

THE PROBLEMS OF IMPLEMENTING
A COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH TO
ENGLISH AS A SECOND
LANGUAGE (HIGHER GRADE)

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and has not previously in its entirety or in part been submitted at any university for a degree.

ABSTRACT

In 1986 a new English Second Language syllabus for the Junior and Senior Secondary Course was introduced in the Cape Province. The overall aim of the syllabus is communicative competence and it advocates a communicative approach (CA) to teaching English Second Language. At the inception of the communicative approach most teachers were ignorant of what it comprised and this study undertook to determine whether teachers understood what Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was and if they applied it in their teaching.

At first the demands of society and how this had influenced language teaching through the ages was investigated. Communicative competence was demanded at different stages in history and it is at these different stages where the CA has its roots. Many of the principles of the CA, it was discovered, had been applied by teachers and theorists many centuries ago.

Teachers and theorists who teach language for communication see language in a different light. Language and its unique properties are investigated, and with an emphasis on language as communication. Different ways of using language to communicate are investigated and questions like "Where does meaning reside? What are the kinds of meaning?" and "How can we control meaning?" are discussed.

Prior to the introduction of the CA, second language teaching had been devoted to mastery of structures. However, with the new insights gained about language and meaning, the focus shifted to meaning in coherent discourse rather than on discrete forms. With the shift in focus teachers also had to adjust their teaching to meet the demands.

At this stage a brief discussion of the CA and the essentials of a communicative curriculum is provided. The comparison between traditional and communicative approaches is made. An account of

CLT methodology is given, including exploration of communicative competence. Many practical examples of CLT are explained.

In the empirical study a questionnaire was distributed to the ESL teachers at thirty schools in the Boland and Northern Suburbs of Cape Town. The aim of the research was to determine whether ESL teachers teach communicatively.

The findings of the study were that teachers who were trained before 1986 and those trained subsequently have a limited view of the CA. Consequently they cannot apply it to their teaching and seem to revert to a structural interpretation of the syllabus.

This study then, confirms that teachers do not have a full understanding of what the CA comprises and consequently teachers do not teach "communicatively".

ABSTRAK

In 1986 is 'n nuwe Engels Tweede Taal sillabus vir die Junior en Senior Sekondêre Kursus ingestel vir die Kaapprovinsie. Die oorhoofse doelstelling was kommunikatiewe bevoegdheid en dit stel voor 'n kommunikatiewe benadering (KB) in die onderrig van Engels Tweede Taal. Met die bekendstelling van die benadering was die meeste onderwysers onbewus daarvan en is daar met hierdie studie onderneem om te bepaal of die onderwysers verstaan wat kommunikatiewe taalonderrig behels en of hulle dit in hulle onderrig toegepas het.

Eerstens is die eise van die gemeenskap en hoe dit die onderrig van taal deur die eeue beïnvloed het, bestudeer. Kommunikatiewe bevoegdheid is op verskillende tye deur die loop van die geskiedenis vereis en dit is juis aan hierdie verskillende tye wat die kommunikatiewe benadering sy ontstaan te danke het. Dit is ontdek dat van die beginsels van die kommunikatiewe benadering al van vroeë tye toegepas is deur onderwysers en teoretiese.

Onderwysers en teoretiese wat taal onderrig vir kommunikasie sien taal in 'n ander lig. Taal en die unieke eienskappe daarvan word ondersoek en taal as kommunikasie word beklemtoon. Verskillende wyses waarop taal gebruik kan word om te kommunikeer word ondersoek en vrae soos: "Waar is betekenis gesetel? Wat is die soorte betekenis?" en "Hoe kan betekenis beheer word?" word bespreek.

Voor die bekendstelling van die KB is taalonderrig beperk tot die bemeestering van taal strukture. Helaas, met die nuwe insigte wat verkry is van taal en betekenis het die klem verskuif na verbandhoudende diskoers eerder as op sinsontleding. Met die klemverskuiwing moes onderwysers ook hul onderrig aanpas om aan die eise te voldoen.

'n Bondige bespreking van die kommunikatiewe benadering en die voorvereistes van 'n kommunikatiewe kurrikulum word gegee. Daar word ook onderskeid getref tussen tradisionele en kommunikatiewe

benaderings. 'n Kommunikatiewe taalonderrig-metodologie word voorsien en kommunikatiewe bevoegdheid word ook bespreek. Baie praktiese voorbeelde van kommunikatiewe taalonderrig word verduidelik.

In die empiriese studie is 'n vraelys aan die onderwysers van Engels Tweede Taal in dertig hoër skole van die Boland en Noordelike voorstede van Kaapstad gestuur. Die doel van die studie was om te bepaal of Engels tweede taal onderwysers kommunikatief onderrig.

Die bevindinge van die studie was dat beide onderwysers wat voor 1986 opgelei is en daarna, 'n beperkte siening van die kommunikatiewe benadering het. Gevolglik kan hulle nie die benadering toepas nie en wil dit voorkom of hulle 'n strukturele vertolking van die sillabus volg.

Die studie bevestig dus dat onderwysers nie die kommunikatiewe benadering ten volle verstaan nie en gevolglik kan die onderwysers nie kommunikatief onderrig nie.

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SOLI DEO GLORIA

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

A communicative syllabus was launched in South Africa in 1986. This was the result of a major swing from a structural syllabus in Europe, Britain and America.

Although, as will be established later in this thesis, the roots of Communicative Language Teaching can be traced to very early times, the current impetus seems to derive from concurrent developments in Europe and America. The approach was based on a complex view of language, which had been influenced by a range of theoreticians such as Austin, Searle, Gumpres, Labov, and Halliday whose work had influenced the development of pragmatics, discourse analysis, ethnography and other areas of sociolinguistics.

In America Savignon and Hymes independently developed the notion of **communicative competence**, while in Europe, Wilkins and others working for the Council of Europe developed a **notional** and a **functional** syllabus. In time, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was developed. This approach was applied to both foreign language and second language teaching situations. However, the differences between the needs of learners in a foreign language situation and those in a second language teaching situation have not been clearly defined. It is also true that there are at least as many forms of CLT as there are major exponents of the approach. In many ways the eclectic approach can be described as a chameleon: interpretations of CLT range from something which is hard to distinguish from a situo-structural approach at the one end of the continuum to an activities based approach with minimal organisational structure. As Richards and Rodgers (1986) remind us "nothing is proscribed".

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The approach makes considerable demands on teachers. For high school teachers in South Africa, this presents a number of challenges. Not only do they have to determine the specific language needs of the pupils they teach in a country where increasing demands are being made, but they require a thorough understanding of language and the way it is acquired, so that they can set up the conditions in classrooms which enable pupils to use their second language purposefully and effectively.

Discussion with fellow teachers suggests that there is an inadequate understanding of the assumptions about language that underlie CLT. There appears to be still less understanding or knowledge of the communication process. It is not surprising that many of them question the value of the approach. Jessop's preliminary investigation (1994) reveals a similar picture in South Africa as a whole.

One of the difficulties which teachers face is that there is as yet no comprehensive explanation of the complex nature of second language acquisition. There have, of course, been attempts to identify theories that would be compatible with CLT. Krashen has been seen as providing such a theory. This has led to some confusion and in some cases a *reductio ad absurdum* where the complex nature of communication has been taken to mean comprehensible input. South Africa has not escaped this interpretation.

The aim of English as a second language cannot therefore be equated with a basic ability to communicate in specific situations. Jooste and Wilson (1993:18f) note that effective communication is the skill most highly prized by employers. At present English is used as a language of instruction as well as for practical communication in the workplace. It is also one of the official languages. Here, as in Europe, it is likely to be used as the language of record and the linking language. Most

of the major negotiation processes in South Africa in the last few years have used English.

1.3 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

It is self-evident that teachers, who do not understand the merits of the approach will at best pay lip-service to it or teach in a manner that is inconsistent with the tenets of the approach. This means that an effective means of addressing the complex demands made on users of English in South Africa will be lost.

The aim of this study was to determine the extent to which teachers of English as a second language understand the implications of Communicative Language Teaching and use this approach in their teaching. It seemed useful to compare teachers who had trained before 1986 (before the inception of CLT) with those who had trained after this period.

First, a brief historical account is provided in which the different aspects of the Communicative Approach (CA) manifested by the teaching approach of particular teachers is briefly reviewed to counter the view that the method is "new-fangled" or revolutionary.

The view of language held by proponents of the approach and the place of discourse analysis in the CA are explored next. Next, the CA and its implications for teaching are reviewed, before the way in which CLT was implemented by the Cape Education Department in 1986 is outlined. In Chapter Seven, the parameters of the research project are given and in Chapter Eight, the responses to the questionnaire are tabled and carefully analysed. Chapter Nine makes certain recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

EARLY MANIFESTATIONS OF THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In broad terms, language teaching may be said to have three aims:

- : the social
- : the artistic (or literary), and
- : the philosophical.

The **social** aim demands that language should be regarded as a form of social behaviour and a type of communication. The **artistic** or **literary** aim demands training in analytical techniques (Kelly 1976:396).

In attempting to realise these aims, language teaching methods over the centuries have changed to meet the demands of a changing society. To some extent, this process may be described as a cyclic progression of language teaching aims (Howatt 1984:152).

When a communicative syllabus was launched in South Africa in 1986, most language teachers knew it was a "new" approach that had excited interest since the 1970s. However, its introduction in South Africa was related to the changing demands that language learners were confronted with in the outside world. The aims of language teaching had to take account of the demands of society.

Today communicative competence is seen as the broad aim of English Second Language teaching.

2.2 THE INFLUENCE OF LATIN TEACHING

Language teaching since Classical times (600BC - 500AD) has been strongly influenced by approaches to Latin teaching. As the

principal medium of instruction, scholarship and communication, Latin was taught to enable clerics to speak, read and write in their second language (Mackey 1965:141). This practice continued until approximately the sixteenth century, when the vernacular languages of Europe began to assume the role in communication that Latin had played. As modern languages gained ground and eventually became school subjects, the formalism of Latin teaching was transferred to them (Stern 1983:79).

In England children who entered "grammar school" were given a rigorous introduction to Latin grammar, which was mainly taught through rote learning of grammar rules, study of declensions and conjugations, translation, and practice in writing sample sentences (Richards and Rodgers 1986:1f). With no real need to use the language for "immediate" communication purposes, the students were seen as needing disciplined study, which would provide them with knowledge of the language.

Eventually, when modern languages were introduced, the approach used in Latin teaching (the study of classical Latin such as the works of Virgil, Ovid and Cicero and an analysis of its grammar and rhetoric) became the model for foreign language study.

2.3 COMMUNICATIVE ELEMENTS IN TEACHING APPROACHES OF PREVIOUS CENTURIES

The selective account of language teaching from the fifteenth to the nineteenth century, which follows, presents evidence that there was a counter development which recognised the need of learners to use language.

2.3.1 Fifteenth Century

By the end of the fourteenth century it was a common feature in language teaching to use double-manuals which took the form of bilingual "situational" dialogues, for example English to French, arranged in parallel columns, presenting useful functional language for everyday purposes. These manuals

remained fashion-able until the eighteenth century. Recently, a similar interest in the social use of language has led to a revival of these dialogue methods (Howatt 1983:264).

2.3.2 Sixteenth Century

In the early sixteenth century some teachers of language questioned the value of grammar in the teaching of language.

The most notable was Cominius, who was sharply critical of "grammars" seeing them either as long and tedious or short and confusing and useless either way.

2.3.3 Seventeenth Century

Joseph Webbe's view of language learning was that language should be used to gain communication skills and that exercises in communication would inevitably lead to a knowledge of grammar. He proposed a form of language teaching which depended heavily on the spoken interaction between pupils. The aim was to "develop an internalized knowledge of language through the exercise of communicative activities ("reading, writing, and speaking after ancient Custom") conducted in the foreign language" (Howatt 1984:37).

Interaction in the target language is one of the characteristics of a communicative language teaching lesson. Today, more than three hundred years since Webbe published his views on language teaching. Wilga Rivers, one of the proponents of the Communicative Approach, claims that

no movement, approach, technological revolution, provision of or lack of funds can have a greater effect than the experience of learner and mentor in interaction, giving and receiving messages in an atmosphere of mutual respect and liking.

(Rivers 1990:272)

Webbe's translation exercises were different from those of his contemporaries. They were done clause-by-clause and not word-by-word, and move towards units of meaning as opposed to words in isolation. This focus on meaning was to come to the fore again in the twentieth century, especially in Malinowski's ideas, particularly in what he termed "context of situation". This was to have a profound influence on the Communicative Approach (see 4.3.2).

The strong emphasis on the experiential, so favoured now by CLT, is to be seen in Comenius's "Orbis Sensualism Pictus". Each lesson begins with a picture about which the teacher talks and the pupils express their ideas and feelings. According to Comenius pupils had to experience the real world, the world of senses from which all knowledge originates and only then could the real world be associated with the language (Howatt 1984:46, Kelly 1976:11).

A number of seventeenth century language teachers saw language not as an object of study but an "instrument of action". This resulted in greater target language use in the classroom, as well as an emphasis on language used in typical real life situations. This can be clearly seen in the lessons given to the French refugees in England after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, who had to use English as a language for communication. Howatt describes this as the first serious attempt to teach English as a Second Language. These views are also reflected in the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach where activities and materials are authenticated as far as possible (see Chapter 5).

Many of the Huguenot mentioned found employment as tutors of French in the houses of the wealthy. All they had to do was to speak French to the children, for it was believed that the children would acquire the language as a result. This is not dissimilar from aspects of the strong version of the Communicative Approach (see 5.12.4).

John Locke also favoured an informal approach and had a strong belief in the "Natural" approach or learning language through conversation (Locke 1693:225 in Yolton and Yolton 1989). He felt that what the learners learn should be relevant and closely related to real life situations. In his view, learners acquire a second language in a similar fashion to their mother tongue, a view supported by a number of theorists whose views have influenced the proponents of CLT.

2.3.4 Nineteenth Century

The eighteenth century seems to have seen a reversion to grammar-translation. The grammatical system of the language was learnt without reference to the language of real communication (Richards and Rodgers 1986:2).

However, in the nineteenth century there was considerable interest in "natural learning" once more. After observing his three-year-old nephew closely, Gouin (1831-1896) realised that young children use language to understand and organise experience, and that experience, in turn, is used to control and explore the resources of language (Howatt 1984:166).

In addition, there were a number of practitioners who focused on **utilitarian learning**, particularly in teaching German, Ahn and Ollendorff, for instance, included far fewer grammar rules in their courses than their predecessors. Grammar was also graded and rationed per lesson with the larger part of the lesson spent on practice.

There is also evidence of a more active role for the learner. Jacotot (1770 - 1840) focused attention on the role of the teacher. He questioned whether explanation was the teacher's primary role, or even an essential one. He felt that the pupil should be made to **discover** for himself how to handle his new language (Kelly 1976:40, Howatt 1984:151). Proponents of a communicative approach similarly consider that the content within a communicative methodology should motivate the learner

to personal and joint **negotiation** (Breen and Candlin 1979:102, see also 5.9).

Marcel (1793-1876) rejected rote learning and favoured the use of conversation as "a very active agent in circulating opinions and information, in forming the taste and character" (Kelly 1976:125).

In the Communicative Approach, conversation in group context is viewed as an "active agent" in much the same way.

Another noteworthy distinction, that Marcel made was that between "impression" and "expression". What he implied was that we understand what people mean and not, strictly speaking, what they say. This is echoed in the emphasis on meaning rather than form in the Communicative Approach.

An outstanding exponent of the **conversation method** was **Lambert Sauveur** (1826-1907) who taught French at Gottfried Henness's language school for American children in Germany.

Sauveur's lessons started with a month of intensive oral work in class. A lesson would last two hours during which Sauveur had a conversation with his pupils in French. Not a word of English was used. He made considerable use of gesture to convey meaning, but did not use pictures much. Sauveur followed two basic principles during his conversation. The first was to ask **genuine questions**, questions that would give him information that he did not possess, and secondly "**coherence**". This meant that one question would give rise to another. This is also the reason, most probably, why he was so successful in communicating with his pupils - they could predict the course of the conversation (Howatt 1984:201).

Current information gap activities are similar to Sauveur's "genuine questions". Stern (1992:197) points out that

[r]eal questions and answers have an element of doubt and unpredictability demanding choice and decision-making among the interactants.

Similarly, the idea of coherence can be tied to "scaffolding", where native speakers of the target language offer support to second language learners. The native speakers adapt their speech to the learner's specific needs and capacities and by doing this the interactions are most meaningful, worthwhile and enjoyable, which increases the chances of some language being learned (Little, Devitt and Singleton 1989:6).

The Sauveur approach, which became known as the Natural Method, was the most seriously considered new development in language teaching in America at that time, but its support seemed to decrease and it needed a stronger theoretical foundation to gain wider acceptance. At that stage many immigrants were moving into the United States, and had to meet the demands of their new country.

Berlitz catered for beginners and gave them a good grounding of the language. His instructions to the teachers were:

- never to use translation,
- to do a great deal of oral work,
- to use grammatical explanations only much later in the course and
- to make the maximum use of question-and-answer techniques.

His teachers were all native speakers (Howatt 1984:205).

When compared to Sauveur's method, Berlitz's was simple, systematic, ordered and replicable. It also had elements of the communicative approach namely much target language input and the information gap technique in the questions and answers.

In the late nineteenth century, the Reform Movement emphasised

- the primacy of speech
- the centrality of the connected text as the kernel of the teaching-learning process and
- the absolute priority of an oral methodology in the classroom

(Howatt 1984:171).

The primacy of speech was emphasised by Viëtor (1850-1918) and Sweet (1845-1912). Viëtor disagreed with the emphasis placed on writing in the classroom. In addition, they used connected text rather than the disconnected sentences of the grammar-translation method.

Psychology had begun to emerge as a distinctive discipline in the 1880s and one of its central concepts was also the notion of association (Howatt 1984:172). Consequently, an "inductive" method of teaching grammar emerged where the text provided the necessary data for grammatical rules rather than learning exemplified rules out of context.

2.3.5 Twentieth century

It was, however, during this century that the teaching of English as a foreign language emerged as a branch of language teaching in its own right. In the 1920s teaching English as a second language with a utilitarian function of communicating knowledge was established, but it was only in the 1950s that a clearer distinction was made between English as a "foreign" language and a "second" language (Howatt 1984:212).

Palmer (1922) developed an "Oral Method" in which he tried to teach Japanese children to use practical English for everyday purposes of social survival (Howatt 1984:234). Learners began with "subconscious comprehension". This consisted of a form of interaction where learners could participate if they wanted to. This is similar to the Silent Way of Gattegno (1972) who believes that through "listening, generalizing, and expressing oneself" more effective learning takes place (Richards 1985:37).

Palmer also distinguishes between language learning in real-life and learning in the classroom. He noted that spontaneous capacities are engaged in the acquisition of spoken language whereas studial capacities are required in the development of literacy (Palmer 1969:4-9). Krashen has a somewhat similar distinction between spontaneous acquisition and the learning, but he applies this to all language skills rather than making a division between spoken language and written language (Krashen 1983).

However, arguably the most significant impetus to the reaction along structural lines was provided by Noam Chomsky. He offered a radically different approach in his **Syntactic Structure** in 1957 in the United States, in which he demonstrated that structural theories were incapable of accounting for the fundamental characteristic of language - the creativity and uniqueness of individual sentences (Richards and Rodgers 1986:64).

Chomsky also dramatically influenced the psychological conception of language learning of the day. His vigorous criticism of Skinner's behaviourism on the grounds that it ignored the essentially creative quality of language led to widespread rejection of behaviourism.

He argued that every speaker internalises and masters the systems of procedures for generating sentences. He labelled this knowledge "competence" in contrast to "the actual use of language in concrete situations" which he called "performance" (Chomsky 1965:4). This reinterprets in a psychological context the comparable sociological distinction that de Saussure had drawn between "langue" and "parole".

Also in the 1960s, contemporary British research which had developed from Firthian systemic linguistics led to an emphasis on the functional and communicative potential of language. Major contributors to the theoretical underpinnings of what was to become known as the Communicative Approach were Halliday,

Austin, Searle, Gumperz and Labov. The need arose to find ways of making language teaching focus on communicative proficiency rather than the mastering of structures (Richards and Rodgers 1986:64). Language was seen as a social tool and it was considered essential to teach it as such (Roberts J.T. 1982:100).

In 1966 Dell Hymes emphasised that the need in language teaching was:

... not so much a better understanding of how language is structured but a better understanding of how language is used.

(Howatt 1984:271).

Although not the first to use the term, Hymes presented the concept of "communicative competence" in such a way that it immediately appealed to teachers seeking a way of teaching languages for purposes that were relevant to the pupils, namely "real-life" situations. Although Hymes's (1971) work only suggested a direction in which further research should proceed, it seems to have come at a time that coincided with teachers' intuitions about language teaching and at an appropriate time in history to give language teaching the impetus now known as the "Communicative Approach". As European countries became more interdependent, there was a greater need for the different countries to teach adults the major languages of the European Common Market. CLT with its functional or "communicative" approach to teaching was a logical development.

2.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter has shown that although the Communicative Approach is a relatively new development, it has its roots in the theories and practices of a number of language teachers and theorists since the fifteenth century. However, since it, like any other approach, rests on a particular view of language, a more complex understanding of the Communicative Approach demands an exploration of the nature of language.

CHAPTER 3

THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Arriving at a definition of language that takes account of its complexity is no easy task. This is evident from the inadequacies in the definition drawn from **The Oxford English Dictionary**.

The whole body of words and of methods of combination of words used by a nation, people, or race; a "tongue".

Words and the methods of combining them for the expression of thought.

The form of words in which a person expresses himself; manner or style of expression.

Since an approach such as CLT is based on a view of the nature of language, a closer understanding of it is necessary before discussions on **how** language teaching should be approached and **what** it should aim at can begin. In what follows an attempt is made to arrive at a description that takes account of some of the essential properties or features of language.

3.2 TOWARDS A DEFINITION OF LANGUAGE

Two main perspectives will be discussed briefly.

3.2.1 A linguistic perspective

A linguist sees a language as a **code**; a set of elements which can or cannot combine in various appropriate ways.

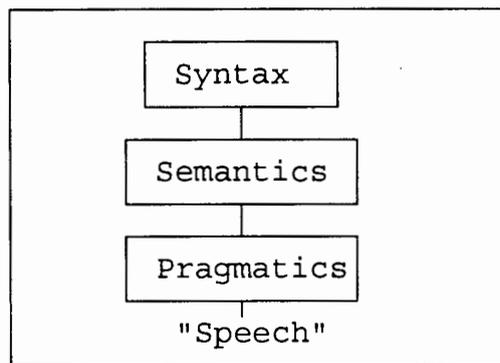
Sounds and letters, individually and in combination constitute words, sentences and so forth. The elements and sequences, by virtue of their implicit meaning, would naturally be expected to be used for communication between individuals who share the same rules.

Typically, the linguist sees language as a **closed system** - like those of mathematics, chemistry, symbolic logic - internally consistent but insulated from the environment in which it occurs. The numbers of mathematics, for example, have no external meaning. They mean the same whether they refer to atoms, human beings, stars or whatever.

A definition of language with which a linguist is happy to work would be something like the following:

Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols (Sapir, 1921: 8).

A simplified linguistic model would look like this:



(Bell 1981:21)

Figure 3.1: *A simplified linguistic model*

There is, however, a further dichotomy within the linguistic camp between those who view **form** as **substance** - the physical manifestations of the language in speech and writing - and those who locate form in the **mind** of the user of the language and stress that the language is not so much what the user does as what he **knows** - an **empiricist** versus a **rationalist** view of the nature of language.

3.2.2 A human sciences perspective

The human scientist - anthropologist, sociologist, social psychologist, psychologist, etc. - takes a different point of

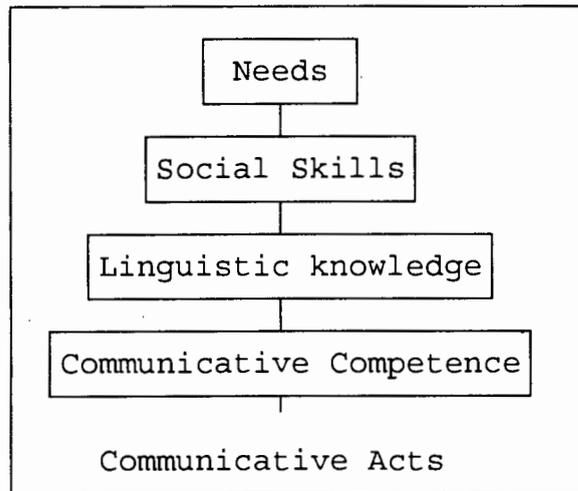
departure. The question "What is language?" is really "What is language for?" or "What do people **do** with language?" This represents a **functional** rather than a **formal** orientation. The answer is quite clear, namely that language is the most frequently used, and most highly developed form of human communication. This implies that the act of communication is basically the transformation of information of some kind - a "message" - from a source to a receiver. Both source and receiver are human in the case of language and the message is transmitted either vocally or graphically (usually as marks on paper) (Crystal 1968: 28).

Typically, the human scientist sees language as an **open system** interacting with, changed by, and changing, its environment. He will see language as part of the culture of the group, perhaps even its most distinctive defining characteristic; but, wherever he places it in relation to other aspects of human behaviour, his emphasis will be on the human-ness of human language and its place in human society as one of the most necessary and complex of all social skills. He will begin his description at the very point at which the linguist intends to stop - pragmatics - arguing that language is a social skill which exists in order to satisfy individual and group needs. His view of language will be broader than that of the linguist since he will want to include in his description of "language" not only linguistic knowledge (the knowledge of the grammatical rule-system) but knowledge of, and ability to use, linguistic and social knowledge to create communicative acts which are not only **grammatically correct** but also **socially appropriate**.

The human scientist might well prefer a definition of language of the type:

A set of culturally transmitted behaviour patterns shared by a group of individuals (Greenberg 1957: 1).

A rough human sciences model will probably look rather like Figure (below).



(Bell 1981:18-23)

Figure 3.2: *A simplified human sciences model*

Widdowson (1986) distinguishes two main functions of language: the framing of thoughts (concepts) and the conveyance of thoughts for some purpose in social interaction (communication). For him the central issue is how these two basic functions operate in communicative use.

The first of these functions (the conceptual) provides the individual with a means of establishing a relationship with his environment, of conceptualizing, and so, in some degree, controlling reality. This is language used for thinking, formulating concepts, fashioning propositions. It is essentially, to use Halliday's term, "ideational", and it enables the user to define experience.

Language serves for the expression of "content": that is, of the speaker's experience of the real world, including the inner world of his own consciousness.... In serving this function, language also gives structure to experience, and helps to determine our way of looking at things, so that it requires some intellectual effort to see them in any other way than that which our language suggests to us (Halliday 1970: 143).

The second function (the communicative) serves a social purpose. Individuals need language not only to formulate ideas but also to convey them to others in the process of performing social activity of different kinds. Language has to enable the individual to do, as well as think; to engage in social

interaction, as well as in private cognitive activity. This function of language is essentially (to use Halliday's term again) "interpersonal":

Language serves to establish and maintain social relations: for the expression of social roles, which include the communication roles created by language itself - for example, the roles of questioner or respondent, which we take on by asking or answering a question; and also for getting things done, by means of the interaction between one person and another (Halliday 1970: 143).

In addition to the ideational and interpersonal functions, Halliday postulates a third: the **textual** function. According to Halliday, it provides the means whereby language makes links with itself, so that individual sentences are fused into texts. The language user can thus organize propositional content, so that it is effectively conveyed in ways that are appropriate to the state of shared knowledge and the dynamism of sharing knowledge at a particular point in an interaction.

CLT is based on this complex grasp of language as opposed to the emphasis on structure of previous methodologies. The unique properties of language are briefly discussed in the following section to show how they contribute to the communication process.

3.3 UNIQUE PROPERTIES OF THE HUMAN LANGUAGE

3.3.1 Displacement

Human language can refer to past and future time, and to other locations allowing the user of language to talk about things and events not present in the immediate environment.

3.3.2 Arbitrariness

For the most part, words which seem to "echo" meaning are rare there is no "natural" connection between linguistic form and its meaning. The word "dog", for instance, has no natural or

"iconic" relationship with that four-legged barking object out in the world.

3.3.3 Productivity

It is a feature of all languages that novel utterances are continually being created. A child learning language produces utterances which he or she has never heard before. Later in life new situations arise or new objects have to be described and so language-users manipulate their linguistic resources to produce new expressions and new sentences. Communication is generally unpredictable and it is the infinite capacity of language to be "productive" that makes complex communication possible.

3.3.4 Cultural transmission

A specific language is acquired from other speakers and not from parental genes. Along with language certain cultural values and assumptions are learnt.

3.3.5 Discreteness

The sounds used in language are meaningfully distinct. One of the implications is that certain elements in language are discrete, for example, the difference between a "b" and a "p" sound is not actually very great, but when these sounds are used in a language, they are used in such a way that the occurrence of one rather than the other is meaningful e.g. "pack" and "back". Pronunciation then is a matter of meaningful communication, rather than of sounds being learnt.

3.3.6 Duality

At one level, we have distinct sounds, "n", "b", "i" and, at another level, we have distinct meanings: "nib" and "bin". This duality of levels is, in fact, one of the most economical features of human language since, with a limited set of distinct

sounds, we are capable of producing a very large number of sound combinations (e.g. words) which are distinct in meaning.

However, there are two more properties unique to the human language that deserve mention. These are structure-dependence and semanticity.

3.3.7 Structure-dependence

Humans can automatically recognize the patterned nature of language, and manipulate "structured chunks". For example, they understand that a group of words can sometimes be the structural equivalent of one:

She The old lady who was wearing a white bonnet	gave the donkey a carrot
---	-----------------------------

and they can rearrange these chunks according to strict rules:

A carrot	was given to the donkey	by the lady who was wearing a white bonnet
----------	----------------------------	---

(Aitchison 1976:40)

3.3.8 Semanticity

Semanticity refers to the use of symbols to "mean" objects and actions. Users can use the word "chair" for all types of chair, or one in particular. At the turn of the century, semanticity paved the way for the distinction between individual meaning (parole) and language itself (langue).

This distinction has important implications for language teaching. In the past the language itself had been studied but semanticity shifted the emphasis to **meaning** as it is produced in context. This interest in meaning and the use of language is synonymous with the Communicative Approach.

3.4 THE MEANINGS OF LANGUAGE

Before some basic questions on meaning are explored, two important characteristics of language that have a bearing on questions about meaning should be reviewed:

1. language is **cultural**, a spoken medium that exists only in so far as it is used by its speakers, and
2. language **changes in systematic ways**, phonologically, syntactically and semantically, but the changes are gradual.

3.4.1 Implications for language teaching and Communicative Activities

All speakers have the retrievable data that allow human beings to speak but not every speaker uses the stored information as well as every other speaker. We all have pretty much the same data but we do not all retrieve it and put it into practice in the same way or with the same skill. That is, our linguistic performance is not uniform. And it is in the area of linguistic performance, actual speech situations, where most of us are least aware of how language works: we can do it, but we often have difficulty analysing what we are doing or why we do it. That analytical gap may also account for the differences in our performance, for some people seem to be more fluent or more sensitive to nuances of language use than other people are. It may not be that the first group has more language (is more competent), but rather that the first group pays more attention to the conscious use (performance) of the linguistic data that we all have (Heatherington 1980: 132,133).

This point has considerable relevance to a complex understanding of CLT where full proficiency is the ideal, unlike other approaches where "correctness" was the aim.

3.4.2 The location of meaning

Meaning is not located in the external universe but in the connections human beings make between the outside world and whatever is inside their own minds. An object obtains meaning when we name it, adding to it our prior knowledge of it. In the course of time meanings are added as the knowledge or experience of individual uses is increased and then "added to" the name.

We are so competent in our grasp of the connections between reference, words, and ideas-about-both that we often fail to recognize just how **arbitrary** these connections are. Two speakers will rarely have exactly the same connections in mind when they use the same word. Then trouble arises, "noise", confusion. Most of these differences of usage can be worked out on the spot: if the rugby coach tells the player "You should be more aggressive", and his answer is a horrified, "Oh, no, I don't like fighting in a game!" then they can easily clear up the matter by specifying the meaning intended for "aggressive" or by acting out the difference between aggression and fighting or commitment. The variance in connections does not arise from any difference in the word "aggression" - it has the same phonemic and morphemic structure, the same syntactic function, and, basically, the same denotations when I use it as when my friend does - but rather from a difference in the minds of the speakers.

3.4.3 Kinds of meaning

Two kinds of meaning namely: **referential** (or extentional meaning) and "**common**", "**traditional**", "**precedential**" meaning have already been referred to. These are more commonly referred to as **denotative** and **connotative meanings**. A word's denotations are the "common", "traditional", "precedential" ones referred to above. Denotations are usually the result of centuries of usage; they are noted in the dictionary and change very slowly.

3.4.4 Some problem areas of meaning.

Connotations, on the other hand are the emotional responses, often quite personalized, that most lexical words arouse in most users. It is connotation, rather than denotation that separates "slim" from "thin", "stout" from "fat".

Literal and **figurative** meanings are related, respectively, to denotation and connotation but are not identical with them. A crucial feature in human communication is the ability to determine whether a speaker is speaking literally or figuratively.

In the communication process participants also make use of **semantic features** to determine meaning. "**Semantic features**" is the phrase by which some linguists describe the quality clustering that limits what kind of word will go with what other kinds of words.

The next section on "field analysis" explores some of the complexities of the English lexicon.

3.4.5 Field analysis

3.4.5.1 Homonyms and Homophones

Homonyms and homophones are the source of confusion where there is no clear context. The statement "Jaquiline can't bear children" could mean either that she cannot tolerate their presence or she cannot become pregnant (or possibly she is too weak to lift them) (Heatherington 1980:139).

3.4.5.2 Antonyms

Antonyms and synonyms are another source of difficulty for learners. Although there are a number of words which have commonly accepted opposites, such as "**quick**" and "**slow**", the majority of "antonyms" have a preferred or standard form (Lyons

1987:154; Yule 1987:95; Heatherington 1980:139). We usually ask how big a room is and not how small a room is, for instance. In all cases context will determine which antonym of the options available would be appropriate. This is equally true for synonyms, where forms which are closely related in meaning are not always intersubstitutable.

3.4.5.3 Synonyms

Almost every lexical word in English has connotations that serve as distinguishing semantic features. Knowledge of these connotations, together with the field analysis of context, is almost always necessary to help sort out one synonym from another (Heatherington 1980:140).

3.4.5.4 Ambiguity

Words that carry multiple meanings, as most words do, may be ambiguous.

Consider some examples of lexical ambiguity arising from the following:

- a. He found a **bat**
(**bat**: cricket bat; flying rodent)
- b. She couldn't **bear** children
(**bear**: give birth to; put up with).

In each case the bold word is ambiguous in that it has more than one meaning. It is crucial in the communicative process that the speaker and hearer be able to detect ambiguity. Successful communication depends on both speaker and hearer recognizing the same meaning for a potentially ambiguous word (Akmajian 1987:247).

3.4.5.5 Paraphrase and context

The influence that words exert on each other when they are combined in linear strings is bound to be even more complicated

than the patterns we have already observed. In a string of words, all of the isolated associations and fields of influences are combining, not in a simple 1 + 1 + 1 ... fashion (word A influences the next word, B, which connects with the third in the string, C, and so on), but in a more dispersed way. When words combine, each word has some influence over every other word in the string (A on B, C, D; B on A, C, D; C on A, B, D, and so on). Furthermore, the syntactic function and the position of each word produce influences of their own as well (Heatherington 1980:143).

3.5 Lexicostructural meanings

In an analysis of these multiple relationships, we move into a middle area between lexicon and syntax. This area of lexicostructural meaning is where structure begins to have lexical implications and vice versa. Lexical context, as with the word "aggressive" (see 3.4.2), begins to merge with syntactic context. We will therefore have to extend our field analysis to include words-in-combinations in order to understand the kinds and the locations of meaning. Three lexicostructural combinations will be examined: associative fields, collocations, and deep-structure syntax.

3.5.1 Associative fields

The simplest of these word combinations are the associative fields set up by a single word with many referents. This abundance of association cannot always be limited and clarified unless the word is placed in a particular context.

For example, "court" has three general features: (legal), (tennis) or (house) and from these three features an associative field disperses out to different object referents:

1. place where legal matters are decided by a judge
2. area in which you play a game such as tennis
3. the place where a king or queen lives.

It is possible to set up such fields for any number of words with more or less concrete references. Unless one wants to conjure up all the referents in the associative field when one uses a word like "court", one must collocate the word with other terms that limit that field.

3.5.2 Collocation

A collocation is close to a cliché, but not quite identical. Collocations are based on an arbitrary association of one word with another for no connotative or other associational reason at all. For example, one "does one's duty", but one "performs good works", "builds a skyscraper" and "produces a show" (Heatherington 1980:145f).

An even more rigid collocative construction appears in idioms - word groups that make conventional sense only if taken as a whole. "How are you?" is a modified Standard English idiom - modified by pitch and register - because most of the time, its users know that it is not to be taken literally, but more like an expanded version of "Hello".

3.5.3 Deep-structure syntax

There are some combinations from deep-structure syntax which are structurally rather than lexically connected with one another. "I can do that."/"Can I do that?" The first is an affirmative, declarative statement, connoting self-confidence and self assurance. The second is hesitant, possibly doubtful (Can I really pull that off?), possibly an implicit, polite, tentative command (Will you let me do that, please?) or possibly a request for information (Do you think I am capable of doing that?). The second sentences in each of these pairs - the negative and the question - are radically different from the first sentences, not because the lexicon has changed, but because the syntax has been

manipulated, resulting in an alteration of meaning (Heatherington 1980: 143-147).

To sum up:

In this section we have looked at the different kinds of meaning, namely **referential**, when a word refers to an object in the external universe e.g. "tree" and the "common", **traditional** when speakers have collective associations that allow them to converse comfortably with other speakers; **lexical** which is divided into referential significance with words like "and" or "a", denotative ("Cape Town") and connotative meanings "aggressive", which can arouse different emotions for the same word, and literal and figurative meaning. Semantic features limit which words will go with other kinds of words. The language user needs certain knowledge in order to distinguish relationships among entire classes of words which includes homonyms, antonyms, synonyms and ambiguity. Lastly there is **lexicostructural** meaning, which includes associative fields (different associations with a word e.g. "court"), collocations (which are similar to clichés "one does one's duty" but "performs good works") and then deep-structure syntax (when for instance, the active and passive forms are used). These are the different kinds of meaning. How they can be controlled will be dealt with in the next section.

3.6 Control of Meaning

3.6.1 Semiotics

Semiotics has been described as the science of signs, of symbolic behaviour or of communication systems (Lyons 1987:17). When semiotics is regarded as a communication system, there are certain concepts to be understood. A **signal** is transmitted from a **sender** to a receiver (or group of receivers) along a **channel** of communication. The signal will have a particular **form** and will convey a particular **meaning** (or **message**). The connection between the form of the signal and its meaning is established by

what is referred to as the **code**: the message is encoded by the sender and decoded by the receiver (Lyons 1987:17).

Signals that cannot be successfully decoded are considered to be **noise** (an indecipherable message). Both sender and receiver may be sources of noise.

Signs are also structured, through convention and through time, and never exist apart from their use by communities. And that use is conditioned in large measure by precedent.

Value or meaning (significance) is established when the object signified becomes strongly associated in the minds of members of a particular society with a signifier (see fig 3.3) (Heatherington 1980:149).

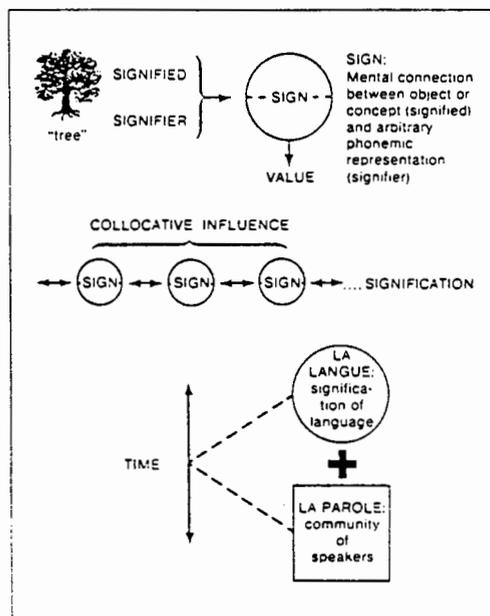


Figure 3.3: Relationships of Key Terms in Saussurean Semiotics

(Heatherington 1980:150 and Saussure 1960:65f)

Any given linguistic sign, then - whether tone of voice, gesture, word or phrase - shares in those two major parts: internal linguistic systems of phonemes, morphemes, syntax, lexical fields, and collocations, all operating in time, and external (nonlinguistic) systems with the multiplicity of connections that language makes with the world.

First we can become aware of, and can try to understand, the many aspects of "la langue's" collective, precedential tendency; we can recognise what language does (regardless of what any individual speaker or speech community says or does), what it does not do, and how those forces affect "parole" (Saussure 1960:14). Second, as a consequence of that awareness, that raising of competence up to the forefront of our attention, we may be able to sharpen and refine our performance, our day-by-day idiolectic participation in language, our own use - or abuse - of signifiers and signs (Heatherington 1980:151,152).

3.6.2 Pragmatics

This field of study can be defined as the study of actual utterances, the study of use rather than meaning, the study of performance rather than competence, the study of intended speaker meaning (Lyons 1987:171; Yule 1987:97).

Pragmatic theorists have identified three kinds of speech-act principles: **illocutionary force**, referring to the speaker as interpreted pragmatically by his auditors; **conversational principles**, referring to the auditors' expectations of the speaker, and **presuppositions**, referring to assumptions held by both the speaker and auditors. Each of the three principles, of course, influences the others and therefore influences the significance of the speech act as a whole.

3.6.2.1 Illocutionary force

This is the speaker's intention, so far as the auditors can discern it from the context. There are two major kinds of illocutionary force: **implicit**, below the surface and unstated, and **explicit**, on the surface and stated. An assertion is a statement about an action or attitude ("He loves you," "He does not love you"). An imperative is a command for action ("Shut up!" "Will you please shut up!"). An interrogative is a request for information ("How much is that tie?" "What time is it?"). It is important to identify these implicit forces not only theoretically, but also as they appear in their various social contexts, for frequently the apparent intention of the speaker is not the same as the actual intent.

Social convention and good manners usually dictate, for instance, that a speaker will not use imperatives in polite company, perhaps at a party, at dinner, or when he is courting someone's favour. We are taught very clearly to say "please" as a way of disguising the illocutionary force of a command. "Please pass the biscuits;" "Give me the salt, please." It is even more polite to phrase the imperative as a question: "May I get through here?". Most of us recognize that the implicit illocutionary force of these apparent questions is imperative, not interrogative.

Sometimes, however, the implicit illocutionary force of an utterance is not so clear, for it is often disguised by the surface-structure phrasing. "You're driving too fast" (assertion) may often carry the implicit illocutionary force of a command to slow down.

It may be tentatively suggested that the more intimate the register, the more disguised the implicit illocutionary force in any given speech act. Conversely, the more formal the register, the less disguised the force.

The other major kind of illocutionary force is **explicit**. Explicit illocutionary force in a speech act takes the form of a statement in which the utterance itself is an action. "I tell you, it was awful!" performs the act of telling which the verb names. "I pronounce you man and wife" performs the act of pronouncing. Statements like these, promising or pronouncing, or telling (or asking or commanding), are called **performative utterances**; the utterance itself is the deed. There is an understood contract in such utterances, for assertions like these always carry the force of an unspoken command. The unspoken (implicit) command is that the auditor should believe the assertions to be true (should accept their truth value): it is true that something was awful; you are man and wife.

Most of the time, we do accept such assertions as true, or we pretend to do so, but if the context is intimate enough, the implicit truth may be questioned even here: "Oh, yeah? Who says it was awful!" When explicit and implicit intentions clash over a performative utterance, the auditors are challenging the speaker's capacity, not to tell the truth, but to verify the truth of the statements. The speaker is challenged to match the truth value of the utterance to some external referent or some action.

3.6.2.2 Conversational principles

This brings us to what the auditor can expect from a speaker, as opposed to the interpretive skills that a speaker can expect from his audience. In any speech act, the audience generally assumes that at least four conversational principles (Grice 1975) will apply to what a speaker says:

- he is sincere (not saying one thing and meaning another)
- he is telling the truth
- what the speaker says is relevant to the topic or general areas of concern
- the speaker will contribute the appropriate amount of information or commentary, not withhold anything important and not rattle on for an undue amount of time.

3.6.2.3 Presuppositions

Here, we move into what both speakers and auditors can expect of the content or information contained in an utterance, that is, what a speaker and an auditor can suppose each other to know before a given speech act begins.

