africa, contributed to the growth of animosity against English among many Afrikaners. Furthermore, efforts to anglicize the Dutch (later Afrikaans)-speaking people failed, owing to the development of a strong sense of pride in their language and culture, and in the growth of national pride among Afrikaners.

Although the Smuts (1907) and Hertzog (1908) Acts pioneered legislation in the move towards defining more clearly the place of second language in the South African education system, they did not go far enough to satisfy the demands of the Dutch-speaking people for their children to be educated through

the medium of their mother tongue. The final outcome of the dispute over the question of the medium of instruction in schools was the passing of the National Education Policy Act (Act No. 39 of 1967) which makes mother tongue instruction compulsory in all White state education departments. Because of this the policy followed in Natal, of leaving the choice of medium to the parents, fell away except for the final two years of formal schooling.

Natal, in contrast to the other provinces in South Africa, has tended to favour parallel-medium schools as opposed to single- (Afrikaans- or English-) medium schools. In Natal, too, concessions are made to the German-speakers who wish the mother tongue to be the medium of instruction for the first three years of schooling.

3.3 In all White education departments, except Natal, the second language may be taught from the beginning of compulsory schooling. In Natal the second language is compulsory only from the beginning of the third year of schooling. Furthermore, second language teaching method is prescribed in the Natal Education Ordinance (No. 46/1969), and in Provincial Notice No. 59 of 1955, where the Direct Method is made mandatory. The purpose of this stipulation is apparently to endeavour to ensure that the medium of instruction in second language lessons is the target language; the implication seems to be that elsewhere this need not be the case.

3.4 Generally speaking, there are two broadly identifiable philosophies of education among the Whites in South Africa: that of the Afrikaner, and, less easily definable, that of English-speaking South Africans. A definitive appraisal of the philosophy of most English-speaking South Africans is still to be done. Therefore, comments and observations on an

English-speaking South African philosophy of education are largely speculative. Since English-speaking South Africans, unlike the Afrikaners who prefer to see themselves as a homogeneous group, tend to be heterogeneous in their composition, conclusions reached on a philosophy of education pertaining to them will have to be phrased in general terms.

The basis on which the Afrikaner philosophy of education is developed is the Declaration of Christian-National Education, although recent writings of prominent educationists and politicians suggest an inclination towards a more catholic world view of education. Nevertheless, the Afrikaner philosophy of education is based on two convictions: that Christian principles underlie all education, and that the education system must confirm and consolidate the national identity of the Afrikaner people as a separate nation. The Christian-National philosophy of education recognises the mother tongue of the child as the only medium of instruction. According to the Christian-National Education philosophy the attainment of bilingualism is of secondary importance in the education of the child. Consequently, the place of the second language in the education system is considered to be of lesser importance than that of most other subjects.

A feature which may be attributable to the philosophy of education of English-speaking South Africans is that it finds its roots in the traditions of western liberal thought, rejecting authoritarianism, and stressing a concern for the individual and the development of his potentialities as a human being. A Johannesburg College of Education survey (1982), designed to identify and define an English-speaking South African philosophy of education, is inconclusive. It does, however, reflect the thoughts of many English-speaking South Africans on some matters related to education.

3.5 The Report of the Main Committee of the Human Sciences Research Council Investigation into Education (the De Lange Report, 1981) recognises the diversity, not only of the White South African population, but also of Black South Africans. This recognition supports the plea of many English-speaking South Africans for a more accommodating education system in which the different views of education may be given recognition. Arising from the recognition by the De Lange Report (1981) of the diversity of the South African population, it is imperative that second language teacher education programmes, syllabus design and curriculum planning take cognizance of the two broad philosophies of education among White South Africans as well as those of other racial groups.

4. Chapter 4:

The Teaching of English as a second language in Selected Countries

- 4.1 The position of the second language in a bilingual education system reflects historical and socio-political factors in the society. In Wales, for example, legislation passed as long ago as 1536, the proximity of the economically powerful English, and the massive influx of English-speaking immigrants with the industrialization of Wales, led to the Welsh language being given little recognition in the school curriculum.
- 4.2 Owing mainly to the Gittins Report (1972) and an awareness among educationists of the need for precedence to be given to the mother tongue, especially in the first few years of schooling, bilingual schools have been started in Wales where numbers permit. However, a serious obstacle is the uneven distribution of Welsh-speakers in the country. Where Welsh-speakers are very

few in number it is uneconomical to establish these schools. Because of the uneven distribution of the Welsh-speaking minority, a unitary policy, even if desirable, would be very difficult to implement. Consequently, local authorities determine to a large extent policy for second and first language education, with H..M. Inspectorate controlling standards.

- 4.3 Relatively speaking, bilingual education is a recent development in the United States of America. Today the aim of the federal bilingual programmes "is to help foreign-speaking children use their native tongue to learn English rapidly, then switch to a regular school programme" (Time, 1978: 41). The melting-pot or immersion approach to bilingual education has been the most commonly used approach to integrating non-English-speaking immigrants into American society. Recently, however, protagonists of mother tongue instruction have questioned the educational validity of the melting-pot approach to bilingual education.
- 4.4 Policy in respect of the place of the second language in the school curriculum is decided by each state, and, frequently, each county. For this reason it is difficult to generalise about policy in respect of bilingual education in the United States of America.
- 4.5 Experimentation in bilingual education is still taking place in the United States of America. One experiment which has had considerable influence on teaching English as a second language in the United States of America is the Coral Way Experiment, started in 1963.
- 4.6 In Canada relationships between the French- and English-speakers have been tense mainly because of historical reasons. This tension is reflected in the province of Quebec, for example,

where the French-speaking majority control education. In this province they have introduced stringent measures to safeguard the French language against the numerically superior English-speaking section throughout the rest of Canada. To complicate the situation the two main Church groups (Roman Catholic and Protestant) draw their members mainly from the French- and English-speakers respectively.

- 4.7 Owing mainly to the fact that English is the predominant language in the economic and political life of Canada, the French-speakers accept the inclusion of the second language in the school curriculum. Furthermore, the Canadian government had budgeted large sums of money "to spur the initiation and implementation of effective programmes of second language instruction with a view to promoting widespread functional bilingualism and biculturalism" (Tucker and d'Anglejan, 1973: 37).
- 4.8 As is the case in the United States of America experiments in bilingual education programmes are in operation in Canada, the most influential being the St. Lambert Experiment.

5. Chapter 5:

The teaching of English as a second language in schools of the Natal Education Department: an analysis of some aspects

- 5.1 A questionnaire as an instrument to obtain information has serious limitations, but in the present study, because the target group comprised educated people who were familiar with the subject matter and terminology used, it may be suggested that the responses provide useful and valid information from which conclusions may be drawn and recommendations made. However, there appear to be some instances where teachers may have misinterpreted the writer's intention.

- 5.2 The geographical distribution of schools in Natal largely affects their structure, viz. rural schools offering English as a second language tend to be parallel-medium, urban schools tend to be Afrikaans-medium. This distribution also affects the language character of the school and the community: either predominantly Afrikaans-speaking or predominantly English-speaking, with only two schools having an even distribution of the two language groups. The two main urban areas of Pietermaritzburg and Durban are overwhelmingly English-speaking, and because of this the schools offering English as a second language in these areas are mainly Afrikaans-medium.
- 5.3 Too many Afrikaans-speaking pupils in Afrikaans-medium and predominantly Afrikaans-speaking communities obtain minimal exposure to English.
- 5.4 The rapid turn-over of English second language teaching staff and the fact that very few have received pre-service training to teach the subject indicates a serious weakness.
- 5.5 Considering that the writer's survey was conducted among secondary school teachers of English as a second language (and not the general corps of teachers), the norm of a knowledge of important aspects of English should be "very good". Consequently, it is an unsatisfactory situation that so few teachers rated their knowledge of the following aspects of English as "very good": ability to speak English, correct pronunciation in English, reading background, correct intonation in varieties of English, ability to write English, knowledge of grammar, knowledge of poetry, knowledge of techniques of evaluation/assessment, knowledge of teaching methods, knowledge of plays, songs, rhymes and jingles. On their own evaluation, teachers have a poor knowledge of important aspects of English.

This is cause for concern when it is considered how important a sound knowledge of poetry, plays, songs, rhymes, jingles, techniques of evaluation, and ability to teach basic language structures are to teaching second language.