An attentiveness to the unspoken and often unconscious "rules" or expectations inherent in a speech act can help to sharpen our awareness of what is really going on as we speak. The illocutionary force implicit in certain contexts, the active nature of performative statements, the conversational principles applicable to most speech situations and the presuppositions all of us bring to conversations: these pragmatic contexts of language use shape our performance all the time. The more we understand them, the better we can control them. The same may be said of our control over individual meanings as well (Heatherrington 1980:152-157).

3.7 CONCLUSION

Given the general elusiveness of "meaning" (and sometimes of meaning), we have nevertheless attempted to answer three key questions about the topic: Where does meaning reside? What are the kinds of meaning? How do we control meaning? Throughout the discussion, we have suggested in various ways that understanding (competence) is at least half the task; the other half is performance - achieving an outcome with the insight of understanding.

CHAPTER 4

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

4.1 WHAT IS COHERENT DISCOURSE?

4.1.1 Introduction

When studying language some most interesting questions arise in connection with the way language is "used" rather than what its components are. One of them is how it is that language-users interpret what other language-users intend to convey.

The following extract is taken from an "essay" written by an Afrikaans pupil in Standard Six:

At Last

From I was littel dreamed about a motorbicke. I safed and safed for a motorbicke. At last I had inaf money to buy me a motorbicke. Bat at that time the price had gone up.

Now I had to stat sefeing agen. I worked in the garden to get money end washed the car to get money to buy me 'n motorbike.

A year later I had the money to buy my own motorbike. It was 9 June on my birth my mother told me to go to the garash and look wats inside the garash. I then went to the garash to see wats inside.

There it was a brand new motorbike. At last I had my own motorbike to drive wen efer I want.

Although there are many grammatical and spelling errors, the reader is able to make sense of it and on the strength of linguistic and real-world knowledge can make a reasonable interpretation of what the writer is trying to convey. It seems then that it is more than the **rules of the sentence** that enables language users both to be meaningful and to perceive meaning.

4.2 THE STUDY OF SENTENCES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Hatch (1978) is sharply critical of the fact that teachers and students of second languages have almost exclusively concentrated on producing correct sentences in isolation from a need to produce language for a particular purpose. Hymes (1971[1972:277]) makes the point even more firmly. Using language effectively is not the same as the ability to produce formally correct sentences. He says that a language-user who can only produce correct sentences and recognize them, is "likely to be 'institutionalised' for saying all kinds of inappropriate, irrelevant and uninteresting things".

Since coherent discourse clearly involves much more than only being able to identify and use correct sentences, the question now arises as to how coherent discourse is achieved.

The investigation of "... how it is that we, as language users, make sense of what we read in texts, understand what speakers mean despite what they say, recognize connected as opposed to jumbled or incoherent discourse, and successfully take part in that complex activity called conversation, we are undertaking what is known as **discourse analysis**" (Yule 1987:104).

Before analysis of discourse can be discussed in greater detail, a review of the functions of language, specifically the communicative function, is necessary to establish the particular perspective involved.

4.3 THE NATURE OF COMMUNICATION

A precise definition of communication is difficult, but a brief view of the different properties of communication should provide a deeper understanding of it.

Following Breen and Candlin (1980), Morrow (1977) and Widdowson (1978), communication is understood here to have the following characteristics:

- a) it is a form of social interaction, and is therefore normally acquired and used in social interaction;
- b) it involves a high degree of unpredictability and creativity in form and message;
- c) it takes place in discourse and sociocultural contexts which provide constraints on appropriate language use and also clues as to correct interpretation of utterances;
- d) it is carried out under limiting psychological and other conditions such as memory constraints, fatigue and distractions;
- e) it always has a purpose (for example, to establish social relations, to persuade, or to promise);
- f) it involves authentic, as opposed to textbook-contrived language; and
- g) it is judged as successful or not on the basis of actual outcomes.

In addition, communication is understood in the present chapter as the **exchange and negotiation of information** between at least two individuals through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, oral and written/visual modes, and production and comprehension processes. Furthermore, as pointed out by Haley (1963) and others, such information is never permanently worked out nor fixed but is **constantly changing** and **qualified** by such factors as further information, context of communication, choice of language forms, and non-verbal behaviour. In this sense communication involves the **continuous evaluation and negotiation of meaning** on the part of the participants. Finally, it is assumed with Smith (1972), Palmer (1978) that authentic communication involves a "**reduction of uncertainty**" among the participants (Richards and Schmidt 1983:3,4).

Bell (1981) states that the communicators involved in the communication process are distinct individuals who can rarely be certain that they share meanings. The fact that face-to-face communication takes place in a social context which permits

conflicting messages to be transmitted and received through the range of channels in use - considering the way the actual words can have their meanings reversed by a change in intonation or gesture or, facial expression - makes the noise which occurs severe and complex. The sender and the receiver are both sources of potential "noise", so are the various channels, and so is the social context in which the message is being sent and received (cf. 3.5.1).

Bell (1981) provides a social-psychological model of face-to-face communication which illustrates the steps in the process from the speaker's "intended message" through its transmission and reception to the hearer's understanding of the message and his feedback on it to the speaker.

The model represents the kinds of knowledge and skill which the native user of a language must possess in order to communicate effectively. If this is the case, it is also a model of the knowledge and process which we intend our learners to control as a result of our teaching i.e. it is a partial specification of the **communicative competence** which we intend them to achieve.

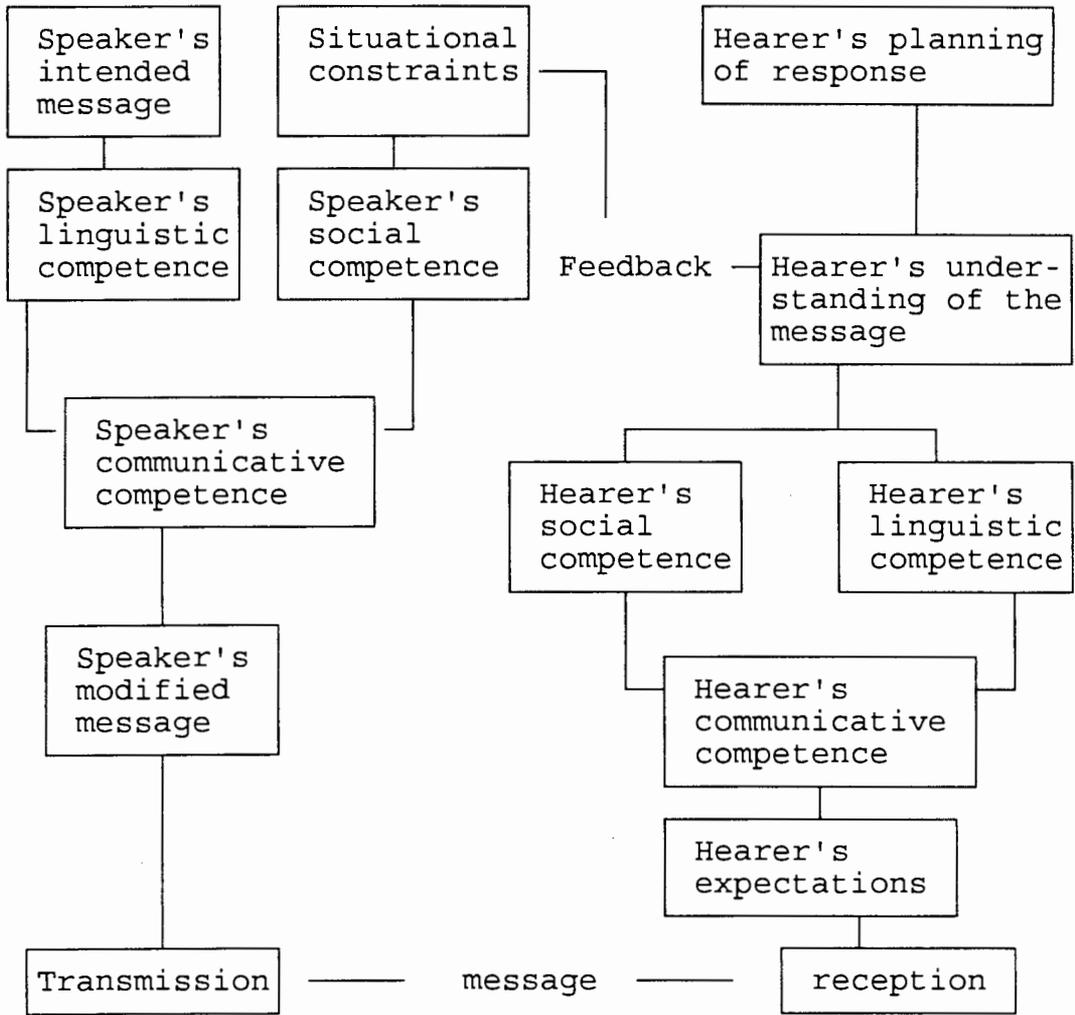


Fig 4.1 A social-psychological model of communication (Bell 1981:125).

4.3.1 Situational constraints

In the model there is a box marked "situational constraints", a concept which needs expansion. Although people are in principle free to say and do exactly as they wish, they actually do not behave in such an unpredictable fashion. They are, to a great extent, constrained by the situation in which they find themselves, by the other participants in the interaction, by the nature of the interaction itself and by the topic about which they are speaking. The skilled communicator takes the situational constraints into account as he speaks or writes, listens or reads, revising his assessment of the constraints and the weightings he assigns to each as he receives feedback from the other participants.

Closely related to situational constraints is the opinion or information gap concept which is discussed in greater detail in the following chapter (5.7.1).

4.3.2 Context of situation

As can be deduced from the aforementioned, communication is realized in a "context of situation". Malinowski, who coined the phrase, came to the conclusion that the meaning of any word was to a very high degree dependent on its context (Wolf 1989:259,260).

John Firth, a British linguist, is credited with focusing attention on discourse as subject and context for language analysis. Firth also stressed that language needs to be studied in the broader sociocultural context of its use, which includes participants, their behaviour and beliefs, the objects of linguistic discussion, and word choice.

The communicative approach in language teaching derives from a theory of language as communication (see Chapter 2). The goal of language teaching is to develop what Hymes (1972) referred to as "communicative competence".

Halliday, like Hymes, acknowledges primary debts to Malinowski and Firth: "Linguistics ... is concerned ... with the description of speech acts or texts, since only through the study of language in use are all the functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning, brought into focus" (Halliday 1970:145).

So far the nature of communication has been investigated, communication being one of the main functions of language and it is clear that it covers a range of different aspects. One aspect that is often brought to bear on communication, directly or indirectly, is the speech act. The nature of the speech act

will next be examined to determine how speech act theory can contribute to an understanding of second language acquisition.

4.3.3 Speech Acts

As Flowerdew (1990:81) reminds us speech act theory (Austin 1962) essentially attempts to explain "how to do things with words". It "has to do with the functions and uses of language" (Schmidt and Richards 1979:129). In a broad sense it could be said that speech acts "are all the acts we perform through speaking, the things we **do** when we speak" (Schmidt and Richards 1979:129).

Hymes (1972) made a distinction between speech situations, speech events and speech acts. **Speech situations** are often found in communities such as meals, parties, flights, hunts, etc. and are not governed by consistent rules throughout and therefore cannot be relabelled. A **speech event** can be "restricted to activities that are directly governed by rules or norms for the use of speech, events such as two party conversations (face-to-face or on the telephone), lectures, introductions, religious rites, and the like". **Speech acts** are the minimal terms of the set: speech situation/event/act. When we speak we perform acts such as giving reports, making statements, asking questions, giving warnings, making promises, approving, regretting, and apologizing.

The speech act theories of Austin (1962) and Searle (1975, 1976) make a distinction between two types of act created in the making of an utterance. The **locutionary act** conveys the literal meaning of the words and grammatical structures of the utterance. The **illocutionary act** conveys the force - or function - of the utterance, "how it ... is to be taken" (Austin 1962: 98). More recently, however, a third type of act also present in the making of an utterance has been specified. This is the interactive, or interactional act (Widdowson, 1979:66) that conveys how one utterance relates to the other utterances in the discourse.

This emphasizes the dynamic nature of speech and the fact that acts combine together in a structured way. Conversation is not seen merely as a piling up of locutions ... (formal literal meaning of the words e.g. "How are you?") and illocutions (the act which is performed by saying it: greeting), but as the creation of interactions structured by patterns of interactive acts ("How are you?" "I'm fine, haven't seen you for ages ...").

Earlier this was neglected in the setting up of syllabuses but has now been incorporated in functional approaches to language teaching (Wilkins, 1976; Munby, 1983). A further benefit accruing from this insight concerning the importance of the interactive function has resulted in greater attention being given to the interactive roles of teachers and learners in classroom activities (Flowerdew 1990:94 see 5.11 and 5.10).

Speech act theory, on the other hand, defining proficiency with reference to communicative rather than linguistic competence, looks beyond the level of the sentence to the question of what sentences do and how they do it when language is used. It thus broadens the scope of enquiry to include the study of how second language learners use sentences to perform speech acts and to participate in speech events (Schmidt & Richards 1979:142). Previously only discrete sentences largely without context were studied.

Now that it has been established that language has a communicative function and what speech acts are, it would be appropriate to consider how they feature in a communicative system.

4.4 GROUND RULES FOR A COMMUNICATIVE SYSTEM

Slobin (1975) refers to four basic ground rules to which a communicative system must adhere:

1. be clear
2. be humanly processible in ongoing time
3. be quick and easy
4. be expressive.

Widdowson considers that the first two of Slobin's ground rules are essentially conceptual, namely the requirements of clarity and processibility. Both are basic to the formulation of propositions and relate to cognitive processing and storage. The second two requirements are essentially communicative and relate to the conveying of propositions on communicative occasions (Widdowson 1986:73).

The following example may serve to illustrate the point. The husband tells his wife on Monday.

John, the tiler, is coming on Saturday.

The wife understands the proposition and stores the information in her memory as a concept. The next conversation occurs on the Friday preceding the Saturday.

Husband	:	John is coming tomorrow.
Wife	:	Who?
Husband	:	John, the tiler, don't you remember?
Wife	:	Oh yes now I remember.

Here the meaning of the proposition has to be negotiated between wife and husband in a process of discourse and serves as an example of the second of Slobin's two requirements. It can also be noted how the husband applies Slobin's ground rules, especially the last two.

4.4.1 The co-operative principle

These last two requirements of Slobin's can then also be associated with the conversational maxims of Grice (1975), called the **co-operative principle**. The idea is that conversation always proceeds according to a principle, known and applied by all human beings. According to the co-operative principle, language-users interpret language assuming that the

sender is obeying four maxims. It is assumed that the person is intending to:

- be true (maxim of quality)
- be brief (maxim of quantity)
- be relevant (maxim of relevance)
- be clear (maxim of manner).

The receiver, using this assumption combined with his/her general knowledge of the world, can reason from the literal, semantic meaning of what is said to the intended meaning - and induce what the sender is intending to do with his or her words (Cook 1989:29).

4.4.2 The politeness principle

Lakhoff (1973 in Cook 1989) saw another aspect at work, the **politeness principle** and formulated the following maxims:

- Don't impose
- Give options
- Make your receiver feel good.

A second language teacher should inform his classes what is polite in the target language culture. Words of politeness or friendliness are often used to show we know or like or respect the other person.

A foreigner to the English culture could take up the question literally in answer to "How are you?" he might refer to his latest illness. This would be inappropriate and lead to a communication breakdown.

Being able to infer the function of what is said by considering its form and context is essential for the creation and reception of coherent discourse and thus for successful communication (Cook 1989:35). Clearly the politeness and co-operative principles on their own do not provide enough explanation. Knowledge of the physical and social world and also the culture of the people with whom the interaction is taking place is

important. Teachers should make the pupils aware of the customs and cultural conventions of the second language so that the principles at work can be interpreted accordingly (Cook 1989:33).

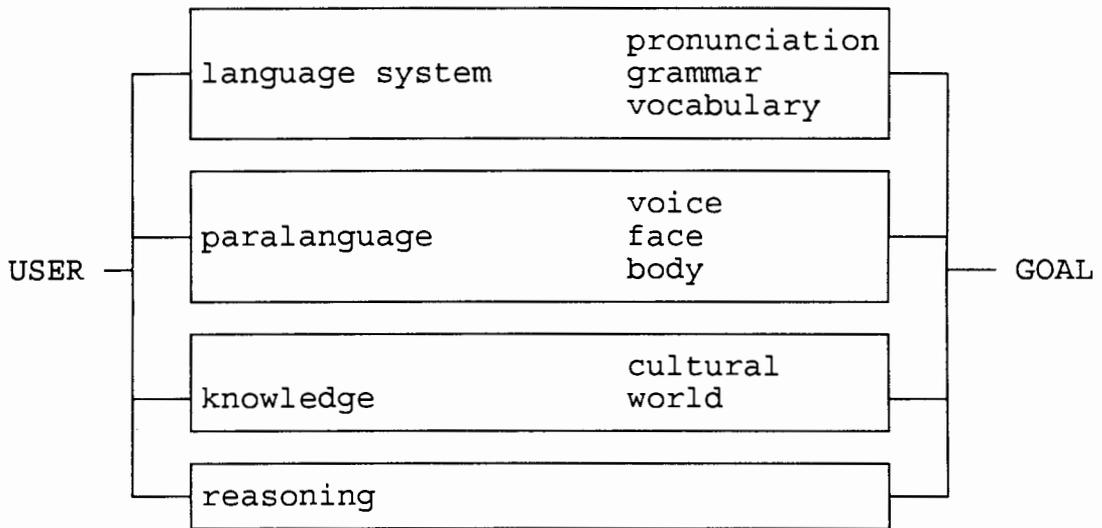
4.4.3 Speech Acts in teaching

Speech act theory (see 4.3.3) offers a means of probing beneath the surface of discourse and establishing the function of what is being said. Cook (1989:41) emphasises:

The fact that meaning is not constructed from the formal language of the message alone is crucial in explaining what it is that makes people perceive some stretches of language as coherent discourse and others as disconnected jumbles.

This also plays an important role in the successful teaching and learning of a second language. It implies that form and function may be divergent and therefore one cannot rely on teaching form only. The other implication is that if pupils are made aware of the functions of discourse they would more readily be able to link the appropriate form to the function.

If pupils are required to **do** things with words, actively and passively, as producers and understanders, then they clearly need more tools than those offered by the formal language system - pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary - on which many teachers have concentrated (see Chapter 8). It is not suggested that the teaching of formal elements of language should be discarded completely - it forms the basis of **effective communication** - but that the formal language system is not the only one to be acquired. The broad needs of the students are represented in the following figure:



(Cook 1989:43)

Fig. 4.2 What is involved in making sense of a communication.

However, pragmatics (the rules for permitted units of language to social behaviour) tends to examine how meaning develops at a given point while discourse reveals itself over a period of time. It is, therefore, necessary to look at longer stretches of discourse, rather than at extracts, to form a picture of examples of discourse as totalities. Since conversation plays a significant role in CLT activities, it seems a useful starting point.

4.5 THE OVERALL ORGANIZATION OF CONVERSATION

Conversation has a number of features of which a few will be mentioned.

Adjacency pairs (Hello/Hello) qualify as units for the **opening of conversations**. Once the speaker has secured the attention of the hearer, his task becomes one of **topic nomination**. After the participants have engaged in conversation, participants then embark on **topic development**, using conventions of **turn-taking** to accomplish various functions of language. Turn-taking is a culturally orientated set of rules which require finely tuned perceptions for effective communication and therefore it is important to use appropriate turn-taking signals. Topic

development also involves **clarification**, **avoidance** and **interruption**. Topic clarification can, for instance, occur between a native speaker and a second language learner, where the native speaker will seek or give **repair** (correction) of linguistic forms that contain errors. Repair is seen as an important ingredient of the process of negotiation that is so important in communication. The avoiding and shifting of a topic may be effected through both verbal and non-verbal signals. Interruptions are a common feature of all conversations. How to interrupt politely and when is one of the skills that language learners have to be taught (Brown HD 1987:206,207).

During a conversation there are **topic boundaries** which signal the end of one topic and then there are **topic markers** which indicate that a new topic is about to be discussed.

A: Well that finishes that ehm now what was that other thing I wanted to ask you ...?
(Svartvik & Quirk 1980:38)

Topic termination is an art which some speakers have difficulty in mastering. Usually conversations are terminated by glancing at a watch, a nicety, or a "Well, I have to be going now". Speakers should be aware of appropriate ways of terminating conversation.

Conversation, at one stage, was thought to be indeterminate. However, the work of conversation analysts has proved that it is very co-operative and they have given normative explanations for the structure of conversation.

4.5.1 **Significance of conversation for the second language learner/teacher**

Firstly the second language learner should know the right adjacency pair to open and close a conversation. Furthermore if the learner wants to be a competent second language user, then it would be imperative for him to be able to participate in a

conversation. Without knowing when a turn or unit-type has ended, it would be difficult for him to know when he can start participating in the conversation. This could result in the learner's being hesitant and not becoming a participant in the conversation, or feeling awkward when he accidentally interrupts the conversation, thinking it was his/her turn to speak. Eventually what can happen is that the second language learner becomes inhibited and avoids a situation where he has to use his second language.

The teacher of a second language must have a sophisticated understanding of how participants get in and out of conversations, and how they pass the turn to somebody else, which could also vary according to the circumstances. He should be aware that these mechanisms cannot be literally translated from the mother tongue to the second language. He will need to know the cultural conventions well enough to be able to create activities which will give learners an opportunity to learn how to manipulate them appropriately. He will also need to be able to explain these to learners, if necessary.

The extract below from Ridge *et al* (1989) illustrates how conversational opportunities can be created.

13 STARTING AND DEVELOPING A CONVERSATION

The way in which a conversation is started depends on the relationship between the participants. Conversations between strangers and casual acquaintances usually take some time to develop. Strangers normally offer personal information about themselves (in response to such questions as: 'What do you do for a living?' or 'Are you fond of pop-music?') before more general topics are broached.

Asking questions is the commonest way of initiating a conversation, even between close friends. In this case, questions are phrased more informally, e.g. 'Wasn't that bomb explosion in Durban shocking?' or 'What do you think of the latest increase in the price of petrol?' The response to that type of question introduces new ideas and in this way a conversation develops.

Conversations are also initiated by stating specific facts or opinions. In the case of opinions stated, the more controversial the point of view, the more likely that it will elicit a response and a conversation will ensue.

Conversations are often of a desultory nature (i.e. the participants pass from one topic to another spontaneously). Here is an example of how a single statement ('I spent my holiday in Durban') could give rise to a conversation on various topics.

- A: Hello. I haven't seen you for a while. Where have you been?
 B: I've just come back from holiday. I spent three weeks in Durban.
 A: Oh, I love Durban! (Conversation follows on the merits of Durban as a holiday centre.)
 B: I always spend my holidays inland. (Conversation follows on the rival merits of coastal/inland holidays.)
 A: Wasn't it very expensive? (Conversation follows on the comparative expense of various types of holiday.)
 B: I prefer to stay at home. It's more relaxing. (Conversation follows on the rival merits of staying at home during holidays.)
 A: I hate Natal. It's so English. (Conversation develops along provincial lines.)
 B: Oh, really? By the way, did you hear about that big fire on Table Mountain? (Topic of conversation changes entirely.)

Exercises

Working in groups of up to four pupils, try to initiate and develop a conversation on the following topics. You may add to the list as you please.

- A current news item of general interest
- An item of school news
- The latest trouble the naughtiest boy in the class has caused
- A good film currently showing
- A popular television programme
- The success or failure of a school sports team.

(Ridge et al 1989:298)

To sum up:

As has already been established, discourse analysis captures the notion that language is more than a sentence-level phenomenon. If a sentence is to be fully analyzed, its context has to be taken into account. Language is used in stretches of discourse. Many sentences are strung together in cohesive units so that the sentences are interrelated.

Conversation has been analyzed and given structure. This has supplied some answers to the question of how stretches of language form coherent discourse. However, an important aspect of discourse to be investigated remains: How do the seemingly unconnected sentences used below form coherent discourse?

A: That's the telephone.
B: I'm in the bath.
A: O.K.

4.6 COHERENCE

In discourse analysis much attention is paid to the **coherence** of a stretch of discourse i.e. "...the non-arbitrary connectedness or continuity that enables the participants in a lingual encounter to interpret such a text as a whole, even where verbally explicit or formal connections are absent" (Weideman 1986:72). There are several concepts that are used in discourse analysis to describe the coherence of a given stretch of text namely **frame**, **script**, **scenario** and **schema**. All of these intend to describe how users of language perceive, produce or understand (process) a given text as one unit of discourse.

4.6.1 Frame

In the production and understanding of discourse language users rely on a background knowledge. This background knowledge is represented in Minsky's **frame-theory** (Minsky 1968).

A frame can be defined as "a fixed representation of knowledge about the world" (Brown and Yule 1988:239) and this concept helps the discourse analyst to describe coherence.

4.6.2 Script

Where the frame is generally treated as an essentially stable set of facts about the world, the script attempts to accommodate an expected (sequence) of events (Brown and Yule 1988:243).

For instance, the reader has strong expectations of what he will hear in position x in the following example:

John's car crashed into a guard rail. When the ambulance came, it took John to the x.

He expects to hear "hospital" but, equally acceptable are words like "doctor", "medi-clinic" etc. Research supports the view that people are "expectation-based parsers of texts" (Riesbeck and Schank in Brown and Yule, 1988:242 and Stubbs 1986:23) and that people can make errors in their predictions of what must come next. These errors will then have to be overcome in a negotiation of meaning between the participants.

4.6.3 Scenario

The term **scenario** is used to describe the background knowledge of settings and situations which enable the receiver of a text to interpret it (Brown and Yule 1988:245). Research has proved that a specific **target** sentence can be interpreted with greater ease and speed because there is a specific scenario that has been set.

4.6.4 Schemata

"Schemata are considered to be deterministic, to predispose the experiencer to interpret his experience in a fixed way" (Brown and Yule 1988:247).

There can be a fixed way in which people think about certain things e.g. politics, racial prejudice etc. There may also be deterministic schemata which we use when we encounter certain types of discourse, for example

- A: There's a party political broadcast coming on - do you want to watch it?
B: No - switch it off - I know what they're going to say already.

(Brown & Yule 1988:247)

In the teaching of a second language the learner's background knowledge (frame) of the culture, customs, and so forth of the target language should be broadened to increase his understanding and production of the language.

The next aspect pertaining to coherent discourse to be discussed is inference.

4.7 INFERENCE

Generally speaking the notion of inference can be described as "that process which the reader (hearer) must go through to get from the literal meaning of what is written (or said) to what the writer (speaker) intended to convey". For example, the general view of the interpretation of an utterance such as (a) (below) - used to convey an indirect request - is that the hearer works from the literal meaning to a meaning like (a1) via inference(s) of what the speaker intended to convey.

- (a) It's really cold in here with that window open.
- (a1) Please close the window.

In other words, utterance (a) does not "mean" (a1). Rather, the hearer, on receiving (a) in a particular context, must infer that the speaker intended it to convey (a1) (Brown and Yule 1988:256). Research has also shown that readers performing a verification task take longer with the indirect forms than with the direct forms. The additional time taken is required by the reader's inferential processing of the indirect requests (Brown & Yule 1988:256).

When setting comprehension texts, teachers should take into account what type of inferencing would be necessary to respond to the test. A teacher that is aware of which inferences are necessary to "do" the comprehension should be able to set a more valid test. This principle can also be applied to cloze exercises and other forms of testing where inferences are applicable.

4.8 DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

Some linguists and teachers would say that theoretical linguistics has little or nothing to offer the practice of language teaching (Stubbs 1986:36). Hammerly (1991:182) even

goes so far as to say that "ever since it started as a novel and creative brain wave in the mind of Noam Chomsky, 'modern linguistics' has gone higher and higher into the rarefied atmosphere until it is now out of this world". On the other hand, Brown claims that "discourse analysis, is a multifaceted and exceedingly important consideration in the teaching of a second language. No longer can an adequate theory of second language acquisition be constructed without accounting for the stretches of language that characterize communicative acts" (Brown HD 1987:207). If it is true that linguistics has little to offer the language teacher, the area of discourse analysis does represent "an appropriate and coherent pedagogic description of language" (Stubbs 1986:37).

Stubbs claims that a very obvious application of discourse analysis to second language teaching is "to help construct the kind of model dialogue common to so much language teaching material". Role-play, drama and simulated conversations are now established activities in second language teaching and it is understandable, that a better understanding of real dialogues should lead to improved dialogues for teaching purposes.

Other direct applications of discourse analysis to language teaching include teaching language as communication, and following a communicative syllabus instead of a grammatical one. Notional and functional syllabuses also lend themselves to this approach.

More narrowly, discourse analysis implies teaching interactional skills like interrupting politely. Different speech communities with their different cultures have different rules for turn-taking, expression of politeness, amounts of talking, use of ritualistic formulae and the like, and such information is of potential use to the language learner (Stubbs 1986:38).

In the following section two conflicting approaches to language teaching, namely the bottom-up and top-down approaches, are discussed.

4.8.1 The traditional model of language teaching

Not only the cohesive devices give a sentence meaning; the context of the situation enables language users to determine meaning.

The traditional model of teaching (fig. 4.3) consists of a "spoken" and "written" component. The written component was given more attention in the past at the expense of the spoken. Recently there has been a reversal and spoken language has received undue emphasis at the expense of other aspects of language use.

	spoken	written
production	speaking	writing
reception	listening	reading

Fig. 4.3 A traditional model of teaching (Stubbs 1986:22)

Broadly speaking, two approaches to language teaching have developed, namely a "bottom up" and a "top down" approach.

4.8.2 Bottom-up and top-down approaches

The bottom-up approach may be a fruitful way of trying to understand what language is and how it works but it does not mean that it is the best way to teach a language or that it is the way we use a language when we do know it (Cook 1989:79).

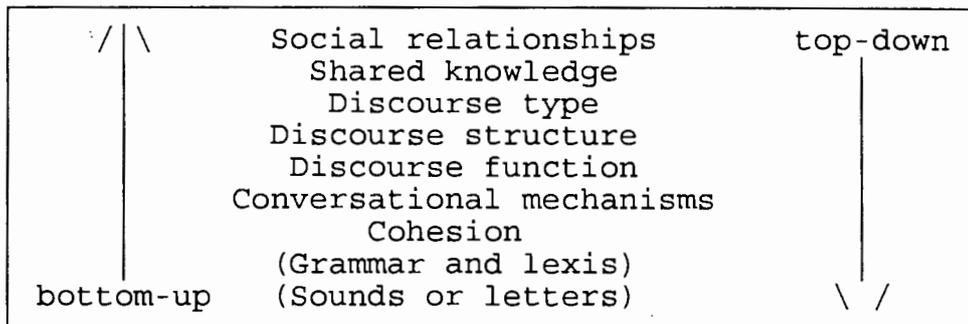


Fig 4.4 Bottom-up and top-down approaches. (Cook 1989:80)

A bottom-up approach looks at the most detailed features of discourse and then moves up towards the most general while a top-down approach first begins with the general ideas of discourse and then moves down to the details. However, communication is a complex interaction of mind, language and the physical world. Yet it should not be forgotten that communication does involve handling everything simultaneously, usually at high speed, and this is what a successful language student should be able to do.

"A good deal of language teaching has followed a bottom-up approach, in that it has considered only the formal language system, often in isolated sentences, without demonstrating or developing the way that system operates in context. Even within the formal system, further divisions have been made, so that exercises, parts of lessons, and home assignments attempt to deal with pronunciation of vocabulary as grammar in isolation" (Cook 1989:83).

An example of a bottom-up exercise is provided below:

Exercise 10.7

Give the correct form of each word (verb) in brackets:

1. If you do that, you (ask) for trouble.
2. We (live) here for the past two years.
3. At this very moment he (appear) in court on a charge of theft.
4. If I can prevent it, you not (undertake) this foolish venture.
5. When poverty (come) in at the door, love (fly) out of the window. (Barnes Std 9:189).

An approach which divides language up into parts is also known as **atomistic**; an approach which involves all the parts working together, as **holistic**. There is a widespread tendency to believe that atomistic activities should come first and holistic ones second (Hammerly 1991:27).

However, if discourse skills are to be developed in our pupils a top-down approach should be favoured because that is how

competent language users handle discourse, It is the best way of approaching discourse at any level of language development.

Hammerly (1991:30), however, has his doubts about a holistic, top-down approach. He maintains that "methods that leave grammaticality to 'emerge' largely by itself produce, not surprisingly, graduates who speak and write very ungrammatically". He admits that there is gradual improvement in some areas but then many rules and elements are never mastered. On the other hand, he states that the bottom-up approach produces students that "can replicate and manipulate the second language but can't communicate in it" (Hammerly 1991:30). To him the answer lies between the two approaches - perhaps a combination of the two. Hammerly regards learning a language as being "**interactive** vis-a-vis the top-down/ bottom-up divide, for each rule and element is mastered bottom-up but then used top-down to communicate with everything learned up to that point" (Hammerly 1991:30).

4.9 MODELS OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

What is really required is a balanced view of the relation between spoken and written language. Stubbs (1986:23) recommends a model of language which he bases on the concept of interpretation and prediction.

4.9.1 Expectancy model of language

4.9.1.1 Introduction

For his model to be relevant for teaching purposes Stubbs bases his model on language that is used in real-life situations. Central to this is the search for meaning which characterizes any use of language. He maintains that people always try to make sense of what they read or hear. They make predictions about what is likely to occur, and interpret what does occur in the light of their predictions.

The concept of prediction can be compared to the "schema" or "script" (4.6.2) concept which is part of coherence (4.6) and also inferences (4.7) discussed earlier. Stubbs refers to people having certain expectations and making inferences about the way people speak, for instance.

He explains the concept of prediction with the following example:

I travelled down from Edinburgh to London by --.

Possible completions will have already occurred to the reader but could also be filled by: train, car, bicycle, camel, and so forth.

The basic concept involved is prediction. That does not mean that language is deterministic. Only occasionally can we predict what is coming with total certainty. Expectations can also be broken. However, the power of the concept is that it operates at all levels of language.

Stubbs (1986) claims that if the concept of prediction plays such an important role in the interpretation of language, then the assessment of reading comprehension, written composition, listening comprehension and oracy shall be adjusted accordingly. How two of these different skills are assessed is briefly discussed.

4.9.1.2 Reading Comprehension

Goodman (1982) and Smith (1973) regard reading as a "psycholinguistic guessing game" and this tallies with Stubb's concept. Readers use their knowledge about "what is normal text to predict what is coming next, rather than reading every letter, word or sentence individually" (Stubbs 1986:26). This principle is common sense and has everyday validity. The reader reads for meaning. There is also evidence that many children have

problems learning to read "because they never understand what reading is for" (Stubbs 1986:51).

4.9.1.3 Written Composition

Teachers mark compositions according to a grid which consists of two main components namely "content" and "expression". Normally the teacher indicates grammatical error, takes the content into consideration and then awards a mark. There is no clear dividing line between coherent and incoherent text as there is between grammatical and ungrammatical sentences. If, for example, the following sentence is taken from the standard six composition quoted above (4.1.1):

I worked in the garden to get money end washed the car to get money to buy me 'n motorbike.

and looked at from the two different angles, a few significant comments can be made. The grammar may be described as "poor" in formal terms. However, the sentence is coherent and has meaning, although there are phrases which are "in bad style". The discourse analyst would see it as successfully conveying meaning at a basic level. Grammar does have a role to play in written compositions, but not the only role.

The next model of language teaching, namely Widdowson's discourse-based approach offers a more balanced perspective.

4.9.2 Widdowson's Discourse-Based Approach

4.9.2.1 Introduction

Widdowson's approach has two main concerns namely a sociolinguistic analysis of language as opposed to a strictly linguistic analysis of language, and the distinction between language **usage** and **use**.

4.9.2.2 Sociolinguistic Analysis of language

A strictly linguistic analysis of language is inadequate because of the inexact nature of communication: "If meaning could be conveyed by exact specification, if it were signalled entirely by linguistic signs, then there would be no need of the kind of negotiation that lies at the very heart of communicative behaviour, whereby what is meant is worked out by interactive endeavour" (Widdowson 1979:243). Negotiation of meaning is central to all communication but is of particular concern in second language teaching because the variables that can confound communication (i.e. mutual understanding), are compounded and intensified through cultural and social differences (Berns 1990:93).

4.9.2.3 Language "usage" and "use"

The second concern of Widdowson's is the distinction between **usage** which concerns the (language system) and **use** (a manifestation of the system).

According to Widdowson, with the discursal approach, attention should be given to the linguistic skills (usage) as well as communicative abilities (use) if the learner's communicative competence is to be developed.

Widdowson proposes that learners use the second language in the same way as they use their native language - as a communicative ability. Teachers should relate the second language to situations which are part of the children's real world, including the classroom. The English second language class can then relate to the world outside the classroom through the subjects which the students take like Accounting, History or Geography. The content of the English second language lesson may, therefore, profitably be drawn from other school subjects, providing learners with opportunities for meaningful communicative behaviour about relevant topics for realistic

purposes, for example to classify, predict, or describe (Berns 1990:94).

Discourse will thus be created in the classroom, and learners, while trying to communicate a historical event, for example, will work out, or negotiate, meaning through these interactions. It is through these negotiations and the clarifying of misunderstood points that discourse is created in the second language. It is while doing this that the learners will develop "their ability to cope with the interactive structuring of discourse, that is, their communicative competence" (Berns 1990:94). This coincides with Widdowson's approach to learning, namely that "it does not seem to me to follow that what is learnt needs to be explicitly taught. It is perfectly possible to teach one thing in order to facilitate the learning of something else" (Widdowson 1979:245).

4.10 CONCLUSION

Until recently language study has been devoted to an analysis of sentences. However, coherent discourse involves much more than being able to identify correct sentences. In discourse analysis we have gained the insight that language has a much broader context than a mere sentence-level phenomenon. The speech acts and how they are performed in conversation gave valuable insights into effective communication, and suggested ways in which our teaching can gain from these insights. Models of language teaching, an expectancy model of language and discourse-based approach, have been supplied to demonstrate how much implicit knowledge a successful native speaker has.

A communicative approach draws implicitly on an understanding of discourse analysis. However, it encompasses much more. The next chapter attempts to describe what constitutes a communicative approach.

CHAPTER 5

A BRIEF ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

5.1 INTRODUCTION

With the insights gained from discourse analysis and with the world at a point in its history where communication seems to be the most important function of language, the time is ripe for language teachers and theorists to determine whether the needs of the learners are being met.

When traditional language teaching methods proved disappointing, teachers sought new approaches to language teaching. Stern (1992:1f) identifies two significant scientific thrusts: an increasingly social and semantic view of language and a movement away from graded highly-structured syllabuses.

Today communicative competence in English in South Africa is of vital importance. English, as language, is not only useful for communication in various situations in South Africa but is also the language most frequently used for negotiation (MacPherson 1992:1). An understanding of the term "communicative competence" is essential if the teacher is to direct his efforts appropriately in achieving this goal. This also implies an understanding of the nature of communication which was discussed in Chapter 4.

In the past, second language teachers thought in terms of "active" and "passive" skills - later referred to as "productive" and "receptive" skills respectively. However, this "skills approach" falls short of the nature of communication (see 4.3). It is as if meaning is a fixed entity which is sent and received, encoded and decoded - similar to a rugby ball being passed around.

The interest of the spectators is not so much on the ball but on the strategies and moves of the players as they dodge, fake and

kick while trying to reach the goalline. Similarly, during communication, the interest lies in the collaborative effort of meaning making, that is, the moves and strategies of the participants which entail "interpretation", "expression", and "negotiation" of meaning. (Savignon 1990:207). The current view is consequently to see all four skills as "active" ones (Savignon 1991:262).

5.2 IMPLICATIONS FOR A COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH TO TEACHING

5.2.1 Approach versus method

The term "approach" is preferred to that of "method" because "communicative language teaching" is an umbrella term for different directions within one approach. Another reason why "approach" is preferred is that, since the audio-lingualism days, the word method has always conjured up memories of the rigour, "correctness" and inflexibility of teaching techniques to which the communicative approach has responded negatively.

Today it is regarded as an approach which aims to:

- (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching, and
- (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication (Richards and Rodgers 1986:66).

A brief look at different interpretations of the communicative approach should shed more light on what the communicative approach comprises.

5.2.2 Notional syllabuses

There was widespread questioning of grammatical syllabuses in Europe in the 1970s. At that stage it was clear to a number of leading linguists that a more social or communicative view of language was necessary to meet the demands made on foreign and second language teaching.

Wilkins (1976) stepped in and outlined a taxonomy of concepts for a more communicative syllabus. He based his theory on the semantic demands of the learner, and categorized

1. the **content** of probable utterances and from this it would be possible to determine
2. which **forms** of language would be most valuable to the learner.

The result was a notional syllabus in which a set of notional categories were developed which can be grouped into three sections:

semantico-grammatical
 modal meaning
 communicative functions (requests, denials, complaints)
 (Wilkins 1976:22,23).

These functions and notions of Wilkins were then used by the Council of Europe to draw up a set of specifications for a first-level communicative syllabus.

The Council of Europe were then faced with a problem of **which meanings** to teach. They identified the needs of the students and the different **situations** with which they would be confronted, and used this as basis to determine the notions and functions that would be taught (Johnson 1982:40).

When determining which different functions and notions students need to know in different situations, it is important that the term "situation" should be clearly understood. There are many factors involved in the making up of a situation, but only three central ones will be mentioned. They are:

setting (where) - where the speakers are (at the airport, in a shop, etc.)
 role (who) - what the relationship between the speakers is (friend/friend, customer/shop assistant, etc.)
 topic (what) - what the speakers are talking about (pastimes, business, etc.) (Johnson and Morrow 1981:7)

When students learn English it is important for them to know how to use the language appropriately. The factors that have just been considered relate to the concept of **appropriateness**. Language should be used appropriately in the different **situations** in which the students find themselves (see 4.4.3). The language must therefore be appropriate to the **topic** that is being dealt with, the setting in which communication is taking place and the **role** the users wish to fulfil (Johnson 1982:47).

Notional-functional syllabuses began to grow in popularity in the United Kingdom in the 1970s. What was "new" were the notions; no-one, at that stage, attempted to identify the specific language functions that the language learner would need to master in real life. The semantico-grammatical category (Wilkins 1976) made a new approach possible.

Independent of this movement, while linguists had been devising frameworks to account for what they referred to as language functions, the philosophers, Austin and Searle, were developing their theory of "speech acts", which overlap with the linguists' communicative functions. The categories Austin (1962) suggested, namely: locutionary, illocutionary acts (see 4.3.3.2) and perlocutionary acts (the effects such acts have on hearers), most closely resemble the categories of communicative function proposed by Van Ek (1975) and Wilkins (1976).

In order to determine what the language needs (van Ek 1975) are or what Hymes (1970) refers to as the constituent parts of language use, one starts thinking in terms of the situation (van Ek 1975) or the speech event (Hymes 1970). The speech act of "language function" occupies a mediating position between situation and utterance. The process of language can be summarised as follows:

Speech event or situation
 |
 Speech acts or language functions
 |
 Linguistic forms

(Yalden 1983:74,75).

5.2.3 Criticisms

Inevitably, people were sharply critical of the work of Wilkins and Van Ek. Some people saw the "notional" or "functional" syllabus as merely replacing the audiovisual or audiolingual ones. Instead of students practising set responses, a set of functions would be learnt (Strevens 1977:25, Yalden 1988:47).

Another shortcoming was that no indication was given as to how to proceed from a list of language functions to the construction of a pedagogical syllabus. The categories of functions provided by Wilkins and van Ek were no more than "...a collection of lists from which only situationally appropriate phrases would be generated..." (Yalden 1983:76).

Widdowson similarly criticizes the notional syllabus and claims that the notional syllabus "...presents language as an inventory of units..." and does not represent language as discourse, and therefore cannot account for communicative competence. The notional syllabus deals "...with the **components** of discourse, not with discourse itself" (Widdowson 1979:248).

5.2.4 Discourse as a component of the communicative approach

However, in spite of the criticisms, the notional syllabus can be regarded as the "...first serious consideration of what is involved in incorporating communicative properties in a syllabus" (Widdowson 1979:50). It, therefore, opened new horizons and indicated a direction to follow.

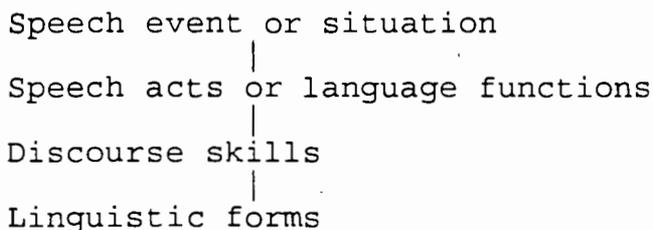
It seems then that the organization of discourse should be included as an essential component of the communicative approach

and should be part of any definition of communicative competence. Wilkins's taxonomy of categories of meaning (fig. 5.1) has three parts: conceptual meaning, modal meaning and communicative function. Several writers have argued that there should be four: Widdowson and Candlin have already been mentioned as insisting on the inclusion of the ability to handle discourse. Berns (1984:15) warns that some textbooks claim to have a functional base but are misleading in their representation of language as interaction. She continues by showing how **context** is the key to giving meaning to both form and function. Leech and Svartvik (1975) also emphasize meaning in connected discourse or the textual/discourse aspect of communication as a fourth layer (Yalden 1983:78).