- 5.6 Few teachers appear to have explored other methods in their teaching of English as a second language, suggesting a lack of inventiveness and innovation. Also, a disappointingly low number of teachers indicated that they had endeavoured to link the subject to others in the curriculum.
- 5.7 Two related aspects of teaching methodology arouse concern: there is less attention to accuracy and oracy as pupils progress through secondary school, and few teachers appear to have made use of drama/role-play in their teaching method.
- 5.8 It appears that emphasis on exercises in sustained writing in the final public examination (the Natal Senior Certificate examination) has influenced teachers, especially in standards 9 and 10, into paying much attention to written work.
- 5.9 Generally speaking, most teachers of English as a second language indicated that they had freedom of choice in important aspects of teaching the subject. This seems admirable, but evokes some concern in that a large number indicated that they were not capable of teaching important aspects of English.

6. Chapter 6

The teaching of English as a second language in primary schools of the Natal Education Department: results of a survey.

- 6.1 In the primary schools English as a second language is taught in the main by non-specialists, because the majority of schools use

the integrated class-group approach in which the teacher teaches a range of subjects. This practice tends to militate against the teachers becoming fully committed to a particular subject, because of lack of time.

- 6.2 The language predominance in a parallel-medium school is determined by the predominant language of the community in which it is located. As is the case with secondary schools, most of the parallel-medium primary schools are in the predominantly Afrikaans-speaking rural areas, and the Afrikaans-medium schools in the predominantly English-speaking areas (Pietermaritzburg and Durban).
- 6.3 Primary teachers of English as a second language regard girls as having a more favourable attitude to English than do those in the secondary schools. Moreover, boys appear to follow a similar tendency. On the whole, too, boys are generally more unfavourable in their attitude to English than are girls.
- 6.4 The linguistic heterogeneity of Natal is important in analysing the distribution of teachers of English as a second language. This is particularly so when the high percentage of Afrikaans-speakers among them is considered. Furthermore, nearly all teachers of the subject in the Afrikaans-medium primary schools are non-native speakers of English. This is a source of concern when seen in the light of the preference that teachers of English should be native speakers of the language.
- 6.5 The fact that over 60% of the total number of the primary school teachers in the Natal Education Department are English-speaking is not reflected in the 66,9% of teachers of English as a second language who are Afrikaans-speaking. It appears therefore that the system of staff distribution requires revision to ensure the equitable allocation of qualified staff in Natal schools.

- 6.6 Most primary school teachers of English as a second language do not feel inhibited by official policy. The majority, too, regard the syllabus as adequate. Moreover, since the greater majority indicated that their training was inadequate and that they lacked the ability to teach important aspects of English, this "freedom" is not necessarily cause for satisfaction.
- 6.7 Few teachers showed initiative and innovation by exploring methods other than those listed in the questionnaire. This reluctance is reflected in that very few teachers made use of imaginative role-play and drama to improve their teaching of the subject.
- 6.8 Most teachers appear to be in a position where the person to whom they can turn for help and guidance is very likely to be equally in need of assistance in teaching English as a second language.

7. Conclusion

The writer now proceeds to make recommendations which do, for the most part, arise from the study. These recommendations will be grouped for convenience according to four major categories, as follows:

- * Recommendations arising directly from the theoretical assumptions identified in Part One;
- * Recommendations arising from the writer's survey of teacher opinion presented in Part Two;
- * General recommendations arising from the writer's personal involvement in the teaching of English as second language at all levels, both as teacher and subject adviser: these recommendations are intended as starting-points for further research and development. The writer does not presume to supply exhaustive answers to all problems, but takes the liberty of making suggestions which arise from the total overview gained during his research and experience.
- * Recommendations on further research.

Though the recommendations are grouped as described, this grouping is not meant to be categoric as there is inevitably inter-relatedness.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Recommendations arising mainly from Part One

1.1 Aims, curriculum and syllabus design

Despite the finding in the present study that the majority of teachers of English as a second language were satisfied with the syllabuses for all standards, there appears to be room for improvement in syllabus design and structure.

The syllabuses for the various standards clearly need regular scrutiny and revision. This should be necessary since circumstances change (e.g. both Black and White pupils will be using the same core syllabus in future), research findings influence approaches to teaching, society may have different expectations, institutions of higher education may change their admission requirements, and differentiated syllabuses to suit pupils of differing abilities and expectations may have to be evolved from time to time.

The syllabus for the first five years of English Second Language has not given rise to widespread professional criticism, which suggests that it has met with general approval among teachers: a suggestion borne out by the writer's survey findings. Revisions in 1980 have allowed sufficient flexibility to accommodate the linguistically heterogeneous nature of Natal, where various factors affect the teaching of the subject in different areas. Since the present syllabus is open to flexible interpretation, a considerable responsibility is placed on the teacher's ability to adapt his methods to prevailing circumstances, emphasis on a communicative approach being implied.

As chairman of an inter-departmental committee, comprising representatives from all education departments in South Africa, responsible for the revision of the core syllabuses for English as second language, the writer had the advantage of being involved in formulating new aims and designing new syllabuses. It is not within the province of this study to give an overview of or comment on the proposals incorporated in the new core syllabuses. The reason for this is that, before the contents of the syllabuses become public knowledge, they have to be approved by the Joint Matriculation Board and various education authorities. Suffice it to note that, since the writer was involved in the formulation and design of the syllabuses up to the stage of submission for approval, he is able to identify the main arguments which underpin the final draft syllabuses. They include

- recognition of the fact that the syllabuses are applicable to all race groups in South Africa;
- acceptance of the fact that a balance should be kept between the need for form and structures to be included in the syllabuses, and a preference for a general communicative approach to learning English as a second language;
- the need to integrate all components of the syllabuses towards the attainment of communicative competence;
- recognition of a most important fact (supported by numerous authorities and the survey conducted in this study) that most teachers of English Second Language are themselves inadequately equipped to provide guidance necessary in a communicative approach;
- recognition of the need to provide sufficient flexibility in the syllabuses to enable teachers to adapt their approaches, methods and techniques of assessment to their particular circumstances;
- arising from the previous point, recognition of the need

to structure the reading component of the syllabuses so that it forms part of the total integrated syllabus, contributing to the attainment of the aims set.

The revised syllabuses at the time of writing still have to be finally approved by the relative authorities. Most of the ideas in the syllabuses have gained general acceptance, in that a working document designed to provoke thinking towards syllabus revision was circulated to all education departments as well as schools which offer the subject in Natal. The reaction was one of general approval of the ideas presented in the document. Since it is teachers in the classroom who implement the syllabus it is important that they be as fully involved as possible in formulating aims and ideas. However, since the design of a syllabus is a complex exercise requiring much time and considerable expertise, it is recommended that teachers of experience and who have established a reputation in the subject co-operate with specialists in syllabus design and curriculum planning to review any syllabus at least once a year with a view to evaluating it. Furthermore, to retain the necessary link with society and employers it is recommended that personnel officers from commerce and industry be co-opted to make a contribution to the revision of some syllabuses.

Since aims are basic to syllabus design it is logical that first steps towards recommended syllabus revision should include a reappraisal of aims. Cognizance should be taken of the needs of the target group or groups for whom the syllabus is designed, i.e. the level of school standard, and, in the secondary school, the scholastic level or grade of the group.

With regard to the aims inherent in the subject at the junior secondary school level (standards 5 - 7), it is recommended that greater emphasis be placed on the following:

- 1.1.1 aural comprehension, i.e. the ability to listen to a person speaking English and being able to demonstrate that understanding has occurred;
- 1.1.2 ability to speak English: at present this oral component is not given the care and attention it merits. The syllabus should be designed to encourage teachers to pay regular attention to oracy as part of their method towards improving the communicative competence of pupils;
- 1.1.3 the need for a systematic and ordered reading programme: At present reading is very much an incidental and time-filling exercise used in a fragmented manner to give pupils exercise in reading comprehension. Little attention is paid to reading for enjoyment. It is suggested that this explains the reluctance among pupils to read - a problem identified by all teachers of English as a second language in Natal;
- 1.1.4 written work should not be unduly demanding in terms of the volume of extended writing required. It is suggested that lengthy pieces of original composition discourage learners of the subject since, at this stage, even in their mother tongue, pupils experience difficulty in composing long pieces of creative writing. It is therefore recommended that the syllabus endeavour to limit requirements at the junior secondary level in respect of written work to the following:
- sentence construction (original and guided);
 - paragraph writing (original and guided);
 - semi-creative compositions, i.e. basic expression/phrases/sentences on a topic given for the pupils' use in composing a piece of sustained writing of limited length;
 - note-making;

- writing of simple formal letters.

- 1.1.5 improving communication skills in writing: pupils should be able to write short accounts of what they have experienced, arrive at inferences from appropriate stimuli, and draw conclusions from suitable given facts and arguments. These tasks should not be grouped conveniently under exercises in reading comprehension, but used in their diversity and functional application to make them relevant and meaningful to the pupils;
- 1.1.6 communicative competence, i.e. the teaching of effective language use in varying situations;
- 1.1.7 a balanced programme of evaluation, i.e. continuous assessment taking into account the daily performance of the pupil, balanced by a programme of formal examinations/tests standardised internally in the school.