Type/ Layer of meaning	Leech and Svartvik (1975)	Candlin (1976)	Wilkins (1976)
1	Concepts (basic meaning categories of grammar)	Notional meaning (basic meaning categories of grammar)	Semantico- grammatical categories (conceptual)
2	Information, reality and belief (logical communi- cation)	Referential meaning (propositional value/ illocutionary force)	Categories of modal meaning (modal/ functional)
3	Mood, emotion and attitude (pragmatic value)	Sociolinguistic meaning (pragmatic value/ illocutionary force)	Categories of communicative function (functional)
4	Meanings in connected discourse (textual/discourse aspect of communication)	Contextual meaning (positional significance in discourse)	

Fig. 5.1 Munby 1978 [1985:134]

If the ability to handle discourse is added to the conception of the process of verbal interaction, then another step should be added to the model of the communicative process given above (5.2.2).



The process can be broken down further:

The speech event or situation subsumes communicative activities in which language functions are realized in discourse as linguistic forms (Yalden 1983:79).

This elaborated model of the communicative process includes all the elements that contribute to the ability to mean something through language, and reflects the importance of the sociolinguistic work of both Halliday and Hymes.

Canale and Swain (1980:6,8) proposed that in communicative language teaching both the psychological and sociological components of communicative competence should be taken into account when developing appropriate content for a syllabus. Psycholinguistic theory suggests that language acquisition is a more natural process than a learned one (Corder 1973:109) and that if the emphasis is on getting the meaning across or understanding one's interlocutors rather than formal accuracy, more effective second-language learning will take place.

Sociolinguistic theory suggests that second-language teaching programmes should be organized from a starting point of language needs and the kinds of meanings learners can be expected to express rather than that of a *a priori* analysis of the target language (Yalden 1983:81).

How these different views are incorporated in the communicative approach are treated in the next section.

5.3 ESSENTIALS OF A COMMUNICATIVE CURRICULUM

5.3.1 Syllabus/curriculum

These terms mean the same depending on the country in which they are used. In Britain and countries with British links "syllabus" is used and refers to "...the specification of a teaching programme or pedagogic agenda which defines a particular subject (English Second Language in our case) for a

particular group of learners (Widdowson 1991:127). The term "curriculum" is usually used to refer to a plan covering the entire educational programme for a school. However, in the U.S.A. "curriculum" is usually synonymous with the British "syllabus" (White 1988:4). In this study the expression "syllabus" will be used as described above, which is also in line with the Cape Education Department's use of the term.

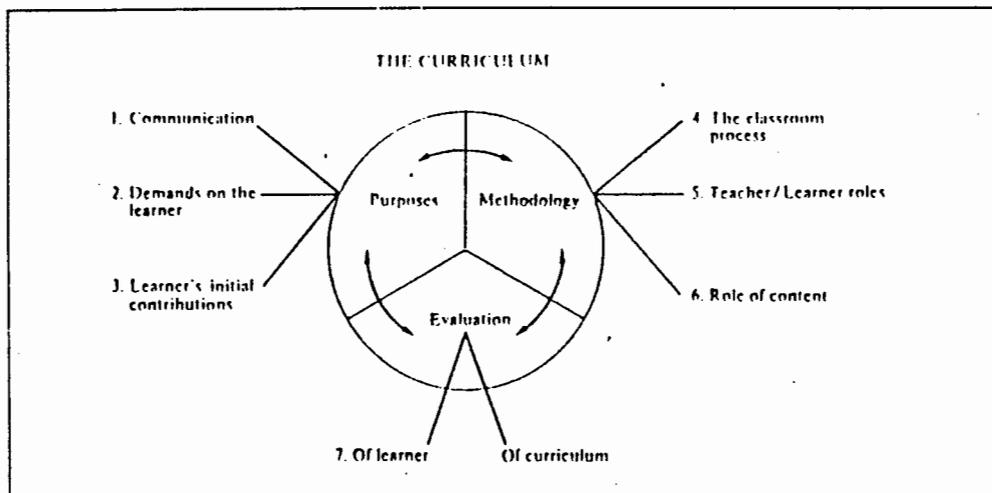


Fig 5.2 (Breen and Candlin 1980:90)

5.3.2 Components of a communicative syllabus

The communicative curriculum strives to create a learning situation in which learning involves acquiring the means to communicate as a member of a particular socio-cultural group (Breen and Candlin 1980:90). Communication has been discussed (refer to 4.3) and will therefore not be discussed again. Instead a brief look at which components certain writers consider essential elements of a communicative syllabus will be briefly revised. Yalden (1983) suggests that if the learners are required to acquire the ability to communicate in a more appropriate and efficient way, then a larger number of components should make up the syllabus. The components are listed as follows:

1. as detailed a consideration as possible of the **purposes** for which the learners wish to acquire the target language;

2. some idea of the **setting** in which they will want to use the target language (physical aspects need to be considered, as well as social setting);
3. the socially defined **role** the learners will assume in the target language, as well as the roles of their inter locutors;
4. the **communicative events** in which the learners will participate: everyday situations, vocational or professional situations, academic situations, and so on;
5. the **language functions** involved in these events, or what the learner will need to be able to do with or through the language;
6. the **notions** involved, or what the learner will need to be able to talk about;
7. the skills involved in the "knitting together" of discourse: **discourse and rhetorical skills**;
8. the **variety** or varieties of the target language that will be needed, and the levels in the spoken and written language which the learners will need to reach;
9. the **grammatical content** that will be needed;
10. the **lexical content** that will be needed.

(Yalden 1983:86,87)

Traditionally two components only (9 and 10) have been considered essential for a syllabus. Currently most writers consider that most if not all of the components listed above should be included in the syllabus (van Ek, 1973; Wilkins, 1976; Munby, 1978). The syllabus that incorporates a consideration of all ten components is considered to be a "communicative syllabus" because it takes into consideration everything required to ensure communication (Yalden 1983:87).

Littlewood suggests that since the language needs of the students have such a high priority in communicative language teaching, it results in a type of teaching that is not done for its own sake but for some purpose beyond the classroom. Therefore, the language syllabus must be based on such needs only after a careful analysis of the following "check-list":

1. What **situations** might the learner encounter?
2. What **language activities** is the learner most likely to take part in?
3. What **functions** of language are likely to be most useful?
4. What **topics** are likely to be important?
5. What **general notions** are likely to be important? (such as location, number, ownership, etc.)
6. What **language forms** should the students learn, in order to satisfy the communicative needs that have been described?
(Littlewood 1981 [1983:82:84])

Now that the components of a communicative syllabus have been established, the next section investigates a theory of how language is learnt.

5.3.3 Theory of language learning

Communicative language teaching is based on the view that the functions of language (i.e. what it is used for) should also be emphasized rather than only the forms of the language (i.e. correct grammatical or phonological structure). Although it does not stem from a particular theory, elements of a theory of learning can be identified.

The first element is the **communication principle** which assumes that if the learner is involved in activities that involve real communication, learning is likely to take place. The second is the **task principle**. When using the target language to carry out meaningful tasks, the target language is learnt simultaneously. The third element is the **meaningfulness principle**. Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process. Learning activities which are selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use, rather than the mere mechanical practice of language patterns, promote learning (Richards and Rodgers 1986:72).

5.3.4 Acquisition and learning

Krashen considers acquisition as the basic process involved in developing language proficiency. According to him, acquisition is a process

...similar if not identical, to the way children develop ability in their first language. Language acquisition is a subconscious process; language acquirers are not usually aware of the fact that they are acquiring a language, but are only aware of the fact that they are using the language for communication ... acquired competence is also subconscious. We are generally not consciously aware of the rules of the languages we have acquired. Instead we have a "feel" for correctness. Grammatical sentences "sound" right, or "feel" right, and errors feel wrong, even if we do not consciously know what rule was violated (Krashen 1977:10).

Krashen seems to infer that accuracy and acquisition go hand in hand. Bialystok (1985) points out that there is a difference between knowledge of language and the ability to access that knowledge effectively in different contexts of use (Widdowson 1990:18).

Ellis (1985) also provides evidence that acquired competence can be inferred from relative accuracy of performance. There seems, therefore, to be a fundamental flaw in his sharp distinction he makes between acquisition and learning.

According to Krashen "... learning" is a conscious knowledge of a second language, knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to talk about them" (Krashen 1977:10). It seems that knowledge that is derived from acquisition is used somewhat differently from that derived from learning. For example, in spontaneous conversation it is the learner's **acquired** knowledge that governs language use, but in written work (examinations) all productions are likely to be inspected and monitored by reference to **learnt** knowledge.

Krashen maintains that acquisition and learning are used in very specific ways

Normally acquisition initiates our utterances in a second language and is responsible for our fluency. Learning has only one function, and that is as a Monitor or editor. Learning comes into play only to make changes in the form of our utterance after it has been "produced" by the acquired system. This can happen before we speak or write, or after (self-correction).

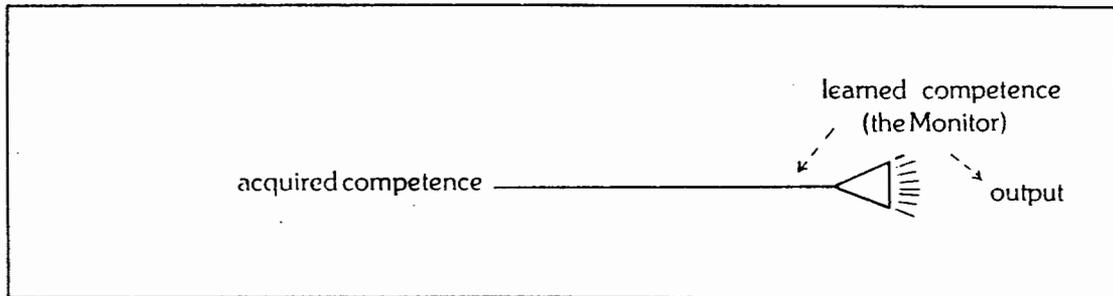


Fig. 5.3 A model of second language performance
(Krashen S and T Terrell (1983:30))

These theories, therefore, seem to imply that the student will have to:

1. **acquire** the second language
2. **learn** the second language, and
3. develop strategies to be able to use the L2 that he has learnt appropriately i.e. he needs to **monitor** efficiently.

Since learning and acquisition entail different mental operations it is most probable that different kinds of approaches will be required to develop the two kinds of knowledge. For instance, the question can be asked if tenses should be learnt. The answer would be 'yes' and 'no' depending on the type of knowledge required. If learning knowledge were required it would be yes and no for acquisition (Ellis 1982:74).

In contrast, Rivers (1987:4) claims that learning takes place when learners focus their attention on conveying and receiving authentic messages - messages that contain information of interest to speaker and listener in interaction in a situation of importance to both. She claims that a language can be learnt in different ways but that there must be "...communication of

meaning - **interaction between people who have something to share.** This interaction must be kept central if effective language learning or acquisition is to take place" (Rivers 1986:2). She maintains that interaction involves both comprehension and production.

Is there empirical evidence to give credence to such a sharp distinction between learning and acquisition? Krashen (1981:3) maintains that in normal conversation, both in speaking and in listening, performers do not generally have time to think about and apply conscious grammatical rules". But is this true?

According to Krashen's Monitor Theory, if you "... think carefully, choose your words take your time before making your conversational contribution you cannot communicate because you are interfering with the natural function of the acquired system. And since acquisition depends on communication, your deliberate delivery will impede your progress in learning the language as well" (Widdowson 1990:21).

Hammerly likewise (1991:8) rejects Krashen's Monitor Theory. He maintains that language users are constantly monitoring their output - including oral output. Hammerly quotes Camot and Kupper (1989) who found that monitoring is a frequent SL student strategy across all language skills.

It seems for those concerned with language instruction that the Monitor Theory has not much to offer other than to cast further doubt on the already discredited grammar translation method.

5.3.5 Comprehensible input

Krashen maintains that learners acquire a particular language by receiving comprehensible input when they are exposed to messages expressed in language which is within the current acquired competence of the learners together with language which is due to appear in the next stage of acquisition (input +1).

The Input Hypothesis claims that listening comprehension and reading are of primary importance in the language programme, and that the ability to speak (or write) fluently in a second language will develop with time. Speaking fluency is thus not "taught" directly; rather speaking ability "emerges" after the acquirer has built up competence through comprehending input (Krashen and Terrell 1983:22).

It seems that the students, whether they are interested in the input or not, "should be a kind of humanoid receptacle in a maximal state of receptivity so that the input can enter to work its mysterious way" (Widdowson 1990:23).

In Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research (Long:1983) just the opposite has been found. The learner does not assume the role of passive recipient but is actively involved in the process of manipulating the input so that it is optimally comprehensible.

According to Long (1983) the native speaker (NS) modifies his language for two main reasons:

1. to avoid conversational trouble, and
2. to repair discourse when trouble occurs.

Long refers to these two modifiers as conversational **strategies** and **tactics** for discourse (see figure below).

Devices used by native speakers to modify the interactional structure of NS-NNS conversation

Strategies (S) (for avoiding trouble)	Tactics (T) (for repairing trouble)
S1 Relinquish topic control	T1 Accept unintentional topic-switch
S2 Select salient topics	T2 Request clarification
S3 Treat topics briefly	T3 Confirm own comprehension
S4 Make new topics salient	T4 Tolerate ambiguity
S5 Check NNS's comprehension	

Strategies and Tactics (ST)
(for avoiding and repairing trouble)

ST1 Use slow pace	ST4 Decompose topic-comment constructions
ST2 Stress key words	ST5 Repeat own utterances
ST3 Pause before key words	ST6 Repeat other's utterances

Fig. 5.4

Long MH (1983:138)

By using these fifteen devices the input is made more comprehensible to the SL learner as evidenced by the fact that "... without them communication, conversation breaks down; with their use conversation is possible and sustained. Non-native speakers understand and so can take part appropriately" (Long 1983:138).

Rivers (1987) maintains that "... students achieve facility in **using** a language when their attention is focused on conveying and receiving authentic messages ... This is **interaction**" (Rivers 1987:4).

Rivers continues and explains why interaction is so important in language learning situations:

1. students can increase their language store as they listen to or read authentic linguistic material, or even the output of their fellow students in discussions, dialogue and other activities;
2. students can use all they possess of the language in real-life exchanges where expressing their real meaning is important to them.

She explains that the "... brain is dynamic, constantly interrelating what we have learned with what we are learning, and the give-and-take of message exchanges enables students to retrieve and interrelate a great deal of what they have encountered." (Rivers 1987:4,5).

Swain (1983) also objects to Krashen's position about comprehensible input. She argues that the Input Hypothesis fails to recognize the importance of **comprehensible output**. Krashen (1982) specifically rejects the possibility that

production (as opposed to comprehension) serves any purpose in SLA. Swain explains the importance of output:

1. the learner may be "pushed" to use alternative means where there is communication breakdown,
2. using the language may force the learner to move from semantic processing ... to syntactic processing; and
3. the learner has a chance to test hypotheses about the L2. (Swain in Ellis 1985 [1986:159])

When taking these objections, and also the research done on comprehensible input, into consideration, it seems as if the notion of comprehensible input, according to Krashen, cannot be the "Fundamental Pedagogic Principle". However, it has once again made teachers aware of the fact that language can be acquired without formally learning it. This would naturally have implications for the design of a syllabus.

5.4 SYLLABUS DESIGN

Various syllabuses have already been mentioned in passing: the Notional Syllabus of Wilkins, the Threshold Level of Van Ek and Alexander, and Krashen's Monitor Theory. Krashen and Terrell (1983) propose that a semantically based syllabus be followed and that all grammar instruction be excluded from the classroom since they feel it does not facilitate language acquisition; it merely helps learners to monitor or become aware of the forms they use.

The communicative syllabus strives to create a learning situation in which the learning involves acquiring the means to communicate as a member of a particular socio-cultural group (Breen and Candlin 1980:90). The CA is based on the view of language being an instrument of communication, and concentrates on getting learners to do things with language. Therefore, most who have applied this philosophy (e.g. Wilkins, 1976, Widdowson, 1978) claim that the syllabus should not be organized on structural lines (sentence-based) but language instruction should be content-based, meaningful, contextualized, and discourse-based (see 4.8.2).

However, existing research strongly suggests that some focus on form may well be necessary for many learners to achieve accuracy as well as fluency in their acquisition of a second language (Long, 1983; Rutherford and Sharwood Smith, 1988; Lightbown and Spada, 1993 see 4.8.2).

5.4.1 Functionally organized syllabus

Several syllabus designs have been proposed since Wilkins's Notional Syllabus (1976). Most of them give prominence to the functional features of language but vary in the emphasis they place on them. The interrelationship between the structural and functional aspects of language are also recognized in most instances.

Canale and Swain (1980) propose a functionally organized second language syllabus. They argue that in such a syllabus:

1. a level of grammatical organization that is adequate for effective second language teaching and learning can be achieved;
2. the "face validity" of the materials in which units are organized and labelled with reference to communicative functions is more likely to influence the learner positively than one in which the units are labelled with reference to grammatical terms;
3. this approach also leads to a more natural integration of knowledge of the second language culture, knowledge of the second language, and knowledge of language in general.

(Canale & Swain 1980:33).

Yalden (1983) suggests a proportional syllabus which legitimizes structural as well as functional components. In the early stages structural teaching predominates and as the course progresses the functional component is given more prominence.

Lightbown and Spada (1993:105) collected classroom data from a number of studies in second language teaching. The teaching programmes ranged from programmes which were limited to an

exclusive emphasis on accuracy, on the one hand, to an exclusive emphasis on fluency on the other. They came to the conclusion that the programme which was the most effective in promoting second language learning was where, in the context of a communicative programme, form-focused instruction and corrective feedback were provided (see 4.8.2).

5.4.2 Syllabus and methodology

However, Widdowson (1991:129) warns that the syllabus is an "inert abstract object" and that its function is to give "a set of bearings for teacher action and not a set of instructions for learner activity". Therefore, a communicative syllabus is not synonymous with a communicative approach to teaching, but communication can only be achieved through classroom activity i.e. through the mediation of the teacher's methodology.

5.4.3 Strong and weak CLT

According to Howatt (1984), there is a strong and a weak version of communicative language teaching:

The weak version which has become more or less standard practice in the last ten years, stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider programme of language teaching (Howatt 1984:279).

The weak version has become the more common version of teaching. On the other hand, the strong version of communicative language teaching sees language ability as being developed through activities which actually simulate target performance. Class time would, therefore, be devoted on activities which require learners to do in class what they will have to do in the real world. There would be no language drills or controlled practice leading towards communicative language use. A useful way of defining CLT is in contrast with traditional approaches (figure 5.5).

CHARACTERISTICS OF TRADITIONAL AND COMMUNICATIVE APPROACHES	
TRADITIONAL APPROACHES	COMMUNICATIVE APPROACHES
1 <i>Focus in learning:</i> Focus is on the language as a structured system of grammatical patterns.	Focus is on communication.
2 <i>How language items are selected:</i> This is done on linguistic criteria alone.	This is done on the basis of what language items the learner needs to know in order to get things done.
3 <i>How language items are sequenced:</i> This is determined on linguistic grounds.	This is determined on other grounds, with the emphasis on content, meaning and interest.
4 <i>Degree of coverage:</i> The aim is to cover the "whole picture" of language structure by systematic linear progression.	The aim is to cover, in any particular phase, only what the learner needs and sees as important.
5 <i>View of language:</i> A language is seen as a unified entity with fixed grammatical patterns and a core of basic words.	The variety of language is accepted, and seen as determined by the character of particular communicative contexts.
6 <i>Type of language used:</i> Tends to be formal and bookish.	Genuine everyday language is emphasised.
7 <i>What is regarded as a criterion of success:</i> Aim is to have students produce formally correct sentences.	Aim is to have students communicate effectively and in a manner appropriate to the context they are working in.
8 <i>Which language skills are emphasised:</i> Reading and writing.	Spoken interactions are regarded as at least as important as reading and writing.
9 <i>Teacher/Student roles:</i> Tends to be teacher-centred.	Is student-centered.

<p>10 <i>Attitude to errors:</i> Incorrect utterances are seen as deviations from the norms of standard grammar.</p>	<p>Partially correct and incomplete utterances are seen as such rather than just "wrong".</p>
<p>11 <i>Similarity/dissimilarity to natural language learning:</i> Reverses the natural language learning process by concentrating on the form of utterances rather than on the content.</p>	<p>Resembles the natural language learning process in that the content of the utterance is emphasised rather than the form.</p>

Fig. 5.5

(Nunan 1988:21).

5.5 TEACHING METHODOLOGY

5.5.1 CLT as interaction

Breen and Candlin (1980) remark:

Language learning within a communicative curriculum is most appropriately seen as communicative interaction involving all the participants in the learning including the various material resources on which the learning is exercised. Therefore, language learning may be seen as a process which grows out of the interaction between learners, teachers, texts and activities (Breen and Candlin 1980:95).

They see the communicative language classroom as a "forum" where the learner's developing communicative competence is engaged in an arena of cooperative negotiation, joint interpretation, and the sharing of expression (see 4.3). The provision of a range of different text types in different media - spoken, written, visual and audio-visual - will activate the communicative abilities of the language learner. The use of these communicative abilities (interpretation, expression, negotiation) is manifested in communicative performance through a set of skills. Speaking, listening, reading and writing skills can be seen to serve and depend upon the underlying abilities of interpretation, expression and negotiation. In this way Breen and Candlin suggest that the skills represent or realise the underlying communicative abilities.

The skills are the meeting - point between underlying communicative competence and observable communicative

performance; they are the means through which knowledge and abilities are translated into performance and vice versa. (Breen and Candlin 1980:92).

These communicative abilities permeate each of the skills and "... just as no single communicative ability can really develop independently of the other abilities, so the development of any single skill may well depend on the appropriate development of the other skills. In other words, a refinement of interpretation will contribute to the refinement of expression, and vice-versa; just as refinement of the skill of reading, for example, will contribute to the refinement of the skill of speaking and vice-versa (Breen and Candlin 1980:95).

According to Breen and Candlin, then, much interaction should be involved in the communicative language teaching classroom to facilitate the development of the different abilities and consequently also the skills of the target language. Rivers (1987:26f), strongly supports this view, considering that a collaborative activity should be the norm from the beginning of language study.

Interaction in itself is insufficient. The activities chosen have to be relevant, meaningful, purposeful and authentic (see 5.3.3 and 5.5.3).

... it is crucial that classroom activities reflect, in the most optimally direct manner, those communication activities that the learner is most likely to engage in. Furthermore, communication activities must be as meaningful as possible and be characterized by aspects of genuine communication such as its basis in social interaction, the relative creativity and unpredictability of utterances, its purposefulness and goal orientation and its authenticity (Canale and Swain 1980:33).

5.5.2 Social and psychological dimensions of interaction

As has been established, language learning is fostered by contexts which are rich in opportunities for interaction in and with the target language. However, according to Little et al (1989:2) "interaction" has a social and psychological sense.

5.5.2.1 Social interaction

The normal way in which a child acquires his first language is through gaining experience while using the language in making exchanges with his caregiver(s). Both make exchanges

Child: Mummy! Mummy!
Mother: Yes, dear, what is it?
Child: Soup
Mother: Oh yes, I see. You've upset your soup.

When children can contribute linguistically to dialogues with their caregivers, their contributions are constantly supported by what is called a "scaffolding" of adult input. This allows the child space to contribute, while simultaneously framing and expanding his contributions.

Child: Car.
Father: Yes, that's a car.
Child: Bu.
Father: Yes, it's a blue car.

The father provides indirect corrective feedback which can only be done by a fluent speaker. The father's input is likewise sensitive to the child's interests, his preoccupations, experience, cognitive capacity and linguistic level. Similar support is frequently offered to second language learners by native speakers (Long 1983:138 also see 5.3.5).

5.5.2.2 Psychological interaction

Psychological interaction means that there is a psychological processing of the target language input in such a way that it interlocks with and modifies the learner's existing knowledge. One can say that almost all learning is constituted by psychological interaction and sooner or later a stage will come when the learner is confronted with discourse which is not interactive in a social sense - a formal speech, a song, newspaper article, etc. - and which he will cope with and learn from without the benefit of social support.

However, research has proved that the greater the "personal significance" of the material that is processed by the interactant, the "deeper" the processing; and the "deeper" the processing, the higher the chance of processed material being recalled subsequently (Little *et al* 1989:5,6).

The implication is that when input is "tuned" to learner's needs and interest it promotes learning. Here authentic texts have the capacity to enhance the quality of interaction in and with the target language.

5.5.3 Authentic texts

Some teachers argue that students find it difficult to cope with authentic texts. But, according to Little *et al* (1989),

... authentic texts promote acquisition because they challenge learners to activate relevant knowledge of the world, of discourse, and the language system, and thus construct the conditions for further learning (Little *et al* 1989:27,28).

Another advantage when using authentic texts is that the communicative principle, namely that meaning has priority over form, is reaffirmed. Therefore, participants should be aware of the fact that the authentic text was written for a particular communicative purpose. However, it does happen that when native speakers deal with structurally complex passages they focus on form and use their knowledge of grammar to understand the passage. Similarly authentic texts provide a "living context for the treatment of grammar" for second language learners (Little *et al* 1989: 2-6, 25-28).

It should be noted, however, that the notion of authenticity remains problematic. Mainhof (in Wallace 1992:79) points out that as soon as texts are brought into the classrooms for

pedagogic purposes they have lost their authenticity because they fall "outside their normal sociocultural environment".

Breen (1985 in Wallace 1992:81) suggests that teachers ask themselves two questions regarding "authentic texts":

1. Can the learner's own prior knowledge, interest, and curiosity be engaged by this text?
2. In what ways might a learner "authenticate" the text - i.e. adapt it to his/her own purposes?

Widdowson (1979) proposes that one talk not of texts as having authenticity in themselves but take a process-orientated view and see the text as a means to facilitate interaction between texts and learners.

Therefore, if authenticity is seen as residing in the interaction between text and reader, teachers need not hesitate to use specially written texts. Second language learners can even create their own texts if there is a communicative purpose behind the activity (e.g. writing stories for another group, writing letters to another class, a class diary, a set of instructions for other students).

At this stage it seems to be appropriate to determine what are communicative and what are non-communicative activities.

5.6 COMMUNICATIVE VS NON-COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES

Ideally, when two people are involved in a conversation, the person speaking clearly has a desire to say something. The speaker has a purpose, be it to convey information, to disagree, to express pleasure or to charm. In each of these cases the speaker is interested in conveying that purpose to the listener. If the communication is to be effective, the listener will probably want to listen to what the speaker says and will also be interested in what the speaker is trying to say. This does not only apply to participants in conversation but also to people writing and receiving letters, novelists and radio announcers and teachers (Harmer 1982: 166, 167). The process

can be represented in the following way:

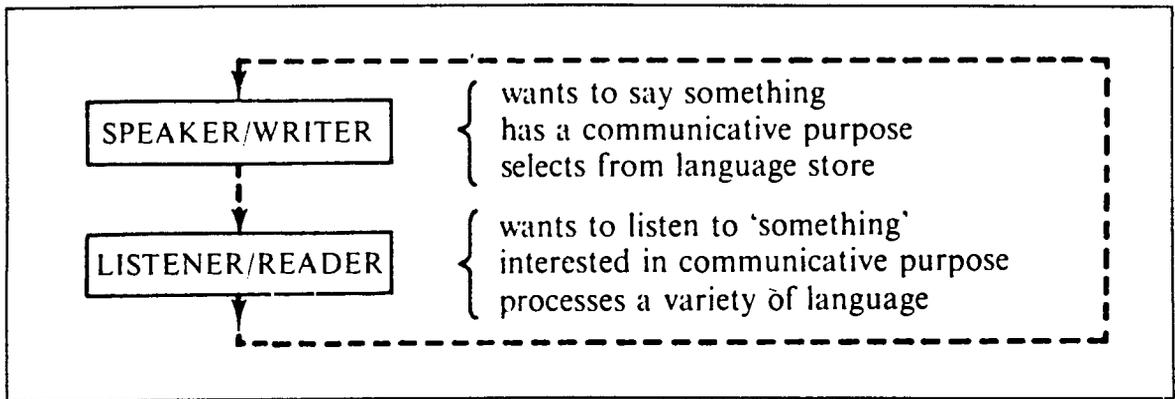


Fig. 5.6 The nature of communication
(Harmer 1982:167).

(The dotted lines indicate that the speaker can become the listener.)

5.6.1 INFORMATION GAP

Closely related to this analysis of communication is the information gap concept. For instance, if A (a man waiting at a bus stop) has the following conversation with B (a woman at the bus stop):

- A: Excuse me, could you tell me the time?
B: Certainly. It's three o'clock.

A may have many reasons for speaking. He may genuinely want to know the time or he may just want to initiate a conversation. If he wants to know the time, B has information that he does not have. If he wanted to start a conversation, he would have information that B did not have.

Usually there is an information gap which stimulates communication and makes communication purposeful; otherwise there would be no reason to communicate.

After this brief analysis of communication (see also 4.5) it is convenient to determine what characteristics communicative activities have. Students should have a desire to communicate

and there must be a communicative purpose. This implies that the students' attention will be focused on the **content** of what they are saying and not on the **form**. They will also use a wide variety of language and the teacher will not intervene (Harmer 1982:166). On the other hand non-communicative activities lack the desire to communicate and, therefore, lack communicative purpose. Students will be involved in repetition of substitution drills and will be motivated to achieve accuracy and not a communicative objective. The emphasis will further be on the **form** of the language and not the **content**. The teacher will intervene whenever mistakes are made to ensure accuracy, and the materials used will be designed to concentrate on a particular item of language. It can be represented in the following way:

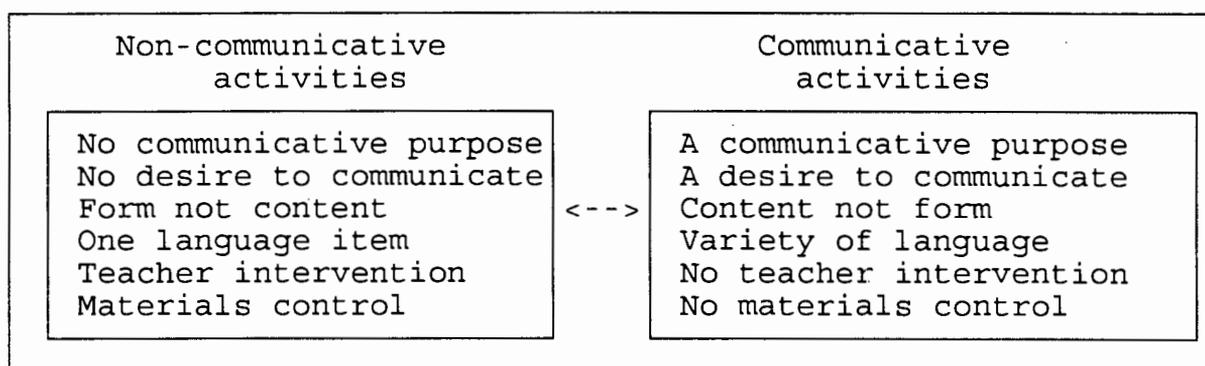


Fig. 5.7

(Harmer 1982:167)

5.6.2 Examples of Communicative Activities

At this stage it is appropriate to have a look at some communicative activities. The Describe and Draw game of Morrow (1979) meets communicative requirements. One student has a picture which the partner must reproduce without looking at the original. The only way to achieve this is by using the target language at his disposal. Many of Byrnes's (1979) written communication activities are of the type where students have to write job application letters which are then judged by other students and on this basis a "candidate" is "successful" or "unsuccessful".

Littlewood (1981) makes a distinction between "functional communication activities" and "social interaction activities". Functional communication activities include tasks such as learners' comparing sets of pictures and noting similarities and differences; working out a likely sequence of events in a set of pictures; discovering missing features in a map or picture; one learner communicating behind a screen to another learner and giving instructions on how to draw a picture or shape; following directions; and solving problems from shared clues. Social interaction activities include conversation and discussion sessions, dialogues and role plays, debates and skills (Littlewood 1981:22-63).

Rivers (1987) suggests a number of interactive activities which should promote communicative competence. Some of the activities are:

1. **much listening to authentic materials:** audio- and videotapes, reading of newspapers, native speaker interacting informally;
2. **listening and speaking** in reacting to pictures, in role plays, creating radio talk shows;
3. the involvement in **joint tasks: purposeful activity** where pupils work together doing or making things,
4. **watching films and videotapes of native speakers interacting;**
5. **sharing values and viewpoints in cross-cultural interaction;**
6. reading which ensures **lively interaction of reader and text;**
7. **writing** a variety of different genres but which will be read by someone else to **ensure interaction;**
8. **performing grammatical rules;**
9. writing **tests that replicate normal uses of language** as much as is feasible and
10. **interacting with the community that speaks the language** (Rivers 1987:10-14) (See Addendum A for detailed description of interactive activities).

So far interaction has been discussed as being essential for the learning of the second language. Activities have been scrutinised to see where they fit in on the communicative- non-communicative continuum. Inevitably during these different activities errors will be made by the learners. In the strong CLT approach errors seem to play an **inferior** role with the emphasis on "getting the message across". However, in the "weak approach" cognisance is taken of errors and they are given the appropriate attention. How errors are treated is discussed in the following section.

5.7 ERROR CORRECTION

Corder (1973:280) distinguishes between mistakes and errors. Mistakes are regarded as the result of failure to utilize a known system correctly and errors reflect inadequate knowledge of an institutionalized language.

Morrow in Johnson and Morrow (1981:64,65) following Corder (1973) likewise makes a distinction between mistakes. He cites the example of a student who makes "trivial" grammatical and phonological mistakes while his main aim is to get the message across. Morrow's main concern is how these mistakes hamper communication. Too many "trivial" mistakes in the wrong place can cause a breakdown in communication, but a learner who makes mistakes because he is trying to do something he has not been told or shown how to do is not really making a mistake at all. Morrow feels that a communicative approach should allow sufficient flexibility, making it possible to view certain items as "mistakes" depending on the stage reached in the learning process.

Burt and Kiparsky (1974) distinguish between local and global errors. Local errors such as an omitted article or superfluous preposition:

1. Let us consider Stevenson's invention of the steam engine as * starting point.

2. It was dark as we approached **to** the house.

do not usually cause problems with communication. On the other hand global errors such as faulty word order or the use of the wrong conjunction contribute to miscommunication and thus require correction much more urgently than local errors do.

3. The English language use many people.
4. I didn't question his decision **yet** [instead of **because**] I trusted him completely.

Burt and Kiparsky cite errors - local or global - at sentence level. Today it is useful to reinterpret their notion of local errors as sentence-level errors and global errors as discourse-level errors. This leads to the conclusion that discourse level errors deserve the teacher's closest attention because they are more likely to be a source of miscommunication or confusion than sentence-level errors. Thus familiarity with cohesive devices of English (i.e. the grammatical and lexical "glue" of discourse) will give second language learners of English tools for creating more accurate and coherent texts (Celce-Murcia 1991:469,470).

It is inevitable that English second language learners will make errors in their endeavours to learn the language. It is also regarded as an inevitable part of language development. Research also shows that teachers can take steps to accelerate learners' progress through each error-making stage and that students can, in some circumstances, even outperform their general developmental level if given the appropriate tools (Little et al 1989:13).

Having investigated what the essentials for a communicative curriculum are and the implications this has on syllabus design and teaching methodology, it is appropriate at this stage to have a look at an approach which aims to develop communicative competence.

5.8 COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

5.8.1 Introduction

Savignon's approach is based on a view of language as "meaning making" and according to her, the goal of any language teaching programme is the development of the learner's communicative competence (see 4.3). She conducted a study in which learners were divided into two groups. The one group focused on meaning and the other on formal features. Those that focused on meaning outperformed the other group on discrete point tests of structure and their communicative competence significantly surpassed that of learners who had had no such practice (Savignon 1990:210).

5.8.2 Savignon's interactional approach

Initially a theoretical framework for communicative competence was developed by Canale and Swain (1980). Their framework consisted of three main competencies: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. This framework was further refined by Canale (1983) when he added one more competence namely; discourse competence. Savignon bases her interactional approach on these four components of communicative competence.

5.8.2.1 Grammatical competence

This competence is concerned with the mastery of the language code (verbal and non-verbal). It includes features and rules of the language such as vocabulary, word formation, sentence formation, pronunciation, spelling and linguistic semantics. It is an important concern for a second language programme because grammatical competence focuses directly on the knowledge and skill required to understand and express accurately the literal meaning of utterances.

5.8.2.2 Sociolinguistic competence

The ability to understand and produce utterances **appropriately** in different sociolinguistic contexts. This includes contextual factors such as the status of participants, purpose of the interaction, and norms or conventions of interaction. Appropriateness of utterances refers to both appropriateness of meaning and appropriateness of form.

Appropriateness of meaning concerns the extent to which particular communicative functions (e.g. commanding, complaining and inviting), attitudes (including politeness and formality) and ideas are judged to be proper to the situation. Appropriateness to form concerns the extent to which a given meaning (including communicative functions, attitudes and propositions/ideas) is represented, in a verbal and/or non-verbal form that is proper in a given sociolinguistic context. For example, a waiter trying to take an order politely in a high-class restaurant would be using inappropriate grammatical form (register) if he were to ask, "Ok, chump, what are you and this broad gonna eat?".

5.8.2.3 Discourse competence

Discourse competence is the ability to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text within different genres, for example, oral and written narrative, an argumentative essay, a scientific report, a business letter. Unity is achieved through **cohesion** in form and **coherence** in meaning (see 4.6).

5.8.2.4 Strategic competence

Strategic competence describes communication strategies, verbal and non-verbal, that might be implemented in two situations (1) when there is a breakdown in communication due to limiting conditions in actual communication (e.g. momentary inability to recall a word or other grammatical form) or to compensate for

imperfect knowledge of linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse competence; and (2) to be more effective in communication (e.g. deliberate slow and loud speech for emphasis when trying to clarify an important point).

An example of a strategy that can be used when one does not remember a grammatical form is **paraphrase**. For instance, if a learner did not know "airport", he or she might try a paraphrase such as "the place where aeroplanes land". An example of a sociolinguistic strategy might occur when one is unsure of how to greet a stranger, or how to address strangers when unsure of their status. In discourse competence paraphrase could be used to achieve coherence in a text when unsure of cohesion devices (Canale 1983 in Richards and Schmidt 1983 [1987:7-11]).

Terrell (1977) argues strongly that communication strategies should be taught to second language learners despite the fact that many such strategies are universal ones. Canale and Swain support Terrell and suggest that knowledge of these strategies would be particularly helpful at the beginning of second language learning (Canale and Swain 1980:31). Stern (1987) also points out that such "coping" strategies are most likely to be acquired through experience in real-life communication situations and not through classroom practice which involves no meaningful communication. Second language learners must be shown how such a strategy can be implemented and must be encouraged to use these strategies rather than remain silent.

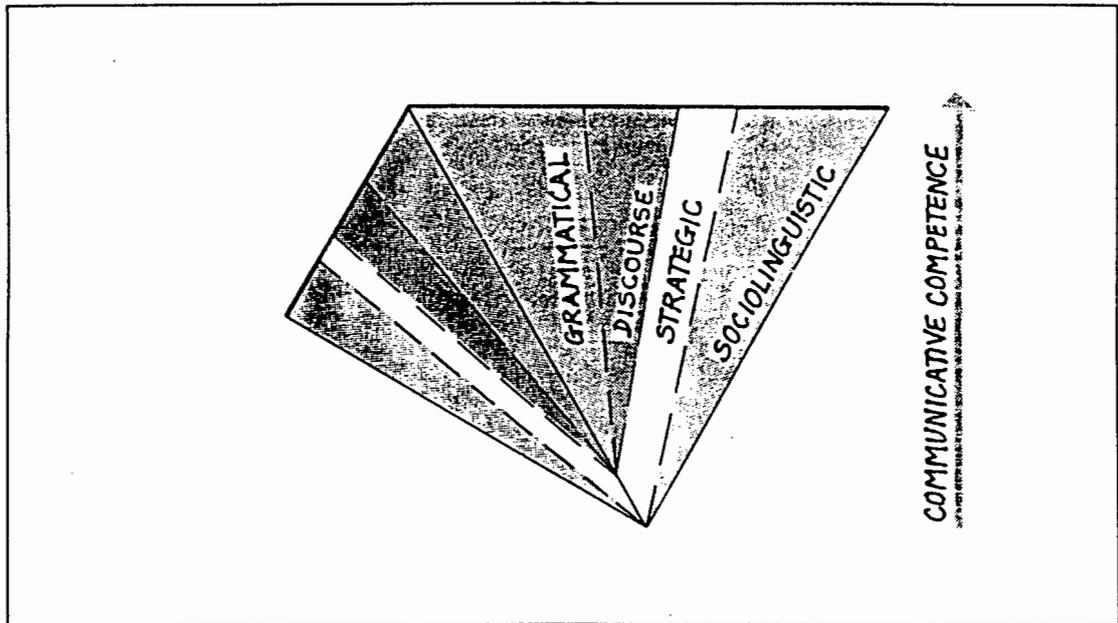


Fig. 5.8

Components of Communicative Competence (Savignon 1983:46).

Savignon visualizes these components as interacting (fig. 5.8). There is no hierarchical relationship among the components and they are interdependent. Communicative competence is greater than any one single component and a learner does not proceed from one to another "... as one strings pearls on a necklace" (Savignon 1983:45).

Although strategic competence is present at all levels of proficiency, its importance diminishes as knowledge of grammatical, sociolinguistic and discourse rules increase. The inclusion of strategic competence at all levels demonstrates that regardless of experience and proficiency one never totally knows a language (Savignon 1983:46).

According to Tarone (1983 in Saiz 1990) the goal behind communication strategies is the negotiation of meaning. Tarone lists a number of strategies learners resort to when faced with some difficulty in conveying a message:

1. Avoidance: risk-avoiding strategies, mostly used by the learner who fears making mistakes.

- 1.1 Topic avoidance: avoids topic, lacks vocabulary.
- 1.2 Message abandonment: abandons topic because he is unable to continue.
2. Paraphrase: rewords message to make himself understood.
- 2.1 Approximation. The learner uses one vocabulary item which he knows is not accurate, but which is similar in meaning "He gave me a big watch to hang on the wall (clock)".
- 2.2 Word coinage. The learner makes up a word in the foreign language. "I saw an air ball (balloon.)"
- 2.3 Circumlocution. The learner describes an action or vocabulary item because he does not know the appropriate word "I get a red in my head. (I'm shy/I blush.)"
3. Transfer (foreignizing): The learner borrows from any language he knows.
- 3.1 Literal translation: translates word for word.
- 3.2 Language switch: Learner directly uses the native language without trying to translate it.
4. Appeal for assistance: the learner seeks help from the person he is speaking to "How do you call ...?".
5. Mime: the learner uses nonverbal signs to convey the desired meaning "The audience ..." (sound used in booing).

According to Marcia Saiz (1990:23) if learners choose the first strategy and avoid communicating, three things can happen:

1. they will not receive any input,
2. they will not test any hypotheses about the second language, and
3. they will not grow along the continuum toward acquiring the target language.

On the other hand, if they choose to adopt risk-taking strategies (2 to 5), they will not only succeed in communicating but they will also improve their fluency and ultimately their linguistic skills.

What is important in this process is the negotiation of meaning which promotes language acquisition (see 5.4.3). This negotiation becomes possible, amongst other things, through the risk-taking strategies used in the different communicative activities undertaken in the class. This helps students develop an interlanguage in a non-defensive way. Communicative strategies when applied are tools for the learners that will help them achieve more confidence and fluency.

When the teacher is aware of these strategies, he or she will have a greater understanding of students' error and would encourage students to use these strategies.

5.9 THE SOCIAL CONTEXT OF COMMUNICATION

As mentioned earlier (4.3) communication is recognized as having a collaborative nature in which "interpretation", "expression", and "negotiation" of meaning are terms which best represent it. Communication is also social behaviour, it is purposeful and always in context. In the past language teaching followed a tradition of abstraction in linguistic inquiry and this led to the neglect of the social context in both language teaching and SLA research, hindering understanding and acceptance of communicative competence as a goal for learners.

In the South African society it is of vital importance that learners achieve communicative competence which not only requires grammatical competence but also discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competence. If they succeed, learners should be equipped to cope with the different situations they will encounter in life.

In the past few years there has been a tendency to place much emphasis on fluency with the result that accuracy is neglected, leaving the learners ill-equipped for professional roles.