The aims of the present syllabus tend to be too vague and not directed at English teaching in both the classroom and extra-school situation. Greater cognisance should be taken of the fact that the learner of English as a second language comes from a group whose objective in learning the subject may range from preparation for tertiary education to preparation for normal daily social intercourse. The present aims tend not to recognise these differentiated requirements.

Another general comment on the present syllabus is that a more "communicative" approach should underlie its design. In fact the emphasis appears to be on mastery of fragments of language in the hope that the final product will be proficiency in English. A cardinal weakness of the existing syllabus is that the importance of the process towards competence in English is secondary to the product reflected in the general aims.

From the preceding criticism of the third-phase syllabus, it is implicit that the syllabus for the final three years of schooling, i.e. the fourth phase, be revised towards improving the teaching of English as a second language. The following recommendations are made to this end:

- 1.1.8 Aims identified in the syllabus should recognise the value of English as an international medium of communication, as well as its value in enriching education and extending personal horizons. Furthermore, greater emphasis should be placed on the need for communicative competence.
- 1.1.9 Since aims are general, attention should be paid to defining more precise objectives for the components into which the syllabus is divided. For example objectives for the aural programme at this level would be: developing a sensitive awareness of the nuances of English idiom in different situations; an appreciation of sense and tone in both spoken and written situations; and awareness of varieties in English intonation.
- 1.1.10 As in the third-phase syllabus, the syllabus for the fourth phase should lay greater stress on aural comprehension since this will form an important part of daily communication for the pupils on completion of their schooling.
- 1.1.11 Greater weight should be given to the oral component of the syllabus, as this forms an important part of communicative competence in English in all walks of life. Moreover, more attention should be paid to integrating the oral component of the syllabus with the overall teaching programme.
- 1.1.12 The syllabus should be revised to include considerably more

emphasis on reading in all its dimensions for enjoyment, information, reading improvement and intensive study. The need for education in reading to be included cannot be sufficiently emphasized since, as has become apparent in this study, English is the language of tertiary and advanced study, science, technology, commerce, tourism and trade, international communication and diplomacy. The ability to read both extensively and intensively should be a requirement of the fourth phase syllabus.

- 1.1.13 The requirements of the syllabus in respect of written work should be extended to complement the reading programme. Pupils should be required, as is indeed the case now, to write pieces of extended original compositions, although it is recommended that more attention be paid to deductive and inferential writing. The latter requirement should help pupils develop the ability to use language logically and to structure a piece of writing towards a clear goal.

- 1.1.14 Some of the concerns of the first language syllabus for English, such as the need for a critical response to the media, and the need for awareness of register differences, could be applied to the benefit of more advanced second-language learners. English as "first" or "second" language need not, by the final stage of schooling, be seen in separate camps. This is especially so in view of the fact that institutions of higher education offer English as a first language only. Furthermore, most textbooks in most subjects at an advanced level of study are available mainly in English.

2. Recommendations arising mainly from Part Two

2.1 The training of teachers of English as a second language

2.1.1 The pre-service training of teachers

At present there are two institutions in Natal which offer courses for the training of teachers of English as a second language. The Durban Teachers' Training College, an Afrikaans-medium institution offers a three-year course in English Second Language teaching. This forms part of the general course followed by all student teachers. The University of Natal offers as part of the Higher Diploma in Education a methods course in English Second Language.

Since the Durban Teachers' Training College is an Afrikaans-medium institution it does not attract English-speaking students who may wish to teach English as a second language, and other subjects through the medium of Afrikaans. Because of this the College produces no English-speaking teachers capable of teaching English as a second language.

The vast majority of students at both campuses of the University of Natal who complete a methods course in English choose the first language methods course. There are various reasons for this, one being that the English Second Language methods course is a recent innovation, having been introduced in 1977 and is apparently still to gain wide acceptance. There is also a fallacy among many teachers that training in first language equips a teacher to teach second language.

The aims of the English Second Language methods course offered at the University of Natal, as defined in the outline given to the students, are

- to make the teacher aware of the need to develop a positive attitude to English amongst Afrikaans-speaking people, especially children;
- to equip the teacher to teach English Second Language effectively in the secondary school.

The course comprises about 22 sessions over the academic year. A tutorial/workshop approach is used with formal lectures kept to a minimum. The course is designed to provide the student teacher with an overview of approaches to teaching English as a second language. The main focus of attention is to discuss practical ways of integrating the teaching of accuracy, oracy, reading and writing in a programme of lessons for each secondary school standard. For practical implementation the following aspects are dealt with as separate entities prior to structuring them into an integrated approach: aural comprehension, effective communication in spoken English, reading, writing, language studies, comprehension exercises, problems related to the practical course, and assessment procedures and policies in respect of pupils' work.

A fundamental problem in the English Second Language methods course is the fact that there is no selection of students. In fact demand for the course has remained limited ever since its introduction, and therefore all students who meet the minimum requirements (English II) are accepted. It is recommended, however, that more attention be paid to making all students who have two university courses in English aware of the growing demand for teachers of English as a second language in South Africa and throughout the world. Furthermore, it should be extensively publicised that second language method differs from

that for first language. By these means the demand for the course could become greater with the result that some selection of students may take place.

Another recommended change to the course is the introduction of a critical study of the syllabus for the secondary school. This would not only inform student teachers of the requirements of the syllabus but would make them aware of the need to suggest changes and adaptations from time to time in the course of their teaching.

Another innovation could be provision for fuller student involvement in compiling theme-based structured programmes of lessons suitable for different levels and various communities. With the necessary help and guidance suitable programmes with clear aims and objectives would accommodate the aspects of the English Second Language teaching method suggested previously, and provide students with useful material for their careers.

An aspect of language which requires attention in the Higher Diploma in Education course is the use of "functional grammar" in the teaching of English as a second language. Most of the students who do the English Second Language methods course are English-speaking. Their previous studies comprise mainly the appreciation of works of literature. Consequently their knowledge of "grammar" is usually inadequate to explain why certain language structures are required for English to be used effectively. An example is the use of concord, a skill which a first language speaker attains without difficulty.

Yet another profitable addition to the Higher Diploma in Education in English Second Language methods course could be a component on the identification and definition of aims and objectives to suit specific demands, e.g. local circumstances and employment

prospects. For this to be done successfully students would have to be familiar with the basic principles of second language teaching, and able to adapt these to varying circumstances. A brief study of bilingual education in some selected countries would have the advantage that it could encourage teachers to be more inventive, innovative and explorative in their approach to adapting their methods to suit the different situations with which they may be confronted.

Similarly, it is recommended that a study of different approaches and various methods as discussed in chapter 2 of this study form part of the course. Arising from this component the students would be able to compile their own eclectic approach to teaching English as a second language, to suit certain situations.

To encourage more English-speakers to train as teachers of English as a second language it is recommended that consideration be given to offering as part of a language degree course in which English is read, a section on applied linguistics, aimed particularly at second language studies. Furthermore, such a course could be integrated with a methods course in English Second Language teaching which could be offered at the under-graduate and graduate levels. The resources of the growing Department of General Linguistics could well be tapped here.

The Durban Teachers' Training College offers no specialist English Second Language course and all students take it in the first three years. It forms part of the general teaching diploma course.

The aim of the Durban Teachers' Training Course College course in English as a second language is to raise the standard of the

students' English to at least that of second year university level. This aim determines the content of the course because the focus of attention is the formal study of works of literature (poetry, prose and plays). However, included in the course is the study of the history of English, the study of grammar, and second language teaching methods. The latter topic is allocated one 45 minute period per week in the time-table.

An argument against devoting more time to the English Second language course at this College is that the course followed by all students for the first three years is general, with only the fourth year being that in which the student specialises. The preliminary survey conducted in 1977 by the writer showed that few teachers trained at the Durban Teachers' Training College taught exclusively or mainly English as a second language.

A problem in the course offered at the Durban Teachers' Training College is the emphasis on the study of works of literature. The reason for this, explained earlier, does not appear valid since the majority of teachers trained at this institution are appointed to Afrikaans- and parallel-medium schools where it is likely they will teach English as a second language, and not English as a first language. The study of works of literature per se is desirable for it helps to broaden the reading background of the students, but since it occurs at the expense of other important aspects of teaching method, the form it takes could be revised. Consequently, the following changes to the course offered at this college are suggested:

It is recommended that more staff be appointed to cope with the training of teachers to teach English as a second language. This need not necessarily mean the appointment of extra

full-time teaching staff. To reduce expense and make optimum use of available manpower it is recommended that experienced and expert staff be recruited on a part-time basis from nearby schools to help with specific components of the course. Should this arrangement materialise, greater use could be made of the tutorial/workshop approach to achieve competence in spoken English, with the emphasis on communication at the person-to-person level. Stress could be placed on colloquial fluency and not the attainment of a sophisticated style of expression in English. It is also recommended that students should be educated in the use of drama to improve their own English as well as being provided with a most useful technique for teaching the subject.

Secondly, the course could include a thorough study of the English Second Language syllabus for the primary school. Special attention could be paid to aims and objectives.

An understanding of the different approaches to teaching English as a second language could also be included. Arising from this students would be trained to compile programmes of lessons centred on a theme. At this level it is important that students become familiar with the techniques of compiling a structured theme-based programme of lessons designed to achieve specific aims and objectives. Moreover, since a sound knowledge of the mechanics of language (i.e. functional grammar) is very useful in the teaching of language structures and skills, it is recommended that the following receive careful and regular attention for the duration of the course:

- language structures;
- the study of words, their formation and use in varying registers of language;
- sentence construction and paragraph writing leading to the composing of pieces of extended

- writing;
- concord;
- basic language use with the emphasis on grammar as a language function.

Although it is recommended that all students be required to read a minimum number of approved works of literature, it is suggested that emphasis be placed on

- making students aware of the value of the available range of "graded and simplified readers" as aids in the teaching of English as a second language;
- equipping students with a repertoire of songs, rhymes, poems and jingles useful for the auracy/oracy component of their teaching;
- training students to use drama and role-play to enhance the effectiveness of their teaching method.

It is further recommended that in the final year of the course students should be trained to implement selected courses which have proved to be successful in the teaching of English as a second language. Examples are the Green and Gold course, the Beehive System, the Springboard approach, and GINN 360 (for advanced groups).

The emphasis in the second language course should, it seems, be on thoroughness as opposed to extensive coverage of the whole spectrum of language teaching method.

Although the present course at the College is full in terms of content, it is strongly recommended that more time be devoted to it. This may be achieved by extending the course into the fourth and final year of the general diploma course, or

allocating more time to it generally.

The Edgewood College of Education, an English-medium institution, concentrates on the training of teachers of English as first language. However, to help students who may be required to teach English as a second language, a short four-period course is offered in the third year of training. The "Criteria for the Evaluation of South African Qualifications for the purposes of Employment in Education" would have to be amended for a separate course for teachers of English as a second language to be introduced, since the present criteria for primary teachers' qualifications do not permit student teachers to offer courses in the same language at the first and second language level. Moreover, the overall programme of work of the students in its present form is full and internal adaptations would not be able to be accommodated.

Despite the obstacle mentioned in the previous paragraph it is strongly recommended that serious consideration be given to the introduction of a course at this College to train teachers of English Second Language. By doing so more English-speaking teachers may be persuaded to accept posts in the predominantly Afrikaans-speaking regions of Natal, and in Afrikaans- and parallel-medium schools. Furthermore, an English-speaking student would be able to devote more time to the study of teaching method and extending his reading and language background than would his Afrikaans-speaking counterpart who perhaps still has to attain a level of competence in spoken English suitable for a teacher of the subject. On the other hand, the English-speaking students may have to devote more time to the study of "grammar" since in all probability this would not form an important part of his knowledge of the English language.

The course recommended to train teachers of English as a second language at the Edgewood College of Education would be similar to that suggested for the Durban Teachers' Training College, with adaptations because of the fact that the students would be English-speaking.

A final recommendation on the whole question of the training of primary school teachers of English as a second language is that a specialist course in this subject be introduced at the Edgewood College of Education, and that the general course at the Durban Teachers' Training College be retained with the recommended changes suggested earlier. The introduction of a specialist course at the Edgewood College of Education could be considered in the light of the fact that from 1985 this college will provide some of the training for a Bachelor of Primary Education degree offered by the University of Natal. Consideration could be given to the inclusion in this degree, as an optional course, of specialist training in English as a second language.

2.1.2 The in-service training and education of teachers

The in-service education of teachers of English as a second language appears to be a matter requiring urgent attention. The responses obtained from teachers during the writer's survey showed that the majority felt that they needed further training in the teaching of the subject. A fact which has to be taken into account in devising a programme for the in-service training of teachers of English Second Language is that large numbers are non-native speakers of English. It appears, too, from the study that most teachers acknowledge that their knowledge of language structures, and how to teach them, is deficient.

Since English Second Language teaching method is the focus of much research today, it is imperative that teachers be given the opportunity to keep abreast of trends and developments. To this end it is recommended that the budgets drawn up by the education authorities and schools to cover the expense of the further training of teachers be increased to accommodate changes such as are outlined below.

It is recommended that a programme for the in-service or further training of teachers be planned on the following basis:

The present provision of one Subject Adviser for English Second language should be supplemented by assistants to extend the service rendered.

Natal secondary and primary schools offering the subject could be divided into regions with a competent and capable teacher appointed to be an itinerant regional subject head. This person would be exempted from a heavy commitment to the extra-curricular programme of the school, and her teaching load would be reduced. Some of the rural areas of Natal which do not readily fall into regional groups would not be accommodated in this way. The Subject Adviser(s) for English Second Language would need to devote more time to these schools.

The regional subject heads should liaise with the Subject Advisers by

- attending regular courses aimed at suggesting effective approaches to teaching;
- keeping the Subject Advisers informed of the needs of the schools in the region;

- helping disseminate new information obtained from various sources.

The regional head of subject would also

- hold short courses, preferably in the afternoon to minimise disruption of the schools, to give guidance to teachers in the region;
- arrange discussions to identify problems which may require reference to other regional heads and the Subject Advisers;
- liaise with training institutions for mutual enrichment;
- assist in applied research towards improving teaching;
- keep abreast of trends in curriculum planning and syllabus design by wide reading, and by attending national and international conferences;
- assist the Subject Advisers in the selection of suitable textbooks, readers, etc.;
- arrange inter-school educational tours with teachers from other schools - preferably English-speaking pupils;
- arrange inter-subject educational activities to further the aim of contact between English and other subjects in the curriculum;
- maintain contact with local business, cultural, charitable and service organisations with a view to keeping the value of good teaching of English as an important priority in the minds of the public;
- arrange contact with national and provincial organisations whose interests and goals are

similar to those of teachers of English as a second language, e.g. The English Academy of Southern Africa, the Natal Association for the Teaching of English, organisers of speech- and debating contests.

2.2. Recommendation on the introduction of specialist teachers to teach English as a second language

Arising from the arguments presented in support of the establishment of the post of subject head is the recommendation that specialist teachers be appointed to teach English Second Language from its introduction into the school curriculum. The subject head would of necessity be a specialist in the subject, and for the subject to function effectively on the basis of the recommended duties of the incumbent it would be preferable that the teachers be teachers of English Second Language only. By being a specialist teacher of English Second Language the teacher would be encouraged to devote his energies fully to the subject instead of having these dissipated amongst a number of subjects. This is particularly the case in the primary schools where teachers are normally required to teach at least nine subjects. The introduction of a system of specialist teachers in English Second Language would perhaps lead to the following advantages in the teaching of the subject:

- 2.2.1 pupils would more likely be taught by teachers who speak English of a good standard;
- 2.2.2 teachers would make a study of language teaching methods and techniques to improve their teaching;

2.2.3 · owing to the inadequate training facilities for second language teachers in Natal at present, the use of specialists would limit the number of teachers who would be involved in further in-service training; as recommended earlier, thereby reducing costs and enabling attention to be focused more effectively on a smaller body of teachers;

2.2.4 the use of specialist teachers to teach English Second Language would remove a serious obstacle to the recruitment of English-speakers to Afrikaans-medium schools, viz. that they would not be required to teach through the medium of Afrikaans as is the norm in such schools.

Many difficulties could be eliminated by the introduction of specialist teachers to teach English Second Language, and therefore such a step is strongly recommended.

2.3 Recommendations on the staffing of schools

One of the serious problems identified in this study is the reluctance of English-speaking teachers to accept appointments at schools in rural and predominantly Afrikaans-speaking communities. Some reasons for this reluctance have been discussed in this study. However, in order to endeavour to eliminate the causes of the problem it is recommended that measures be introduced to encourage English-speaking teachers to accept teaching posts in the predominantly Afrikaans-speaking regions. Such measures as special allowances, the establishment of the post of subject head at a school, the introduction of specialist teaching of the subject and the improvement of pre- and in-service training would help. These steps would also help to encourage English-speaking teachers to accept teaching posts at Afrikaans- and parallel-medium schools. As a temporary measure to help teachers to acclimatise to schools where English

is hardly heard, it is recommended that the teaching load be reduced to give the teachers time to build up confidence and to prepare teaching programmes.