Krashen regards his immersion approaches as possibly "... the most successful programme ever recorded in the professional

language teaching literature" (Krashen 1984:61 in Hammerly 1991:3). Hammerly (1991:2) strongly rejects this claim and insists that there does not seem to be a single report that claims fluent and accurate speaking skills as a result of immersion programmes.

Various linguists share Hammerly's view. Long (1983) emphasises the importance of interactional adjustment (see 5.3.5). Swain (1985) suggests that learners should make an effort to produce pushed output (see 5.3.5). Fotos and Ellis (1991), Sharwood Smith and Rutherford argue that consciousness-raising techniques or communicative grammar-based tasks increase knowledge of L2 rules, both sociolinguistic and grammatical (Ridge 1992:103,104).

It seems that a misinterpretation has occurred in South Africa. We have mainly been concerned with an informal communicative approach which emphasises "acquisition". Many people have followed Krashen in what can be termed as the "strong" form of communicative teaching (see 5.4.3). This approach does not seem to result in the communicative competence necessary to meet the full demands the South African job market requires. Hammerly (1991) has the following to say about such an approach:

[Communication-orientated] teachers are usually unwilling to point out and correct linguistic errors and tend to praise any act of communication regardless of grammaticality. Thus the use of "ingredients" inappropriate to successful language learning and the lack of those essential to it result in a nutritionally deficient "stew" which, if fed daily to students over two or three years, will inevitably cause "permanent linguistic rickets". (Hammerly 1991:7).

The central question is what does the learner need to be able to do in the target language. If the learner's immediate goal is survival communication, formal accuracy is of marginal value; on the other hand, if the learner wants to become a business executive, a diplomat, a secretary, then a high degree of formal accuracy is essential.

In CLT grammar is seen as a tool or resource to be used in the comprehension and creation of oral and written discourse rather than something to be learned as an end in itself.

Celce-Murcia and Hilles (1988) suggest that grammar should always be taught with reference to meaning, social factors or discourse - or a combination of these factors. Larsen-Freeman's (1991) position is similar: she sees form, meaning and function as three interacting dimensions of language (Celce-Murcia 1991:467).

5.9.1 Teaching grammar as meaning

The prepositions "in" and "on" can be used as examples to explain how grammar is used in the service of meaning. Learners are presented with many illustrated and well-demonstrated examples and are then asked to describe other similar situations.

- 1.a Bob put the book **in** the box./The book is **in** the box.
- b Bob put the book **on** the table./The book is **on** the table. Bob puts the book in the box and then the teacher asks where the book is. The class responds with "in the box".

5.9.2 Teaching grammar as social function

A good example of grammar used in the service of socially appropriate messages is the use of modal auxiliaries to express politeness when requesting a favour. ESL learners need to know that "would" is more polite than "will" and "could" is more polite than "can":

2. (Will/Would) you open the door?
3. (Can/Could) I talk to you for a minute?

Sufficient practice with intended social messages in dialogues, role play etc., will establish the link between grammar and socially appropriate behaviour.

5.9.3 Teaching grammar as discourse

This third category consists of words and elements of language which are more effectively defined or explained with reference to their function in discourse than to their sociolinguistic function or semantic content.

An instance is the use of conjunctions such as "even though", "although", or "unless". Experience has proved that defining these words often leads to a great deal of frustration and confusion to both student and teacher. However, giving students a portion of discourse which illustrates how these conjunctions function in context seems to work remarkably well. In other words, a definition of "although" may not be as helpful as several sentences in which "although" is used:

1. Although John didn't study, he passed the test.
2. Although Maria doesn't have much money, she is rich in spirit.

All of these factors (i.e. meaning, social, discourse) interact with each other, as well as with the structure of the language. Grammar teaching should always involve the matching of a structure or grammatical point with one of these three aspects of language; consequently the lesson will be easier to prepare and easier for the pupils to understand (Celce-Murcia and Hilles 1988:8-11).

5.10 THE ROLE OF THE LEARNER

Regardless of the approach or method being followed, all learners are confronted by the task of discovering **how to learn** the language. Learners will be required to adapt and readapt in the process of relating themselves to what is being learned. "Thus all learners - in their own ways - have to adopt the role of negotiation between themselves, their learning process, and the gradually revealed object of learning" (Breen and Candlin 1980:100).

A communicative methodology is characterized by making this negotiative role a public as well as a private undertaking. The learner should realise that any knowledge which he has mastered is shared knowledge and that learners always seek confirmation that they "know" something by communicating with other people. Knowledge and learning, then, are interpersonal matters.

Breen and Candlin say that:

Within a communicative methodology, the role of learner as negotiator - between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning - emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way (Breen and Candlin 1980:100).

The co-operative approach used in CLT rather than the individualistic approach may be strange to some learners. Communicative language teachers, therefore, recommend that learners learn to see that failed communication is a joint responsibility and not the fault of the speaker or listener. On the other hand successful communication is an accomplishment jointly achieved and acknowledged (Richards and Rodgers 1986:77).

The onus then is clearly on the learners to be involved in meaning making. Interaction is regarded by many linguists as of prime importance (see 5.5.1 and 5.6) in CLT.

Students are, above all, communicators. They are actively engaged in negotiating meaning - in trying to make themselves understood - even when their knowledge of the target language is incomplete. They learn to communicate by communicating (Larsen-Freeman 1986:131).

5.11 THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER

In CLT the teacher assumes several roles. Breen and Candlin ascribe three main roles to the teacher. The teacher is:

1. facilitator of the communicative process between students in the class, various activities and texts,
2. an interdependent participant of the learning-teaching group, as:
 - 2.1 organiser of resources and as a resource himself
 - 2.2 a guide within the classroom procedures and activities, and a
3. researcher and learner (Breen and Candlin 1980:99).

Littlewood (1981) sees similar roles for the teacher. However, Richards and Rodgers (1986) add another role namely; that of a needs analyst. They regard it as the responsibility of the teacher to determine whether the children are going to need their second language as mechanics, secretaries, doctors or whatever. On the basis of such a needs assessment teachers can then plan group and individual instruction that responds to the learner's needs.

This implies that the teacher, when planning, will have to select and grade activities and tasks according to the learner's cognitive ability, taking into account the needs of the students. Planning is also related to motivational concerns. Learners must, as far as possible, feel positive about language learning. Good planning can ensure this. Ellis (1985:243) confirms that language teaching will be most successful when it follows a well-worked out plan which directs and organizes what the teacher does. Planning also gives the teacher a sense of direction and security.

Harmer (1984) suggests a "pre-plan" where teachers first decide what activities will be appropriate for the students. The "pre-plan" has four components: Activities, Language Skills, Language Type, and Subject and Content. Teachers should ask themselves what activities and what subject and content are likely to motivate the students in his class. Also which language skills and sub-skills they wish to involve the students in. Language type could be more specific (e.g. the past simple) or more general (e.g. ways of agreeing and disagreeing).

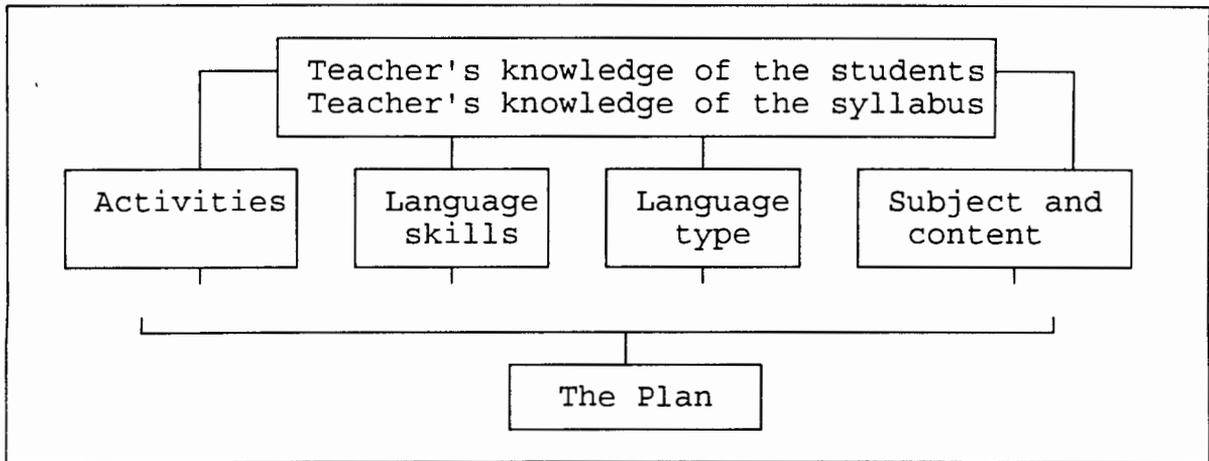


Fig. 5.8

Harmer (1984)

According to Harmer the "pre-plan" forces the teacher "... to concentrate on activities, subject and content at least as much on the language syllabus" (Harmer, 1984:93,94). He suggests that it be used as an instrument to promote more effective language teaching.

5.12 THE ROLE OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Teachers of CLT view materials as a means of influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use. The materials that the teachers use have the primary role of promoting communicative language use.

Savignon (1983) summarises the broad questions that should be considered when evaluating teaching material.

1. To what age level are the materials addressed? Are they consistent in this respect with regard to layout, design, illustrations, and choice of vocabulary, as well as with regard to activities involving learner attitudes and feelings?
2. What is the presumed L2 background of the learners for whom the materials are intended; that is, what, if any, prior experience with the language is assumed?
3. Is the learner treated as an intelligent human being whose capacity for partnership is taken seriously?
4. Are explanations clear and appropriate to the level of instruction and the age of the learners? Is there an

- avoidance of unnecessary metalanguage (professional jargon) in talking about language and communication?
5. What is the learner expected to do with the materials? Do all exercises and activities require answers in a complete sentence and/or the use of specific structures? Or do they give equal attention to the conveyance of meaning and the creative use of language?
 6. What opportunity is there for learners to relate the materials to their personal interests and experiences?
 7. Do the materials go beyond a "four skills" approach to L2 acquisition - that is, listening, speaking, reading, and writing - to reflect an understanding of the communicative abilities - interpretation, expression, and negotiation, for example - underlying all language use?
 8. Is the L2 presented as a neutral means of communication, detached from its historical, cultural, and human values? Or is there an awareness that in acquiring a second language one is acquiring a new perspective on interpersonal relations?
 9. Is there a clear rationale for exercise types and their relation to both the short-term and long-term goals of the learners?
 10. Are the learners encouraged to use the L2 in the daily conduct of class activities? Are they shown ways of saying, "I'm sorry I don't understand. What do you mean? Let me explain. What's the word for ...?" etc.
 11. Are learners encouraged to look for language samples outside the textbook and outside the classroom?
 12. What classroom arrangements do the materials suggest? Is there provision for working in pairs and small groups as well as for working with a whole class?
 13. What provisions are made for evaluation of learner progress? Are testing guidelines consistent with the stated and implicit objectives of the programme?
 14. Are the materials attractive? Are there photographs, drawings, charts, colours, etc. that invite the learners to browse, ask questions, start a conversation?
 15. What are the criteria for the selection and ordering of language samples? Is the basic organizational framework structural, functional, or situational?

16. How realistic are the language samples? Is the context sufficient to convey meaning?
17. If there is more than one L2 culture, is this made clear? Similarly, do the materials reflect an awareness of varieties within the L2?
18. What registers are used? Are they appropriate to the learners' intended use of the language? Is a distinction made between written and oral discourse?
19. What role is assigned to the teacher? What special skills does this role require?
20. What supplementary materials are available? Are there student workbooks? a teacher's guide? visual aids? To what extent do they enhance the major themes or content of the textbook?

(Savignon 1983:169,170)

5.12.1 Teaching materials

Although the questionnaire (Chapter 8) does not explore this aspect, it is important for teachers to be able to select appropriate materials.

The example below is taken from a textbook widely used in South Africa. The envisaged curriculum is distinctly a structural one, which draws largely on behaviourism. Pupils are expected to know the rule and then apply it by completing a number of sentences.

Exercise 4.4

A. Make sentences: (See footnote)

1. With just, etc.

They			won a prize on the Show
I			visited the Cango Caves
She and Lucy	have	often	had a phone call from him
You		just	been to Johannesburg
		never	swum in the river
John		already	played tennis there
He	has		seen a comet
That boy			

Footnote

This tense (the present perfect tense) tells us that the time is the present time. It refers to an action which began (at an indefinite or unspecified time) in the past and may either have been completed or not. The words *have* and *has* show that this tense has a link with the present. We must, therefore, not use words which mean past time, like *yesterday* or *last week*. We may only use words which mean *now* (such as *now*, *already*, *just*, *ever*) or *up to now* (such as *for two years*).

Examples

I have now (just, already) painted the door.

Have you ever been there?

He has been in bed for three days (since Thursday, etc.).

The present perfect tense denotes:

1. That the action which started in the past has not yet been completed.

I have lived in Durban for two years means that I began to live in Durban in the past and that I am still living there.

It should not be confused with the simple past tense. The **simple past tense** denotes an action which took place and which was completed in the past without any reference to (i.e. without saying anything about) the present.

I lived in Durban for two years means that I lived in Durban a long time ago and that I am no longer living there.

2. That the action has just been completed or that it was completed only a short while ago.

I have just laid the table means that I began to lay the table some time ago and that I have just finished, or that I finished the laying a short time ago.

3. That where two actions habitually take place and one action is completed before another begins, the action which takes place first is in the present perfect tense, e.g.,

She irons the clothes after she has washed them.

The same tense is used for an action which, in the future, will be completed before another begins, e.g. *I shall write to him as soon as I have found out his address.*

2. The "up to now" pattern. Practise (a) without not, (b) with not (hasn't and haven't)

We			
You	have (not)	bought milk powder	
Dick and I	(haven't)	read that newspaper	for several weeks
They		lived on this farm	during the past year
		taken karate lessons	since last month
My brother	has (not)	gone to school by bus	for a long time
She	(hasn't)	used a pocket calculator	
Paul		attended the meetings	

- B. Give the correct form (present perfect tense) of each word (verb) in brackets:

Example

He now completely (*recover*) from the injuries to his arm and ribs.

Answer: has (now completely) recovered

1. Neither of us (*do*) well in the test, Ethel.
2. None of them ever (*see*) a hovercraft before.
3. Neither he nor I always (*be*) as helpful as possible.
4. Several of you already (*book*) seats for the ice show on Friday night, haven't you?
5. Beulah as well as Sally just (*return*) from the mannequin parade.
6. His heroism in saving the three men from certain death (*earn*) him a medal.
7. Philip, like Graham and Charles, (*gain*) three distinctions.
8. One or two of her friends (*insinuate*) that she is a troublemaker.
9. The number of pupils in our school (*increase*) since last year.
10. A number of those caught speeding (*pay*) admission of guilt fines.
11. A pack of wild dogs just (*catch*) a wildebeest at the dam.
12. Most of our neighbour's bean crop (*fetch*) excellent prices.
13. The majority of the committee members (*vote*) in favour of Barry's motion.
14. Half of her fowls now (*contract*) Newcastle disease.
15. Most of his wages this week (*go*) towards a down payment on a new refrigerator.

The following exercise is taken from a more recent author. It has the same subject matter to be learnt, namely tenses, but here the pupil is engaged in completing the task. The subject matter is not only more attractive than the previous exercise, but it is also more relevant and meaningful to the learner. This in turn engages the learner's attention and should foster learning.

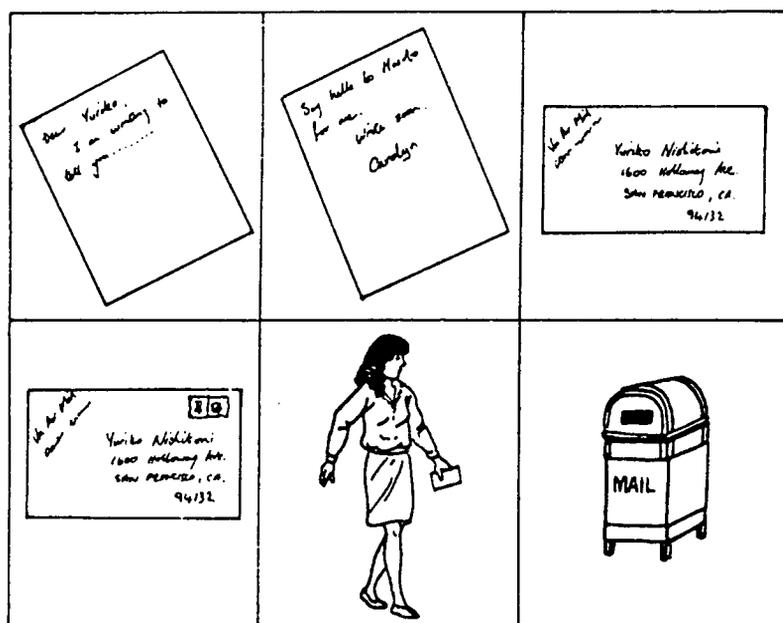
The present tense

One way to introduce the present tense is to use a grid which illustrates a sequence of events such as the one shown below which depicts the steps in writing and mailing a letter.

In order to get the students involved in the activity, begin by cutting up the grid into individual squares. Tell the students to put the individual squares in the right order. Once they are in the right order, you could use the grid to introduce the present tense. Begin by telling the students that almost every week you write to your close friend. When you write the letters, you do the following things. Then put the model sentences on the board.

First, I write the letter. Then, I sign my name. Next, I write the address on the envelope and put a stamp in the upper right hand corner. Finally, I walk to the post office and mail the letter.

Next, tell the students that Carolyn, shown in the grid, does the same



things when she writes to her friend in Japan. Once again model the paragraph and write the sentences on the board.

First, Carolyn writes the letter. Then, she signs her name. Next, she writes the address on the envelope and puts a stamp in the upper right hand corner. Finally, she walks to the post office and mails the letter.

Then have the students circle all of the changes that were made in the second paragraph so that they become aware of the third person present tense verb form. One way to provide practice with third person subject-verb agreement would be to have each student write a brief paragraph describing how they typically cook a particular dish. (E.g., First, I stir the dry ingredients.) Then have the students exchange papers and change the paragraph from the first person to third person. (E.g., First, Maura stirs the dry ingredients.)

In the following exercise "connectives" are practised. The students are placed in a situation where a problem has to be solved. Once again the pupils are engaged in the different activities and communication takes place to be able to reach the final result.

5 THE TREASURE HUNT (Ten-minute topic)

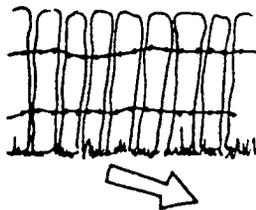
A well-known local manufacturer of chocolates is holding a treasure-hunt. Inside the label of every ZINGO Bar is a clue. There are six clues in total, and you have to collect them all in order to compete. Once you have all the clues, it is your task to put them into the correct and logical order, so that you end at the site of the buried treasure. The prize is a voucher for a cassette-recorder. Having put the clues in the correct order, you then will be told which local park to search in, and the hunt is on!

Here are the six clues. Sort them out into a logical order. If you think about it, you will see that certain steps must come before others. Below the clues is a list of words and phrases called 'logical connectives'. These connectives link the ideas in one sentence with the ideas in the previous sentence, and are vital for a smooth and comprehensible paragraph.

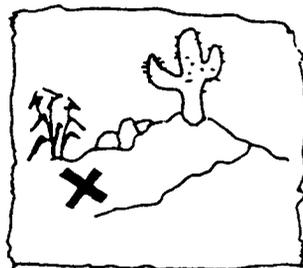
Turn the list of clues into a paragraph by rearranging them in an order that makes sense to you, and using the connectives.

THE CLUES

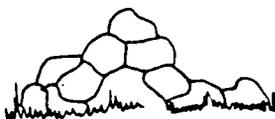
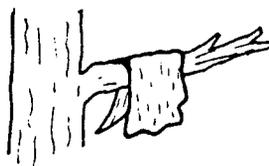
1. Walk north until you reach the fence. At this point you will see an arrow painted on the grass. Follow the direction of the arrow until you come to a pile of stones.



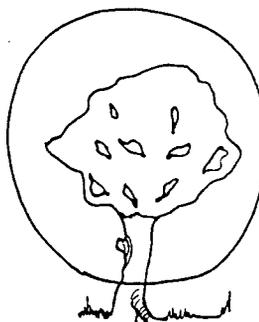
2. Place it on the ground in front of you. It will reveal a drawing of the rockery. The point marked 'X' indicates where the treasure is hidden.



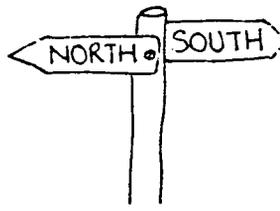
3. Look up. You will see a cloth attached to one of the lower branches. Take the cloth and unfold it.



4. Lift the top stone. You will find a photograph of the park with a circle drawn around an oak tree. Go to that tree — you will recognise it from the picture.



5. Begin your search at the signpost. The signpost will indicate two points of the compass.



5. Take fifteen paces west.

The logical connectives:

- (a) Now
- (b) Once you have got to the tree
- (c) Then
- (d) After you have unfolded it
- (e) First

There are different kinds of material currently being used in CLT and can be labelled as text-based, task-based and realia.

(Richards & Rodgers 1986:79).

5.12.2 Text-based materials

Some textbooks are written around a largely structural syllabus, with slight modifications to justify their claims to be based on a communicative approach. Others, however, look very different from the traditional textbooks.

The following example has been taken from a book in English for Specific Purposes (ESP). It might not all be applicable to the teaching situation in the classes but with a few alterations it could meet the teacher's requirements.

Application

GATHERING INFORMATION

STEP 1

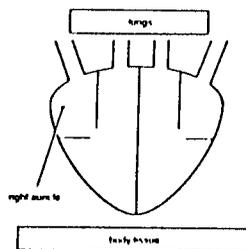
Connect the two halves of the sentences to make true statements

The heart	pumps blood to the lungs
The veins	carry blood from the heart to the body tissue.
The auncles	is a kind of pump
The right ventricle	carry blood to the heart.
The lungs	is pumped from the lungs back to the heart.
The fresh blood	pump blood into the ventricles.
The left side of the heart	supply the blood with oxygen
The arteries	pumps the fresh blood into the arteries

④ ↗
↘

STEP 2

Copy this diagram of the heart and blood system



- On your diagram label the auncles and ventricles.
- Extend the blood vessels at the top of the heart to make a complete circulation diagram through the lungs and the body tissues
- Put in arrows to show the flow of blood through the system

STEP 3

Use these expressions to replace those of similar meaning in the INPUT drawn, next to each other, increase, enter, get smaller, return, collect, exit, blood vessel (2).

⑤ ←

STEP 4 Listening task

- One of the most recent forms of illness nowadays is heart disease. From what you have just learned about the heart, what do you think are the causes of heart failure?
- Look at the pump in the TASK in Section A again. Just like the heart, there are several things that could go wrong with it. Make a table like this, and complete it with the information on the cassette.

⑥ ↗

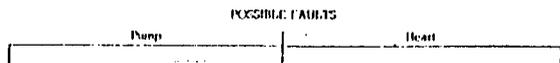


Figure 29b: Gathering information

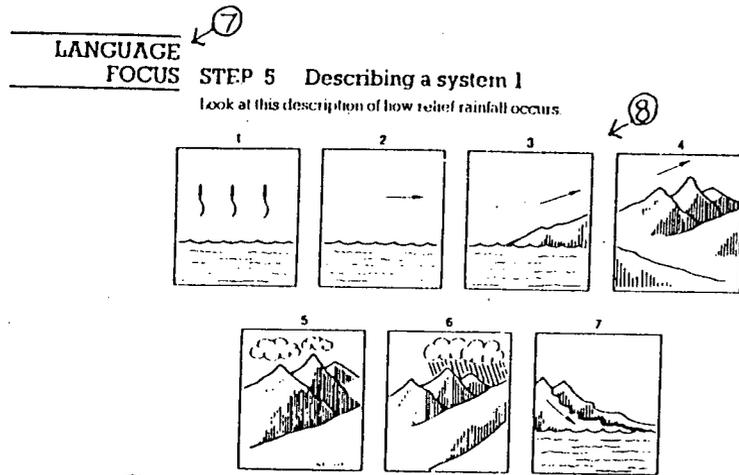
③ { This section practises extracting information from the *input* and begins the process of relating this content and language to a wider context.

④ { Steps 1 and 2 are not only comprehension checks. They also provide data for the later language work (steps 5 and 6). This is an example of unit coherence.

⑤ { Learners should always be encouraged to find answers for themselves wherever possible.

⑥ { It is possible to incorporate opportunities for the learners to use their own knowledge and abilities at any stage. It is particularly useful to do this as soon as the basic information contained in the *input* has been identified, in order to reinforce connections between this and the learners' own interests and needs. Here, for example, the learners are required to go beyond the information in the *input*. They have to relate the subject matter to their own knowledge and reasoning powers, but still using the language they have been learning.

➡➡➡



- 1 Water vapour from the sea rises
- 2 The wind picks up the water vapour
- 3 The wind carries the water vapour towards the mountains.
- 4 The mountains push the wet air upwards
- 5 The temperature is lower up the mountains. The water vapour condenses into cloud
- 6 The condensed water falls as rain
- 7 The rain water runs down through rivers and streams to the sea.

This description is very simple. It follows the diagram in numbered stages, explaining what happens at each stage.

Make a similar description for the heart and blood system. On your diagram number the stages first, then write a sentence to explain each stage. Begin like this:

- 1 Old blood goes into the right atricle.
 - 2 The blood is sucked into the right ventricle.
- Continue

STEP 6 Linking clauses

- The description of relief rainfall is very simple, but there is a lot of repetition in it. We can make it much shorter like this.

Water vapour from the sea rises. The wind picks it up and carries it towards the mountains, which push the wet air upwards, where the temperature is lower. The water vapour condenses into clouds and falls as rain, which runs down through rivers and streams to the sea.

- 11 → What changes have been made to shorten the description?
 - a
 - b Make your description of the blood system shorter in the same way.

7 { This section gives practice in some of the language elements needed for the *task*. These may be concerned with aspects of sentence structure, function or text construction. The points focussed on are drawn from the *input*, but they are selected according to their usefulness for the *task*.

8 { Further input related to the rest of the unit in terms of subject matter or language can be introduced at any point in order to provide a wider range of contexts for exercises and tasks. This helps learners to see how their limited resources can be used for tackling a wide range of problems (see also step 7).

9 { Learners need practice in organising information, as well as learning the means for expressing those ideas.

10 { Earlier work is recycled through another activity. This time the focus is more on the language form than the meaning.

11 { Language work can also involve problem-solving with learners using their powers of observation and analysis (Hutchinson, 1984).

Figure 29c: Language focus

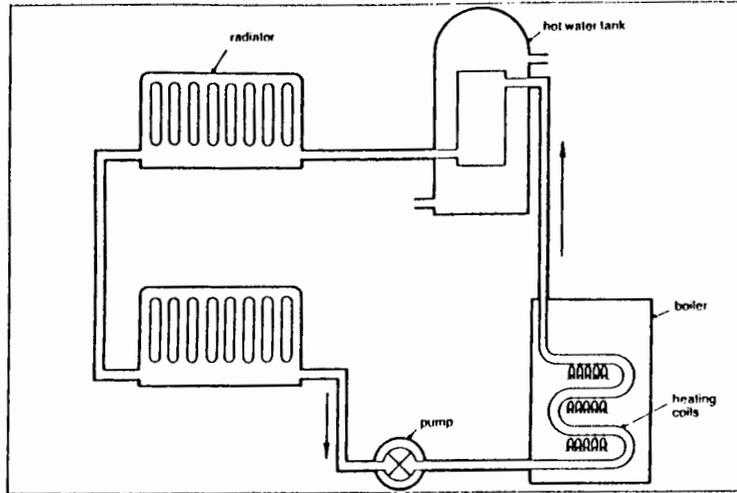


STEP 7 Describing a system 2

This diagram shows the flow of water through a domestic central heating and hot water system.

12

Study the diagram and then describe the flow of water through the system.



STEP 8 Tenses in descriptions

Note the difference between these two descriptions:

'We're going into the night nurse.'
The old blood goes into the night nurse.

Why are different tenses used in the different situations?

13

Describe the relief rainfall cycle, as if you were a water molecule. Begin like this:

Hello, my name's H₂O, but you can call me H for short. I'm a water molecule and at the moment I'm floating around in the sunny Pacific, but it's very warm and I'm starting to evaporate.....

Continue.

TASK

A tour around your place of study or work.

14

15

- a Draw a simple plan of the site.
- b Give a general description of what happens at the main places on the site.
- c Take a group of visitors around the site, giving a commentary as you go.

Figure 29d: Task

12 { There is a gradual movement within the unit from guided to more open-ended work. This breaks down the learning tasks and gives the learners greater confidence for approaching the task.

13 { The unusual type of *input* gives the opportunity for some more imaginative language work.

14 { Here the learners have to create their own solution to a communication problem. In so doing they use both the language and the content knowledge developed through the unit. The learners, in effect, are being asked to solve a problem, *using* English, rather than to do exercises *about* English. Given the build-up through the unit, the *task* should be well within the grasp of both learner and teacher.

15 { The *task*, also, provides a clear objective for the learners and so helps to break up the often bewildering mass of the syllabus, by establishing landmarks of achievement.

The unit can be further expanded to give learners the chance to apply the knowledge gained to their own situation. For example, a project for this unit could ask the learners to describe any other kind of enclosed system (e.g. an air conditioning system) in their own home, place of work or field of study.

5.12.3 Task-based materials

These materials consist of a variety of games, role plays, simulations, and task-based communication activities. They could be in the form of cue cards, activity cards, pair-communication practice materials, and student interaction practice booklets.

1 Railway timetables

This was the first task, in a sequence of five, based on railway timetables. The teacher knew that students in the class were not familiar with railway timetables, though all of them had seen trains and more than half of them had been in a train at some time. The teacher also knew that the class was quite unfamiliar with the twenty-four hour clock and therefore did a preliminary pre-task (relying on parallels to give students the concept) and task, before going on to work based on a timetable as such.

Preliminary pre-task The teacher writes '0600 hours = 6 am' on the blackboard and gets students to suggest similar twelve-hour clock equivalents of such times as 0630, 0915, 1000, 1145, 1200, 1300, 2300, 0000, 0115, and 0430. Pupils do this with reasonable success, although counting sometimes proves difficult (for example 2015 minus 1200), and the meaning of 0000 hours proves quite beyond them.

Preliminary task The teacher writes up eight twenty-four hour clock timings on the blackboard and students individually work out and write in their notebooks the twelve-hour equivalent of each. The teacher then writes up the answers and students mark each other's work. The result, from a show of hands, indicates that almost exactly half the students got five or more answers right and the rest four or less.

Pre-task The following is written up on the blackboard:

	Madras	Katpadi	Jolarpet	Bangalore
Brindavan Express	Dep. 0725	Arr. 0915 Dep. 0920	Arr. 1028 Dep. 1030	Arr. 1300

Questions such as the following are asked, answered, and discussed:

- 1 When does the Brindavan Express leave Madras/arrive in Bangalore? (Answers are expected in terms of the twelve-hour clock.)
- 2 When does it arrive at Katpadi/leave Jolarpet?
- 3 For how long does it stop at Jolarpet?
- 4 How long does it take to go from Madras to Katpadi/Jolarpet to Bangalore?
- 5 How many stations does it stop at on the way?

Task Sheets of paper containing the following timetable and the questions below it are handed out. The teacher asks a few questions orally, based on an anticipation of learners' difficulties (for example, 'Is this a day train or a night train?' in view of the difference from the pre-task timetable, and 'For how long does the train stop at Jolarpet?' in view of students' observed difficulty in calculating time across the hour mark) and then leaves the class to do the task.

	Madras	Arkonam	Katpadi	Jolarpet	Kolar	Bangalore
Bangalore Mail	Dep. 2140	Arr. 2250 Dep. 2305	Arr. 0005 Dep. 0015	Arr. 0155 Dep. 0210	Arr. 0340 Dep. 0350	Arr. 0550

- 1 When does the Bangalore Mail leave Madras?
- 2 When does it arrive in Bangalore?
- 3 For how long does it stop at Arkonam?
- 4 At what time does it reach Katpadi?
- 5 At what time does it leave Jolarpet?
- 6 How long does it take to go from Madras to Arkonam?
- 7 How long does it take to go from Kolar to Bangalore?

Students' performance:

7 or 6 answers correct	14 students
5 or 4 answers correct	8 students
3 or 2 answers correct	6 students
1 or 0 answers correct	3 students

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The next lesson based on railway timetables presented students with the following task (following a similar pre-task) as representing an appropriate increase in complexity:

	Madras	Arkonam	Katpadi	Jolarpet	Kolar	Bangalore
Bangalore Mail	Dep. 2140	Arr. 2255 Dep. 2355	Arr. 0005 Dep. 0015	Arr. 0155 Dep. 0210	Arr. 0340 Dep. 0350	Arr. 0550
Bangalore Express	Dep. 1300	Arr. 1420 Dep. 1440	Arr. 1515 Dep. 1620	Arr. 1647 Dep. 1650	Arr. 1825 Dep. 1830	Arr. 2020
Brindavan Express	Dep. 0725	—	Arr. 0915 Dep. 0920	Arr. 1028 Dep. 1030	—	Arr. 1300

Questions:

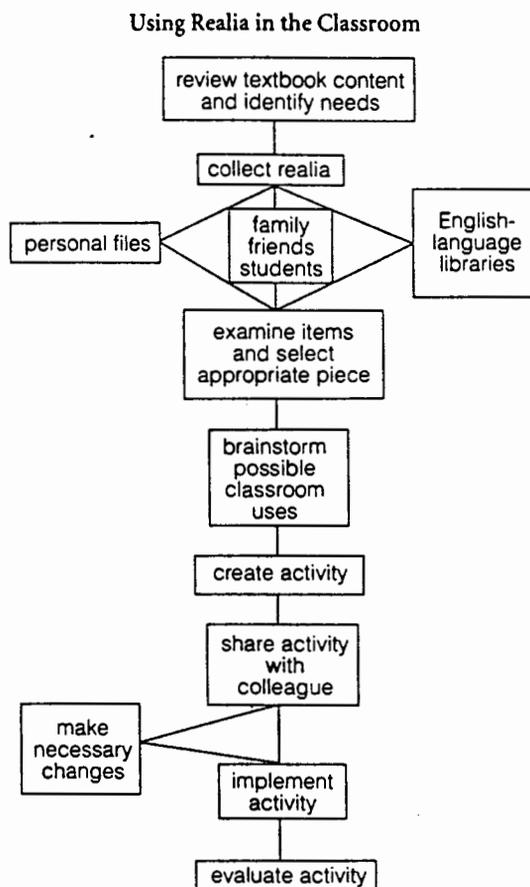
- 1 When does the Bangalore Express arrive at Katpadi?
- 2 At what time does the Bangalore Mail leave Arkonam?
- 3 For how long does the Bangalore Express stop at Jolarpet?
- 4 Which trains stop at Arkonam?
- 5 Where is the Brindavan Express at twelve noon?
- 6 Where is the Bangalore Express at three p.m.?
- 7 Mr Ganeshan wants to travel from Madras to Kolar. He has some work in Kolar in the morning. By which train should he travel?
- 8 Mrs Mani has to work in Madras on the morning of Monday. She wants to get to Bangalore on Monday night. Which train can she take?

A later task in the sequence involved filling in request forms (used in India) for railway reservations. The form requires such details as the number of the train, date of travel, the traveller's age, class of travel, and form of accommodation (seat/berths), which were made available to the class in the form of personal letters received from friends or relatives – living elsewhere – asking for reservations to be made for their intended travel.

5.12.4 Realia

Many proponents of the communicative approach have advocated the use of "authentic" materials in the classroom. One of the principal justifications for authentic texts is that "[they] can enhance the quality of interaction in and with the target language" (Little, Devit & Singleton 1989:6). These texts can provide the basis for a variety of social interactions because "they come complete with all the savour, stench and rough edges of life beyond the schoolwalls, they are likely to be markedly more successful in provoking pupil reaction and interaction than the somewhat anaemic texts that one so often finds between the covers of textbooks" (Little, Devit & Singleton 1989:6).

By incorporating realia into our courses the learning experience is enriched and it also demonstrates to the pupils that they can interact with and utilize real-world input beyond their textbooks. In the following examples by Steven Lund (1992) authentic or authentic-like materials are used which should foster authentic discourse. Lund supplies a diagram to consult when choosing realia.



Restaurant Advertisements. The type of input contained in restaurant advertisements lends reality to scanning activities in which students quickly examine a number of advertisements in order to find specific pieces of information. While the basic content of such advertisements is very similar, the key to creating a good scanning activity lies in identifying the differences that exist between the advertisements. In other words, it is important to exploit the characteristics that are unique to only one or possibly two advertisements. With respect to the advertisements presented above, features such as schedules (hours, days), atmosphere (romantic, exotic), and the type of food served (French, Italian, seafood) help to distinguish the various restaurants.

Shopping Mall Directory. A scanning activity can also be created using the shopping-mall directory above, but for demonstration purposes it may also be exploited as a listening exercise in which the instructor reads the description of a shop while the students listen for lexical clues that will help them identify the shop being described. In forming an exercise of this nature, it is necessary to select stores whose names and descriptions are directly related. For example, student recognition of brand names given in the description such as Revlon and Nina Ricci, should lead to the deduction that Perfume Place is the store being described, while Popular Music, Oldies, Country ... would do the same for Records, Tapes, and C.D.s. In contrast, a store with the name of Ralph's would not be a good choice, as it provides absolutely no indication as to the type of merchandise in which the shop specializes (Lund 1992:10-15).

Restaurant Ads

WHITNEY'S
 AMERICAN CUISINE
 SPECIALIZING IN SEAFOOD
 FEATURING
THE FRESH FISH MARKET
 IN THE MIAMI **Marriott**
 DADELAND
663-1035
 AT THE DATRAN CENTER ACROSS FROM DADELAND MALL
 9090 South Dadeland Boulevard, Miami, Florida

French Connection
 A landmark restaurant,
 carries on its famed culinary traditions
 featuring dining in a romantic atmosphere
 by a flicker of candlelight and music.
 CLOSED MONDAYS AT 2626 PONCE DE LEON BLVD.
 LUNCH TUES — FRI CORAL GABLES
 DINNER FROM 6 PM MAJOR CREDIT CARDS
442-8587 **442-9374**

Let's Meet At
Cafe Tanino
 "I LOVED IT THE LAST TIME...
 THE PASTA, THE FISH, THE VEAL...
 THE BEST!"
 ITALIANISSIMO!!
 LUNCH — Monday-Friday
 DINNER — Nightly
446-1666
 2312 PONCE DE LEON BLVD. CORAL GABLES

Fat Boy's BAR-B-QUE
 • BREAKFAST
 • LUNCH
 • DINNER
 — ALL HOMEMADE
 & FRESH —
 RIBS
 CHICKEN
 PORK
 BEEF STEAK
**BANQUET ROOM
 & CATERING** **EAT-IN OR
 CARRY-OUT**
253-4848 "FAMILY
 PRICED"
 ACROSS FROM METRO ZOO 12019 SW 152 ST IN DEERWOOD PLAZA

CONVERSATION - BEGINNING LEVEL
 Restaurant Scanning Level
 Students' Copy

Directions:
 Scan the restaurant ads to find the answers to the following questions
 and place the appropriate letter(s) in the blanks.

A. Cafe Tanino
 B. Fat Boy's
 C. French Connection
 D. Gino's
 E. Tien Kue Inn
 F. Whitney's

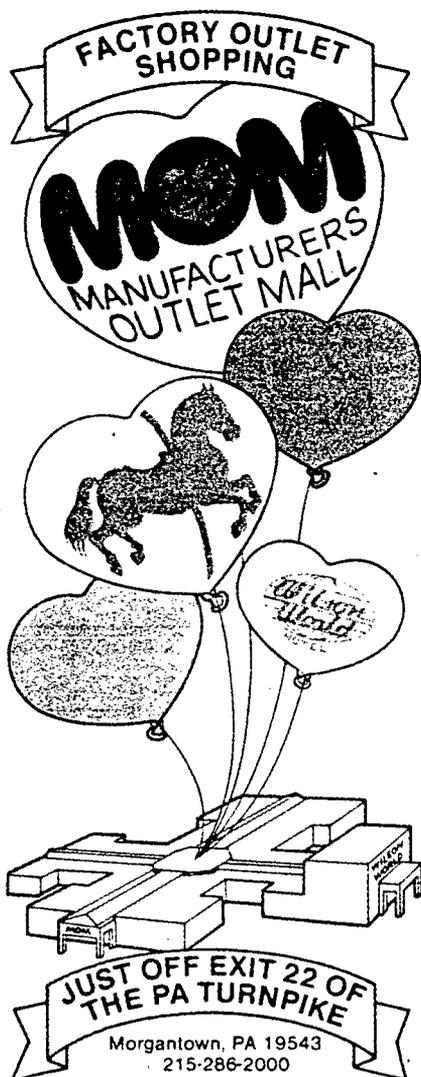
Example: Which restaurant serves French food? C

- Which restaurant is Chinese? _____
- Which restaurant serves breakfast? _____
- Which two restaurants are Italian? _____
- Which restaurant is open later on Fridays and Saturdays? _____
- Which restaurant serves chicken and ribs? _____
- Which restaurant is closed on Mondays? _____
- Which restaurant features American food? _____
- Which restaurant has a bar? _____
- Which restaurant has a romantic atmosphere? _____
- Which two restaurants serve seafood? _____

Compare your answers with a classmate. Do you agree?
 Which of these restaurants would you most like to eat at? Why?

MIAMI BEACH'S
GINO'S
 ITALIAN RESTAURANT
 ONE OF THE FINEST GOURMET CUISINE
 SEAFOOD-STEAK-PIZZA
 ALSO ENJOY OUR EXOTIC OUTDOOR PATIO
 WITH MUSIC, (sitting capacity of over 200)
 Take Out **532-6426** Open
 Food 7 Days
 1906 COLLINS AV. MB

TIEN KUE INN
 OUR 20th YEAR
 IN MIAMI
 (HEAVENLY BRIDGE) 天橋
 FAMOUS CHINESE CUISINE
 RESTAURANT — BAR — COCKTAIL LOUNGE
TAKE OUT ORDERS
444-2717
 2880 CORAL WAY
 Mon-Thurs. & Sunday 11:30 a.m. to 10:45 p.m.
 Friday & Saturday 11:30 a.m. to 11:45 p.m. MAJOR
 CREDIT CARDS



BAG & BAGGAGE – 286-6988 Famous brand name luggage, handbags & business cases at 20-50% off retail, everyday! North Wing.

BARGAIN SNEAKERS – 286-6983 25-60% off on a large variety of brand name athletic footwear - Nike; Puma; Adidas & more! South Wing.

COUNTRY CRAFTS – 286-0320 Decorator & gift items – wood, ceramic & stained glass plaques. Fine selection of clocks. All handcrafted. North Wing.

THE FOOTFACTORY – 286-6222 Selection of men's & women's dress, casual & athletic shoes. First quality, latest brand name shoes at discounts. South Wing.

HEATHROW CHOCOLATES – 286-9051 Finest fudge, chocolates, & gourmet popcorn made in our own kitchen. Nuts, hard candies available. East Wing.

KIDS STUFF – 286-5164 Great selection and terrific savings from Newborn to Size 14 Girls and Size 16 Boys. North Wing.

PERFUME PLACE – 286-0430 Fragrance, cosmetic & beauty outlet featuring Revlon, Nina Ricci, Lauren, Arden, Vanderbilt & more. Savings to 70%. North Wing.

RECORDS, TAPES & C.D.s – 286-8831 Popular Music, Oldies, Country, Big Band, Vocalists, Children's, Classical, Gospel, Rock. Great prices and great selection at Beggars Banquet. East Wing.

Shopping-Mall Directory

CONVERSATION - BEGINNING LEVEL Shopping-Mall Directory Teacher's Copy

Listening Activity:

1. Have students study the list of stores on the answer sheet and discuss/teach any unfamiliar vocabulary items.
2. Explain to the class that they will hear a short description of a store from a mall directory and that they should listen for clues that will help them determine which store is being described.
3. Read the description (omitting the name) for each store twice as students complete the task as individuals.
*Note: Do No. 1 as an example for the whole class.
Heathrow Chocolates is a good one for this.*
4. Have students compare their answers with a partner to see if they agree.
5. Review – Read each description again. After each item, stop and ask a student for his/her answer. Discuss which word(s) led him/her to this conclusion.
6. Provide students with the list of MOM (Manufacturers' Outlet Mall) stores and descriptions, and discuss any new vocabulary items.

CONVERSATION - BEGINNING LEVEL Shopping-Mall Directory Students' Copy

Directions:

As you listen, determine the store which is being described and place the appropriate letter in the blanks below.