Since the teaching of English Second Language has problems common to all language teaching, viz. much preparation and plenty of marking, it is recommended that the following steps be taken to reduce the load of work and thereby encourage students to train as teachers of English as a second language, as well as encouraging teachers to accept posts in Afrikaans- and parallel-medium schools:

- 2.3.1 limiting the number of pupils a teacher of second language may teach at each school standard level;
- 2.3.2 because of the extra burden of communicating in a biligual situation, both in the classroom and the extra-curricular programme, giving teachers appointed to teach at these schools some form of credit. Suggestions are service credits (i.e. after a number of years an extra year of service is added); more generous study leave; a service allowance; and a lighter teaching load.

The distribution of teachers of English in Natal lies at the heart of many of the problems experienced in staffing schools in the Afrikaans-speaking communities. This problem applies too to the staffing of Afrikaans- and parallel-medium schools with English-speaking teachers to teach English as a second language. The changes recommended here could help eliminate the difficulties experienced in placing staff where they are required.

2.4 Recommendations on the internal organisation of schools

All subjects taught at school should necessarily be affected by

the overall education programme of the school. This is particularly the case with English as a second language because it is sensitive to factors which may affect the teacher's performance. One factor which could be examined with a view to revision towards making the teaching of the subject more effective is the whole question of assessment procedures. It is recommended that for English Second Language the evaluation or assessment programme for pupils should be based on the principle of continuous assessment, with a system of checks to ensure the maintenance of standards, e.g. tests/examinations internally standardised within the school for each level, and written perhaps twice a year. This step may be considered basic since the maintenance of standards is fundamental to successful teaching.

It is recommended that people in positions of authority in schools be made aware of the fact that for English Second Language teaching to be effective a degree of flexibility and relative freedom from inhibiting restrictions is required. This concerns the following in particular:

- 2.4.1 the teacher's freedom to choose appropriate method in role-playing and drama in teaching the subject;
- 2.4.2. the use of role-playing and dramatic techniques in teaching;
- 2.4.3 the need for some double teaching periods each week;
- 2.4.4 the need for a "subject classroom" where an English milieu may be created;
- 2.4.5 the need for suitable audio-visual equipment as part of the permanent equipment in the "subject classroom";

- 2.4.6 the need to recognise that prescriptions in respect of the evaluation of pupils' work, e.g. marking according to a prescribed scheme, marking all work done by pupils, the implementation of a rigid testing programme, may be counter to effective teaching in certain situations;
- 2.4.7 the need for teachers to recognise that the concept "across-the-curriculum" applies as much to English Second Language as it does to the first language;
- 2.4.8 the need for any feelings of hostility to the English language and people to be neutralised by open discussion and contact between teachers of the subject and their colleagues at the school, the parent community (the Afrikaans-speakers), and the pupils. This may be achieved by introducing debates, play productions, variety concerts, going on educational tours, visiting institutions and organisations which are English-medium, with the language of communication on these occasions being only English;
- 2.4.9 since the parent community play an influential role in forming pupil attitudes, it is recommended that regular contact occur between the teachers of English Second Language and various bodies representing Afrikaans-speaking parents e.g. the School's Advisory Committee, Church Councils, cultural organisations and service organisations, with a view to building bridges between the language groups and removing prejudices which may exist about the other language group;
- 2.4.10 making school Principals and teachers aware of the need for a measure of flexibility to be built into the time-table to enable the teachers of the subject to adapt their lessons to the immediate environment of the school, i.e. visiting the local hospital, police station, bank, supermarket, library,

courthouse, etc. which may be necessary to make the lessons more realistic to the pupils;

- 2.4.11 provision should be made for teachers, especially the subject head for English Second Language, to visit neighbouring schools, attend seminars, and generally work towards enriching the programme of teaching of the subject at the school;
- 2.4.12 Principals should be made aware of the need for the appointment of a subject head whose duties should be clearly defined, although not restrictive;
- 2.4.13 Principals should consider encouraging the use of the school hall with its stage for lunch-time play productions, speech renditions, etc. so that pupils may become used to using English in these demanding situations;
- 2.4.14 the schools' resource centres should be equipped with sufficient English books and aids to meet the needs of teaching the subject;
- 2.4.15 a supply of a sufficient number of popular readers should be kept, and added to from time to time, to enable teachers to take these books into the classroom for the duration of their usefulness to a programme of lessons;
- 2.4.16 the inclusion in the school programme of inter-group debates (e.g. girls vs. boys, standard 10 vs. standard 9) in English Second Language.

Much may be done in terms of the internal organisation of a school to make teaching English Second Language more effective. Ultimately, recognition is required by the policy-makers of the school that the subject forms an essential part of the education of all people in this country.

3. General recommendations

3.1 A Recommended approach to teaching English as a second language

The aims and objectives presented in a syllabus should provide a basis upon which effective teaching method may be developed. Some recommended aims and objectives have already been discussed and the following will exemplify how aims may affect teaching method:

- to foster in the learner a desire to learn English;
- to assist the learner to become aware of the challenge of living in multilingual South Africa.

Such aims imply a widening of the approach to the teaching of the language. The teacher would be required to adapt his general approach to go beyond merely teaching aspects of language, and relate what is being taught to society. This has implications of contact with extra-school organisations, integration with other subjects in the curriculum, and the selection of material towards attaining aims.

Towards realizing the aims and objectives in teaching English as a second language, it is recommended that consideration be given to the following general approach. This structured approach presupposes the development of a systematic programme of lessons based on selected themes and incorporating aspects of language necessary for the attainment of communicative competence.

The recommended approach, to be described below, provides an opportunity for the teacher to use a communicative approach to language teaching within the parameters inevitably defined by a system marked by centrally-planned syllabuses. The approach permits the teacher to adapt content and method to the particular interests, abilities and aptitudes of the learning group.

3.1.1 Suggestions on initial steps in the teaching of English as a second language

In applying this structured approach it should be borne in mind that language acquisition and development does not occur in set, pre-determined stages. Learning language is a subjective environment-related experience. Should the pupil's background be linguistically deprived in terms of the middle-class language norms expected in formal education, the pupil may not perform well in terms of these norms. However, it is suggested that the second language teacher should recognise the possibility that the language which the child has acquired differs from that expected of him at school. In doing so the teacher may be able to include in the programme of lessons and evaluation suitable mechanisms to accommodate the differences until the pupil has progressed sufficiently to cope with what the school expects of him. It should be recalled that this refers to the child in the primary school. The first step in the structured approach suggested is to choose a theme which could form the basis for the second language teaching programme.

The following basic considerations could be borne in mind in constructing a theme-based programme of lessons:

- determination of the general level of language competence of the class-group;
- relevance and suitability of the theme to the class-group;
- availability of resources to construct the programme of lessons: this includes the pupils' own resources, the school's Resource centre, libraries, the central reference library of the education department, suitable commercial organisations, consulates, publicity associations and numerous other sources;

- suitability of the theme to cover a range of language structures and skills;
- flexibility in the theme to allow a range suitable for pupils of different ability.

Using the chosen theme, the teacher could initially concentrate on familiarising the pupil with the phonic system of English, i.e. training of the ear to the sounds of the language, bearing in mind that this occurs in the first few years of the pupil's contact with the language. The incorporation of phonics in the teaching of English as a second language should arise from the songs, rhymes, and jingles which arise from the theme chosen. Related activities designed to make the language meaningful on a practical level, e.g. arising from role-play and language-in-action situations would be beneficial. There should preferably not be any formal teaching of phonic structures (sound units, e.g. syllables) in isolation.

The following approach is suggested to acquaint the learner with the sound system of English:

- the teacher selects songs, rhymes, poems and jingles with clearly identifiable patterns of repetition of sounds represented by simple symbols, and these are played, read or recited to the class. With progress the class should be able to imitate, recite or sing the material;
- as progress is made songs, poems, rhymes and recitations with more advanced sound sequences may be gradually introduced, whilst simultaneously encouraging the pupils to express in physical action what they are saying or singing;
- the two steps outlined above should preferably be related to the theme upon which the programme of lessons is developed so that the new language

experience remains within the bounds of a field of reference with which the pupil is familiar.

As progress is made the pupil will gradually be exposed to the written symbols of the sounds (syllables and words). The words, and later phrases and sentences, should follow the oral programme.

3.1.2 A more formalised approach to teaching English as a second language at the intermediate stages

Dependent upon progress made in the initial stages, the intermediate stage could be directed at achieving the aims and objectives agreed upon, mainly in respect of using English in familiar situations, introducing reading material of a suitable standard, and writing competently. All of these presuppose an ability to communicate in spoken English at an appropriate level.