- A. Perfume Place
- B. Bag & Baggage
- C. Heathrow Chocolates
- D. Records, Tapes & C.D.s
- E. Bargain Sneakers
- F. The Footfactory
- G. Country Crafts
- H. Kids Stuff
- I. Sweater Mill

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____

5.13 CONCLUSION

In this brief analysis of the communicative approach different aspects like the essentials of a communication curriculum, teaching methodology, authentic activities, communicative competence and the roles of the teacher, learner and instructional materials were discussed. However, as Widdowson mentions (5.4.2) it cannot be taken for granted that a syllabus which is characteristically communicative is automatically going to result in communicative teaching. In the next chapter we outline how the 1986 English Second Language HG syllabus of the Cape Education Department was implemented.

CHAPTER 6

THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE 1986 CED ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE HG SYLLABUS

In the outside world language learners were being confronted with demands that were different to what was expected of them in the conventional formal language classroom. To meet these demands syllabuses had to be adapted. This eventually led to the introduction of the "communicative" ESL syllabus in 1986. In the next section this syllabus is contrasted with the previous syllabus (1973).

6.1 CONTRASTING AIMS OF 1973 AND 1986 ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE HG SYLLABUSES

Although the 1973 syllabus aimed

- to improve the pupils' ability to speak English fluently, correctly and confidently;
- to improve the pupils' understanding of the spoken word;
- to improve the pupils' understanding of the written word and to encourage him to read English books and other reading matter with enjoyment and profit;
- to improve the standard of the pupil's writing of English;
- to promote the pupils' knowledge of English language structure and usage, but only as an aid to correct speech and writing;
- to train the pupil how to use the library and its resources, (CED English Second Language HG Syllabus 1.1 - 1.6),

it did not specifically aim at enabling the pupil to use the language as a "means of communication" (ESL Syllabus 1986). The 1973 ESL syllabus emphasize correct speech and writing, with a concomitant attention to language forms. The 1986 ESL syllabus shifts the emphasis from teaching language as a formal system to teaching ESL as communication.

The "aims" of the syllabus assert that the over-riding concern is communicative competence for personal, social, education and occupational purposes. The stated aims of the syllabus are

- to foster a desire to learn English, and to assist pupils to meet the challenge of communicating in a multilingual society
- to help pupils to learn with accuracy, sensitivity and critical discernment
- to help pupils to speak fluent and acceptable English confidently and with an awareness of audience
- to guide pupils towards reading with increasing comprehension, enjoyment and discernment
- to develop the pupils' ability to write English appropriate to their purposes
- to promote the pupils' control of English through a knowledge of its structure and usage.

6.2 PROBLEMS INHERENT IN THE SYLLABUS

As noted above, the overall aim of the syllabus is to promote communicative competence. Chapter 5, which provides a detailed discussion of communicative competence, clearly delineates the complexity of the new demands, as opposed to the aims of the previous syllabus.

The structural syllabus (1973) incorporates the different structures of the language, which are ordered according to perceived difficulty of acquisition. However, the order of acquisition depends upon a built-in syllabus, corresponding to universal acquisition principles (Widdowson and Brumfit 1981). Therefore, communicative syllabuses, such as the 1986 syllabus, are organised along notional and functional lines where the learner is encouraged to be involved in tasks and activities, to focus on meaning rather than on form, and to use his natural abilities of interpretation, expression and negotiation (Van der Walt 1990:29).

Marshall (1992:33) points to Littlejohn and Windeatt as concluding that the structural syllabus implies that "language learning is largely a matter of item ... accumulation ... and the manipulation of rules of structure and/or use. Control of the surface structure of language is emphasized at the cost of neglecting the

essence of language, namely negotiation and interpretation of meaning".

Clearly, then, to meet the new emphasis on "negotiation and interpretation of meaning", teachers have to change their teaching approach from a formal structural approach to a more informal communicative approach. The question remains how teachers can be persuaded to change from their old methods and adopt a new approach.

6.3 TEACHERS AND CHANGE

Before the implementation of the new syllabus, Ridge (1983:9-11) pointed out that the attitudes and assumptions of teachers would have to be modified. Since these had been acquired during the course of their own education, they had become part of their own identity. Doughty (1973:47) confirms that the teacher "... will regard the presentation of an alternative view as a personal attack on his own integrity".

Unfortunately, many second language teachers are not mothertongue speakers of English and do not have the necessary language competence which the communicative approach demands. Although it is not true that in all cases teachers' competence would be inadequate, it is a fair assumption that this would be true for a significant number. Most high school teachers of English have English degrees which reflect their ability to write (not speak) English. Furthermore, the English courses deal almost exclusively with literary texts. This means that while graduates may have a high level of competence in certain areas, their knowledge of other areas of English may be seriously limited.

Thirdly, language teachers like most teachers throughout the world, have a strong tendency to dominate the classroom. This tendency is exacerbated by an inadequate level of language competence and a small teaching repertoire.

Gorton (1984:301f) lists a further eight constraining factors that lead to a resistance to change.

1. **Habit.**
The tendency to behave in the same way as they have always behaved: the familiar becomes a form of security.
2. **The bureaucratic structure of the school district.**
The maintenance of order, rationality and continuity is emphasized. New programmes of procedures are often viewed with suspicion.
3. **The lack of incentive.**
No obvious reward for making the change means there is little likelihood of change.
4. **The nature of the proposed change.**
The complexity of change and the financial cost militate against change.
5. **Teacher and community norms.**
The teacher may face disapproval from his colleagues for adopting an innovation.
6. **Lack of understanding.**
People may resist a proposed change because they do not have an adequate or accurate understanding of it. Information about the change may have been poorly or inaccurately communicated, which can act as a significant deterrent to its successful implementation.
7. **A difference of opinion.**
Questions arise as to how necessary the change is and whether it would accomplish that all its proponents claim.
8. **A lack of skill.**
A proposed change may be resisted by an individual or group who is required to perform new skills and roles.

6.4 SUMMARY

This chapter has explored the shift in emphasis in the syllabus from teaching language as a formal system to teaching English as a means of communication.

In the following chapter the design of the questionnaire is discussed.

CHAPTER 7

THE RESEARCH PROJECT

7.1 THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

Teachers of English as a second language in the high schools of the Boland and Northern Suburbs of Cape Town know about the Communicative Approach, but there is reason to believe that some are not fully conversant with its theoretical principles and consequently do not apply the approach in their teaching.

In spite of a new "communicative" syllabus being implemented in 1987, it seems that many teachers have a limited understanding of the main thrust behind the syllabus (Swartz 1990).

Furthermore, since teachers tend to be conservative, there is reason to believe that teachers cling to the old traditional methods that "worked" in the past. What is certain is that many pupils are not proficient English users when they leave school.

7.2. THE HYPOTHESES

This study is based on the assumption that, in comparison to previous methodologies, the Communicative Approach best meets the needs of the second language pupil. It is assumed that teachers' failure to implement communicative teaching methods is to the detriment of pupils.

For the purposes of this study the following hypotheses are posited:

- 7.2.1 Teachers currently using the Communicative Approach are unfamiliar with the theory of this methodology i.e. they work from an inadequate theoretical base.

- 7.2.2 Being unsure of the theory of communicative teaching, teachers do not know how to implement the syllabus and only partially meet the requirements of CLT.
- 7.2.3 Teachers trained after 1986 would have a greater understanding of CLT than those trained before 1986.

7.3 METHOD USED IN THE RESEARCH PROJECT

7.3.1 Introduction

In order to determine the degree to which the Cape Education Department teachers teach communicatively, and to test these hypotheses, questionnaires were sent to thirty high schools. The schools chosen fall under the jurisdiction of the Cape Education Department, and are situated in the Boland and northern suburbs of Cape Town.

7.3.2 The sample population

An attempt was made to make the sample as representative of the communities in the two areas chosen as possible. After consultation with the research department of the C.E.D., a hundred questionnaires were sent to the thirty schools during the third term of 1993. Twenty schools responded, giving a total of forty-five respondents.

There was no specific reason other than convenience why the Boland and Northern Suburbs of Cape Town were chosen. The schools chosen are located in a predominantly Afrikaans speaking area; consequently English is the second language of the majority of the pupils. Schools in the Boland area included schools from

rural and suburban areas.

7.3.3 The questionnaire

The purpose of the questionnaire was to determine whether the language teaching approach of the respondents was communicative. Both closed and open-ended questions were set. The closed questions were used to obtain quantitative information while the open-ended questions to elicit qualitative information. The cautionary observation made by Schecter and Ramirez (1992:200) that teachers often do not do what they say they do or what they think they do was borne in mind during the design and development phases of the questionnaire. The open-ended questions were intended to serve as a check on information supplied by the "closed" questions.

The questionnaire was constructed in such a way that there was a progression from general to more specific questions. The alternative questions to most of the closed-type questions ranged from "always" to "never". At the outset a percentage was allocated for each term to guide the respondent in making a more qualified choice. The terms and approximate percentages are provided below.

ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
95-100%	67-94%	33-66%	0-32%	0%

7.3.4 Pilot test

After the questionnaire had been drawn up, a pilot test was conducted, using four practising English second language teachers with teaching situations similar to those of the subjects involved in the study. They completed the questionnaire. A few minor problems were detected and rectified. The final draft of

the questionnaire was resubmitted to the pilot-test group for further comment before it was mailed to the different destinations.

7.3.5 Interviews

As a precautionary measure against the misinterpretation of questions, interviews were conducted with three other respondents (two pre 1986 and one post 1986). The advantage of these interviews was that answers were obtained to all the questions and that additional information could be elicited. The interviewer had the opportunity to rephrase questions that were not clear to the respondent. It transpired that these respondents experienced difficulties with the same sub-sections as had been unclear to the pilot-testing group, in spite of the fact that these sub-sections had been rephrased.

7.3.6 The Design of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of three sections: **general information**, teaching approach and other aspects. Each of these sections will be discussed separately.

7.3.6.1 General Information (See Section 8.1)

In the initial section mainly background information about the respondents' home language (8.1.1), formal training (8.1.2) and years of experience (8.1.4) was requested. The purpose here was to determine:

- (1) whether respondents had received their training since the implementation of the syllabus in 1987 or before; and

- (2) to elicit the repondents' personal assessment as to whether they taught communicatively.

It was assumed that those trained after 1986 had most probably been trained to use the Communicative Approach. Whether this was in fact the case, and whether respondents who had received their training before 1986 were reconciled to the Communicative Approach had to be established.

In the open-ended questions in this section, the respondents' theoretical knowledge of the Communicative Approach was examined. These questions (8.1.9 - 8.1.12) were deliberately placed early in the questionnaire in the hope that unbiased responses would be elicited. If they had been placed towards the end of the questionnaire, the likelihood that respondents might have picked up aspects of the Communicative Approach mentioned in intervening questions and incorporated them in their answers would have been greater.

7.3.6.2 Teaching approach (see Section 8.2)

In this section the writer tried to establish the degree to which the respondents' actual teaching in the classroom was communicative. Most of the questions in this section were supplied with pre-coded answers in which the frequency range on degree of intensity of particular aspects could be measured on a rating scale which ranged from "always" to "never" (see 7.3.3).

Pre-coded questions of this type are generally easier and quicker to answer than the open-ended questions but they have distinct disadvantages. If, for instance, the respondent is uninformed on the topic of a question, the choice of any one of the offered alternatives is sufficient to hide his ignorance. If the respondent fails to understand, or misunderstands, a pre-coded question, he can still give an apparently appropriate answer.

To try to avoid these pitfalls, some questions were explained. (The interviews that were subsequently conducted with the three other respondents (see 7.3.5) gave an indication of how these questions had been interpreted. From the responses it seemed as if the interpretation of the questions mostly coincided with that of the writer's intention in most cases).

A variety of questions were set to determine the teaching approach. These included questions dealing with the needs of pupils (8.2.1), the syllabus (8.2.2 - 8.2.5), the role of teacher (8.2.6 - 8.2.9), fluency and accuracy (8.2.10 - 8.2.13), opinion gaps (8.2.15.2 - 8.2.15.3) and errors (8.2.15.6, 8.2.15.7, 8.2.17, 8.2.19). Inevitably, when wording the questions, features of the Communicative Approach had to be mentioned. The danger of this was, as mentioned above, that the information given could be used by the uninformed respondent to guess what the "right" answer was. To check for consistency, counter-check questions were incorporated and placed farther down the list.

Towards the end of this section the question format was changed to a Yes-No type of question (8.2.16 - 8.2.19), and in some cases respondents were given the opportunity to explain their answers. This was to counteract the "acquiescence response set" (Moser and Kalton 1971:345) - the tendency of respondents to more frequently give affirmative answers to statements than negative answers.

7.3.6.3 Other Aspects (see Section 8.3)

In the last section of the questionnaire the writer sought specific information.

Most of the questions in this section were grammar related (8.3.1 - 8.3.4) Other aspects treated were: materials (8.3.4) and the

level of the pupils' English (8.3.6). The questions, mainly of the pre-coded type, were constructed in such a manner that the answer chosen would give an indication of the respondents' teaching approach. In some cases respondents could explain their answers. The last question was an open-ended question in which the respondent was free to give any comment. It was considered necessary to give respondents the opportunity to express themselves freely.

7.3.6.4 Findings of the questionnaire

To obtain an overview of the results, Tables 8.46.1 (Summary of weighted results showing pre-1986 respondents' understanding of the theory of CLT, teaching approach and practical application) and 8.46.2 (Summary of weighted results showing post-1986 respondents' understanding of the theory of CLT, teaching approach and practical application) were compiled with the aim of determining whether the teaching approach of the respondents was communicative or not.

Questions which were regarded as particularly indicative of communicative teaching were selected for inclusion in the summary tables from the questionnaire. The tables (8.46.1 and 8.46.2) were divided into three sections, to correspond with the questionnaire. The section General Information mainly evaluated the theoretical knowledge of the respondents. The theoretical questions (sections 8.1.9, 8.1.11, 8.1.12 of the questionnaire) were weighted and added. Each respondent was given a score out of ten.

The next division of the table concerns **The Teaching Approach**. This includes the classroom activities (section 8.2.15.1, 8.2.15.3, 8.2.15.4 of the questionnaire) of the respondents.

The last division consists of **Other Aspects**. The questions were allocated weightings ranging from 3 to -3. The weightings of each respondent were added and a total out of a maximum possible

score of fifty-five was awarded. These weightings should, however, be regarded as no more than a rough index to show whether respondents teach communicatively.

7.3.6.5 CONSTRAINTS

The main constraint to be borne in mind was the time the respondent would spend filling in the questionnaire. It is one of the regulations of the department that the questionnaires should not be completed during school hours. The questionnaire was therefore kept as short as possible and respondents were reassured that it should take only fifteen minutes to complete.

For this reason pre-coded questions were favoured to "speed-up" the answering of the questionnaire. The limited space provided after the open-ended questions aimed deliberately at curtailing the respondents' replies.

The findings of the study are reported and comments on each section of the questionnaire are supplied in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 8

REPORT ON FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT

FINDINGS AND COMMENT

In this chapter the findings of analyses of teacher responses are reported. The items are dealt with in the order in which they occur in the questionnaire. In each case a table summarizing the data is supplied. The following categories are applied:

- (i) PRE 1986- respondents who completed their formal training, prior to the introduction of the communicative syllabus in 1986 (33 cases).
- (ii) POST 1986- respondents who completed their formal training during or after 1986 (12 cases).

For purposes of comparison, percentages are supplied along with the number of cases who chose the answer in question. The number of the respondent is given in square brackets. In certain instances the actual answers of respondents are also reported.

Sub-divisions follow the order and wording of the questionnaire.

GENERAL INFORMATION SUPPLIED BY THE RESPONDENTS

The individual responses of the respondents are included in Addendum 2. The tables summarizing responses are supplied in the text.

8.1.1 *Home language of respondents*

Table 8.1 indicates that although Afrikaans (51,1%) is the dominant language of ESL teachers, 48,9% (20,0% English + 28,9% both) of ESL teachers consider English to be their home language.

Table 8.1 Home language of respondents (cases in brackets)

	AFR		ENG		BOTH		OTHER
PRE 1986	(16)	48,5%	(5)	15,1%	(12)	36,4%	0
POST 1986	(7)	58,3%	(4)	33,3%	(1)	8,4%	0
TOTAL	(23)	51,1%	(9)	20,0%	(13)	28,9%	0

These results present a different picture from Booyen (1989:157), who found that 94,4% of the teachers of ESL in the senior primary phase were Afrikaans speaking. However, that study was representative of the whole of the Cape Province and related to teachers who are not necessarily English specialists, as is the position in high schools.

8.1.2 Year in which formal training was completed.

Information on when respondents completed their formal training was requested as it provides a profile on the teaching experience of the respondents.

This information made it possible to determine whether those who had completed their training during or after 1986, when the new syllabus was implemented, were better acquainted with the Communicative Approach than teachers who qualified before that time. (It was only in the 1980s, that the Communicative Approach really started receiving attention in South Africa. This point will be discussed under 8.1.6).

Table 8.2 Year in which respondents completed formal training (cases in brackets)

PRE 1986					POST 1986			
1950-1959	1960-1969		1970-1979		1980-1985		1986-1992	
0	(13)	28,9%	(13)	28,9%	(7)	15,5%	(12)	26,6%

Twenty-six of the respondents received their training before 1980. Only 12 (26,7%) of the respondents received their training after 1986, when the new ESL syllabus was implemented. It can therefore be assumed that 73,3% of the teachers were not formally acquainted with the Communicative Approach when it was implemented in 1986. This finding is borne out by the responses tabled in Table 8.5 (Specialised course in ESL teaching) In-service training has not been taken into account.

8.1.3 *Tertiary qualifications in English*

The teachers in the sample region are well qualified academically, with the majority (71,1%) having majored in English. The lowest qualification (one respondent) is English I (2,2%).

Table 8.3 Tertiary qualification of respondents (cases in brackets)

	ENG I	ENG II	ENG III	POST GRAD
PRE 1986	(1) 3,0%	(6) 18,2%	(24) 72,7%	(2) 6,11%
POST 1986	(0)	(4) 33,3%	(8) 66,7%	0
TOTAL	(1) 2,2%	(10) 22,2%	(32) 71,1%	(2) 4,5%

Since English II demands a relatively high level of proficiency in comprehension and writing skills, the assumption can be made that the teachers with an English II qualification are adequately qualified linguistically for their teaching task.

8.1.4 *Years of experience in teaching ESL in completed years*

Nearly half (22,2% + 22,2% = 44,4%) of the total group of respondents had 6-15 years' experience of teaching ESL, 26,7% had more than 15 years of experience and 28,9% had up to 5 years of experience. On the whole, the teachers in the sample are relatively young but experienced.

Table 8.4 Experience in teaching ESL (cases in brackets)

	0-2	3-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21 +
PRE 1986	(1) 3,0%	(4) 12,1%	(6) 18,2%	(10) 30,3%	(5) 15,2%	(7) 21,2%
POST 1986	(5) 41,7%	(3) 25,0%	(4) 33,3%	0	0	0
TOTAL	(6) 13,3%	(7) 15,6%	(10) 22,2%	(10) 22,2%	(5) 11,1%	(7) 15,6%

An unexpected finding was that five of the twelve post-1986 respondents (41,7%) had only 0 to 2 years of teaching experience.

8.1.5 Professional Training

Did you do a specialised course in ESL teaching as part of your training?

During the interviews it was discovered that not all respondents were sure whether or not a module on ESL teaching done as part of the English method course in their H.E.D year qualified as a specialised course in ESL teaching.

Just over a third of the pre-1986 group claimed to have done a specialised course in ESL teaching.

Table 8.5 Specialised course in ESL training (cases in brackets)

PRE 1986			POST 1986		
YES	NO	UNCERTAIN	YES	NO	UNCERTAIN
(12) 36,4%	(20) 60,6%	(1) 3,0%	(6) 50,0%	(4) 33,3%	(2) 16,7%

Of the post-1986 respondents with 0 to 2 years of teaching experience (see Addendum B. 8.1.4a), three of the five claimed that they had done a specialised course in ESL, while two were uncertain. One with 3 to 5 years of teaching experience responded positively and the other two in the same category responded negatively. In the 6 to 10 years category two responded positively and two negatively.

As information was not elicited on the exact content of such

courses, the responses to this question must be taken at face value.

8.1.6 *Do you believe that the training you received enables you to teach English as a second language communicatively?*

In answering this question, more than half (53,3%) of the total group of respondents claimed that their training had not helped them to teach communicatively. This is not unexpected because most of the respondents (73,3%) received their formal training before 1980, when teachers in South Africa began to become personally acquainted with the Communicative Approach.

Table 8.6 Adequacy of training (cases in brackets)

	YES		NO		UNCERTAIN	
PRE 1986	(8)	24,2%	(21)	63,6%	(4)	12,2%
POST 1986	(5)	41,7%	(3)	25,0%	(4)	33,3%
TOTAL	(13)	28,9%	(24)	53,3%	(8)	17,8%

The 33,3% of post-1986 respondents who were uncertain might have doubts about the training they received. A second possibility is that they were uncertain about the demands of Communicative Language Teaching. The interviews conducted established the latter possibility and one (pre-1986) even said that "he didn't have a clue" about CLT.

A point worth mentioning is that of the total group, only five (38,5%) of the thirteen respondents who reacted positively to the question claimed that they had completed a specialised course in ESL teaching (see 8.5) of these, three received their training after 1986. The rest (71,5%) must have gained their knowledge about CLT from either in-service training or self study.

For the post-1986 group the following emerges: one of the five respondents who had 0 to 2 years of teaching experience claimed that his/her training had not helped him/her to teach

communicatively. Two of the four in the 6 to 10 years of teaching category responded in a similar fashion.

Those who were "uncertain" included two with 0 to 2 years of teaching experience and two with 6 to 10 years of experience.

The five who responded positively were two who had 0 to 2 years of teaching experience, and three who had 3 to 5 years of teaching experience.

In spite of receiving their training after 1986, then, seven of the twelve respondents had reservations about the training they had received. This may indicate that the training institutions do not provide sufficient guidance concerning CLT.

8.1.7 *Content of teacher training course in ESL.*

If you had a choice between the following courses for the teaching of English as a second language, which one would you choose?

Respondents were asked to indicate their preferences regarding ESL course content. They could also supply reasons for their choice in the open-ended part of the question.

Table 8.7 Content considered important in ESL course (cases in brackets)

	1	2	3	4	5
PRE 1986	(2) 6,1%	(9) 27,2%	(2) 6,1%	(19) 57,5%	(2) 6,1%
POST 1986	0	(1) 8,3%	0	(11) 91,7%	(1) 8,3%
TOTAL	(2) 4,3%	(10) 21,7%	(2) 4,3%	(30) 65,2%	(3) 6,5%

1. A study of English literature
2. A specialisation course
in the teaching of ESL

3. A course in language study
4. A mixture of the three
5. Another course

Three respondents (12,0%) chose two options, therefore, the total number of responses is 47, not 45.

Of the forty-five respondents, twenty-six supplied justification for their choice. One chose option 1 (*English literature*) because he or she was interested in literature. Three elaborated on option 2 (*specialisation course in ESL*). Their answers ranged from "being able to concentrate on practical issues", to "It is imperative to specialize in any language teaching", and "any help to improve the pupils' knowledge of English is welcomed."

Two opted for option 3 (*language study*). One explained that no course in proper communicative teaching of grammar had been provided and the other mentioned that there could be no effective communication without proper grammatical usage. There were twenty (ten pre 1986) endorsements for option 4 (*a mixture of the three*). Of these, twelve indicated that it is important that a balanced approach be followed, therefore, knowledge of all three aspects was important. Three welcomed new ideas and one was critical of the fact that at the university he had attended only literature study had been offered. The other four answers related to the type of pupils they taught and to their own abilities as teachers, and gave no new insights.

8.1.8 *Dominant language in the area where you teach*

As Table 8.8 indicates, the dominant language in the areas in which the schools are is Afrikaans (80,0%); which is a pointer to the role that the ESL teachers have to fulfil.

Table 8.8 Dominant language in area (cases in brackets)

	AFR	ENG	BOTH	OTHER
PRE 1986	(26) 78,8%	(3) 9,1%	(4) 12,1%	0
POST 1986	(10) 83,3%	0	(2) 16,7%	0
TOTAL	(36) 86,0%	(3) 6,7%	(6) 13,3%	0

The following four sections (8.1.9 to 8.1.12) address respondents' understanding of theoretical principles underlying CLT.

8.1.9 State briefly what you understand by the term "communicative language teaching" (CLT).

This open-ended question allowed respondents to give their own opinions, and so it gave an indication of whether the respondents understood what CLT entails. As respondents here had the opportunity to explain their understanding of CLT (which goes to the heart of this study), the full text of each answer is given in Addendum 2.8.1.9.(a). The assumption is that post-1986 trainees should be better acquainted with CLT than the pre-1986 group. As before, the summary of the responses reports separately for pre- and post-1986 groups.

One respondent did not answer the question.

In the answers obtained five typical response patterns were observed: The "best response", number 3, was based on principles of the theory of language learning as expressed by Nunan (1988) and Richards and Rodgers (1986) (see 5.4.3).

Table 8.9.1 What respondents understand CLT to comprise (cases in brackets)

	PRE 1986	POST 1986	TOTAL
1. In CLT pupils learn how to use the language	(19) 57,6%	(5) 41,7%	(24) 53,4%
2. In CLT pupils learn how to use the language in every day situations	(9) 27,5%	(5) 41,7%	(14) 31,2%
3. CLT involves "real" language needed for "real" communication	(1) 3,0%	(1) 8,3%	(2) 4,4%
4. In CLT language is picket up/learnt spontaneously	(1) 3,0%	(1) 8,3%	(2) 4,4%
5. CLT involves teaching the children to speak the language	(2) 6,1%	0	(2) 4,4%
6. No response	(1) 3,0%	0	(1) 2,2%
TOTAL	(33)	(12)	(45)

When the pre- and post-1986 respondents are compared, we see that nineteen pre-1986 respondents (57,6%) regard CLT as **teaching pupils how to use the language**. A similar response was received from five of the post-1986 respondents (41,7%). This seems to indicate that the majority of the respondents (53,4%) acknowledge that, in CLT, language must be used. The emphasis on use is in line with CLT theory (see 5.4.5) but the lack of elaboration, suggests that they have a somewhat limited grasp of the approach which suggests a lack of theoretical knowledge of CLT and deprives the Communicative Approach of its depth.

In category 2 (*Pupils must learn how to use the language in every-day situations*), not only the need to use the language is recognized but also that different situations demand different registers of language.

In this category there is a greater discrepancy between the nine pre-1986 respondents (27,3%) and the five post-1986 respondents (41,7%).

The next category (3) (*Real language needed for "real" communication*) was regarded as the response meeting most of the requirements of CLT. However, there were only two respondents, one pre 1986 and one post 1986, who chose this option. The pre-1986 respondent (with 16 to 20 years of teaching experience) had not done a specialised course in ESL teaching and ironically, was under the impression that the training he/she had received, had not enabled him/her to teach communicatively. In contrast, the post-1986 respondent had 3 to 5 years of teaching experience and had undergone a specialised course in ESL teaching and believed that it had enabled him/her to teach English communicatively.

These two respondents will be referred to again in the following three sections (8.1.10, 8.1.11 and 8.1.12)

In category 4 (*Language is picked up/learnt spontaneously*) there was one respondent each for pre 1986 and post 1986. This view is consistent with Krashen's controversial acquisition theory, a view much publicised in South Africa in the middle eighties.

The post-1986 respondent had 6 to 10 years of teaching experience (in other words, this respondent started teaching when the acquisition theory was much in vogue), had not done a specialized course in ESL teaching and did not regard his/her training as having been sufficient for teaching ESL communicatively.

In the fifth category (*Teaching the children to speak the language*) both respondents were pre 1986 and were most probably influenced by the acquisition theory of Krashen, which downplays written production. From this point of view, they could be incorporated with the previous category (*Language is picked up/learnt spontaneously*), giving a total of four (8,8%) respondents who regard CLT as learning language spontaneously. Such a view is a very shallow reflection of CLT. If the respondent who did not comment is added to this total, then five of the respondents (11,0%) have a very limited grasp of what CLT entails.

Furthermore, if the twenty-four respondents (53,4%) who saw CLT as only using the language are added to the above five, then twenty-nine of all the respondents (64,4%) would appear to have a limited theoretical knowledge of CLT. This total includes half (six) of the post-1986 trainees, whom one might have expected to be better acquainted with CLT.

If the principles of the theory of language learning for CLT are taken into consideration, then only two of the principles, (namely, the principle of communication and the task principle) are, in fact, mentioned by the respondents. The third principle, the principle of meaningfulness, is never directly referred to by any of the respondents. Indirectly it might be taken to be referred to by the two respondents who regarded CLT as "real language needed for 'real' communication". That leaves forty-three respondents (85,6%) who never referred to the "negotiation of meaning" as a principle of CLT. This suggests that nearly all the respondents (95,6%) have insufficient theoretical knowledge of what CLT comprises.

Table 8.9.2 The language learning principles respondents opted for
(cases in brackets)

	ACQUISITION	SPEAKING	USE	USE PLUS SITUATION	USE PLUS SITUATION PLUS REAL LANG	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
PRE 1986	(1) 3,0%	(2) 6,1%	(19) 57,6%	(9) 27,3%	(1) 3,0%	(1) 3,0%	(33)
POST 1986	(1) 8,3%	0	(5) 41,7%	(5) 41,7%	(1) 8,3%	0	(12)
TOTAL	(2) 4,4%	(2) 4,4%	(24) 53,3%	(14) 31,1%	(2) 4,4%	(1) 2,2%	(45)

The distribution of responses here confirms the impression gained in 8.1.8 that the majority of respondents have an attenuated understanding of what CLT should comprise: 57,6% of pre-1986 and 41,7% of post-1986 respondents (53,3% of the total group) chose the option "use". This in spite of the fact that options reflecting a truer understanding of CLT were offered to them.

Of the post-1986 group 41% of subjects (an equal number to those who chose the USE option) chose the better option (Use + situation), as opposed to 27,3% of the pre-1986 group. This suggests that, on the whole, the post-1986 group have a better insight into the nature of CLT. The 4% endorsement for the 'best' option is frankly disappointing.

The actual responses of the two respondents in subsection 8.1.9 who seemed to have the soundest grasp of CLT principles were:

PRE 1986: I can recall no theoretical principles.
This is a sensible system. The pupils are given what they need, what they can handle. This is learning through doing, which seems to me the only way.

POST 1986: Practical usage of English.
Effective communication based on real situations.

8.1.10. Do you feel confident about what CLT demands of you as a teacher?

This open-ended question (8.1.10) was aimed at determining each respondent's perception of his/her ability to teach

communicatively. In Tables 8.10.2 and 8.10.3 a breakdown is given of pre- and post-1986 responses according to years of teaching experience. Seven respondents (five "Yes" and two "Uncertain") did not substantiate their responses.

Table 8.10.1 Respondents' perception of what CLT demands of teacher (cases in brackets)

	AFFIRMATIVE		NEGATIVE		UNCERTAIN		TOTAL
PRE 1986	(20)	60,6%	(7)	21,2%	(6)	18,2%	(33)
POST 1986	(6)	50,0%	(1)	8,3%	(5)	41,7%	(12)
TOTAL	(26)	57,8%	(8)	17,8%	(11)	24,4%	(45)

The Affirmative Answers

Table 8.10.1 indicates that the majority of respondents (26 of the 45, i.e. 57,8%) expressed confidence in their ability to "meet the demands of CLT." However, on closer inspection, the confident "yes" did not seem so convincing. Most of the explanations provided by the respondents were vague and did not relate to the demands of CLT. Instead, respondents would comment on their teaching methods. A summary of the answers of the pre-1986 respondents who answered "yes" is given first, then the uncertain group is reported on.

Pre 1986

Four said that they had always taught "like that", while two mentioned that they had enough teaching experience and knew where the problems lay. One claimed to have studied the principles of CLT, and another two suggested, respectively, that their in-service training and guidance given by the inspector was sufficient. Five referred to their pupils' being able to use the language for communication. One respondent remarked that CLT was based on what was good in the previous methods. Three respondents had vague answers not related to the question. Two did not substantiate their answers.

These answers do not support the teachers' claim that they are clear on what CLT demands of them as teachers.

Post 1986

Of the twelve post-1986 respondents, six (that is, 50%), replied in the affirmative (years of teaching experience 0-2=1, 3-5=3, 6-10=2). Three gave no reason for their answer. One of these three answered only one of the ten open-ended questions (teaching experience 0 to 2 years) and a second one answered three of the open-ended questions. This might be indicative of these respondents' reluctance to complete the questionnaire, or that it was done in great haste. These possibilities cast doubt on the reliability of their affirmative answers. The third respondent (teaching experience 6-10 years) answered all the other open-ended questions and supplied useful information.

For interest sake, the full answers to this question of the respondent in each group who gave the most satisfactory response to the previous question (8.1.9 *State briefly what you understand by the term CLT*) are given below.

PRE 1986 It is doing what comes naturally. Set the ball rolling, kick it into play now and again and blow the whistle when things get out of hand. Easy.

POST 1986 Working with realistic needs of pupils now and for the future. I have superiors that give excellent guidance.

The Uncertain Group

Pre 1986

Six of the pre-1986 respondents (18,2%) were uncertain about the demands of CLT. Two did not give reasons. Two mentioned that they had not received training in CLT (One had completed formal training in 1970-1979, and the other in 1980-1985). The last two had their doubts about the approach and did not know exactly what was expected of them.

Post 1986

Five of the post-1986 respondents (41,7%) were uncertain (0-2 years of teaching experience = 3, 3-5 years of teaching experience = 1, 6-10 years of teaching experience = 1).

One (0-2 years of teaching experience) mentioned that he/she had never received formal training in CLT; another asserted that the syllabus should provide exact specifications. Three respondents mentioned that a formal examination still had to be written at the end of the year, implying that the examination is not "communicative".

The Negative Answers**Pre 1986**

Seven pre-1986 respondents (21,2%) said they did not know what CLT demanded of them. Their answers, with case number in square brackets, are supplied below:

- [13] I cannot see how I am to teach / encourage pupils to communicate if I am not allowed to teach them effective communication, i.e correct use of language.
- [15] No time to compile suitable exercises (Textbooks do not suffice and are outdated, test language too formally)
- [19] No training received - not enough information on teaching language aspect.
- [24] Too few teachers really concentrate on oral communication - must still rely on outdated text books - This uncertainty is fed through to the pupils. We as teachers just do not know what to really teach. The demands are too vague.
- [36] The absence of any structural prescriptions. How to guide inexperienced teachers.
- [42] Insufficient guidance / training.
- [44] Had very little training.

Table 8.10.2 Confidence felt by pre-1986 respondents regarding the demands of teaching COMMUNICATIVELY

YEARS TEACHING EXPERIENCE	YES	NO	UNCERTAIN	TOTAL
0-2 YEARS	1	0	0	1
3-5 YEARS	1	0	3	4
6-10 YEARS	3	2	1	6
11-15 YEARS	7	1	2	10
16-20 YEARS	2	3	0	5
21+	6	1	0	7
TOTAL	20 (60,6%)	7 (21,2%)	6 (18,2%)	33

Post 1986

One of the post-1986 respondents who replied to the question in the negative, mentioned that he/she knew the principles but still had difficulty in applying them (teaching experience: 6 to 10 years). A summary of the post-1986 respondents' answers is supplied in Table 8.10.3.

Table 8.10.3 Confidence felt by post-1986 respondents regarding the demands of teaching COMMUNICATIVELY

YEARS TEACHING EXPERIENCE	YES	NO	UNCERTAIN	TOTAL
0-2 YEARS	1	1	3	5
3-5 YEARS	3	0	0	3
6-10 YEARS	2	0	2	4
TOTAL	6	1	5	12

Overall, then, at least half (5 Uncertain + 1 No=6) of the post-1986 respondents were still uncertain of what CLT demanded of them. In addition to this, the unconvincing "YES" responses (3 respondents giving no substantiation) should also be taken note of, and suggests that the training of the post-1986 group had been inadequate.

8.1.11 To your way of thinking, what theoretical principles underlie CLT?

In order to analyze these open-ended responses to this question, the theoretical principles of the respondents were weighed against those supplied by Richards and Rodgers (1986).

1. Language is a system for the expression of **meaning**.
2. The primary function of language is **interaction and communication**.
3. The structure of language reflects its **functional and communicative uses**
4. The primary **units of language** are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but **categories of functional and communicative meaning** as exemplified in discourse (Richards and Rodgers 1986:71) [My emphasis].

Five post-1986 respondents and nine pre-1986 respondents - a total of fourteen respondents (31,1%) - did not answer the question.

Table 8.11 Summary of responses reflecting theoretical principles that underlie CLT (cases in brackets)

	No reponse	Irrelevant	part of principle	one principle	two principles	TOTAL
PRE 1986	(9) 27,3%	(7) 21,2%	(16) 48,5%	(1) 3,0%	0	33
POST 1986	(5) 41,7%	(2) 16,7%	(2) 16,7%	(2) 16,7%	(1) 8,3%	12
TOTAL	(14) 31,1%	(9) 20,0%	(18) 40,0 %	(3) 6,7%	(1) 2,2%	45

part of principle (e.g. communication) one principle (e.g communication and situation) two principles (e.g. communication and real situation)

Pre-1986 Responses

In this group, four respondents (12,1%) gave completely irrelevant answers, e.g. "Theory has never been my strong point", "Four basics - speaking, listening, writing, (reading)". "Differences between language learning and acquisition. The fact

that a second language is learnt differently", and "'English' is an international language. Many use it as a second language".

One respondent (3,0%) regarded the theoretical principles as being "natural language acquisition".

Two respondents (6,1%) regarded linguistic structures as a theoretical principle underlying CLT but did not recognise them as being supportive of the functional and communicative aspects of language: "Knowledge of register/sentence construction/basic knowledge of tenses etc.", "I would say the same old ones as with formal language (grammar) teaching".

Sixteen respondents (48,5%) referred to "communication" as being a theoretical principle underlying CLT and one respondent (3,0%) recognized "communication" and "interaction" as underlying principles of CLT.

Post-1986 Responses

Two respondents in the 0 to 2 years teaching experience category (16,7%) supplied an answer. One recognized communication, massive input, a holistic process and integrated teaching as the underlying principles. The other regarded the integration of the syllabus as the theoretical principles.

The three respondents (25,0%) with 3 to 5 years of teaching experience supplied the following answers: "grammar structures", "practical usage of English. Effective Communication based on real situations", "Working from basis of basic language teaching (structure, concord, etc.) applying language to specific situations pupils might find themselves in".

In the 6 to 10 years' teaching experience category two respondents (16,7%) supplied answers:

That English must be taught in a way that's relevant to everyday situations; that the language be used to express oneself.

Oral communication paramount, pupil participation and enjoyment through role play...Pupils must discover the language instead of being taught the language.

When the responses of the pre-1986 group are examined, sixteen respondents (27,3% + 21,2% = 48,5%) gave no response, or gave an irrelevant answer. Another sixteen respondents (48,5%) recognized part of a principle and only one respondent (3,0%) recognized one full principle.

Of the post-1986 group, seven respondents (41,7% + 16,7% = 58,4%) gave no response or an irrelevant answer, which is nearly 10% more than the pre-1986 group. Five respondents (41,7%) recognized part of a principle or more, which is nearly 10% less than the pre-1986 group. However, one respondent recognized two principles, while in the pre-1986 group there was no respondent who recognized two principles.

Total Group

To sum up, overall, twenty-three respondents (51,1%) gave no response or gave irrelevant answers. Eighteen respondents (40%) recognized only part of a principle and only four respondents (8,9%) recognized either one or two principles.

From these responses it seems that there is not much understanding of what CLT really is.

8.1.12 State briefly what you think the essential elements within a communicative teaching situation are.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) list a number of requirements that are essential for the success of a communicative teaching situation. They maintain that classroom exercises should:

- (1) enable learners to attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum (i.e. communicative competence for personal, social, education and occupational purposes. (see Chapter 6).
- (2) engage learners in communication
- (3) require the use of such communicative processes as
 - (a) information-sharing
 - (b) negotiation of meaning
 - (c) interaction (Richard and Rodgers 1986:76).

These requirements were used as a guide to examine the responses of the teachers (see also Harmer (1982:166) and Savignon (1991:262)).

For the purpose of entering these responses on the summary tables (8.13) and also (8.46.1) and (8.46.2) respondents were awarded a point depending on the number of principles he/she mentioned in his/her answer. For instance: "communication" = 1, an "opinion/information gap" = 2, and if "meaning" is added to the first two then the respondent was awarded 3 points.

Table 8.12 Elements within a communicative teaching situation reflecting understanding of CLT (cases in brackets)

	NO RESPONSE		IRRELEVANT		COMMUNICATION		COMMUNICATION PLUS GAP		MEANING	TOTAL
PRE 1986	(2)	6,1%	(14)	42,4%	(16)	48,5%	(1)	3,0%	0	(33)
POST 1986	(1)	8,3%	(3)	25,0%	(8)	66,7%	0		0	(12)
TOTAL	(3)	6,7%	(17)	37,8%	(24)	53,3%	(1)	2,2%	0	(45)

There were three respondents, including one post-1986, who did not answer this open-ended question. Seventeen respondents, three of whom were post 1986, gave irrelevant answers.

In total, twenty-four respondents (53,3%) mentioned that learners should be engaged in communication. Here 66,7% of the post-1986 respondents recognized communication as one of the essential elements, compared to the 48,5% of the pre-1986 respondents. One respondent of the pre-1986 group mentioned the communication gap

in addition to communication as an essential element.

The fact that many of the respondents (44,5%) either had not answered the question (6,7%), or had given irrelevant answers (37,8%) seems to suggest that teachers are not familiar with the essential elements of a communicative teaching/learning situation. Furthermore, twenty-four of the respondents (53,3%) recognized only one of the elements. This is similar to the finding in the previous questions (8.1.11 *What theoretical principles underlie CLT?* and 8.1.9 *What you understand by the term CLT*), where only "communication" was recognized by the respondents.

A number of respondents recognized a relaxed atmosphere as an essential element of a communicative teaching/learning situation.

It is interesting to note that six respondents (50,0%) of the post-1986 group recognized a relaxed atmosphere as an essential element of CLT and eight (24,2%) of the pre-1986 group regarded a relaxed atmosphere as an essential element. (In truth, a relaxed atmosphere is conducive to all teaching/learning situations and cannot be restricted to the communicative approach only).

The responses here of the two respondents with the most satisfactory answers to question 8.1.9 (*What you understand by the term CLT?*) were:

Pre 1986: A happy and relaxed atmosphere. A variety of activities. Interesting activities geared to pupils' needs and lives. A teacher who has moved to the back of the classroom from which he emerges only as needed. NOT a lecturer.

Post 1986: Oral communication (as much as possible) written communication. Effective listening and comprehension training. Above-mentioned practised in realistic situations and exercises.

Despite these two respondents having given the best responses for question 8.1.9 (*What you understand by the term CLT*), their responses reflect certain deficiencies here. They mention

certain activities but do not address the processes (negotiation of meaning, etc.) which should underlie these activities.

On the strength of these two individual cases, as well as the previous responses to questions 8.1.9, 8.1.11, 8.1.12, it seems doubtful whether the teachers involved in the study are fully familiar with the requirements of the communication process. They seem to know that there should be communication, **but they do not have a sophisticated understanding of communication.**

These results further reflect a limited view of the functions of language and seem to indicate that no provision is made for the textual function of language (see Chapter 3). This deficiency would result in teachers merely giving pupils activities to do in class. When "activities" are seen as synonymous with the Communicative Approach, the approach becomes shallow.

The answers of the respondents to questions 8.1.9 (*What you understand by the term CLT*), 8.1.11 (*What theoretical principles underlie CLT?*) and 8.1.12 (*The essential elements within a communicative teaching situation*) were allocated a weighting. A maximum weighting of 3 was allocated to questions 8.1.9 and 8.1.12 respectively while question 8.1.11 had a maximum of 4 giving a total of 10 for all three. The weighted responses of each respondent was added and a total out of 10 was allocated. This individual total was then regarded as a reflection of each respondent's theoretical knowledge of CLT. A summary of these responses is supplied in Table 8.13.

Table 8.13 Summary of weighted responses concerning theory of CLT (questions 8.1.9 to 8.1.12) (cases in brackets)

QUESTIONS	8.1.9		8.1.11		8.1.12		TOTAL	
Maximum weighting	3		4		3		10 %	
Pre 1986	42½	42,9%	9	6,8%	18	18,2%	2,1	21,1%
Post 1986	18½	51,4%	5	10,4%	8	22,2%	2,6	26,3%
TOTAL	61/135	45,2%	14/180	7,8%	26/135	19,3%	2,2	22,4%

Two respondents of the post-1986 group scored six and four points respectively. In the pre-1986 group there is only one respondent that scores more than four out of a maximum of ten. Here again, the post-1986 group seems to be more knowledgeable about CLT.