Although language-in-use situations form an important part of teaching method in the initial stage, it is recommended that at the intermediate stage more attention be paid to role-playing and dramatization emanating from the theme and designed to expose the pupils to using language in different situations.

Language-in-use approach is important since it provides the pupil with the opportunity to use English in situations familiar to him.

Furthermore, this technique in teaching is useful because

- language is basically a sound-system;
- it provides the teacher with the opportunity to present a good model of the language to the pupil;

- by encouraging the use of language in role-play and dramatization in the context of the theme the pupil is able to identify himself more readily with it;
- concepts are learned through experience of action more likely to find acceptance by the pupil than those which are passively learnt;
- songs, rhymes, poems, short dramatic pieces and prose usually lend themselves to language-in-use situations which help make the language a daily reality for the pupil.

As the pupil becomes more familiar with the sound system of English, introducing gradually in written form the words and phrases expressed in the sounds, a start may be made to introducing a reading programme. Reasons for this include the following:

- the pupil has been adequately prepared with songs and poems and related role-play. In these songs and poems he hears language structures repeatedly (i.e. words, phrases, clauses and sentences) which begin to become part of his language experience:
- in conjunction with this, the pupil sees the objects or actions, representations of the objects or actions in pictorial forms (slides, films, illustrations, story-pictures) which are described in words he has been hearing repeatedly;
- with advancement the pupil learns the written symbol for the sounds he has been hearing.

The next recommended step in the implementation of a structured theme-based approach is to use the language background built up to introduce the pupil to written illustrations related to the theme, which itself should be within the familiar experience of

the pupil.

It is a recommendation arising from this study that the second language be formally taught as part of the school curriculum only from the beginning of the fifth year of school, i.e. about the age of 10 years. Before this, contact with or exposure to the second language, would be incidental. Reasons for postponing the formal introduction of second language teaching in the curriculum include the following:

- In the early years at school the child (particularly from a deprived social background) may still be coping with the acquisition of mother tongue skills;
- formal study of a language usually requires writing and reading ability, and these abilities may not have fully developed before age ten;
- specialist subject teachers are not usually available in the first years of formal schooling, which means that second language teaching could be taught by inadequately qualified persons.

By about age ten, the pupil should not experience difficulty in the physical act of writing. It is therefore recommended that a reading-based programme be introduced as part of the intermediate stage, and that writing form a complementary part of the lesson programme.

It is recommended that the following procedure be considered to integrate reading into the structured theme-based approach:

Taking into account the background and interests of the pupils all teachers of English as a second language at the school should assist in compiling lists of likely "themes" which may be successfully used. Differentiation of themes to suit

different ability levels would have to be considered.

Using the lists of themes as a point of departure a selection of related reading material would be made. The number of sources required to support a theme-based programme of lessons would depend on the range of school standards for which the theme may be suitable. Since costs have inevitably to be borne in mind, it should be noted that only limited numbers of each book, poem and article may be required for the lessons to function effectively. Although the ideal is one copy per pupil, one example of source material per group of three pupils is a workable proposition. In time, sets of books and poems may be built up to support a range of themes suitable for all primary and secondary standards.

The teacher may use ability grouping of pupils to facilitate the optimum utilization of limited resources, or she may require general preparatory work to be done in groups, with individual applications.

Most schools have sets of books which may be used as the basis for themes. However, it would be contrary to the principle of flexibility of approach should all pupils be required to use the same books or source material. Since most books are unabridged some difficulty may be experienced in adapting them for use in the lower standards. Nevertheless, excerpts from books, articles, from magazines (Reader's Digest, Time, Farmer's Weekly) may be read and used as the basis for a series of lessons on a particular theme. The point is that the teacher should gradually advance the standard of English so that the pupil comes into contact with the best available English literature suitable to the level of the class-group or ability groups within the class.

In the final stages of schooling it is recommended that pupils read mainly unabridged books suitable to their level, leading on to more challenging works. Relation to a theme is perhaps not so important at the fourth phase level of school since the pupil should have acquired a suitably extensive background of language from which to draw.

Variations of theme structures and approaches should be encouraged among teachers and pupils. To keep alive the awareness of the pupils of the relevance of English to their daily lives, it is recommended that use be made of newspapers and contact with other subjects in the curriculum. Pupils, for example, could be required to extract information from newspapers, magazines and other subjects in the curriculum which they would then relate to the theme. Furthermore, pupils may be encouraged to work in interest groups, or as individuals, to construct their own themes. In this way the theme could be based on the particular hobby or field of interest of a group of pupils.

3.1.3 Towards attaining overall communicative competence

It is recommended that the final stage of English Second Language teaching should comprise a programme of learning language structures and skills, emanating mainly from reading. This does not mean that ability to speak the language should be relegated to a position of lesser importance - it means that all aspects of the programme of lessons should be based on a structured theme-related programme.

Since the fundamental assumption of the structured programme is that it must be an integrated programme, the reading basis must not be seen as a predominant feature of the lessons. The

reading basis would form, in effect, a background upon which all aspects, or particularly the oral aspects of language use would be based. Particularly at the age level 10 - 15 years, the lessons (and the reading) would for the sake of interest be theme-based.

Furthermore, the normal course of events in lesson presentation would occur: evaluation of pupils' progress, visits by theatre groups, visits to theatre productions, unscheduled disruptions, attention to aspects of the work which require extra care. Since it is a strong recommendation that careful consideration be given to the introduction of a programme of lessons based on reading, the following procedure is suggested.

By using various techniques such as the chalkboard, tape-recorders, video films, film slides, films, displays of articles related to theme and general discussion the teacher introduces the pupils to the theme. The purpose is to awaken in the pupil a desire to become involved in the development of the theme mainly by reading and writing and doing further research on it. Since discussion forms an important part of the approach to this method, it is suggested that use be made of grouping of pupils and that the teacher provide overall guidance. Periodic discussion with the whole class and each group will enable the teacher to identify weaknesses and pupils who require extra attention. In the latter case use may be made of tape-recorders with earphones, Reading Masters and Language Masters as well as other available aids to teaching.

In this approach it is recommended that only after the oral basis of reading has been consolidated, should the teacher proceed to the introduction of the written text -

again dependent upon the level of the pupils. Should the group be weak, the teacher may have to spend more time reading to the pupils and assisting and guiding them. More advanced pupils could read on their own and proceed to undertake work arising from the reading programme.

3.1.4 Using a reading programme to teach language structures and skills

Since the functional use of grammar forms an important part of any second language teaching programme, it is recommended that teachers have available for their use a variety of textbooks in which different approaches to the teaching of this aspect of the course are explained. Furthermore, the teacher may adapt excerpts, passages, sentences and phrases to integrate what has been learnt on aspects of grammar into the language course. Traditional techniques such as substitution exercises, sentence construction, and the Cloze procedure may be used to this end, especially as a means of consolidating and confirming what has been learnt .