In a comparison between the pre-1986 and post-1986 groups, the post-1986 group has a slightly higher average, overall, than the pre-1986 group (26,3% as opposed to 21,1%). The post-1986 group also has higher averages for each of questions 8.1.9, 8.1.11 and 8.1.12, but the differences between the averages are small, the greatest difference being 8,5% for question 8.1.9, where the pre-1986 group had 42,9% compared to the 51,4% of the post-1986 group.

However, in spite of the higher averages for the post-1986 group for questions 8.1.9, 8.1.11 and 8.1.12, the pattern is not repeated in question 8.1.10 (*Confidence about CLT demands*). Here twenty of the pre-1986 respondents (60,6%) were confident of what CLT demanded of them. In contrast, only six respondents (50,0%) of the post-1986 group were confident about CLT. This seems to indicate that the pre-1986 group on the whole had a limited knowledge of what CLT entails and that, for the very reason that the post-1986 group were more knowledgeable about CLT, 50% of the respondents were not confident that they would satisfy the demands of CLT.

8.1.13 CONCLUSION REGARDING SECTIONS 8.1.9 TO 8.1.12

It would seem that CLT is applied only piecemeal.

The answers received from the respondents to questions 8.1.9, 8.1.11 and 8.1.12 reveal certain deficiencies regarding respondents' theoretical background knowledge on CLT. These deficiencies have far-reaching implications. If the respondents are doubtful of what is involved in the communication process, it means that they are also not aux fait with speech acts, conversational principles, coherence and other factors that play a role in coherent discourse (see Chapter 3 and 4). If the overall aim of the syllabus is to develop communicative competence, the question remains how this aim can be met if the teachers are ignorant of the fundamental principles that constitute communication.

The next part of the questionnaire is directed at the actual practical teaching in the classroom and supplies a fuller picture of the situation.

8.2 TEACHING APPROACH

INTRODUCTION

This section of the questionnaire aims at determining whether the respondents applied a communicative approach in their actual teaching. The questions are more directly related to the practical aspects of the teaching of ESL whereas the last few questions of the previous section were more theoretically orientated.

The questions are also set differently and pre-coded answers were supplied. Approximate percentages were allocated to guide the respondents in their choice of answer. Answers range from "always" (95% - 100%), "usually" (67% - 94%), "often" (33% - 66%), "occasionally" (0%-32%) to "never" (0%). The percentages allocated to the different terms were delimited so that there would be as little doubt as possible in the teachers' minds as to which responses to choose. The options "never" and "always" have a narrow margin from which to choose while the rest have a range of approximately 30%. It was reasoned that the end terms on either side of the continuum were such absolutes that their range was confined to a minimum. "Often" was considered as indecisive for certain questions (except 8.2.9) and was not considered as indicative of much support.

REPORT ON THE ACTUAL QUESTIONS SET

8.2.1 Do you assess the specific needs of your pupils by means of a diagnostic procedure at the beginning of the year before you do your planning?

Interestingly, in this question there was a more or less even spread, with all the categories receiving nearly the same percentage of responses. However, the post-1986 respondents predominantly did not assess needs at the beginning of the year.

Table 8.14 The degree to which respondents assess specific needs of pupils (number of cases in brackets)

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never	Total
PRE 1986	(4) 12,1%	(9) 27,3%	(8) 24,2%	(5) 15,2%	(7) 21,1%	(33) 100%
POST 1986	(2) 16,8%	(1) 8,3%	(1) 8,3%	(4) 33,3%	(4) 33,3%	(12) 100%
TOTAL	(6) 13,3%	(10) 22,2%	(9) 20,0%	(9) 20,0%	(11) 24,5%	(45) 100%

In Chapter 5 it is argued that the communicative needs of the learners should be addressed. In the study, 24,5% of respondents said that they "never" assess needs and 20,0% "occasionally" do. It seems that a total of 44,5% of the respondents do not attach much weight to establishing precisely the needs of their learners. However, the question referred only to a deliberate formal diagnostic procedure. It is possible that respondents could have acquainted themselves with their pupils' needs in other ways, e.g. making mental or written notes of an individual's performance during class activities.

Of concern is that the control group (see 7.3.4) interpreted the needs as referring to grammatical needs only, i.e. they would determine whether their pupils needed guidance with concord, tenses, etc. There is no way of determining at this stage to what degree this applies to the research sample.

8.2.2 *Before planning the year's work as outlined by the syllabus, do you discuss the work with other colleagues teaching English to develop a co-ordinated approach to the aims of the syllabus?*

Most respondents (80,0%) "always" or "usually" consult with colleagues to achieve the aims of the syllabus. However, some respondents in smaller schools do not have English colleagues teaching in the same school. This possibly explains the 6,7% who "never" discuss the aims with a colleague.

Table 8.15 The degree to which colleagues develop a co-ordinated approach to the aims of the syllabus (number of cases in brackets)

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never	Total
PRE 1986	(15) 45,5%	(11) 33,3%	(2) 6,1%	(4) 12,2%	(1) 3,0%	(33) 100%
POST 1986	(5) 41,7%	(5) 41,7%	0	0	(2) 16,6%	(12) 100%
TOTAL	(20) 44,4%	(16) 35,6%	(2) 4,4%	(4) 8,9%	(3) 6,7%	(45) 100%

The purpose of the question was to determine whether teachers work together as a team in the bigger schools. Their approach to teaching should then be conceivably similar. Unfortunately this was difficult to determine from the pre-coded answers, and, with hindsight, an open-ended question would have been more appropriate.

8.2.3 *Do you consider the terminology and aims of the syllabus to be straightforward and self-explanatory and therefore in no need of clarification?*

It seems that the terminology and aims of the syllabus cannot be considered to be stumbling blocks in the implementation of the syllabus since nearly 66,7% of the respondents claimed to have little or no difficulty with the terminology and aims of the syllabus.

Table 8.16 The degree to which the terminology and aims of the syllabus are seen as straightforward (number of cases in brackets).

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never	total
PRE 1986	(2) 6,0%	(21) 63,6%	(8) 24,3%	(2) 6,1%	0	(33) 100%
POST 1986	(3) 25,0%	(4) 33,3%	(4) 33,3%	(1) 8,4%	0	(12) 100%
TOTAL	(5) 11,1%	(25) 55,6%	(12) 26,7%	(3) 6,1%	0	(45) 100%

The next questions refer to the role of the syllabus.

8.2.4 *Do you refer to the syllabus to*

1. *determine whether you have covered every aspect of it?*
2. *determine whether you are achieving the global aims of the syllabus?*
3. *compile a record book?*
4. *determine to what extent the textbook meets the requirements?*
5. *plan your year's work?*

The aim of this question was to determine what role the syllabus plays in the teaching of ESL. Respondents were requested to indicate, for each of the categories given, to what degree it reflected their own practice. It was assumed that the selection respondents made for the different categories would indicate the role of the syllabus. Two respondents of the pre-1986 group did not answer questions 2 to 5 hence the totals of 33 and 32 (see Table 8.17). The results of pre-1986 and post-1986 respondents are presented separately.

Table 8.17.1 The degree to which respondents refer to the syllabus concerning: (1) aspects covered (2) global aims (3) content of record book (4) textbook requirements (5) plan of year's work (number of cases in brackets)

Pre-1986 Respondents

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never	Total
1	(18) 54,5%	(10) 30,3%	(0)	(5) 15,2%	(0) 0%	(33) 100%
2	(11) 34,4%	(9) 28,1%	(7) 21,9%	(5) 15,6%	(0)	(32) 100%
3	(22) 68,8%	(5) 15,6%	(0) 0%	(3) 9,4%	(2) 6,2%	(32) 100%
4	(11) 34,4%	(8) 25,0%	(6) 18,8%	(5) 15,6%	(2) 6,2%	(32) 100%
5	(23) 74,2%	(5) 16,1%	(2) 3,2%	(2) 6,5%	(0)	(32) 100%

Table 8.17.2 The degree to which respondents refer to the syllabus concerning: (1) aspects covered (2) global aims (3) content of record book (4) textbook requirements (5) plan of year's work (number of cases in brackets)

Post-1986 Respondents

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never	Total
1	(4) 33,3%	(5) 41,7%	(1) 8,3%	(2) 16,7%	(0) 0%	(12) 100%
2	(4) 33,4%	(6) 50,0%	(1) 8,3%	(0) 0%	(1) 8,3%	(12) 100%
3	(8) 66,6%	(2) 16,7%	(0) 0%	(0) 0%	(2) 16,7%	(12) 100%
4	(3) 25,0%	(3) 25,0%	(4) 33,4%	(1) 8,3%	(1) 8,3%	(12) 100%
5	(8) 66,7%	(3) 25,0%	(0)	(0) 0%	(1) 8,3%	(12) 100%

The results of both groups reflected in the column "always" (i.e. for those who claim "always" to consult the syllabus) are examined first.

It appears that teachers refer to the syllabus (in descending order): to

1.	Plan year's work	72,1%
2.	compile a record book	68,2%
3.	determine whether every aspect has been covered	48,9%
4.	check if global aims are achieved	34,1%
5.	check if the textbook meets the requirements of the syllabus	31,8%

It would appear that teachers frequently refer to the syllabus, but use it mainly to plan work and compile a record book. It must be borne in mind that, in the schools involved in this study, each teacher is expected to provide detailed planning for the year. Only 48,9% of respondents refer to the syllabus to determine whether every aspect has been covered and even fewer respondents check global aims and textbook requirements. If the planning and record book variables are disregarded, the syllabus is referred to less often.

However, when the respondents who "usually" refer to the syllabus are added, this trend is not sustained.

Table 8.18 Percentages of respondents who "always" and "usually" refer to the syllabus

		ALWAYS	USUALLY	TOTAL
1.	plan year's work	72,1%	18,6%	90,7%
2.	compile a record book	68,2%	15,9%	84,1%
3.	determine whether every aspect has been covered	48,9%	33,3%	82,2%
4.	check if global aims are achieved	34,1%	34,1%	68,2%
5.	check if the textbook meets the requirements of the syllabus	31,8%	25,0%	56,8%

As Table 8.18 shows, when the "always" and "usually" responses are taken together, the syllabus is, in fact, referred to often by the respondents and not only to compile a record book or plan the year's work.

The category 3 results ("*determine aspects which have been covered*"), raise the possibility that many respondents (82,2%) regard the syllabus as a list of different activities to be covered. This is reminiscent of the structural approach, in which the syllabus lists certain structures that have to be mastered. This suggests that 82,2% of respondents may have missed the thrust of CLT. Widdowson (1991, cited in Chapter 4 and 5) warns that the syllabus is "not a set of instructions for learner activity". The 1986 ESL HG SYLLABUS (CED) discourages itemization by not giving a complete list of activities on which pupils will be tested; it supplies only some activities as guide to the teacher.

The fact that 75% of the post-1986 group, who would know only the 1986 ESL HG syllabus, indicate that they "always" or "usually" refer to the syllabus to determine whether they have covered every aspect, but that 83% of them use it to check on global aims, suggests that the 1986 syllabus encourages a more meaningful use of the syllabus.

8.2.5 *Do the aims of the syllabus coincide with your own personal aims for teaching ESL?*

One respondent did not complete questions 2.5 to 2.14 of the questionnaire, hence the total of 44.

Table 8.19 indicates that 13,6% of respondents' aims "always" coincide with those of the syllabus, and 56,8% "usually" giving a total of 70,4%. This tendency is reflected in both the pre- and the post-1986 respondents' results, with the totals for the pre-1986 group (71,9%) (perhaps surprisingly) higher than for the post-1986 group (66,7%).

Table 8.19 Degree to which aims of the syllabus coincide with personal aims for teaching ESL (number of cases in brackets)

	always		usually		often		occasionally		never	Total	
PRE 1986	(4)	12,5%	(19)	59,4%	(7)	21,9%	(2)	6,2%	0	(32)	100%
POST 1986	(2)	16,7%	(6)	50,0%	(1)	8,3%	(3)	25,0%	0	(12)	100%
TOTAL	(6)	13,6%	(25)	56,8%	(8)	18,2%	(5)	11,4%	0	(44)	100%

8.2.6 *In your teaching, do you intervene e.g. when a pupil is doing oral and makes an error, do you correct him?*

This question aimed at determining how teachers view their role. The fact that eight respondents (18,2%) claimed "never" to intervene is difficult to interpret. This suggests either teacher-independent classes or a misinterpretation of the question. Seven of the eight fall in the pre-1986 group. Of the post-1986 group, 66,7% admit to "occasionally" intervening.

Table 8.20 The degree to which teachers intervene when errors are noticed (number of cases in brackets)

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never	Total
PRE 1986	0	(3) 9,4%	(3) 9,4%	(19) 59,4%	(7) 21,8%	(32) 100%
POST 1986	0	(2) 16,7%	(1) 8,3%	(8) 66,7%	(1) 8,3%	(12) 100%
TOTAL	0	(5) 11,3%	(4) 9,1%	(27) 61,4%	(8) 18,2%	(44) 100%

8.2.7 *Do you teach the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) separately?*

It seems that the majority of respondents integrate their teaching, or claim to do so. However, 25% of each of the groups claim never to teach the language skills separately. This notion of never focusing on a language skill is highly improbable. This suggests that the demands made by the writing, reading, listening or speaking skills are not understood by these respondents. The

insights gained in Discourse Analysis (Chapter 4) and the consequent models of language teaching of Stubbs (1986) and Widdowson (1979) (Chapter 3) make it imperative that at least occasionally the language skills be taught separately.

Table 8.21 The degree to which the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) are taught separately (number of cases in brackets)

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never	Total
PRE 1986	(1) 3,1%	(2) 6,3%	(2) 6,3%	(19) 59,4%	(8) 25,0%	(32) 100%
POST 1986	(0)	(1) 8,3%	(0)	(8) 66,7%	(3) 25,0%	(12) 100%
TOTAL	(1) 2,3%	(3) 6,8%	(2) 4,5%	(27) 61,4%	(11) 25,0%	(44) 100%

8.2.8 Do you teach the different sections of the syllabus (oral work, grammar, literature, etc) separately?

Teaching different sections of the syllabus separately is apparently done "often" (29,5%) and "occasionally" (43,2%), – as compared to the "occasionally" (61,4%) and "never" (25,0%) indicated for teaching language skills separately (see Table 8.21).

Table 8.22 The degree to which different sections of the syllabus (oral work, grammar, literature) are taught separately (number of cases in brackets)

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never	Total
PRE 1986	(3) 9,4%	0	(11) 34,3%	(14) 43,8%	(4) 12,5%	(32) 100%
POST 1986	0	(2) 16,7%	(2) 16,7%	(5) 41,6%	(3) 25,0%	(12) 100%
TOTAL	(3) 6,8%	(2) 4,6%	(13) 29,5%	(19) 43,2%	(7) 15,9%	(44) 100%

This shift, towards teaching different sections of the syllabus separately, is more pronounced in the pre-1986 group (78,1%) than in the post-1986 group (58,3%). The reason might be the more familiar terms (oral, grammar, etc.) used in the wording of the question, for which in the past there were separate periods of teaching (e.g "grammar period", instead of "speaking", "reading",

etc.). This suggests a tendency to teach different sections of the syllabus separately, especially within the pre-1986 group. However, as in the previous question, the "never" option (15,9%) remains unconvincing.

8.2.9 Which of the roles described do you generally play when teaching ESL?

Respondents were asked to indicate, for each of the categories to what degree they functioned as "knower", "onlooker" and "partner". One respondent was discounted because (s)he chose only one of the three options.

Taken as a whole, the "partner" role would seem to be most favoured in the "usually" category 32,0%. The majority of the respondents seemed to favour the "often" category as "knowers" (48,8%) and as "onlookers" (58,1%).

Table 8.23 Teachers' role in the ESL classroom: "knower"/ "onlooker"/ and "partner" (cases in brackets)

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never
PRE 1986					
Knower	(1) 3,2%	(4) 12,9%	(17) 54,8%	(9) 29,1%	0
Onlooker	(1) 3,2%	(3) 9,7%	(21) 67,7%	(6) 19,4%	0
Partner	(2) 6,3%	(9) 28,1%	(11) 34,3%	(8) 25,0%	(2) 6,3%
POST 1986					
Knower	0	(3) 25,0%	(4) 33,3%	(5) 41,7%	0
Onlooker	0	(3) 25,0%	(4) 33,3%	(5) 41,7%	0
Partner	0	(5) 41,7%	(2) 16,6%	(5) 41,7%	0
TOTAL					
Knower	(1) 2,3%	(7) 16,3%	(21) 48,8%	(14) 32,6%	0
Onlooker	(1) 2,3%	(6) 13,9%	(25) 58,1%	(11) 25,7%	0
Partner	(2) 4,5%	(14) 32,0%	(13) 29,5%	(13) 29,5%	(2) 4,5%

If the twenty-one respondents who often taught as "knowers", are examined to see to what extent they saw themselves as "partners", the following results are obtained: "always" (1), "usually" (4),

"often" (9), "occasionally" (6), "never" (1). The majority therefore fall in the "often" category. Seven of the original twenty-one respondents are "often knowers, onlookers and partners".

In the questions that follow (8.2.10 to 8.2.13), the theory that fluency precedes accuracy was tested. I wished to determine whether teachers encourage fluency in the lower standards and then emphasize accuracy in the higher standards.

8.2.10 *In standards 6 and 7, do you attach much weight to accuracy (correctness of expression and grammar)?*

One respondent did not answer questions 8.2.10 and 8.2.11, hence the total of 43.

Pre-1986 respondents tended to place slightly more emphasis on accuracy: 38,7% (12,9% "always" + 25,8% "usually") compared to 33,4% (8,4% "always" + 25,0% "usually") of the post-1986 group. See also the results of 8.3.2 (*time spent teaching grammar*).

Table 8.24 The degree of focus on accuracy and fluency in standards 6 and 7 (number of cases in brackets)

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never	TOTAL
PRE 1986 accuracy	(4) 12,9%	(8) 25,8%	(10) 32,2%	(9) 29,0%	0	(31) 100%
fluency	(6) 19,4%	(18) 58,1%	(6) 19,4%	0	(1) 3,1%	(31) 100%
POST 1986 accuracy	(1) 8,4%	(3) 25,0%	(4) 33,3%	(4) 33,3%	0	(12) 100%
fluency	(1) 8,4%	(9) 75,0%	(2) 16,6%	0	0	(12) 100%
TOTAL accuracy	(5) 11,6%	(11) 25,6%	(14) 32,6%	(13) 30,2%	0	(43) 100%
TOTAL fluency	(7) 16,3%	(27) 62,8%	(8) 18,6%	0	(1) 2,3%	(43) 100%

8.2.11 In standards 6 and 7, do you attach great weight to fluency (ability to get the message across)?

Table 8.24 shows that, on the whole, more respondents tended to emphasize fluency. Pre-1986 respondents tended to place slightly less emphasis on fluency: 77,5% (19,4% "always" + 58,1% "usually") compared to 83,4% (8,4% "always" + 75,0% "usually") of the post-1986 group. In total, 79,1% of the respondents "always" or "usually" emphasized fluency, as compared to 37,2% who "always" or "usually" emphasized accuracy in Standard 6 and 7.

8.2.12 In standard 8, 9 and 10, do you attach great weight to accuracy (correctness of expression and grammar)?

Of the pre-1986 group, 34,4% indicated that they "always" emphasized correctness against 16,7% in the post-1986 group (see Table 8.25). In contrast, 40,6% of the pre-1986 group "usually" emphasized accuracy, compared to the 58,3% of the post-1986 group.

Table 8.25 Degree of focus on accuracy and fluency in std 8, 9 and 10 (number of cases in brackets)

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never	Total
PRE 1986						
accuracy	(11) 34,4%	(13) 40,6%	(8) 25,4%	0	0	(32) 100%
fluency	(19) 59,4%	(11) 34,4%	(2) 6,2%	0	0	(32) 100%
POST 1986						
accuracy	(2) 16,7%	(7) 58,3%	(3) 25,0%	0	0	(12) 100%
fluency	(2) 16,7%	(10) 83,3%	0	0	0	(12) 100%
Total						
accuracy	(13) 29,5%	(20) 45,5%	(4) 25,0%	0	0	(44) 100%
fluency	(21) 47,8%	(21) 47,8%	(2) 4,4%	0	0	(44) 100%

8.2.13 In standard 8,9, and 10, do you attach great weight to fluency (ability to get the message across)?

Table 8.25 shows that the pre-1986 group were more emphatic than the post-1986 group in their emphasis, 59,4% claiming to stress fluency "always".

In the post-1986 group, 83,3% indicated that they "usually" stressed fluency.

Respondents gave more emphasis to fluency in standard 8,9 and 10 than in standard 6 and 7.

In both junior and senior divisions, fluency was emphasized (see Tables 8.24 and 8.25) more than accuracy. If the categories "always" and "usually" only are compared, the following table may be drawn:

Table 8.26 Comparison between fluency and accuracy endorsement, for standards 6 and 7, and standards 8 to 10, for pre- and post-1986 groups

		fluency (always) + (usually)	accuracy (always) + (usually)
PRE 1986	STD. 6, 7	19,4% + 58,1% = 77,5%	12,9% + 25,8% = 38,7%
	STD. 8, 9, 10	59,4% + 34,4% = 93,8%	34,4% + 40,6% = 75,0%
POST 1986	STD. 6, 7	8,4% + 75,0% = 83,4%	8,4% + 25,0% = 33,4%
	STD. 8, 9, 10	16,7% + 83,3% = 100,0%	16,7% + 58,3% = 75,0%
TOTAL GROUP	STD. 6, 7	80,5%	36,1%
TOTAL GROUP	STD. 8, 9, 10	96,9%	75,0%

It is noticeable that the post-1986 respondents place greater emphasis on accuracy and fluency than the pre-1986 respondents, particularly at Junior level, but in Std 8, 9, and 10 they emphasize accuracy as strongly as do the pre-1986 respondents.

This greater weight attached to grammatical correctness at senior

level complies broadly with the aims of the Communicative Approach; initially the message is more important than correctness, but more strict standards are set at Senior level. It should, however, be kept in mind that accuracy does not involve only "correct sentences" but also appropriacy, register, meaningfulness and all the factors that contribute to coherent discourse (See Chapter 3 and Chapter 4).

For the sake of comparison, individual responses regarding accuracy and fluency were studied (see Table 8.26). Some interesting results were obtained.

The standards 6 and 7 figures were examined first (see Addendum 8.2.24(a)). Two respondents (6,5%) of the pre-1986 group "always" emphasized both accuracy and fluency, seven respondents (22,6%) "usually" and four respondents (12,9%) "often" emphasize both accuracy and fluency, giving a total of 42,0 % who consider accuracy and fluency to be equally important. In the post-1986 group one respondent (8,4%) "always", two respondents (16,7%) "usually" and one respondent (8,4%) "often" emphasized fluency as well as accuracy, giving a total of 33,5% of respondents who attached equal importance to accuracy and fluency. This is 8,5% less than the pre-1986 group, but still a significant proportion.

The standard 8, 9 and 10 group was then examined (cf. Addendum 8.25a). Nine respondents in all (28,1%) "always" emphasized accuracy as well as fluency and six respondents (18,8%) "usually" emphasized accuracy and fluency. In the pre-1986 group, 46,9% of the respondents attached equal importance to fluency and accuracy. In the post-1986 group, two respondents (16,7%) "always" and seven respondents (58,3%) "usually", (a total of 75,0%,) rated accuracy and fluency as equally important. These findings reflect a fairly strong endorsement for fluency being as important as accuracy.

The reliability of the "fluency" endorsement is, however, placed in some doubt when these findings are compared to the findings of the question concerning the performing of a specific task rather than a particular language item (see 8.2.15.1). Of the twenty-

five respondents who "always" or "usually" emphasize the performing of a specific task rather than a particular language item, only nine (36,0%) give equal weight to accuracy ("always" or "usually" for standard 6 and 7). A further seventeen respondents (68,0%) give equal weight to accuracy for standard 8 to 10.

In response to the question on learners' use of all possible resources in the event of a communication breakdown (8.2.15.6), seventeen of the respondents (68,0%) claim to encourage learners to use all possible resources in the event of a communication breakdown. This supplies further evidence that the respondents' claims about fluency and accuracy cannot be taken at face value.

8.2.14 *When teaching English, do you demand language use which is appropriate to the context, function and intention of the user (such as using the appropriate register when writing to friends, the manager of a firm, or to parents)?*

Virtually 100% of the respondents, pre- and post-1986, claim that they "always" or "usually" demand appropriate language (Table 8.27). This meets the demands of the Communicative Approach and suggests that respondents' classroom practice might be more in line with the Communicative Approach than their theoretical responses suggested.

Table 8.27 The degree to which appropriate language use is demanded (number of cases in brackets).

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never	Total
PRE 1986	(21) 67,7%	(9) 29,0%	(1) 3,3%	0	0	(31) 100%
POST 1986	(8) 66,7%	(4) 33,3%	0	0	0	(12) 100%
TOTAL	(29) 67,4%	(13) 30,2%	(1) 2,4%	0	0	(43) 100%

The next seven questions concern the nature of classroom activities engaged in by the teachers, particularly the degree to which they may be judged to be communicative.

8.2.15 CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

8.2.15.1 *The performing of a specific task (for instance giving directions to a venue) is emphasized, rather than a particular language item (cases in brackets)*

As Table 8.28 shows, it seems that teachers are more task orientated ("always" 2,2% and "usually" 53,4% = 55,6%) than language structure orientated ("occasionally" 13,3% and "never" 2,2% = 15,5%). This is consistent with CLT principles.

Table 8.28 The frequency with which a specific task is set as opposed to a language item (cases in brackets)

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never	Total
PRE 1986	0	(18) 54,4%	(9) 27,3%	(5) 15,2%	(1) 3,0%	(33) 100%
POST 1986	(1) 8,5%	(6) 50,6%	(4) 33,4%	(1) 8,3%	0	(12) 100%
TOTAL	(1) 2,2%	(24) 53,4%	(13) 28,9%	(6) 13,3%	(1) 2,2%	(45) 100%

These results are in agreement with the previous section (see Table 8.27) and with the sections concerning fluency and accuracy 8.2.10 to 8.2.13.

8.2.15.2 *The content of the message between the learners is unpredictable.*

The aim of the question was to determine whether authentic communication takes place. In authentic communication the content of the message is usually unpredictable (see 5.2).

This question seemed to puzzle some respondents. There were six respondents who did not answer the question. Three were post-1986 respondents, two of whom had 0 to 2 years of teaching experience and one of whom had 3 to 5 years of teaching experience.

Table 8.29 The degree to which an element of unpredictability is ensured in language activities (number of cases in brackets)

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never	TOTAL
PRE 1986	(2) 6,7%	(5) 16,7%	(12) 40,0%	(10) 33,3%	(1) 3,3%	(30) 100%
POST 1986	0	0	(5) 55,6%	(4) 33,4%	0	(9) 100%
TOTAL	(2) 5,11%	(5) 12,8%	(17) 43,6%	(14) 35,9%	(1) 2,6%	(39) 100%

Responses to this question suggest that most teachers' classroom practice did not meet the requirements for a communicative activity (information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction) (see 8.1.12). There were noticeably more respondents (38,5%) who "occasionally" (35,9%) or "never" (2,6%) ensured that the message was unpredictable than the 17,9% who "always" (5,1%) or "usually" (12,8%) incorporated unpredictable activities.

Unpredictability is considered to be one of the characteristics of genuine communication and only 17,9% of the respondents meet this requirement. The majority (82,1%) do not. These results support the findings of questions 8.1.9, 8.1.11 and 8.1.12, in which respondents failed to give a satisfactory theoretical exposition of the Communicative Approach.

The fact that some respondents were puzzled by the question could perhaps be related to the unfamiliar Communicative Approach jargon that was used. Surprisingly, three of the respondents who did not answer the question were post-1986 respondents (two had had their formal training in 1990-1992). One would have expected them to be familiar with the terminology.

8.2.15.3 There is a need to communicate (i.e. there is an information gap or an opinion gap)

Here there were two respondents who indicated that they were confused by the question and accordingly did not respond.

Table 8.30 Frequency with which information gap activities are incorporated (number of cases in brackets)

	always		usually		often		occasionally		never	TOTAL
PRE 1986	(7)	21,9%	(12)	37,5%	(4)	12,5%	(9)	28,1%	0	(32) 100%
POST 1986	(1)	9,0%	(4)	36,4%	(3)	27,3%	(3)	27,3%	0	(11) 100%
TOTAL	(8)	18,6%	(16)	37,2%	(7)	16,3%	(12)	27,9%	0	(43) 100%

Like an element of unpredictability, an opinion (information) gap is considered as characteristic of communicative activities (see 8.1.12).

As in the previous question, some respondents might have been unacquainted with the Communicative Approach terminology. Here only two (one pre-1986 and the other post-1986) openly admitted to not being acquainted with the terminology (both of whom proved to have a limited theoretical background - see Addendum 8.1.9a to 8.1.12a). But it is likely that there could have been more with the same problem. However, it is strange that a post-1986 respondent should be unacquainted with the terminology.

Against all expectations, the pre-1986 group tended to emphasize information gap activities more than the post-1986 group. In the pre-1986 group, 59,4% "always" 21,9% and "usually" 37,5% incorporated information gap activities. Only 45,4% of the post-1986 group (9,0% "always" and 36,4% "usually") ensured information gap activities.

For the total group, 55,8% of respondents (18,6% "always" and 37,2% "usually") claimed that they ensure that there is a need to communicate. On the other hand, 27,9% admitted to only "occasionally" insisting on the need to communicate. This

implies that nearly a third of the total number of respondents do not recognise that there should be a genuine need to communicate when engaging in class activities. This includes three of the twelve post-1986 respondents. These three scored low in the theoretical sections (8.1.9 to 8.1.12) (see Addendum 8.1.9a to 8.1.12a).

8.2.15.4 *Learners know what their roles and purposes are.*

In this question, the majority of respondents (37,8% + 46,7% = 84,5%) stated that their learners knew what their roles and objectives were in communicative activities. They claimed that the learners were given experience of different roles that they might have to play in real-life exchanges after school, and different contexts in which exchanges might take place. Both the pre- and post-1986 groups made this claim.

Table 8.31 The degree to which learners are aware of their roles and objectives in communicative activities (number of cases in brackets).

	always		usually		often		occasionally		never	TOTAL
PRE 1986	(12)	36,4%	(15)	45,5%	(4)	12,1%	(2)	6,0%	0	(33) 100%
POST 1986	(5)	41,7%	(6)	50,0%	(1)	8,3%	0	0	0	(12) 100%
TOTAL	(17)	37,8%	(21)	46,7%	(5)	11,1%	(2)	4,4%	0	(45) 100%

8.2.15.5 *Learners have sufficient background knowledge to carry out the activity. (Where necessary, learners are given the opportunity to gather the information they need during the activity).*

Once again the majority of respondents (22,2% + 55,6% = 77,8%) claim to ensure that learners are given sufficient opportunity to gather background information in order to participate in the communication process. Sufficient contextual information promotes accurate interpretation so that learners' responses are appropriate to the situation (see 8.2.14). This finding corroborates the finding that respondents insist on appropriate language use. Pre- and post-1986 groups follow the same trend.

Table 8.32 The degree to which respondents ensure that pupils have sufficient background knowledge for communicative activities (number of cases in brackets)

	always		usually		often		occasionally		never	Total
PRE 1986	(8)	24,2%	(18)	54,4%	(4)	12,2%	(3)	9,1%	0	(33) 100%
POST 1986	(2)	16,7%	(7)	58,3%	(2)	16,7%	(1)	8,3%	0	(12) 100%
TOTAL	(10)	22,2%	(25)	55,6%	(6)	13,3%	(4)	8,9%	0	(45) 100%

8.2.15.6 *Where there is a communication break-down, learners are encouraged to use all possible resources, for instance, circumlocution, paraphrasing, miming.*

In their response to this question, the majority of respondents (17,8% + 37,8% = 55,6%) claimed that they allow their learners to use all possible resources to avoid a complete break-down in communication. This suggests that respondents acknowledge that it is more important that learners be encouraged to get the meaning across than to use the language correctly. However, there appears to be a slight hesitation to do this amongst certain pre-1986 respondents ("occasionally" 18,2%). Only 12,1% of whom "always" encourage breakdown and 18,2% "occasionally" doing so.

Table 8.33 The frequency with which respondents encourage the use of all possible resources to avoid communication breakdown (number of cases in brackets)

	always		usually		often		occasionally		never	Total
PRE 1986	(4)	12,1%	(13)	39,4%	(10)	30,3%	(6)	18,2%	0	(33) 100%
POST 1986	(4)	33,3%	(4)	33,3%	(3)	25,0%	(1)	8,4%	0	(12) 100%
TOTAL	(8)	17,8%	(17)	37,8%	(13)	28,9%	(7)	15,5%	0	(45) 100%

On the whole it would seem that teachers' practice meets the requirements of the Communicative Approach in this regard. The question does not, however, allow for this information to be given explicitly.

8.2.15.7 Use of the learner's first language is penalised

It seems that, compared to the post-1986 group (58,3%), the pre-1986 group of respondents (81,8%) strongly disapprove of the use of pupils' first language.

Table 8.34 Frequency with which the learner's first language is penalised (number of cases in brackets).

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never	Total
PRE 1986	(11) 33,3%	(16) 48,5%	(1) 3,0%	(3) 9,1%	(2) 6,1%	(33) 100%
POST 1986	(1) 8,3%	(6) 50,0%	(1) 8,3%	(1) 8,3%	(3) 25,1%	(12) 100%
TOTAL	(12) 26,7%	(22) 48,9%	(2) 4,4%	(4) 8,9%	(5) 11,1%	(45) 100%

As Table 8.34 shows, the vast majority of pre-1986 respondents (33,5% "always" + 48,5% usually" = 81,8%) admit to penalising their learners for failing to use English. This is ironic, as in the question just prior to this one (8.2.16.6), 51,5% of the pre-1986 respondents stated that they "always" (12,1%) or "usually" (39,4%) allowed their learners to resort to any possible resource to avoid a communication breakdown (see Table 8.33).

On inspection of the individual responses (Addendum 8.2.15.7), fourteen pre-1986 respondents (51,9%) of the "always" and "usually" categories in this section (8.2.15.7) also claimed to encourage use of all possible resources to avoid communication breakdown (8.2.15.6).

TEACHING APPROACH

8.2.16 *Is there a certain order in which you teach the different language items?*

This question was included to determine whether the respondents still followed the traditional structural methods, in which there was a certain or fixed order in which different language items were taught according to linguistic complexity (Nunan 1988:27).

Table 8.35 Different language items are taught in a certain order (number of cases in brackets)

	YES		NO		TOTAL	
PRE 1986	(12)	36,4%	(21)	63,6%	(33)	100%
POST 1986	(4)	33,3%	(8)	66,7%	(12)	100%
TOTAL	(16)	35,6%	(29)	64,4%	(45)	100%

The majority of respondents (64,4%) indicated that they did not follow a particular order. However, there still seems to be a sizable proportion of teachers (35,6%) who teach language items according to a fixed order. Pre-1986 respondents endorsed fixed-order teaching slightly more frequently than post-1986 respondents (36,4 as opposed to 33,3%) This echoes the trend of the responses concerning accuracy and fluency reflected in 8.2.11 to 8.2.13 (see Table 8.24 and 8.25). Here many respondents gave equal weight to accuracy and fluency. This suggests that selection of teaching material and activities is possibly form-based.

8.2.17 **When teaching ESL, do you regard yourself as successful when your pupils produce formally correct sentences?**

In CLT, error is seen as part of the learning process, where meaning is created/arrived at by the learner through trial and error (Richards and Rodgers 1986:68). The aim of the question was to determine whether respondents had a very negative view of error. In addition it was hoped that in the open section

respondents would indicate the extent to which appropriacy and register were important. The responses were evaluated on this basis.

Table 8.36 Whether respondents regard themselves as successful when their pupils produce formally correct sentences (number of cases in brackets)

	Affirmative		Negative		TOTAL	
PRE 1986	(16)	47,1%	(18)	52,9%	(34)	100%
POST 1986	(5)	41,7%	(7)	58,3%	(12)	100%
TOTAL	(21)	45,6%	(25)	54,4%	(46)	100%

One respondent was both affirmative and negative, hence the total of 46. There were five respondents who did not provide an explanation.

It is significant that in the pre-1986 group, 47,1% of respondents considered that their teaching had been successful if learners produced correct sentences, as opposed to 41,7% in the case of the post-1986 group. On the other hand, 58,3% of the post-1986 group did not consider correctness to be the main criterion.

Some interesting remarks were made by the respondents in the open-ended section of the question. One respondent (formal training: 1960-1969) claimed that the "continual drilling has eventually paid dividends". Such an approach is reminiscent of the audio-lingual method and is at variance with the Communicative Approach.

The 54,4% of respondents who did not regard themselves as being successful when their pupils produce formally correct sentences claimed that formally correct sentences do not always imply effective communication. Here follow some of the responses, reproduced verbatim. The numbers in square brackets refer to individual cases in the Addendum D.8.1.9.(a).

Pre 1986

- [1] register must also be appropriate
- [7] repeating formally correct sentences previously learnt provides no indication as to communicative ability.
- [11] They might not understand what they are producing, might merely be imitating. The sentence may be inappropriate (register, etc.).
- [18] Pupils should be able to communicate fluently and with confidence - formally correct sentences do not always imply effective communication.
- [30] I regard the pupil as successful if he speaks/writes with confidence and ease, and fairly accurately.
- [31] They should also show innovative thinking and planning.
- [40] Pupils must participate. They should not be afraid to talk English or join in the activity.
- [42] Fluency, register etc. far more important.

Post 1986

- [3] Producing formally correct sentences doesn't mean they've acquired the language. The test is whether they can use the language or not.
- [32] Pupils who use English correctly can credit it to more than only their teacher e.g. home environment, substantial reading.
- [37] Pupils should be able to use language to get message across. Not necessary to use 100% correct sentences. That comes later.
- [39] I feel it is more important for the pupil to get his message across - to be able to communicate with ease.
- [41] If correct language is used in correct context.

The respondent [9] who answered affirmatively but added a negative qualification claimed that:

- [9] Yes, if it is spoken fluently and with confidence but not if it has influenced the spontaneity.

These responses support the CLT view that language cannot be learnt in isolation (as a series of language items) but by using the language in different interactive situations (see 5.6).

OVERVIEW OF CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

The foregoing questions concerning classroom activities were based on Chick's (1989) analysis of communicative activities which meet the requirements for communication. The majority of the respondents meet these requirements except in the case of question 8.2.15.2, which concerns the need for the content of the message being exchanged between the learners to be unpredictable, and, to a certain extent, question 8.2.15.3, which concerns the need for there to be an information gap or an opinion gap.

According to Chick (1989:33), the message should be **unpredictable** otherwise there is no genuine communication. In response to question 8.2.15.2, for the total group, only 5,1% "always" and 12,8% "usually" (17,9% respondents in total) claimed to provide unpredictable activities; 38,5% "occasionally" or "never" ensured that their classroom activities were unpredictable. Most respondents (43,6%) chose the weaker "often" option.

In response to question 8.2.15.3, for the total group, 18,6% of respondents "always" and 37,2% "usually" (55,8% respondents in total) claimed to provide information gap activities (37,9% more than in the case of unpredictable activities of question 8.2.15.2); 27,9% "occasionally" or "never" incorporated information gap activities in their teaching and 16,3% "often" incorporated information gap activities (27,3% less than in 8.2.15.2). It seems that respondents tend to incorporate more information gap activities than to ensure unpredictability in their activities. However, there was still 44,2% who "often" or "occasionally" incorporated information gap activities. Only 5,1% of the respondents "always" ensure that the outcomes of their communicative classroom activities are unpredictable.

As already stated, a possible explanation for the high percentage of negative responses to questions 8.2.15.2 and 8.2.15.3 is the perhaps unfamiliar Communicative Approach terminology. However, three post-1986 respondents, who one would expect should be

acquainted with the terminology, also had difficulty with these two questions. This may suggest a lack of effective training in current language theory and practice. This point will be raised again at a later stage (see 8.5.1).

It seems therefore that either the remainder of the respondents (94,9%) are involved in non-communicative activities in varying degrees of frequency, or that they simply are unacquainted with the terminology, and misunderstood the question.

Similarly, in question 8.2.15.3, only 18,6% of the respondents "always" ensured that there was a need to communicate (in other words, that there was an information gap). The rest (81,4%) seemingly included non-communicative activities in their class work with varying degrees of frequency.

As has already been stressed, both unpredictability and an information gap are important requirements in the process of communication. Without them, genuine communication cannot take place. Although the answers suggest that most of the other requirements are fulfilled fairly well, the responses to two questions (8.2.15.2 and 8.2.15.3) imply that few respondents "always" involve their learners in genuine communicative language activities. This strengthens the impression that a fair proportion of teachers have a limited view of CLT. The questions to follow appear to substantiate this impression.

In the next section - on the teaching approach - only "yes" or "no" answers were required. In certain instances respondents were asked to substantiate their answers.

When comparing these responses to question 8.2.15.6 (*concerning the use of all possible resources to avoid communication breakdown*) and question 8.2.17 (*successful when producing formally correct sentences*), fourteen respondents (21,7%) to question 8.2.17 (*formally correct sentences*) claimed that they were successful when their pupils produced formally correct sentences, but also claimed that they allowed their pupils to use all possible resources to avoid communication breakdown. The question arises: does this imply that **correctness** is seen to be more important than being able to communicate? In their responses to question 8.2.19 below (*Do you feel that pupils should strive to limit errors to a bare minimum?*), twelve of the fourteen respondents (nine pre-1986 and three post-1986) further claimed that pupils should strive to limit their errors to a minimum. This seems to support the notion that **correctness** plays an important role in these respondents' teaching.

8.2.18 *Do you give your pupils specific activities to do to improve their skills?*

Unfortunately this question is flawed by the fact that no clear indication was given in the questionnaire of what is meant by "skills". The skills intended were all those (writing, reading, listening, comprehension, oral) skills necessary to improve communication.

Table 8.37 Whether pupils are given specific activities to improve skills (number of cases in brackets)

	Affirmative		negative		TOTAL	
PRE 1986	(32)	96,9%	(1)	3,1%	(33)	100%
POST 1986	(12)	100%	0		(12)	100%
TOTAL	(44)	97,8%	(1)	2,2%	(45)	100%

The question aimed to determine whether there were respondents that had the notion that, if massive input were supplied, learners would eventually master the second language naturally. The question included an open-ended section in which respondents

were expected to elaborate on the purpose of such activities. Ten "yes" respondents did not state the purpose of the activities mentioned. The one "no" respondent's answer (reproduced verbatim) was:

Emphasis is placed on speaking English at all times, both in the learning information and in informal communication with pupils.

The rest of the respondents generally gave examples of the different activities they implemented to improve certain skills.

8.2.19 Do you feel that pupils should strive to limit errors to a bare minimum?

Clearly the majority of respondents encourage their pupils to limit errors to a minimum, with 81,8% of pre-1986 respondents coming out in favour of limiting errors, as against 71,4% of post-1986 respondents.

Table 8.38 Whether pupils should be encouraged to limit errors to a minimum (number of cases in brackets)

	Affirmative		Negative		TOTAL	
PRE 1986	(27)	81,8%	(6)	18,2%	(33)	100%
POST 1986	(10)	71,4%	(4)	28,6%	(14)	100%
TOTAL	(37)	78,7%	(10)	21,3%	(47)	100%

From this we may deduce that post-1986 respondents are slightly less disturbed by error.

In the open-ended part of the question, one respondent replied in the positive but with qualifications in the negative, hence a total of 46. Twelve respondents did not substantiate their answers. Of those who did, the stock reasons given were:

"there are standards" and "to improve accuracy and communication".

The responses of those who said that pupils should not strive to

limit errors are provided below. The numbers in square brackets indicate individual cases.

Post 1986

- [17] This comes naturally without undue pressure.
- [20] Being correct is important but one does not want to inhibit their confidence.
- [25] To a minimum, perhaps - But obviously they LEARN through their errors.
- [44] In the spoken word errors can be excused.

Post 1986

- [3] Yes and no. Limiting errors to an extent indicates that a pupil understand but it must not be emphasized so much as to kill the pupils love for the language.
- [29] Ideally - they should but the most important factor should be that of communicating effectively.
- [38] Should not concentrate on errors.
- [39] Emphasis should not be placed on errors but rather on "taking a chance" with the language.

It appears that attention is paid to errors. This is also reflected in the sections on accuracy and fluency (question 8.2.10 to 8.2.13). Accuracy seems to be prominent in spite of respondents' claiming to favour fluency over accuracy.

In the traditional approaches, errors were regarded as deviations from the norms of standard grammar and had to be prevented. In CLT, error is seen as part of the learning process, where meaning is arrived at by the learner often through trial and error (Richards and Rodgers 1986:68).