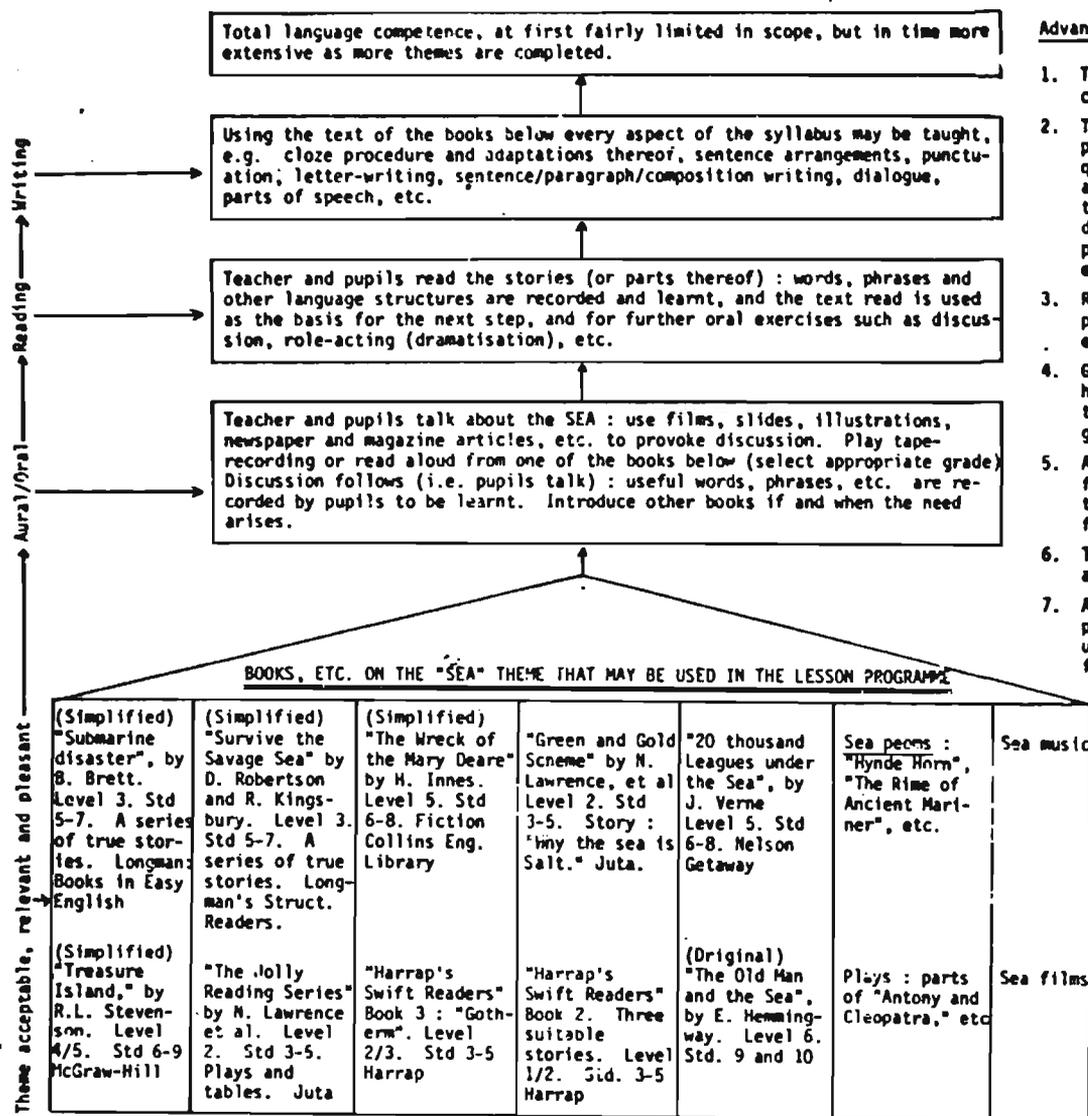
In teaching parts of speech, for example, care should be taken to avoid creating the impression that this section of the course may be conveniently forgotten once dealt with. Functional integration into the structured approach should occur for this aspect of language to be meaningfully taught.

By using an integrated approach all aspects of language may be effectively taught. However, any approach in which it is hoped that mere exposure of pupils to sufficient quantities of English will culminate in the attainment of communicative competence, leaves too much to chance. The structured approach, recommended here, requires that there should be ordered and systematic attention to aspects of language which need to be mastered in

order that the agreed aims may be attained. It should, therefore, be left to teachers and their advisers (rather than to central authorities) to decide on how to allocate time to the teaching of language structures and skills, with the proviso that exercises and examples used emanate from a theme-based structured programme of lessons. By using this approach such aspects of the course as punctuation, direct and reported speech, sentence construction, tenses, and paragraph writing leading to exercises in sustained writing may be effectively accommodated. It is important to note, as indicated in an earlier recommendation, that teachers may need comprehensive in-service education in order to cope with their newfound responsibilities.

The approach outlined here may be exemplified in the following way, taking the theme "The Sea" as basis:

THE STRUCTURED APPROACH USING THE THEME "THE SEA" AS BASIS



Advantages of this approach :

1. The pupil is motivated, i.e. the theme chosen is of interest to him.
2. The pupil is taken gradually along a path of progress, i.e. he is never required to speak on something, read about something, or write on something that has not been dealt with either directly or indirectly, since all aspects of the programme are related and emanate from one theme.
3. Reading forms an integral part of the programme, so the pupil is continuously exposed to a good written language.
4. Grammar and related aspects of language have relevance since they are based on text that has become part of the background of the pupil.
5. At all times words, phrases, etc. emanate from the books, poems, etc. on which the theme is based and therefore they are familiar to the pupil.
6. This approach can be used at virtually any level of schooling.
7. Although the ideal is one book, poem per pupil, two and even three pupils use one book, etc. Furthermore, simplified readers are cheap.

These books, etc. are selected as follows :

1. The ESL staff at the school draw up a list of theme topics and submit it to the pupils of the different standards for comment and recommendation.
2. Once a number of theme topics have been decided upon the teachers take the following steps :
 - 2.1 They consult the Teacher-Librarian.
 - 2.2 They consult lists of books and graded and simplified readers
 - 2.3 By using the above sources of information they compile a list of suitable books, poems, plays, songs, rhymes, etc. they may be used in the theme.
 - 2.4 They decide which books, etc. may be suitable for which standards.
 - 2.5 They collect suitable illustrations, etc. that may be used to make the theme more interesting.
 - 2.6 They compile suitable language exercises using the books, poems, etc. as a basis, whilst taking into account some of the suggestions made in this document.
3. Attempts are made to relate some of the material to other subjects in the curriculum.

3.2 Recommended changes to the posts structure for teachers

In the present posts structure the Head of Department is responsible for the quality of teaching in a group of subjects in his charge. These subjects are usually related to each other, to make it easier for Heads of Department to provide guidance. However, since the allocation of these posts is limited at present, the incumbents are often required to take responsibility for subjects about which they know very little. A Head of Department in this situation would not be able to provide teachers with fully qualified guidance.

Unfortunately, the survey conducted by the writer showed that only a small number of Heads of Department in parallel- and Afrikaans-medium schools had experience in teaching English as a second language. Consequently most Heads of Department, who have the responsibility for the subject, are not able to provide guidance and help to teachers.

A solution would be to increase the number of posts of Head of Department so that the grouping of subjects may be restricted to those which have a direct affinity. In this way the Head of Department would be more likely to have had some actual experience in the subjects in his charge.

A problem arises in respect of English Second Language, however, for it is likely to be grouped with English First Language in parallel-medium schools. Experience has shown that when this occurs the tendency is to neglect the second language and to concentrate on first language.

A recommendation which may eliminate the need for the development

suggested is the establishment of the post of "subject head" at each school where English as a second language is taught. In the primary school where specialist teaching of the second language rarely occurs, consideration should seriously be given to the introduction of specialist teachers for English Second Language, a recommendation which was outlined earlier in this chapter.

From the writer's survey it became clear that most teachers of English as a second language value the services of teachers appointed to take charge of the subject at a school. Since there is no official post of "subject head" at secondary schools, or "subject/standard head" at primary schools, it is strongly recommended that the present post structure be re-designed to include such posts as an integral part of the structure in schools.

It is suggested that the following advantages would accrue:

- teachers may be encouraged to accept the responsibility of taking charge of a subject;
- experienced teachers would be encouraged to move to schools away from the urban areas where it is often difficult to find staff to appoint on promotion;
- the reluctance of English-speaking teachers to accept posts at Afrikaans and parallel-medium schools, especially in predominantly Afrikaans-speaking areas, would be minimised;
- the teacher charged with this responsibility would be encouraged to make an in-depth study of the subject and become a specialist in teaching it;
- the subject head would contribute considerably to improving the standard of English Second Language teaching because those teachers not fully qualified or capable would have a person readily available to whom they could turn for advice and guidance.

whom they could turn for advice and guidance.

Arising from the establishment of the post of teacher in charge of English Second Language, viz. subject head for English Second Language, it is recommended that the following serve as a guide to the functions, responsibilities and duties of the "subject head".

3.2.1 Making recommendations to the principal of the school on language policy;

3.2.2 Planning and guidance:

- making recommendations to the principal on the allocation of classes to teachers;
- ensuring that teachers have the most recent syllabuses;
- compiling schemes of work and theme-based programmes in conjunction with teachers on the staff and other teachers in the region;
- familiarising teachers with routine administrative procedures;
- familiarising teacher with available resources, guides, publications, etc. to help improve teaching;
- formulating a modus operandi to encourage contact with other subjects;
- encouraging the production of plays and concerts in English by Afrikaans-speakers, and the publication of a second language journal at the school;
- arranging a programme of meetings of teachers of the subject;
- giving guidance on pupil assessment;
- helping with staff guidance and staff induction programmes;
- giving guidance on the control and supervision of

- pupils' work;
- helping with the development of an integrated reading programme for English Second Language teachers and pupils at the school.

3.2.3 Operation and control

The subject head would monitor the progress of teachers who had recently started teaching, arrange meetings to discuss specific problems, arrange meetings to exchange ideas, encourage teachers to become active in the subject associations of the organised teaching profession, and other matters on the daily operation of the subject at the school.

3.2.4 General

The subject head could perform the following two important functions

- being public relations officer for the subject, constantly endeavouring to project a positive image of the language;
- ensuring that the importance of English is appreciated in the school and community.

The most important argument in favour of the establishment of the post of subject head is that it would provide teachers at each school with a person who had proven ability in teaching the subject, to whom they could go for help and guidance.