When the responses to this question on the limitation of errors was compared to question 8.2.15.6 (*When there is a communication breakdown, learners are encouraged to use all resources*), it was found that twenty-two respondents (56,4%) were in favour of learners using all resources and also strove to limit their pupils' errors to a minimum. If the respondents were serious about communication (getting the message across), would they be

so concerned about errors? There appears to be a contradiction in the answers.

The responses of this same set of respondents were then compared to the respective responses to question 8.2.17 (*When teaching ESL, do you regard yourself as successful when your pupils produce formally correct sentences?*). Nineteen of the respondents (48,7%) replied in the affirmative. This underlines the contradiction mentioned above, and illustrates the respondents' confusion as to what is expected of them in CLT.

Since the implementation of the communicative syllabus in 1987 there seems to be much confusion concerning grammar teaching. In the following section (8.3 Other Aspects) this question is addressed.

8.3 OTHER ASPECTS

In this section the focus falls mainly on the teaching of grammar and the emphasis it is given by the respondents. A few general questions are also discussed concerning the competence of the pupils in English taught by the respondents and finally a conclusion is drawn on the whole questionnaire.

8.3.1 *Do you think that pupils need to master terminology?*

The main aim of this question was to determine whether there were teachers who followed the "strong version" of the Communicative Approach (see Chapter 4). The strong version holds that the language is acquired by natural process and no grammar instruction is required - an approach which was much publicised by Krashen and widely boosted in South Africa.

Table 8.39 Should pupils master terminology (number of cases in brackets)?

	DEFINITELY		PERHAPS		NO		TOTAL	
PRE 1986	(12)	36,4%	(17)	51,4%	(4)	12,1%	(33)	100%
POST 1986	(2)	16,7%	(7)	58,3%	(3)	25,0%	(12)	100%
TOTAL	(14)	31,1%	(24)	53,3%	(7)	15,6%	(45)	100%

Only a minority of respondents (15,6%) felt that mastery of terminology was not necessary. Of these, there was more support among the post-1986 group (25% as against 12,1%).

Eight respondents supplied no reason for their answers.

Most of the respondents were non-committal: 53,3% chose the "perhaps" option. However, 36,4% of the pre-1986 respondents felt that language terminology should definitely be taught, as did 16,7% of the post-1986 respondents.

The main reason respondents gave for children to **know** the terminology is that it could save time and it helped the pupil to "understand basic structure", which enabled the pupil to learn from his mistakes.

The four pre-1986 and three post-1986 respondents, seven respondents (15,6%) in all, who did **not** think it necessary that their pupils master terminology gave the following explanations which are supplied verbatim:

Pre 1986

- [7] The emphasis must be on communication rather than being able to give scientific lectures on the language as a subject.
- [21] There seems to be little point, although sometimes one has to refer to verbs, adjectives, etc.
- [22] NOT necessary for second language speaker.
- [31] The use is more important.

Post 1986

- [10] I think it's important that they at least hear of language terms, but as a matter of interest broadening their knowledge. In prescribed work and poetry I think it's important that they know basic terms e.g. metaphor, etc.
- [32] They must be able to understand, recognize and use the language - nothing more.
- [41] Only relevant for exam purposes in senior standards.

A detailed examination of all the responses showed that none of the respondents implement the "strong version" of CLT.

8.3.2 How much time do you spend in your language classes teaching formal grammar and rules of usage?

Three tables were drawn up to reflect the responses to the question: for pre 1986, post 1986 and total group.

There were six respondents who did not answer this question. An unavoidable factor was that there were respondents who did not teach all the classes.

Respondents were asked to gauge the percentage of time spent teaching formal grammar. Most respondents gave the percentages in multiples of ten (e.g. 10%, 20%, 30%). If a respondent gave a percentage of 35%, for instance, then it was allocated to the 30-39% column.

Table 40.1 Percentage of time spent teaching formal grammar and rules of usage (cases in brackets)

Pre 1986

Category/ class	0-9%	10-19%	20-29%	30-39%	40-49%	50-59%	60-69%	70-79%	80-89%	Total
STD 6	(1) 3,8%	(2) 7,7%	(5) 19,2%	(5) 19,2%	(2) 7,7%	(6) 23,1%	(2) 7,7%	0	(3) 11,6%	(26)
STD 7	(1) 4,3%	(2) 8,7%	(3) 13,0%	(5) 21,8%	(4) 17,5%	(5) 21,8%	(1) 4,3%	(1) 4,3%	1 4,3%	(23)
STD 8	(1) 4,3%	(2) 8,7%	(5) 21,8%	(8) 34,8%	(1) 4,3%	(4) 17,5%	(1) 4,3%	(1) 4,3%	0	(23)
STD 9	(1) 4,5%	(5) 22,7%	(4) 18,2%	(5) 22,7%	(4) 18,2%	(2) 9,2%	0	(1) 4,5%	0	(22)
STD10	(3) 12,0%	(9) 36,0%	(5) 20,0%	(4) 16,0%	(2) 8,0%	(1) 4,0%	(1) 4,0%	0	0	(25)
TOTAL	(7)	(20)	(22)	(27)	(13)	(18)	(5)	(3)	(4)	(119)
Average %	5,8	16,8	18,5	22,8	10,9	15,2	4,2	2,5	3,3	100

Table 40.2 Percentage of time spent teaching formal grammar and rules of usage (cases in brackets)

Post 1986

Category/ class	0-9%	10-19%	20-29%	30-39%	40-49%	50-59%	60-69%	70-79%	80-89%	Total
STD 6	0	(1) 10,0%	0	(2) 20,0%	(3) 30,0%	(2) 20,0%	(2) 20,0%	0	0	(10)
STD 7	0	0	0	(3) 27,3%	(4) 36,3%	(3) 27,3%	(1) 9,1%	0	0	(11)
STD 8	0	(1) 9,1%	(2) 18,2%	(4) 36,3%	(2) 18,2%	(1) 9,1%	(1) 9,1%	0	0	(11)
STD 9	0	(1) 11,1%	(1) 11,1%	(4) 44,5%	(2) 22,2%	0	(1) 11,1%	0	0	(9)
STD10	0	0	(3) 42,8%	(3) 42,8%	0	0	(1) 14,4%	0	0	(7)
TOTAL	0	(3)	(6)	(16)	(11)	(6)	(6)	0	0	(48)
Ave rage %	0	6,3	12,5	33,3	22,9	12,5	12,5	0	0	(100)

Table 40.3 Percentage of time spent teaching formal grammar and rules of usage (cases in brackets)

TOTAL GROUP

category/ class	0-9%	10-19%	20-29%	30-39%	40-49%	50-59%	60-69%	70-79%	80-89%	Total
STD 6	(1) 2,8%	(3) 8,3%	(5) 13,9%	(7) 19,5%	(5) 13,9%	(8) 22,2%	(4) 11,1%	0	(3) 8,3%	(36)
STD 7	(1) 2,9%	(2) 5,8%	(3) 8,8%	(8) 23,5%	(8) 23,5%	(8) 23,5%	(2) 5,8%	(1) 2,9%	(1) 2,9%	(34)
STD 8	(1) 2,9%	(3) 8,8%	(7) 20,6%	(12) 33,3%	(3) 8,8%	(5) 14,7%	(2) 5,8%	(1) 2,9%	0	(34)
STD 9	(1) 3,3%	(6) 19,3%	(5) 16,1%	(9) 29,0%	(6) 19,3%	(2) 6,4%	(1) 3,3%	(1) 3,3%	0	(31)
STD10	(3) 9,4%	(9) 28,2%	(8) 25,0%	(7) 21,9%	(2) 6,2%	(1) 3,1%	(2) 6,2%	0	0	(32)
TOTAL	(7)	(23)	(28)	(43)	(24)	(24)	(11)	(3)	(4)	(167)
Ave rage %	4,3%	14,1%	16,9%	25,4%	14,3%	13,9%	6,4%	1,8%	2,2%	

The question was asked to determine:

1. whether grammar is taught, and
2. how frequently it is taught.

8.3.2.1 Is grammar taught?

As Table 40.3 indicates, grammar is **not** (or is infrequently - up to 9% of teaching time) taught by 2,8% of the respondents in standard 6. A similar response applies to standards 7, 8 and 9. In standard 10 the percentage of respondents who never or seldom teach grammar increases to 9,4%. For the rest grammar is taught in all the standards (from 10% to a maximum of 89% of the respondents' teaching time).

8.3.2.2 For what percentage of teaching time is grammar taught?

The results for the pre-1986 and post-1986 groups (Table 40.1 and 40.2) are first discussed, and then a conclusion is drawn for the whole group.

Pre-1986 and Post-1986 Groups Compared

The largest group of respondents (23,1%) in the **pre-1986** group (Table 40.1) indicated that they spend 50% to 59% of their time teaching grammar. In comparison to the post-1986 group, the largest group of respondents (30%) indicated that they spend 40% to 49% of their teaching time teaching grammar. The post-1986 group are inclined to spend less time teaching grammar than the pre-1986 group.

The standard 7 results were similar as those obtained for standard 6 for the pre- and post-1986 groups (Table 40.1 and 40.2). Both the pre-1986 group and the post-1986 group in standards 8, 9 and 10 showed the tendency to teach less grammar in the senior standards. This seemed to be more marked in the **post-1986** group (Table 40.2), in which the majority of respondents (36,3%, 44,5% and 42,8%) for std 8, 9, 10 respectively) spent 30% to 39% of their time teaching grammar.

In the **pre-1986** group (Table 40.1) the majority of respondents teaching grammar was less concentrated. The spread is between 30% to 39% for std 8, (34,8% of respondents) 10% to 19% and 30% to 39% for std 9 (22,7% of respondents in each case) and 10% to

8.3.3 *How do you teach grammar?*

Table 8.41 How grammar is taught (1) as a separate unit, (2) integrated with composition (3) in conjunction with composition (4) as needed (cases in brackets)

	1		2		3		4		TOTAL	
PRE 1986	(2)	4,7%	(20)	47,7%	(2)	4,7%	(18)	42,9%	(42)	100%
POST 1986	(1)	8,3%	(9)	75,0%	0		(2)	16,7%	(12)	100%
TOTAL	(3)	5,6%	(29)	53,7%	(2)	3,7%	(20)	37,0%	(44)	100%

1 as a separate unit 2 as a separate unit, but also integrated with composition? 3 exclusively in conjunction with composition 4 as needed

The aim of the question was to determine **how** the respondents taught grammar. The questions ranged from methods that were synonymous with the structuralist approach (*as a separate unit*) to the methods employed by CLT (*as needed*). However, these divisions should probably not be regarded as conclusive and might be regarded as a weakness in the question. It is possible to teach grammar as a separate unit in a communicative way and also not to be restricted to only one method of teaching. Some respondents indicated that they used more than one of these approaches, hence the total number of "respondents" of fifty-four.

As Table 8.41 indicates, 5,6% of all respondents taught grammar as a separate unit, which is in line with the traditional approaches; 53,7% of respondents did not teach it only as a separate unit but integrated it with compositions. Errors that occurred in compositions were then treated as grammatical units that are taught, with the intention that when the grammatical unit has been taught, the learner would not repeat the error. There were also times when these respondents taught grammar as a separate unit. The majority of the post-1986 respondents (75%) likewise taught grammar as a separate unit, but integrated with compositions.

Only 3,7% of the respondents taught grammar exclusively in

conjunction with composition. In other words, only those errors that occurred in the composition were dealt with. In the previous group, teachers could teach grammar units that were not necessarily applicable to some learners, but were chosen with the insight of the teacher. In this group (*exclusively in conjunction with composition*) the learners are made aware of the error and how it affects meaning. This involves the learners and makes them willing to learn, because what they are learning is more meaningful to them (see Chapter 5.10.1)

In the last group (*as needed*), 37,0% of the respondents taught grammar when it was needed by the learners. In this case it is assumed that the learners realize the necessity of the language structure to be taught; it is more meaningful to them and therefore the learners should be more willing to learn the structure.

8.3.4 *Where materials are drawn from*

Most respondents (86,7%) use teacher-made worksheets, newspaper and prescribed books. Relatively fewer respondents (68,9%) use textbooks. A wide variety of other material is used.

Table 8.42 Where materials are drawn from for the teaching of grammar (cases in brackets)

	1	2	3	4	5	TOTAL
PRE 1986	(22) 66,7%	(27) 81,8%	(29) 87,9%	(3) 9,1%	(15) 45,5%	(33) 100%
POST 1986	(9) 75,0%	(12) 100%	(10) 83,3%	0	(5) 41,7%	(12) 100%
TOTAL	(31) 68,9%	(39) 86,7%	(39) 86,7%	(3) 6,7%	(20) 44,4%	(45) 100%

1 Textbook 2 Teacher made work sheets 3 Newspaper/prescribed books 4 Computer software 5 TV

The next question examines the reasons respondents have for the teaching of grammar. Respondents were requested to select from a list the reasons they regarded as most appropriate.

8.3.5 *Reasons for teaching grammar*

- 1 *The more my pupils understand grammar, the better their writing will be.*
- 2 *Pupils need to master English Grammar as an essential part of the learning a language.*
- 3 *The study of grammar will improve students' speech patterns.*
- 4 *The study of grammar, like the study of mathematics, sharpens pupils' thinking skills.*
- 5 *I want my students to do well in the examinations.*
- 6 *I personally find the study of language structures fascinating*
- 7 *I feel that I am doing something which I know is valuable to the pupils.*
- 8 *Any other reason.*

Both the pre-1986 and post-1986 groups reflect a similar trend (Table 8.43). Most respondents (62,2%) regarded learning grammar as an essential part of learning a language. This may conform with Widdowson's (1992:97) notion that "language learning is essentially learning how grammar functions in the achievement of meaning". However, it may merely reflect support of a traditional syllabus. If so, it would not be consistent with CLT. Lightbown and Spada (1993) suggest success in form-focused instruction and corrective feedback depends on a communicative context.

Table 8.43 Why grammar is taught (cases in brackets)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	TOTAL
PRE 1986	(12) 36,4%	(19) 57,6%	(13) 39,4%	(10) 30,3%	(7) 21,2%	(3) 9,1%	(6) 18,2%	(5) 15,2%
POST 1986	(5) 41,7%	(9) 75,0%	(6) 50,0%	(3) 25,0%	(3) 25,0%	(1) 8,3%	(2) 16,7%	0
TOTAL	(17) 37,8%	(28) 62,2%	(19) 42,2%	(13) 28,9%	(10) 22,2%	(4) 8,9%	(8) 17,8%	(5) 11,1%

The next most favoured option (42,2%) was that the study of grammar would improve their students' speech patterns.

37,8% of the respondents argued that their pupils' writing would improve if they learnt grammar. However, as mentioned above, grammar should be taught with reference to meaning, social

factors and discourse, or a combination of these factors (Celce-Murcia 1991) (see Chapter 5.8).

The next option which received reasonable support was option 8.3.5.4, that the study of grammar "*sharpens study skills*". This does not directly conform to the CLT principles mentioned above but would naturally be applicable because of the demands of effective communication. The three options 8.3.5.5 (*I want my pupils to do well in examinations*), 8.3.5.6 (*I personally find the study of language structures fascinating*) and 8.3.5.7 (*I feel I am doing something valuable for the pupil*), which generally had the least support, seem to be **teacher-centred options** generally viewed as being inconsistent with CLT.

Five respondents used the opportunity to give their own reasons, the most frequent being that their pupils felt **secure** if they were taught grammar and that "grammar enhances the pupils' awareness of language and its communicative function".

In general, respondents seemd to feel that their pupils learnt the language and improved their command of it from the learning of grammar.

8.3.5 *Level of pupils' English*

8.3.5.1 *How satisfied are you with the present level of your pupils' English?*

This question was asked to determine whether teachers were happy with the present state of ESL teaching. Only a bare majority (51,1%) of the respondents were happy with the level of their pupils' English, with 35,5% neutral (Table 8.44). Only 13,4% (6,7% + 6,7% both pre-1986 respondents) were dissatisfied or frustrated.

Table 8.44 Respondents' feelings about their pupils' level of English (cases in brackets)

	HAPPY		NEUTRAL		DISSATISFIED		FRUSTRATED	
PRE 1986	(16)	50,0%	(11)	34,4%	(3)	9,4%	(3)	9,4%
POST 1986	(7)	58,3%	(5)	41,9%	0		0	
TOTAL	(23)	51,1%	(16)	35,5%	(3)	6,7%	(3)	6,7%

8.3.5.2 Do you feel that your pupils will have *sufficient competence in English* by the time they leave school to meet the demands that may be made on them in the job market, as well as socially?

This question, also had an open-ended section. Three respondents did not answer the question.

Table 8.45 Respondents' opinion on whether their pupils will have sufficient competence in English when they leave school (cases in brackets)?

	YES		NO	
PRE 1986	(25)	83,3%	(5)	16,7%
POST 1986	(11)	91,7%	(1)	8,3%
TOTAL	(36)	85,7%	(6)	14,3%

Nearly all the respondents (85,7% - 83,3% pre 1986 and 91,7% post 1986) felt that their pupils would have sufficient competence in English by the time they left school. This might be an indication that the respondents were happy with the syllabus. This response is consistent with responses to question 8.2.6, where 70,4% of the respondents said that their aims "always" or "usually" coincide with the aims of the syllabus.

The Pre-1986 Group --- open-ended responses

Five respondents (15,1%) failed to substantiate their answers.

Most respondents (83,3%) reasserted their claim that their pupils would have sufficient competence in English when they left school. Two respondents explained that they identify possible situations in which their pupils will need to use English and prepare them for these situations.

16,7% of the respondents, chose the "no" answer. Three claimed that their pupils were seldom exposed to English, except for time in the classroom or viewing television. Two complained about the formal nature of the examination, saying that it did not test communication.

The Post-1986 Group --- open-ended responses

Similar to the pre-1986 group, five respondents (41,7%) failed to substantiate their answers. Three respondents repeated that they felt their pupils had sufficient competence in English. Another briefly explained what method he/she used. One respondent claimed that the urban area in which the pupils grew up provided a sound foundation and enabled pupils to have sufficient confidence in English, while another claimed that in the rural community where he/she taught, English was hardly ever heard. The pupils there were still under the impression that they would never "need" English and this respondent felt that his/her pupils did not have sufficient competence in English. One respondent, similar to the two pre-1986 respondents, identified possible situations in which his/her pupils might need to use English and prepared them for these situations. These three respondents' claims are consistent with CLT.

8.3.5.3 Other Comments

Only thirteen respondents (ten pre-1986 and three post-1986) supplied further comments.

Of the pre-1986 group one respondent complained that pupils would never become communicatively competent because so much time (75%) was spent on teaching literature in standard 9 and 10. One mentioned that university courses should be more practically

orientated and that the textbooks were inadequate. The other respondents' comments were not related to CLT.

Among the post-1986 group one respondent felt that the communicative approach was a vast improvement and fostered confidence in use of the second language. Four respondents mentioned that they had taught communicatively but that communicative teaching should be combined with formal grammar teaching. One respondent mentioned that we should learn from the experience of other countries where the "strictly communicative approach [had] failed abysmally". Three respondents made comments that were not related to CLT and one requested feedback on the research findings.

8.4 Conclusion on the teaching of grammar

In spite of an academically well-qualified sample of respondents, (see 8.1.3) it still seems that most respondents have a limited theoretical understanding of CLT (cf. 8.1.9, 8.1.11, 8.1.12). However, most respondents have reconciled themselves to the syllabus (8.2.5) and feel that they understand the syllabus (8.2.3).

Concerning their actual teaching, although respondents claimed that they gave more weight to fluency than accuracy (Table 8.25) and accorded more time to the performing of tasks than to teaching specific language structures (8.2.15.1), respondents appeared seldom to meet the criteria for communicative teaching in the answers they gave. Only a few respondents (5,1%) said they always ensure that learners do activities in which the message between learners is unpredictable (8.2.15.2).

Only 18,6% of the respondents made sure that there was an opinion/information gap in their classroom activities (8.2.15.3).

The claim that fluency is given greater weight must be viewed cautiously, especially when 8.2.17 and 8.2.19 are taken into account. The success of the teaching of the respondents is still measured by the correctness of pupils' sentences (8.2.19).

Respondents viewed errors negatively and devoted a great deal of attention to them.

The details concerning the teaching of grammar were difficult to determine. However, it does seem that grammar teaching still plays a prominent part in most teachers' teaching (8.3.2.2).

8.5 Do teachers of ESL in the Boland and Northern Suburbs of Cape Town teach communicatively?

Introduction

In an attempt to answer this question a table was designed in which a number of questions, selected from the questionnaire and indicative of respondents' position on a communicative approach, were recorded. These questions were then weighted and the weighted responses of each respondent were added and given a total out of a maximum of fifty-five.

The table (Table 8.46) was divided into two main sections, namely theory of CLT and practical application. Practical application was further subdivided into general teaching approach and approach to teaching of grammar. The general teaching approach was further sub-divided into separate classroom activities.

Both theory of CLT and general teaching approach were allocated sub-totals. Theory of CLT had a sub-total of ten and general teaching approach had a sub-total of forty-two which was reduced to ten so that it could be compared with the theory of CLT.

The weights allocated to the theory of CLT were the same as those supplied in sections 8.1.9 (*understanding of CLT*), 8.1.11 (*theoretical principles of CLT*) and 8.1.12 (*essential elements of CLT*) in Table 8.13. In the following section, general teaching approach, all sections had a range from 3 to -3. A similar approach was applied to the sub-section: approach to teaching of grammar.

The total received by each respondent for all the sections was converted to a percentage and finally compared to sections 8.1.10 (*confident of demands of CLT*) and 8.3.5.2 (*pupils have sufficient competence upon school leaving*).

8.5.1 Summary of weighted results showing pre- and post-1986 respondents' understanding of the theory of CLT, teaching approach and practical application (Table 8.46)

8.5.1.1 The overall average mark

The overall total average mark attained by the respondents was 15,7 out of a maximum of 55, which gives a percentage of 28,6%. This indicates that the respondents do not teach communicatively.

When the pre-1986 and post-1986 groups are compared, the following results were obtained:

GROUP	AVERAGE MARK (max. 55)	%
PRE 1986	14,7	26,7
POST 1986	18,6	33,9

The post-1986 group had an average mark of 3,9 (7,2%) higher than the pre-1986 group. Although the higher average was expected of the post-1986 group, the difference between the two groups is relatively small (7,2%) - certainly smaller than had been expected.

8.5.1.2 Mark reflecting knowledge of the theory of CLT

Widdowson (1984:86f) warns that a sound theoretical background is essential in CLT. Neither the pre-1986 nor the post-1986 group appears to have this sound theoretical background. The comparative results on the questions relating to the theory of CLT are:

GROUP	AVERAGE MARK (max. 10)	%
PRE 1986	2,1	21,0
POST 1986	2,6	26,3

The post-1986 group gained an average of 5,3% higher than the pre-1986 group. This is also reflected in the overall results obtained, which seems to indicate that there is a relation between theoretical knowledge and the teaching approach of the respondents: The more theoretical knowledge the better the application of CLT. However, the respondent [30] who had the highest overall score did not have the highest theoretical mark.

8.5.1.3 A comparison between the pre- and post-1986 groups

In spite of the post-1986 group's scoring a higher average than the pre-1986 group, it was a pre-1986 respondent [30] that scored the highest percentage overall, namely 58%. However, in the section on theory of CLT, the respondent scored an average mark of only 3½ out of 10. This respondent scored well in section 2, the practical application of teaching, and applied a communicative approach in his or her teaching.

On the other hand, the respondent [32] who scored the highest mark for the theory of CLT scored only an average mark for the practical application of teaching (6 out of 10 for theory and 10 out of 42 for practical application). It seems then that a high theoretical mark does not guarantee a high mark for practical application. This is also reflected in the totals obtained by other respondents for theory of CLT and practical application

respectively e.g. [3] ($3\frac{1}{2}$ and 2) [36] (1 and 18) [38] (1 and 26) and [41] (1 and 21).

However, when the pre- and post-1986 groups are compared, the post-1986 group scores higher in the theory (26,3% compared to 21,1%) as well as in the practical application (33,7% compared to 26,4%) of CLT teaching (see Table 8.47 below).

Table 8.47 A comparison between CLT theory and practical application for the pre- and post-1986 groups

CLT THEORY				PRACTICAL APPLICATION		
	TOTAL MARK	AVERAGE MARK	%	TOTAL MARK	AVERAGE MARK	%
PRE 1986	69½	2,1	21,1	87,1	2,6	26,4
POST 1986	31½	2,6	26,3	40,4	3,4	33,7
TOTAL GROUP	101	2,2	22,4	568	12,6	30,0

It would appear then that the post-1986 group does have an advantage over the pre-1986 group and one assumes that the training they received has enhanced their CLT teaching.

8.5.1.4 General Summary

In spite of the low overall average (28,6%) twenty-six respondents (47,3%) were confident of the demands of CLT, eleven (20,0%) were uncertain and only eight respondents (14,5%) did not know what the demands of CLT were (Table 8.10).

These results emphasize the lack of knowledge that specific respondents have of CLT.

When the different sets of responses pertaining to the degree to which respondents taught communicatively were studied (Table 8.46), there were five questions that were answered overwhelmingly in the affirmative (see Table 8.48).

They were:

Table 8.48 Questions that were overwhelmingly answered in the affirmative

NUMBERS	QUESTION	RESPONSES	
		AFFIRMATIVE	NEGATIVE
8.2.6	<i>Do you intervene in your teaching e.g. when a pupil is doing oral and makes an error do you correct him</i>	81	14
8.2.7	<i>Do you teach the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) separately?</i>	81	11
8.2.14	<i>When teaching English, do you demand language use which is appropriate to the context</i>	114	0
8.2.15.4	<i>Learners know what their roles and purposes are?</i>	98	2
8.2.18	<i>Do you give the pupils specific activities to do to improve their skills?</i>	132	3

The reason for these high scores could be that no matter what the teaching approach, these principles are usually applied in teaching.

In a separate study, questions 8.2.16.6 (*learners are encouraged to use all possible resources*) and 8.2.15.7 (*Use of the learner's first language is penalised*) were compared to determine to what degree the teaching of the respondents was communicative. In both questions weightings were allocated.

In question 8.2.16.6 (*all possible resources*) all the respondents encouraged the use of all possible resources varying from "always" to "occasionally". A total of seventy-eight out of one hundred and thirty-five was achieved, giving 57,8%. This

indicates that the respondents encourage communication.

However, when responses to question 8.2.15.7 (*first language penalised*) are compared to 8.2.15.6 (*all possible resources used*), there is a contradiction. We find that thirty-six respondents (80,0%) penalise their pupils when the first language is used. In the previous question (8.2.15.6) respondents encouraged communication but in this question they penalised their pupils if they made errors when they communicated. This is not in line with the Communicative Approach and seems to emphasize the confusion that there is concerning CLT.

When the respondents were asked if they felt they were adequately trained to teach English communicatively (Table 8.6), 53,3% replied in the negative, 17,8% were uncertain and only 28,9% replied in the affirmative. These results, together with those related to the theory of CLT (8.1.9 - *What you understand by CLT*, 8.1.11 - *theoretical principles that underlie CLT*, 8.1.12 - *essential elements in CLT*), seem to reflect the confusion there is among teachers regarding CLT.

But according to Table 8.18 (*aims of the syllabus coincide with personal aims for teaching ESL*), 70,4% of all respondents "always" or "usually" agree with the aims of the ESL syllabus. The conclusion can thus be drawn that the majority of the respondents adopt a communicative approach in their teaching but are unsure of its implementation.

In conclusion, then, the post-1986 group (33,9%) did in fact teach more communicatively than the pre-1986 group (26,7%) but, in spite of most respondents (70,4%) agreeing with the communicative aims of the syllabus a percentage of only 28,6% was attained for the communicative teaching index of Tables 8.46.1/2.

In the following chapter recommendations are made on the findings of this chapter.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1 CONCLUSIONS

The findings of this research project show that most teachers (70,4%) have reconciled themselves to using a communicative approach. However, few teachers (21,8%) have a full understanding of the demands of CLT and therefore do not teach communicatively. The main reasons for this state of affairs is either a resistance to change or a lack of theoretical knowledge. These problems can be addressed by creating opportunities for teachers to have a more thorough training and thus to gain a sophisticated understanding of CLT.

In the training of teachers a sound theoretical background is the first step towards more effective CLT teaching. Widdowson argues that

... language teachers have the responsibility to mediate changes in pedagogic practice so as to increase the effectiveness of language learning, and that such mediation depends on understanding the relationship between theoretical principle and practical technique. To dismiss theory is to undermine the possibility of such an understanding and to create the very conditions for the "bandwagon effect" that many who belong to the "practical brass tack" school so vigorously criticize (Widdowson 1984:87).

Effective CLT teaching also has implications for teacher training. A sophisticated understanding of communication is required and therefore the course for teachers should be adapted to include the following: meanings of language and how meaning is controlled, speech act theory, coherence, conversational principles, and other elements that are essential in the communication process. As was noted earlier (see 3.4.3) speakers do not all perform with the same degree of skill. The reason for this difference in

performance is not only that certain speakers have "more language" (more competence) but it may also be that these speakers pay more attention to the conscious use (performance) of the linguistic data that all speakers have. This analytical gap may account for the difference in performance and it is here where the teacher who is knowledgeable of what happens in speech situations, can help the learner to become fully proficient. Knowledge of the different kinds of meaning and how they are controlled in speech situations is a means of enabling pupils to become fully proficient and this is what should be included in the training of teachers.

A variety of in-service-type training could be implemented. For instance in-service courses, similar to those held by the Institute for Mathematics and Science Teaching of the University of Stellenbosch, are suggested. Here teachers are required to attend ten workshops during the course of the year. After the teachers have completed their training successfully they are awarded certificates. This type of in-service training is for experienced as well as beginner teachers and is at university level.

Another type of training course would be more continuous in nature. Teachers could attend a course lasting a week once a year, where the latest developments are explained and demonstrated.

Teacher-centres and subject groups can also play an important role in providing a sophisticated understanding of CLT. Informed lecturers/teachers can be invited to subject meetings, or teachers can exchange ideas about certain topics that they have studied.

9.2 FURTHER RESEARCH.

In this limited research project certain conclusions were drawn. However, more refined questioning would have presented a more complete picture especially concerning the roles of teachers and the teaching of grammar. The formulation of the questions made it difficult to pinpoint the specific teaching role that a respondent played. Similarly, when respondents gave their reasons for

teaching grammar, for example, it was difficult to determine how they taught their grammar.

A more comprehensive sampling would also have supplied a more reliable test. The post-1986 group consisted of only 12 cases.

Another field for further research is discourse analysis and the practical applications it can have in teaching ESL. Coherent discourse is an underpinning of CLT and needs a thorough understanding.

Multi-lingual or multi-cultural classrooms in the New South Africa demand different teaching techniques. Techniques such as co-operative learning and dynamic uses of learning in groups should be investigated. Discourse Analysis offers a way of meeting the challenges of implementing the co-operative learning concept.

9.3 MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT

Since the implementation of the communicative syllabus teachers have been in need of textbooks that meet their pupils' and their own needs. Teachers have had to use their own initiative in developing their own teaching materials. However, as has been demonstrated in the research undertaken few teachers have the sophisticated understanding of CLT necessary to write sound materials.

The design of teaching materials is related to the application of the CA. Here, under the guidance of an informed teacher/lecturer, teachers at a school or of a region could share their ideas with each other and develop their own teaching materials that are relevant to the needs of the children in the school or the region.

Suitable textbooks that meet the needs of both pupil and teacher would be most welcome.

In CLT greater demands are made on the teacher. The teacher needs a much more sophisticated understanding of language than in the

previous structural methods. On the other hand, more demands, especially in English, are being made on pupils in real life in South Africa.

The final question to ask is "What are we teaching English for"? Not only for pupils to pass the examinations but also "to empower them to learn, to respond adequately to new situations, to change their world and to be able to continue doing so" (Ridge 1994:47). The Communicative Approach can meet the needs of both pupil and teacher.

What happens in an interactive classroom?

1. In an interactive classroom there will be, first of all, *much listening to authentic materials*, with no prohibition or discouragement of spoken response or student-initiated contribution. The listening will be purposeful as students prepare to use what they have heard in some way. "Authentic materials" include teacher talk when the teacher is fluent in the language. When teachers cannot provide this kind of input, they will rely heavily on audio- and videotapes or, for reading, on newspapers, magazines, cartoon books, letters, instructions for products, menus, maps, and so on (see Melvin and Stout, chap. 4; and Price, chap. 12; this volume). Where available, native speakers will be brought into the classroom to interact informally with the students, even at an early stage. They can often be persuaded to allow videotaping or audiotaping of their discussion for use with other classes. Authentic materials need not be difficult materials. With careful selection and preparation they can be fine-tuned to a level accessible to particular groups of students. These materials will always be used in some productive activity: as background for a research project to be discussed with others; for reenactment in a role-playing situation with a problem-solving component; as a dramatization or skit; or as input for a small-group discussion or debate about controversial or unexpected elements, perhaps cultural, that need study in order to be understood and accepted in their context.

2. Students from the beginning *listen and speak* in reacting to pictures and objects, in role plays, through acting out, and in discussion; they create radio talk shows; they conduct class flea markets with personally selected artifacts (buying, selling, negotiating, explaining, persuading, retracting). Students simulate cocktail parties or job interviews. They report on newscasts, providing their personal commentary from their own cultural and national viewpoint; they argue about events and positions taken and share points of view. (Many useful activities are proposed by Sadow, this volume, chap. 3).

3. Students are involved in *joint tasks: purposeful activity* where they work together doing or making things, making arrangements, entertaining others, preparing materials for cross-cultural presentations and discussions, arranging international festivals or open days for parents – all the time using the language as they concentrate on the task.

4. Students watch *films and videotapes of native speakers interacting*. They observe nonverbal behavior and the types of exclamations and fill-in expressions that are used, how people initiate and sustain a conversational exchange, how they negotiate meaning, and how they terminate an interactive episode (Keller and Warner 1979). Useful for this type of observation are soap operas or television serials, which students can use as starter material for developing their own episodes, taking on roles of characters in the original series and interacting as they do. If these episodes are developed in groups, the members of each group must listen carefully to the presentations of other groups in order to be prepared for their own. Videotaping is useful. Peer critiques are often sufficient to draw attention to problems of comprehension due to weaknesses in pronunciation or syntax. Varieties of language, stress, and intonation can also be acquired and practiced in this type of activity.

5. Pronunciation may be improved interactively not only while listening and speaking conversationally, but also in *poetry reading and creation* (see Maley, this volume, chap. 8) or while preparing dialogues, *plays*, or skits where reading the material over and over with each other is the learning procedure (see Via, this volume, chap. 9). In identifying with a role, students approximate the pronunciation one would expect

from a certain character without the psychological trauma of appearing to be other than one's accustomed self.⁴

6. *Cross-cultural interaction* is important in language use in the real world. Students *share* their values and viewpoints, ways of acting and reacting, and their speech styles. They recognize the stereotypes they hold of speakers of the target language and of each other's culture. This learning experience can be in a direct exchange of opinions or through initiation into the activities of another culture. Guided activities and projects that gradually lead students to successful cross-cultural encounters, rather than misunderstandings, give students confidence for future cross-cultural interactions (Robinson 1985: 85–97). Observing interaction between people from different cultures, becoming aware of one's own reactions to other people, monitoring one's own speech style, and practicing diverse interaction skills help students learn to cope successfully in another culture (see Robinson, this volume, chap. 11). In foreign-language situations, students act out problem-solving scenarios where cultural misunderstandings are confronted (Di Pietro 1982; Scarella 1978) and; where possible, discuss with available native speakers the appropriateness of the decisions they have made from the point of view of a person brought up in the culture. *Songs, music, and dance* also help the student appreciate the cultural ethos of the other group (see Maley, this volume, chap. 8).

7. If *reading* is the activity, there should be lively *interaction of reader and text* – interpretation, expansion, discussing alternative possibilities or other conclusions. Often reading leads to creative production in speech or writing, as students are inspired to write stories, poems, plays, radio programs, or film scenarios, or their own *dénouements* for stories and plays they have been reading.

8. What is written should be something that will be read by somebody, as with a group composition (see Russo, this volume, chap. 7) or an item in a *class newspaper* or on a bulletin board. *Dialogue journals* are an excellent example of interactive writing. Students write to the teacher or to each other, and the reader responds with a further message, thus combining reading and writing in a purposeful activity. Instead of “correcting,” the teacher respondent rephrases awkward expressions while commenting on the content.⁵ As with phone conversations with an instructor or target-language friend, students become bolder and bolder in expressing their real feelings in journals, where the interaction is not face-to-face. A similar reduction of inhibitions takes place when students

4 For useful readings on the psychological problems of pronunciation, see Guiora and Acton (1979), Guiora et al. (1972), and Guiora, Brannon, and Dull (1972); for intonation and gesture see Bolinger (1983) and Wylie (1985).

5 Empirical support for the claim that “commenting” is more effective than “correcting” is found in Robinson et al. (1985).

correspond with a native speaker of their own age or a stranger selected from a telephone book from a country where the language is spoken.

9. Interaction does not preclude the learning of the grammatical system of the language. We interact better if we can understand and express nuances of meaning that require careful syntactic choices. Learning grammar, however, is not listening to expositions of rules but rather inductively developing rules from living language material and then *performing rules* (Rivers 1981: 194–6). This process can and should be interactive, with students internalizing rules through experience of their effectiveness in expressing essential meanings. Many activities can be developed where students use particular structures without feeling they are “learning grammar.” Simple examples at the elementary level are “Simon Says” for imperatives; “Twenty Questions” for yes/no question forms; “My uncle went to market and bought me a fan” (*some melons, a pair of shoes . . .*) for count and noncount nouns; “If I Were President” for hypothetical expressions and conditionals. Many other activities will come to mind for practice in using expressions of time and aspect (see Comeau, this volume, chap. 5).

10. Testing too should be interactive and proficiency-oriented, rather than a sterile, taxonomic process. Students should be put in situations where they hear and react to real uses of language or where what they read is to be incorporated into some further language-using activity. Multiple-choice and fill-in-the-blank tests are *about* language; they are not normal language-using activities. *Tests should replicate normal uses of language* as much as is feasible. A first step is to make traditional tests reflect the reality with which the student is surrounded. The next step is to develop tests where there is genuine interaction as part of the test, not just in an oral interview but in other areas as well (see Mueller, this volume, chap. 10). As soon as the test becomes an interesting and absorbing activity, the student is mentally interacting with the test writer or administrator or with other students, and the test becomes an organic process of construction of meaning in comprehension and expression. (For the test as part of the learning process, see Rivers 1983b: 141–53.)

11. *We must not forget interacting with the community* that speaks the language. So many opportunities are missed when students are not sent out into the community (where such a possibility exists) with a clearly defined project that involves talking with native speakers – finding out information; helping with some project; joining some group (photography, bird watching, or whatever interests them); joining in festivals, festivities, and leisure activities; talking with or working with children; explaining their culture to the other community and listening to what members of that community have to say about theirs; offering help to and accepting help from the community. Where there is no neighboring group of native speakers, the community may still be reached and tapped

through its newspapers, its magazines, its shortwave radio programs, its films, its cartoons and jokes, and the occasional visiting native speaker. Consulates may be approached for travel brochures to add reality to the project of planning a trip through the country. Correspondence becomes important. Classes may write an account of their school, their town, and their ways of spending leisure hours to exchange with a school in a country where the language is spoken. This written account may be illustrated and enlivened with photographs, tapes of personal reminiscences, songs, and even small artifacts of the region. In this way, a "twinned classroom" situation is established that can blossom into an exciting partnership on a continuing basis.

A diet of grammar exercises and drills cannot give the feeling for other living, breathing human beings that exploring the things they enjoy can do. (Stevens, this volume, chap. 13, lists many such possibilities.)

12. Special-purpose language classes can also be interactive. Students preparing for careers or already in careers for which they need access to sources in another language can *supply much of the content*, which may be unfamiliar to the language teacher. They can discuss and explain technical information in articles and books they are reading; they can propose activities that simulate the types of problems they will face in business, commerce, international banking, journalism, or foreign affairs. Dow and Ryan (this volume, chap. 15) demonstrate how useful the *case study method* is in preparing people for careers.

LANGUAGE TEACHING QUESTIONNAIRE

ALL INFORMATION SUPPLIED IN ANSWERING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE WILL BE TREATED AS CONFIDENTIAL.

GENERAL INSTRUCTION

Unless requested to do otherwise please supply the information required by making a cross in the appropriate square.

1. GENERAL INFORMATION

1.1 Home language:

Afrikaans	English	Both	Other (Specify)

1.2 Year in which you completed your formal training:

1950-1959	1960-1969	1970-1979	1980-1985	1986-1992

1.3 Tertiary qualifications in English:

None	Eng. Spec.	Eng. I	Eng. II	Eng. III	Postgrad (Specify)

1.4 Experience of teaching English as a second language in completed years:

0-2	3-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21+

1.5 Professional training: Did you do a specialised course in English Second Language Teaching as part of your training?

Yes	No	Uncertain

1.6 Do you believe that the training you received enables you to teach English as a second language communicatively?

Yes	No	Uncertain

1.7 If you had a choice between the following courses for the teaching of English as a second language, which one would you choose?

1.	A study of English literature	
2.	A specialisation course in the teaching of ESL	
3.	A course in language study	
4.	A mixture of the three	
5.	Another course (specify below)	

.....
 Explain your answer briefly:

1.8 Dominant language in the area in which you teach:

Afrikaans	English	Both	Other (Specify)

1.9 State briefly what you understand by the term 'communicative language teaching (CLT):'

.....

1.10 Do you feel confident about what CLT demands of you as a teacher?

Yes	No	Uncertain

Explain your answer briefly:

.....

.....

.....

1.11 To your way of thinking, what theoretical principles underlie CLT?

.....

.....

.....

1.12 State briefly what you think are the essential elements within a communicative teaching situation.

.....

.....

.....

2. YOUR TEACHING APPROACH

The possible answers to the following questions range from "always" to "never". To clarify these terms, approximate percentages have been allocated to each to guide your choice.

always	usually	often	occasionally	never
95-100%	67-95%	33-67%	0+-33%	0%

Please bear these values in mind when completing this questionnaire.

2.1 Do you assess the specific needs of your pupils by means of a diagnostic procedure at the beginning of the year before you do your planning?

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

2.2 Before planning the year's work as outlined by the syllabus, do you discuss the work with other colleagues teaching English to develop a co-ordinated approach to the aims of the syllabus?

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

2.3 Do you consider the terminology and aims of the syllabus to be straightforward and self-explanatory and therefore in no need of clarification?

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

2.4 Do you refer to the syllabus to

1. determine whether you have covered every aspect of it?
2. determine whether you are achieving the global aims of the syllabus?
3. compile a record book?
4. determine to what extent the textbook meets the requirements of the syllabus?
5. plan your year's work?

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					

- 2.5 Do the aims of the syllabus coincide with your own personal aims for teaching ESL?

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

- 2.6 Do you intervene in your teaching e.g. when a pupil is doing oral and makes an error you correct him?

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

- 2.7 Do you teach the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading writing) separately?

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

- 2.8 Do you teach the different sections of the syllabus (oral work, grammar, literature etc.) separately?

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

- 2.9 Which of the roles described below do you generally play when teaching ESL?

You operate as

- 2.9.1 the "knower" (and the pupil as the "information seeker") i.e. you teach the whole class what you think they should know, by conveying information.
- 2.9.2 an "onlooker" i.e. having you set up group or pair work, you leave the pupils free to work on their own.
- 2.9.3 as "partner" i.e. you participate as an equal partner in an activity with the pupils, rather than one who supplies "correct behaviour".

	always	usually	often	occasionally	never
1					
2					
3					

- 2.10 In standards 6 and 7 do you attach great weight to accuracy (correctness of expression and grammar)?

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

- 2.11 In standards 6 and 7 do you attach great weight to fluency (ability to get the message across)?

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

- 2.12 In standards 8, 9 and 10, do you attach great weight to accuracy (correctness of expression and grammar)?

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

- 2.13 In standards 8, 9 and 10, do you attach great weight to fluency (ability to get the message across)?

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

- 2.14 When teaching English, do you demand language use which is appropriate to the context, function and intention of the user (such as using the appropriate register when writing to friends, the manager of a firm, or to parents)?

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

2.15 Indicate how you would characterise the classroom activities your pupils engage in:

2.15.1 The performing of a specific task (for instance, giving directions to a venue), is emphasised, rather than a particular language item.

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

2.15.2 The content of the message between the learners is unpredictable.

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

2.15.3 There is a need to communicate (i.e. there is an information gap or an opinion gap),

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

2.15.4 Learners know what their roles and purposes are.

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

2.15.5 Learners have sufficient background knowledge to carry out the activity. (Where necessary learners are given the opportunity to gather the information they need during the activity.)

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

2.15.6 Where there is a communication break-down, learners are encouraged to use all possible resources, for instance, circumlocution, paraphrasing, miming.

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

2.15.7 Use of the learner's first language is penalised.

always	usually	often	occasionally	never

In this section of the questionnaire only a 'yes' or 'no' answer is required. Make an X in the appropriate block.