4. Recommendations on further research

The study of second language teaching has become a field of wide interest through the world. Since English is the most widely distributed and spoken language, it has also become the most widely taught as a second and foreign language.

South Africa, although having had two official languages for nearly the past century, has done little in respect of original research into the teaching of English as a second language. The Human Sciences Research Council has concentrated mainly on opinion surveys, without to date exploring deeper issues in this discipline. Little empirical research on a widely-organised project basis tends to occur in the universities.

It is recommended that since English Second Language is rapidly becoming the most commonly used means of communication in South and Southern Africa, with all the national states choosing it as the official medium of instruction in schools, greater attention should be paid to further research into its methodology, and related matters. Areas suggested as worthy of research are:

- 4.1 English as a medium for social harmony in South Africa.
- 4.2 An empirical investigation into the optimum age for the introduction of the second language into the school curriculum, taking into consideration the effect of the language character of the community on the determination of this age.
- 4.3 Teacher education and second language, including the place and content of second language in the course programme, the selection

of student teachers, and aims and objectives in teacher education.

- 4.4 Differentiated provision for English in formal, non-formal and informal education.
- 4.5 The value and usefulness of applied linguistics in teaching English as a second language.
- 4.6 Common factors between English and Afrikaans which may be exploited to devise an effective teaching method for English as a second language.
- 4.7 The place of reading in English Second Language method at different levels of school.
- 4.8 Role-playing in English Second Language method: its usefulness at the different levels of schooling, and its application in developing speech patterns.
- 4.9 Pattern-drilling in English Second Language teaching method.
- 4.10 The measurement of bilingualism.
- 4.11 The involvement of the private sector in syllabus design and curriculum planning.
- 4.12 The use of English in various fields of activity in South Africa and the world, e.g. commerce, tourism, travel, trade, science and technology and technical education, and the utilization of this information in planning second language curricula.
- 4.13 Culture-linked approaches to second language teaching: case studies in South Africa.

- 4.14 Means of promoting cross-cultural communication in South Africa through the use of English, particularly among non-native speakers of English.

- 4.15 The specific problems of Blacks in acquiring and using English as a second language as a medium of full education.

APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE TO TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AS SECOND LANGUAGE

(formulated also in Afrikaans)

This questionnaire is intended to ascertain from teachers of English as second language, attitudes and opinions regarding their work.

Please co-operate by answering the questions in the spaces provided, or making choices as indicated.

You are not required to reveal your identity. Please be completely frank in answering the questions so that research into the area may proceed.

This project has the approval of the Director of Education.

Your qualifications: _____
Professional (e.g. diploma

Academic

Special qualification (if any) to teach
English as Second Language

Teaching experience: Total years

Teaching English as Second Language:

Primary level: Secondary:

Your sex: Male Female

Your age: 20-30 31-45 46+

Standards in which you have taught English as Second Language:

.....

Standard/s in which you are most experienced in the subject:

.....

Standard/s now being taught the subject:

Please suggest reason/s for teaching English as second language

(e.g. choice; no alternative; etc.)

.....
.....



THE QUESTIONNAIRE PROPER COMMENCES ON THE NEXT PAGE. PLEASE NOTE THAT "ESL" MEANS ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE.

1. Indicate by ticking in the appropriate square the responses applicable to your school.

1. Rural in character
2. Urban in character
3. Parallel-medium
4. Co-educational
5. Situated in a upper-middle class area
6. Situated in a middle-class area
7. Situated in a lower middle-class area
8. Situated in a mixed-class area.....
9. General academic in character
10. School with a technical bias
11. School with a commercial bias
12. Combined high and primary school
13. Purely junior primary school
14. Combined junior and senior primary school
15. Situated in a predominantly Eng.-med. community
16. Situated in a predominantly Afr.-med. community
17. Situated in a parallel-medium community

3. Do you consider the present ESL. syllabus for the class/ standard you are teaching to be adequate? If not, what do you consider to be the main shortcomings?

4. Did you receive formal training in the method of teaching ESL.?

Yes / No

If yes do you consider your training to be adequate?

Comment:

5. Do you consider that your mastery/command of the following aspects of the English Language equip you sufficiently to teach ESL. up to the level you are now required to teach? (Please tick opposite each of the alternatives given below in the square that you consider appropriate).

	<u>Rating</u>		
	Very good	Satisfactory	Weak
1. Ability to speak English			
2. Knowledge of grammar			
3. Reading Background			
4. Teaching method			
5. Knowledge of poetry			
6. Knowledge of plays			
7. Knowledge of songs, rhymes			
8. Knowledge of techniques of evaluation/assessment			
9. Ability to write Eng.			
10. Ability to understand spoken Eng.			
11. Correct pronunciation in Eng.			
12. Ability to use intonation varieties in spoken Eng.			

6. Do you consider that you are too restricted by official policy in respect of the approach you use in teaching ESL.?

Yes / No

Comment:

7. Do you feel that your effectiveness as a teacher can be improved by the use of aids such as:

	Definitely	Makes little difference
1. Tape recorder		
2. Language master		
3. Reading master		
4. Overhead projector		
5. Class/group readers		
6. Graded readers		

8. What audio-visual or other aids do you employ in your teaching of ESL., and how?

9. To what extent (in time spent) do you use play-acting (drama) in your teaching of ESL.?

Comment:

10. At the level at which you are now teaching ESL. do you regard exercises in sustained writing (e.g. essays, paragraphs, letters, reports, dialogues, etc.) as an important part of teaching method in ESL. Please explain briefly.

11. To what extent are you free to suggest or develop ideas in the teaching of ESL. in respect of:

	Free	Not free
11.1 Methodology		
11.2 Choice of textbooks		
11.3 Choice of prescribed books/readers		
11.4 Choice of techniques of examining/ testing		
11.5 Volume of written work required of pupils per term		
11.6 Choice of lesson content		

12. Who is the nearest person to whom you are able to turn for effective professional advice/guidance on the teaching of ESL. (give a title or name if you so wish).
13. With reference to ESL. teaching method specifically, please rate yourself in terms of each of the sections listed here: (i.e. how do you rate your ability to teach each of the following):

		<u>Rating</u>			
		Very Good	Adequate	Weak	Inadequate
13.1	Oral (spoken) English				
13.2	Functional grammar:				
	parts of speech				
	tenses				
	concord				
	vocabulary				
	gender				
	diminutives				
	sentence construction				
	antonyms/synonyms				
13.3	Essay writing				
13.4	Letter writing				
13.5	Paragraph writing				
13.6	Comprehension (reading study)				
13.7	Dialogue writing				
13.8	Report writing				
13.9	Poetry				
13.10	Prose (novels)				
13.11	Plays				

14. What do you consider to be the aims in the teaching of ESL. in practice (distinguish from the rather general aims set out in the syllabus)?

15. Suggest one or two specific objectives for lessons in ESL. teaching in respect of:

15.1 accuracy

.....

15.2 oracy

.....

15.3 reading (literature)

.....

15.4 writing

.....

16. What forms do you think that in-service training should take to assist you as a teacher of ESL.?

17. Do you think that teaching ESL. is worth the preparation and other effort required? Yes No Not sure

Briefly give reasons for your answer:

.....

18. Please try to comment on pupil attitudes to ESL.

Phase 4 pupils : Boys:

.....

Girls:

.....

Phase 3 pupils: Boys:
.....
Girls:
.....

Primary pupils: Boys:
.....
Girls:
.....

19. Please add any other relevant comments you wish to make on the topic of the teaching of ESL.

Thank you for your co-operation.

APPENDIX 2ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHINGQuestions posed to teachers of English Second Language: 1977

(The following questions formed the basis of interviews conducted with 70% of the teachers of English Second Language in schools of the Natal Education Department).

1. Home language of teacher: English/Afrikaans/Both
2. Name of school:
3. Name of teacher:
4. Qualifications:
5. Training to teach English as a second language:
6. Actual teaching:
 - 6.1 Present class/standard:
 - 6.2 Experience in teaching ESL
 - 6.3 Do you regard yourself as a successful teacher of ESL?
 - 6.4 How do you rate your competence?
 - 6.5 Are you interested in teaching ESL?
 - 6.6 Are you satisfied with the present syllabus?
 - 6.7 Do you think that the pupils you teach enjoy ESL?
7. Use of specialist teachers:
 - 7.1 Are you in favour of specialist teachers for ESL?
 - 7.2 Should you be in favour of specialist teachers please suggest at what level they should be introduced:
8. At what age do you think second language (ESL) should be introduced into the school curriculum?

NOTE: The above questions were presented by the writer in oral form to each teacher and answers and comments were recorded. Additional comments were recorded on the reverse of the form.

APPENDIX 3

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