2.16 Is there a certain order in which you teach the different language items?

Yes	No

2.17 When teaching ESL do you regard yourself as successful when your pupils produce formally correct sentences?

Yes	No

Briefly explain your answer.

.....

2.18 Do you give the pupils specific activities to do to improve their skills?

Yes	No

Briefly explain your answer.

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

2.19 Do you feel that pupils should strive to limit errors to a bare minimum?

Yes	No

Briefly explain your answer.

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

3. OTHER ASPECTS

3.1 Do you think pupils need to master terminology?

Definitely	Perhaps	No

Briefly explain your answer.

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

3.2 How much time do you spend in your language classes teaching formal grammar and rules of usage? (Gauge the percentage of time.)

Std 6	
Std 7	
Std 8	
Std 9	
Std 10	

3.3 Do you teach grammar

as a separate unit?	as a separate unit, but also integrated with composition?	exclusively in conjunction with composition?	as needed?

3.4 Where are the materials you use when teaching grammar drawn from?

Textbook	Teacher-made work-sheets and	Newspaper/ Prescribed books	Computer software	TV

3.5 Put a cross next to the statements below which reflect your reasons for teaching grammar.

3.4.1 The more my pupils understand grammar, the better their writing will be.	
3.4.2 Pupils need to master English grammar as an essential part of learning a language.	
3.4.3 The study of grammar will improve students' speech patterns.	

3.4.4 The study of grammar, like the study of mathematics, sharpens pupils' thinking skills.

3.4.5 I want my students to do well in the examinations.

3.4.6 I personally find the study of language structures fascinating.

3.4.7 I feel that I am doing something which I know is valuable to the pupils.

3.4.8 Any other reason. Please specify below.

.....
.....

3.5 Level of your pupils' English

3.5.1 How satisfied are you with the present level of your pupils' English?

Happy	neutral	dissatisfied	frustrated

3.5.2 Do you feel that your pupils will have sufficient competence in English by the time they leave school to meet the demands that may be made on them in the job market, as well as socially?

Yes	No

Briefly explain your answer.

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

3.5.3 Any other comments.

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

Thank you for giving up your time to answer this questionnaire. Would you kindly send the completed questionnaire, together with those of other members of the staff who also teach English second language pupils, in ONE envelope to me at

36 Black Prince Street
WELLINGTON
7655

as soon as possible.

Yours sincerely

J. Van der Merwe
J. VAN DER MERWE

ADDENDUM C


 DEPARTEMENT VAN ONDERWYS EN KULTUUR
 DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE

 ADMINISTRASIE VOLKSRAAD
 ADMINISTRATION HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY

 KAAPLANDSE ONDERWYSDEPARTEMENT
 CAPE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

 Navrae: Mr D.A. Norton
 Enquiries:
 Verw.: L.15/73/7/2
 Ref.:
 Tel.: (021) 483-3201

 Provinsiale Gebou
 Provincial Building
 Posbus 13
 PO Box 13
 Kaapstad 8000
 Cape Town 8000

20 July 1993

 Mr D.J. van der Merwe
 36 Black Prince Street
 WELLINGTON
 7655

Dear Mr Van der Merwe

 RESEARCH PROJECT: QUESTIONNAIRE ON COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE
 TEACHING

1. I refer to your letter of 17 July 1993.
2. Your application to approach secondary schools in the Boland and the Northern suburbs of Cape Town to conduct a research project, is granted subject to the following conditions:
 - 2.1 The principals/teachers/pupils are under no obligation to co-operate in the research.
 - 2.2 The principals/teachers/pupils/schools may not be identifiable in any way, in your research project.
 - 2.3 All arrangements in connection with your project must be undertaken by yourself.
 - 2.4 Research in schools may not be conducted during the fourth term.
 - 2.5 It would be appreciated if you would inform the department which school(s) you will be approaching.
 - 2.6 The conditions 2.1 - 2.4 above must be quoted in full when you approach the principals concerned.


 Rig korrespondensie aan die Uitvoerende Direkteur: Kaaplandse Onderwysdepartement en meld verwysingsnummer
 Address correspondence to the Executive Director: Cape Education Department and quote reference number

 ONDERWYS • EDUCATION
 522 1148

2.7 . You are kindly requested to submit a copy of your thesis as well as a summary of findings and conclusions to:

Director: Education Research and Examinations
Cape Education Department
P.O. Box 13
CAPE TOWN
8000.

3. The department wishes you every success.

Yours faithfully



for EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR: EDUCATION

ADDENDUM D

B.1.A. HOME LANGUAGE OF RESPONDENTS

	PRE 1964				POST 1964				
	AJN	ENG	BOTH	OTHER	AJN	ENG	BOTH	OTHER	
1			1		3	1			
2	1				4	1			
3			1		10				
4	1				14				
5			1		26	1			
6			1		29				
7			1		32	1			
8					37	1			
9					36	1			
10					39				
11					41				
12	1				45	1			
13			1		TOT	7	4	1	0
14					%	34.3	33.3	8.4	0
15									
16									
17									
18									
19									
20									
21									
22									
23									
24									
25									
26									
27									
28									
29									
30									
31									
32									
33									
34									
35									
36									
37									
38									
39									
40									
41									
42									
43									
44									
TOT	14	3	12						
%	48.3	10.1	34.4	0					

TABLE B.3. YEAR IN WHICH RESPONDENTS COMPLETED FORMAL TRAINING

	PRE 1964					POST 1964				
	1950-59	1960-67	1970-79	1980-86	1986-92	1950-59	1960-1969	1970-79	1980-83	1984-92
1			1			2				1
2			1			0				1
3				1		10				1
4						14				1
5				1		25				1
6				1		29				1
7				1		32				1
8						37				1
9						36				1
10						39				1
11						41				1
12						45				1
13						TOT				12
14						%				100
15										
16										
17										
18										
19										
20										
21										
22										
23										
24										
25										
26										
27										
28										
29										
30										
31										
32										
33										
34										
35										
36										
37										
38										
39										
40										
41										
42										
43										
44										
TOT	0	13	13	7	0					
%	0	39.4	39.4	21.2	0					

TABLE B.4. TERTIARY QUALIFICATIONS OF RESPONDENTS

	PRE 1964					POST 1964							
	NONE	ENG SPEC	ENG I	ENG II	ENG III	POST GRAD	NONE	ENG SPEC	ENG I	ENG II	ENG III	POST GRAD	
1				1			2					1	
2				1			4					1	
3					1		10						
4					1		14						
5				1			26						
6				1			29					1	
7				1			32						
8					1		37					1	
9					1		36					1	
10						1	39					1	
11							41					1	
12							45					1	
13							TOT	0	0	0	4	0	0
14							%				21.2	44.7	0
15													
16													
17													
18													
19													
20													
21													
22													
23													
24													
25													
26													
27													
28													
29													
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31													
32													
33													
34													
35													
36													
37													
38													
39													
40													
41													
42													
43													
44													
TOT	0	0	1	0	24	2							
%			3.0	18.2	72.7	6.1							

TABLE B.4a. EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ESL

	PRE 1964					POST 1964							
	0-2	3-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21+	0-2	3-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21+	
1				1			2						
2				1			6			1			
3					1		10			1			
4							14	1					
5			1				28		1				
6			1				29	1					
7							32		1				
8							37			1			
9							36					1	
10							39					1	
11							41					1	
12							45					1	
13							TOT	5	2	4	0	0	0
14							%	41.7	25.0	33.3	0	0	0
15													
16													
17													
18													
19													
20													
21													
22													
23													
24													
25													
26													
27													
28													
29													
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31													
32													
33													
34													
35													
36													
37													
38													
39													
40													
41													
42													
43													
44													
TOT	1	4	6	10	5	7							
%	2.0	12.1	16.2	28.3	15.2	21.2							

TABLE 6.5A SPECIALISED COURSE IN ESL TRAINING

	PRE 1984			POST 1984			
	YES	NO	UNCERTAIN	YES	NO	UNCERTAIN	
1		1		1		1	
2		1		6	1		
4	1			10	1		
5		1		16	1		
7	1			28	1		
8		1		29	1		
9	1			32	1		
11		1		37	1		
12	1			38		1	
13		1		39	1		
14		1		41	1		
15		1		48	1		
17		1		TOT	6	4	2
18		1		%	38.0%	22.2%	14.7%
19		1					
20		1					
21	1						
22		1					
23		1					
24		1					
25	1						
26		1					
27	1						
30			1				
31		1					
33		1					
34	1						
35	1						
36		1					
40	1						
42		1					
43	1						
44	1						
TOT	12	20	1				
%	36.4	60.6	3.0				

TABLE 6.5B ADEQUACY OF TRAINING

	PRE 1984			POST 1984			
	YES	NO	UNCERTAIN	YES	NO	UNCERTAIN	
1			1	1			
2		1		6	1		
4		1		10		1	
5	1			16	1		
7	1			28	1		
8		1		29	1		
9	1			32	1		
11			1	37	1		
12			1	38		1	
13		1		39	1		
14		1		41	1		
15		1		48	1		
17	1			TOT	3	3	4
18			1	%	41.7	25.0	33.3
19		1					
20		1					
21		1					
22		1					
23	1						
24		1					
25	1						
26		1					
27		1					
30		1					
31	1						
33		1					
34		1					
35	1						
36		1					
40		1					
42		1					
43		1					
44		1					
TOT	8	21	4				
%	34.2	83.6	12.2				

TABLE 6.7A CONTENT CONSIDERED IMPORTANT IN ESL COURSE

	PRE 1984					POST 1984					
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
1				1		1				1	
2		1				6			1	1	
4				1		10			1		
5		1		1		14			1		
7					1	28			1		
8				1		29			1		
9				1		32			1		
11			1			37			1		
12				1		38			1		
13			1			39		1			
14				1		41			1		
15	1					45			1	1	
17				1		TOT	9	1	9	11	1
18				1		%	9	8.3	9	91.7	8.3
19					1						
20				1							
21				1							
22				1							
23			1								
24				1							
25				1							
26				1							
27			1								
30				1							
31				1							
33				1							
34	1										
35			1								
36				1							
40			1								
42			1								
43				1							
44				1							
TOT	2	9	2	19	2						
%	6.1	27.2	6.1	57.5	6.1						

TABLE 6.8A DOMINANT LANGUAGE IN AREA

	PRE 1984				POST 1984				
	AFR	ENG	BOTH	OTHER	AFR	ENG	BOTH	OTHER	
1	1				1	1			
2			1		6	1			
4		1			10	1			
5	1				16			1	
7		1			28	1			
8		1			29	1			
9			1		32	1			
11				1	37	1			
12			1		38	1			
13	1				39			1	
14			1		41	1			
15	1				45	1			
17	1				TOT	10	0	2	0
18	1				%	83.3	0	14.7	0
19	1								
20	1								
21	1								
22	1								
23	1								
24	1								
25	1								
26	1								
27	1								
30	1								
31	1								
33	1								
34	1								
35	1								
36	1								
40	1								
42	1								
43	1								
44	1								
TOT	26	3	4	0					
%	78.8	9.1	12.1	0					

1. A STUDY OF ENGLISH 2. A SPECIALISATION COURSE IN THE TEACHING OF ESL 3. A COURSE IN LANGUAGE STUDY
4. A MIXTURE OF THE THREE 5. ANOTHER COURSE

TABLE 8.9A WHAT RESPONSES INDICATE CLT TO COMPREHEND
PRE 1964 POST 1964

	PRE 1964	POST 1964					
1	2	3	2				
2	2	6	15				
4	1	10	2				
5	2	16	1				
7	2	25	1				
8	1	29	3				
9	1	32	2				
11	2	37	2				
12	-	38	1				
13	1	39	2				
14	1	41	1				
15	2	45	1				
17	1	TOT					
18	1	46					
19	15						
20	1						
21	1						
22	1						
23	1						
24	1						
25	2						
26	1						
27	1						
30	3						
31	2						
32	1						
34	1						
35	2						
36	1						
40	1						
42	1						
43	1						
44	1						
TOT							
%							
TOTALS	ACQUISITION (A)	SPYAR (I)	ISE. (I)	ISE. - SITUATION (I)	ISE. - SITUATION + READ (I)	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
PRE 1964	1	2	19	9	1	1	33
POST 1964	1	9	5	3	1	0	12

TABLE 8.10.A RESPONDENT'S PERCEPTION OF WHAT CLT DEMANDS OF TEACHER
PRE 1964 POST 1964

	PRE 1964	POST 1964		
1	+	3	-	
2	+	6	U	
4	+	10	+	
5	U	16	+	
7	+	25	+	
8	+	29	U	
9	+	32	+	
11	U	37	+	
12	+	38	U	
13	-	39	U	
14	+	41	U	
15	-	45	+	
17	+			
18	U			
19	-			
20	+			
21	+			
22	+			
23	U			
24	-			
25	+			
26	+			
27	+			
30	+			
31	+			
32	+			
34	U			
35	+			
36	-			
40	+			
42	-			
43	U			
44	-			

+ AFFIRMATIVE - NEGATIVE U UNCERTAIN

TABLE 8.11.A RESPONSES REFLECTING THEORETICAL PRINCIPLES THAT UNDERLIE CLT
PRE 1964 POST 1964

	PRE 1964	POST 1964		
1	0	3	15	
2	0	6	-	
4	15	19	1	
5	-	16	-	
7	15	28	0	
8	-	29	-	
9	15	32	2	
11	15	37	1	
12	-	38	-	
13	15	39	0	
14	15	41	-	
15	15	45	15	
17	1			
18	15			
19	15			
20	0			
21	15			
22	0			
23	-			
24	15			
25	0			
26	-			
27	-			
30	15			
31	15			
32	0			
34	-			
35	15			
36	0			
40	15			
42	-			
43	-			
44	15			
0	NO RESPONSE			
0	IRRELEVANT			
15	PART OF PRINCIPLE (E.G. COMMUNICATION)			
1	ONE PRINCIPLE (E.G. COMMUNICATION AND SITUATION)			
1	TWO PRINCIPLES (E.G. COMMUNICATION AND REAL SITUATION)			

TABLE 8.12.A CASES OPTING FOR DIFFERENT ELEMENTS WITHIN A COMMUNICATIVE TEACHING SITUATION TO REFLECT UNDERSTANDING OF CLT
PRE 1964 POST 1964

	PRE 1964	POST 1964			
1	1	3	1		
2	0	0	1		
4	1	10	1		
5	1	16	-		
7	2	28	1		
8	0	29	1		
9	1	32	1		
11	0	37	1		
12	-	38	0		
13	1	39	1		
14	0	41	0		
15	0	45	0		
17	1				
18	1				
19	1				
20	1				
21	1				
22	0				
23	-				
24	1				
25	1				
26	0				
27	1				
30	0				
31	0				
32	1				
34	0				
35	1				
36	0				
40	0				
42	0				
43	1				
44	0				
NO RESPONSE	0	1	COMMUNICATION	COMM - GAP	MEANING
IRRELEVANT	0	1			
ATMOSPHERE (A)					
PRE 1964	1	14			
POST 1964	0	14			
TOTAL	1	14			

TABLE 8.11a WEIGHTED RESPONSES CONCERNING THEORY OF CLT QUESTIONS 8.1.7 TO 8.1.12
PRE 1984 POST 1984

QUESTION	PRE 1984				TOTAL	S.I.10	POST 1984				TOTAL	S.I.10
	3	4	2	10			3	4	2	10		
1-RESPONDENT	3	0	1	2	-		3	2	10	1	10	-
2	3	0	0	2	-		6	10	-	1	10	U
4	1	10	1	20	-		10	2	1	1	4	-
5	2	-	1	3	U		16	1	-	-	1	-
7	2	10	2	10	-		20	1	0	1	2	-
8	1	-	0	1	-		20	2	-	1	2	U
9	1	10	1	20	-		22	2	2	1	4	-
11	2	10	0	20	U		27	2	1	1	4	-
12	-	-	-	-	-		20	1	-	0	1	U
13	1	10	1	20	-		20	2	0	1	2	U
14	1	10	0	10	-		40	1	-	0	1	U
15	2	10	0	20	-		40	1	10	0	10	-
17	1	1	1	3	-		TOT	100	2	2	20	==6-1 U=5
18	1	10	1	20	U		10	21.4	10.4	22.2	24.2	
19	10	10	1	2	-							
20	1	0	1	2	-							
21	1	10	1	20	-							
22	1	0	0	1	-							
23	1	-	-	1	U							
24	1	10	1	20	-							
25	2	0	1	3	-							
26	1	-	0	1	-							
27	1	-	1	2	-							
28	2	10	0	20	-							
29	2	10	0	20	-							
30	1	0	1	2	-							
31	1	-	0	1	U							
32	2	10	1	20	-							
33	1	0	0	1	-							
34	1	-	0	1	U							
35	2	10	1	20	-							
36	1	0	0	1	-							
38	1	10	0	10	-							
42	1	-	0	1	-							
43	1	-	1	2	U							
44	1	10	0	10	-							
TOT	47	9	10	60	==19-17 U=6							
%	42.3	8.2	10.2	21.1								

TABLE 8.14a THE DEGREE TO WHICH RESPONDENTS ASSESS SPECIFIC NEEDS OF PUPILS
PRE 1984 POST 1984

QUESTION	PRE 1984				TOTAL	POST 1984				TOTAL	S.I.10	
	3	4	2	10		3	4	2	10			
1		1				3						
2			1			4						
4			1			10						
5			1			16						
7		1				20						
8						20	1					
9			1			22						
11				1		27						
12		1				20						
13		1				20	1					
14				1		41						
15				1		40	1					
17		1				TOT	2	1	1	4	4	
18				1		10	16.0	8.2	8.2	22.2	22.2	
19			1									
20			1									
21												
22				1								
23												
24												
25	1											
26			1									
27												
30	1											
31	1											
32			1									
34			1									
35			1									
36												
38		1										
42			1									
43	1											
44												
TOT	4	0	0	5	7							
%	12.1	17.2	21.2	13.2	21.2							

TABLE 8.15A THE DEGREE TO WHICH COLLEAGUES DEVELOP A CO-ORDINATED APPROACH TO THE AIMS OF THE SYLLABUS
PRE 1964 POST 1964

	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER		ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
1	1					2					1
2	1					4		1			
4				1		18					1
5	1					16	1				
7	1					28		1			
8		1				29		1			
9		1				32	1				
11				1		37		1			
12	1					38	1				
13		1				39		1			
14		1				41	1				
15	1					45	1				
17		1				TOT	5	5	9	9	3
18				1		%	41.7	41.7			16.6
19		1									
20		1									
21	1										
22	1										
23		1									
24	1										
25	1										
26		1									
27	1										
28	1										
31	1										
32	1										
34			1								
35			1								
36				1							
40	1										
42					1						
43		1									
44		1									
TOT	15	11	2	4	1						
%	45.3	33.3	6.1	12.1	3.8						

TABLE 8.16A THE DEGREE TO WHICH THE TERMINOLOGY AND AIMS OF THE SYLLABUS ARE SEEN AS STRAIGHTFORWARD
PRE 1964 POST 1964

	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER		ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
1		1				3				1	
2		1				6		1			
4		1				18	1				
5	1					16		1			
7		1				28	1				
8		1				29			1		
9		1				32			1		
11		1				37			1		
12			1			38		1			
13				1		39			1		
14		1				41		1			
15		1				45	1				
17			1			49	2	4	4	1	
18		1				%	25.0	33.3	33.3	8.4	
19		1									
20			1								
21		1									
22			1								
23		1									
24	1										
25		1									
26		1									
27		1									
28		1									
31		1									
32			1								
34		1									
35			1								
36				1							
40		1									
42			1								
43											
44		1									
TOT	2	21	8	2	9						
%	6.8	61.6	22.3	6.1	9						

TABLE E.17A THE DEGREE TO WHICH PRE- AND POST-1964 RESPONDENTS REFER TO THE SYLLABUS CONCERNING ASPECTS COVERED

	PRE 1964					POST 1964				
	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
1		1				3	1			
2	1					6	1			
4		1				10			1	
5	1					16	1			
7	1					22			1	
8	1					29	1			
9	1					32	1			
11		1				37		1		
12	1					38	1			
13		1				39	1			
14	1					41	1			
15	1					45	1			
17		1				4	5	1	2	0
18		1				33.3	41.7	8.3	18.7	0
19		1								
20	1									
21	1									
22		1								
23				1						
24	1									
25	1									
26	1									
27	1									
28	1									
29	1									
32				1						
34	1									
35				1						
36				1						
40	1									
42				1						
43		1								
44		1								
sum	18	19	0	5	0					
%	54.3	30.3	0	15.2	0					

TABLE E.17B THE DEGREE TO WHICH PRE- AND POST 1964 RESPONDENTS REFER TO THE SYLLABUS CONCERNING GLOBAL AIDS

	PRE 1964					POST 1964				
	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
1		1				3				
2	1					6				
4				1		10				
5	1					16	1			
7	1					22				
8	1					29				
9	1					32	1			
11			1			37				
12	1					38				
13				1		39	1			
14		1				41				
15	1					45	1			
17		1				4	6	1	0	1
18		1				31.4	50.0	8.3	0	8.3
19		1								
20				1						
21	1									
22				1						
23				1						
24				1						
25		1								
26										
27		1								
28	1									
29	1									
32				1						
34		1								
35				1						
36				1						
40	1									
42				1						
43				1						
44		1								
sum	11	0	7	5	0					
%	34.4	0	21.9	15.6	0					

TABLE E17C THE DEGREE TO WHICH PRE- AND POST-1966 RESPONDENTS REFER TO THE SYLLABUS CONCERNING CONTENT OF RECORD BOOK

	PRE 1966					POST 1966					
	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCAS	NEVER	
1	1					3	1				
2	1					6	1				
4	1					18				1	
5	1					14	1				
7			1			28	1				
8	1					29	1				
9	1					32				1	
11	1					37	1				
12	1					38	1				
13		1				39	1				
14	1					41	1				
15	1					45	1				
17	1					T O T	8	2	8	8	1
18	1					%	46.6	16.7	8	8	16.7
19	1										
20	1										
21	1										
22		1									
23		1									
24					1						
25		1									
26											
27	1										
30	1										
31	1										
33				1							
34	1										
35				1							
36					1						
40	1										
42		1									
43	1										
44	1										
TOT	22	5	8	3	2						
%	44.0	10.0	16.0	6.0	4.0						

TABLE E17D THE DEGREE TO WHICH PRE- AND POST-1966 RESPONDENTS REFER TO THE SYLLABUS CONCERNING TEXTBOOK REQUIREMENTS

	PRE 1966					POST 1966					
	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	
1		1				3	1				
2	1					4	1				
4		1				18				1	
5	1					14		1			
7			1			25	1				
8			1			29	1				
9		1				32				1	
11		1				37		1			
12	1					38		1			
13	1					39	1				
14	1					41			1		
15	1					45	1				
17		1				T O T	3	3	4	1	1
18		1				%	25.8	25.8	33.4	8.3	8.3
19			1								
20				1							
21	1										
22		1									
23					1						
24			1								
25				1							
26											
27				1							
30	1										
31	1										
33				1							
34				1							
35			1								
36			1								
40	1										
42					1						
43	1										
44		1									
TOT	11	8	4	3	2						
%	34.4	25.8	12.8	10.0	6.3						

TABLE 4.17E THE DEGREE TO WHICH PRE- AND POST-1966 RESPONDENTS REFER TO THE SYLLABI CONCERNING PLAN OF YEAR'S WORK
PRE 1966 POST 1966

	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER		ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCAS	NEVER
1		1				3		1			
2	1					6	1				
4	1					18					1
5	1					16		1			
7		1				28	1				
8	1					29	1				
9	1					32	1				
11	1					37		1			
12	1					38	1				
13						39	1				
14	1					41	1				
15	1					43	1				
17	1					TOT	8	3	6	0	1
18	1					46	66.7	15.0	0	0	8.3
19	1										
20	1										
21	1										
22		1									
23		1									
24	1										
25	1										
26											
27	1										
30	1										
31	1										
33				1							
34	1										
35			1								
36				1							
40	1										
42		1									
43	1										
44	1										
TOT	23	5	1	2	0						
%	74.2	16.1	3.2	6.5	0						

TABLE 1.19A DEGREE TO WHICH AIMS OF THE SYLLABUS COINCIDE WITH PERSONAL AIMS FOR TEACHING ESL

	PRE 1964					POST 1964					
	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	
1		1				3				1	
2		1				6	1				
4		1				10	1				
5	1					16	1				
7		1				28	1				
8			1			29	1				
9		1				32	1				
11			1			37	1				
12		1				38			1		
13				1		39		1			
14		1				41			1		
15	1					45	1				
17						T O T A L	2	6	1	3	0
18			1			56	16.7	50.0	8.3	25.0	0
19		1									
20		1									
21		1									
22		1									
23			1								
24		1									
25		1									
26				1							
27		1									
28		1									
31		1									
33		1									
34			1								
35			1								
36	1										
40	1	1									
42	1	1									
43	1										
44			1								
T O T A L	4	19	7	2	0						
%	12.5	59.4	21.9	6.2	0						

TABLE 1.20A THE DEGREE TO WHICH TEACHERS INTERVENE WHEN ERRORS ARE NOTICED

	PRE 1964					POST 1964					
	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	
1				1		3				1	
2		1				6				1	
4		1				10				1	
5			1			16	1				
7					1	28	1				
8			1			29				1	
9			1			32				1	
11			1			37		1			
12			1			38			1		
13			1			39			1		
14		1				41			1		
15			1			45					
17						T O T A L	0	2	1	8	1
18			1			56	0	16.7	8.3	66.7	8.3
19			1								
20			1								
21					1						
22			1								
23					1						
24					1						
25			1								
26					1						
27			1								
28					1						
31			1								
33			1								
34			1								
35			1								
36			1								
40					1						
42			1								
43			1								
44			1								
T O T A L	0	2	3	19	7						
%	0	6.4	9.4	59.4	21.8						

TABLE 8.21A THE DEGREE TO WHICH THE FOUR LANGUAGE SKILLS (LISTENING, SPEAKING, READING, WRITING) ARE TAUGHT SEPARATELY.

	PRE 1964					POST 1964					
	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	
1				1		3		1			
2		1				6			1		
4				1		10			1		
5				1		16			1		
7					1	28				1	
8					1	29			1		
9				1		32			1		
11				1		37			1		
12		1				38			1		
13			1			39				1	
14	1			1		41			1		
15						49				1	
17						T O T	0	1	0	8	3
18			1			%	0	8.3	0	66.7	25.0
19				1							
20				1							
21				1							
22				1							
23					1						
24					1						
25				1							
26				1							
27				1							
30					1						
31					1						
32					1						
34				1							
35					1						
36				1							
40				1							
42				1							
43				1							
44				1							
T O T	1	3	2	19	8						
%	3.1	8.3	6.3	59.3	25.0						

TABLE 8.22A THE DEGREE TO WHICH DIFFERENT SECTIONS OF THE SYLLABUS (ORAL WORK, GRAMMAR, LITERATURE) ARE TAUGHT SEPARATELY.

	PRE 1964					POST 1964					
	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCAS	NEVER	
1				1		3		1			
2			1			9		1			
4					1	10		1			
5				1		16			1		
7					1	28				1	
8			1			29			1		
9			1			32			1		
11			1			37			1		
12	1					38			1		
13	1					39				1	
14	1					41			1		
15				1		45				1	
17						T O T	0	2	2	5	3
18			1			%	0	16.7	16.7	41.6	25.0
19			1								
20			1								
21				1							
22				1							
23					1						
24				1							
25			1								
26				1							
27				1							
30				1							
31				1							
32				1							
34				1							
35					1						
36				1							
40			1								
42				1							
43				1							
44				1							
T O T	3	0	11	14	4						
%	9.0	0	34.3	43.8	12.5						

TABLE E.11A TEACHERS' ROLE IN THE ESL CLASSROOM: "KNOWER," "ONLOOKER" AND "PARTNER"

PRE 1984					POST 1984				
ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
	K.O		P				K.O	P	
		K.O		F		F	K	O	
P			K.O			K		O.P	
		K.O.P				K.P		O	
O.P		K				K.O.P			
		K.O.P				O	K.P		
		K.O.P				O	K	P	
	P	K.O				P	O	K	
	K.P	O					P	K.O	
		K.O.P				P	O	K	
	K		O.P					K.O.P	
		K	O.P				O	K.P	
					T O T A L				
	K		O.P	F					
		K.O	P						
	O	K.P							
		K.O.P							
		K.O	P						
K									
	P	K.O							
	P	O	K						
	P								
		K.O.P							
		P	K.O						
		O.P	K						
	P	K.O							
	P	O	K						
	O.P		K						
		K.O	P						
		K.O.P							
	O	K.P							
		O.P	K						
	P	O	K						

K	KNOWER
O	ONLOOKER
P	PARTNER
-	NO RESPONSE

TABLE E.11A THE DEGREE OF FOCUS ON ACCURACY AND FLUENCY IN STANDARDS 6 AND 7

PRE 1984					POST 1984				
ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
		A.F				F	A		
	F	A				F	A		
A		F				F	A		
	F	A				A	F		
F			A			A.F			
	A.F					A.F			
	A.F						A.F		
	F	A				F	A		
	A.F					F	A		
	A.F					F	A		
A	F					F	A		
	F		A			A.F			
					T O T A L				
	F	A							
		A.F							
	F	A							
	F	A							
	F	A							
	A.F								
		A.F							
			A	F					
	A.F								
	F		A						
		F	A						
		A.F							
	F	A							
F		A							
	A.F								
F			A						
	A.F								
	F		A						

LEGEND

A	ACCURACY
F	FLUENCY
-	NO RESPONSE

TABLE 8.27A THE DEGREE TO WHICH APPROPRIATE LANGUAGE USE IS DEMANDED

	PRE 1964					POST 1964				
	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
1		1				2				
2	1					6				
4		1				10				
5	1					16				
7	1					23				
8	1					29		1		
9	1					32		1		
11						37		1		
12		1				38				
13	1					39		1		
14	1					41				
15	1					45				
17						T O T A L	4	1	1	1
18		1				6	16.7	3.3		
19		1								
20		1								
21	1									
22	1									
23			1							
24	1									
25	1									
26	1									
27	1									
28	1									
29	1									
31	1									
33	1									
34		1								
35		1								
36	1									
38	1									
42	1									
43		1								
44	1									
T O T A L	21	9	1	1	1					
%	42.7	29.3	3.3							

TABLE 8.28A THE FREQUENCY WITH WHICH A SPECIFIC TASK IS SET AS OPPOSED TO A LANGUAGE ITEM

	PRE 1964					POST 1964					
	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	
1		1				3		1			
2						6				1	
4		1				10	1				
5						16		1			
7		1				23		1			
8						29		1			
9						32		1			
11		1				37		1			
12		1				38		1			
13		1				39		1			
14						41			1		
15		1				45		1			
17						T O T A L	1	6	6	1	1
18		1				6	6.3	10.0	31.4	6.3	
19											
20		1									
21		1									
22											
23											
24											
25		1									
26		1									
27											
28		1									
31		1									
33											
34											
35		1									
36											
38		1									
42		1									
43		1									
44											
T O T A L	1	18	1	1	1						
%		54.3	27.3	15.2	3.8						

TABLE E.7A THE DEGREE TO WHICH AN ELEMENT OF UNPREDICTABILITY IS ENSURED IN LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES

	PRE 1966					POST 1966					
	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	
1			1			3			1		
2				1		6			1		
4		1				10		1			
5						16			1		
7		1				28			1		
8			1			29		1			
9			1			32		1			
11		1				37					
12	1					38					
13				1		39					
14				1		41		1			
15		1				45		1			
17				1		T O T A L	0	0	3	4	0
18				1		%	0	0	35.6	33.4	0
19				1							
20			1								
21			1								
22			1								
23											
24				1							
25				1							
26			1								
27			1								
30	1										
31					1						
33				1							
34				1							
35		1									
36			1								
40											
42			1								
43			1								
44			1								
T O T A L	2	3	12	10	1						
%	6.7	16.7	40.0	33.3	3.3						

TABLE E.7B FREQUENCY WITH WHICH INFORMATION GAP ACTIVITIES ARE INCORPORATED

	PRE 1966					POST 1966					
	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCAS	NEVER	
1		1				3		1			
2			1			6					
4	1					10	1				
5		1				16			1		
7	1					28			1		
8		1				29	1				
9		1				32		1			
11		1				37	1				
12		1				38	1				
13				1		39	1				
14				1		41		1			
15		1				45			1		
17				1		T O T A L	1	4	3	3	0
18				1		%	9.3	36.4	27.3	27.3	0
19		1									
20											
21			1								
22			1								
23				1							
24				1							
25	1										
26				1							
27		1									
30	1										
31	1				1						
33		1									
34				1							
35	1										
36	1										
40		1									
42				1							
43		1									
44			1								
T O T A L	7	12	4	9	0						
%	21.9	37.3	12.5	28.1	0						

TABLE E.31A THE DEGREE TO WHICH LEARNERS ARE AWARE OF THEIR ROLES AND OBJECTIVES IN COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES

	PRE 1964					POST 1964				
	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
1		1				3				
2		1				4	1			
4	1					10	1			
5	1					16	1			
7	1	1				20				
8				1		20	1			
9	1					23				
11			1			27				
12			1			26				
13		1				20				
14	1					42	1			
15	1					45				
17		1				T O T A L	3	6	1	
18	1					6	41.7%	28.5	12.6	
19	1									
20	1									
21	1									
22	1									
23			1							
24	1									
25	1									
26	1									
27				1						
28	1									
31	1									
32		1								
34	1									
35	1									
36	1	1								
40	1									
42	1									
43			1							
44	1									
T O T A L	12	13	4		2	6				
%	34.4	45.3	12.1		6.8					

TABLE E.31B THE DEGREE TO WHICH RESPONDENTS BELIEVE THAT PUPILS HAVE SUFFICIENT BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE FOR COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES

	PRE 1964					POST 1964				
	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
1		1				3				1
2		1				6	1			
4	1					10	1			
5	1					14	1			
7	1			1		20		1		
8						20	1			
9	1					22	1			
11	1	1				27		1		
12	1		1			30	1			
13						30	1			
14	1					41	1			
15	1					45	1			
17						T O T A L	3	7	2	1
18	1					6	16.7	28.2	16.7	8.3
19	1									
20			1							
21	1									
22	1									
23	1									
24	1									
25	1									
26	1									
27			1							
28	1									
31	1									
32	1									
34	1									
35	1									
36	1			1						
40	1									
42	1									
43	1									
44	1									
T O T A L	8	18	4	1	0					
%	24.2	54.5	12.2	9.3						

TABLE 2.33A THE FREQUENCY WITH WHICH RESPONDENTS ENCH RATE THE USE OF ALL POSSIBLE RESOURCES TO AVOID COMMUNICATION BREAKDOWN

PRE 1966					POST 1966				
ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
1					2				1
2			1		3	1			
4	1				18	1			
5					16	1			
7	1				28		1		
8					29	1			
9	1				32		1		
11	1				37		1		
12	1				28	1			
13	1				39	1			
14			1		41	1			
15	1				45	1			
17					TO	4	3	1	8
18					T				
19			1		%	12.1	13.3	23.8	8.1
20									
21	1								
22									
23	1								
24			1						
25	1								
26	1								
27	1								
28	1								
31		1							
32									
34	1								
35									
36	1								
40									
42			1						
43	1								
44									
TO	4	11	18	6	8				
T									
%	12.1	29.4	38.2	18.2	8				

TABLE 2.34A FREQUENCY WITH WHICH THE LEARNER'S FIRST LANGUAGE IS PENALIZED

PRE 1966					POST 1966				
ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	ALWAYS	USUALLY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
1		1			2				1
2	1				3	1			
4	1				18	1			
5		1			16				1
7	1				28			1	
8	1				29		1		
9	1				32				1
11			1		37	1			
12	1				38	1			
13	1				39	1			
14	1				41	1			
15	1				45	1			
17			1		TO	1	6	1	1
18					T				
19		1			%	8.1	28.8	8.1	25.1
20									
21	1			1					
22		1							
23		1							
24	1								
25				1					
26			1						
27	1								
28	1	1							
31									
32			1						
34	1								
35	1								
36	1								
40		1							
42	1								
43		1							
44		1							
TO	11	16	1	1	2				
T									
%	11.1	46.3	3.8	9.1	6.1				

TABLE 8.33A DIFFERENT LANGUAGE ITEMS ARE TAUGHT IN A CERTAIN ORDER.

	PRE 1984		POST 1984		
	YES	NO	YES	NO	
1	1		2	1	
2		1	4	1	
4		1	10	1	
5	1		16	1	
7	1		28	1	
8		1	29	1	
9		1	32	1	
11		1	37	1	
12	1		38	1	
13	1		39	1	
14	1		41	1	
15		1	45	1	
17		1	TOT	4	8
18	1		%	33.3	66.7
19		1			
20		1			
21	1				
22		1			
23		1			
24		1			
25		1			
26		1			
27		1			
28		1			
31		1			
33		1			
34	1				
35		1			
36		1			
40	1				
42	1				
43	1				
44		1			
TOT	12	21			
%	36.4	63.6			

TABLE 8.34 WHETHER RESPONDENTS REGARD THEMSELVES AS SUCCESSFUL WHEN THEIR PUPILS PRODUCE FORMALLY CORRECT SENTENCES

	PRE 1984		POST 1984		
	YES	NO	YES	NO	
1	1		3	1	
2		1	6	1	
4		1	10	1	
5		1	16	1	
7		1	28	1	
8		1	29	1	
9	1	1	32	1	
11		1	37	1	
12	1		38	1	
13	1		39	1	
14	1		41	1	
15	1		45	1	
17	1		TOT	5	7
18		1	%	46.7	53.3
19	1				
20					
21	1				
22	1				
23	1				
24	1				
25	1				
26		1			
27		1			
30		1			
31		1			
33		1			
34	1				
35		1			
36	1				
40		1			
42		1			
43	1				
44		1			
TOT	16	18			
%	47.1	52.9			

TABLE 8.37A WHETHER PUPILS ARE GIVEN SPECIFIC ACTIVITIES TO IMPROVE SKILLS

	PRE 1984		POST 1984	
	YES	NO	YES	NO
1	1		3	1
2	1		6	1
4	1		10	1
5	1		16	1
7	1		28	1
8	1		29	1
9			32	1
11	1		37	1
12	1		38	1
13	1		39	1
14	1		41	1
15	1		45	1
17	1		TOT	12
18		1	%	100
19	1			
20	1			
21	1			
22	1			
23	1			
24	1			
25	1			
26	1			
27	1			
30	1			
31	1			
33	1			
34	1			
35	1			
36	1			
40	1			
42	1			
43	1			
44	1			
TOT	12	1		
%	96.9	3.1		

TABLE 8.38A WHETHER PUPILS SHOULD BE ENCOURAGED TO LIMIT ERRORS TO A MINIMUM

	PRE 1984		POST 1984		
	YES	NO	YES	NO	
1	1		3	1	
2	1		6	1	
4	1		10	1	
5	1		16	1	
7	1		28	1	
8	1		29	1	
9	1		32	1	
11	1		37	1	
12	1		38	1	
13	1		39	1	
14	1		41	1	
15	1		45	1	
17		1	TOT	10	4
18	1		%	71.4	28.6
19	1				
20		1			
21	1				
22	1				
23	1				
24	1				
25		1			
26		1			
27	1				
30	1				
31	1				
33	1				
34	1				
35	1				
36	1				
40	1				
42	1				
43		1			
44		1			
TOT	27	6			
%	81.8	18.2			

TABLE 8.11A SHOULD PUPILS MASTER TERMINOLOGY?

	PRE 1984			POST 1984		
	DEFINITELY	PERHAPS	NO	DEFINITELY	PERHAPS	NO
1	1			3		1
2		1		6		1
4	1			10		
5	1			16	1	
7			1	28		1
8		1		29		1
9	1			32		
11		1		37	1	
12		1		38		1
13	1			39		1
14	1			41		
15		1		45		1
17		1		TOT	2	3
18		1		%	16.7	58.3
19		1				
20		1				
21			1			
22			1			
23		1				
24	1					
25		1				
26	1					
27	1					
30		1				
31			1			
33		1				
34		1				
35	1					
36		1				
40		1				
42		1				
43	1					
44	1					
TOT	12	17	4	33		
%	36.4	51.5	12.1	100%		

TABLE 8.41A HOW GRAMMAR IS TAUGHT (1) AS A SEPARATE UNIT (2) INTEGRATED WITH COMPOSITION (3) IN CONJUNCTION WITH COMPOSITION (4) AS NEEDED

	PRE 1966				POST 1966				
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	
1		1			3	1			
2		1			6	1			
4				1	10	1			
5		1			14	1			
7		1			28	1			
8		1			29	1			
9		1			32	1			
11		1		1	37			1	
12		1	1	1	38	1			
13	1	1		1	39	1			
14		1			41	1			
15		1			45			1	
17				1	TOT	1	9	0	2
18		1			%	8.2	75.8	0	16.7
19		1							
20		1		1					
21		1		1					
22			1						
23		1							
24	1			1					
25				1					
26				1					
27				1					
30		1		1					
31				1					
33				1					
34		1							
35		1							
36				1					
40				1					
42				1					
43		1							
44				1					
TOT	2	20	2	18					
%	4.7	47.7	4.7	42.9					

TABLE 8.42A WHERE MATERIALS ARE DRAWN FROM FOR THE TEACHING OF GRAMMAR

	PRE 1966					POST 1966					
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
1	1	1	1			3	1	1	1		1
2	1	2				6	1	1	1		
4	1	1	1		1	10					
5	1		1			16	1	1	1		
7	1	1	1		1	25	1	1	1		1
8	1		1			29	1	1	1		
9		1	1			32	1	1	1		
11	1	1	1			37	1	1			1
12	1	1	1			38	1	1	1		1
13	1	1				39		1	1		
14	1		1			41	1	1	1		1
15	1	1				45		1	1		1
17	1	1	1	1	1	TOT	9	12	10	0	3
18	1		1			%	75.0	100	83.3	0	41.7
19		1	1		1						
20	1	1	1		1						
21	1	1	1								
22	1	1	1		1						
23		1	1								
24	1	1	1	1	1						
25	1	1	1		1						
26		1			1						
27		1	1	1							
30	1	1	1		1						
31		1	1								
33		1	1		1						
34		1									
35	1	1	1	1	1						
36			1								
40	1	1	1		1						
42		1	1								
43	1	1	1		1						
44		1	1								
TOT	22	27	29	3	15	33					
%	66.7	81.8	87.9	9.1	45.5	100%					

- 1 TEXTBOOK
- 2 TEACHER MADE WORK SHEETS
- 3 NEWSPAPER/PREScribed BOOKS
- 4 COMPUTER SOFTWARE
- 5 TV

TABLE B.43A WHY GRAMMAR IS TAUGHT
PRE 1964

	PRE 1964								POST 1964							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1								1	3	1	1	1	1			
2	1	1			1				6	1		1				
4		1				1	1		10	1			1	1		
5		1	1						16	1	1	1	1		1	
7			1	1					28	1						
8	1	1	1						29	1		1	1			
9	1	1	1						32	1						
11		1							37		1	1			1	
12									38	1						
13	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	39	1		1	1			
14	1	1	1	1	1				41		1					
19	1								45		1	1				
17				1					TOT	5	9	6	3	3	1	2
18		2		1					%							
19		1														
20	1															
21	1	1	1													
22			1		1											
23		1														
24	1		1	1	1											
25	1	1	1		1											
26		1														
27				1												
30								1								
31			1	1												
32			1					1								
34	1	1														
35		1		1		1	1									
36	1				1											
40								1								
42		1		1												
43		1														
44		1	1	1	1											
TOT	12	19	13	10	7	3	4	5								
%																

1	THE MORE MY PUPILS UNDERSTAND GRAMMAR, THE BETTER THEIR WRITING WILL BE
2	PUPILS NEED TO MASTER ENGLISH GRAMMAR AS AN ESSENTIAL PART OF THE LEARNING A LANGUAGE
3	THE STUDY OF GRAMMAR WILL IMPROVE STUDENTS' SPEECH PATTERNS
4	THE STUDY OF GRAMMAR LIKE THE STUDY OF MATHEMATICS, SHARPENS PUPILS' THINKING SKILLS
5	I WANT MY STUDENTS TO DO WELL IN THE EXAMINATIONS.
6	I PERSONALLY FIND THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE STRUCTURES FASCINATING
7	I FEEL THAT I AM DOING SOMETHING WHICH I KNOW IS VALUABLE TO THE PUPILS
8	ANY OTHER REASON

TABLE B.44A HOW SATISFIED RESPONDENTS ARE WITH THEIR PUPILS' LEVEL OF ENGLISH

	PRE 1964				POST 1964			
	HAPPY	NEUTRAL	DISSATISFIED	FRUSTRATED	HAPPY	NEUTRAL	DISSATISFIED	FRUSTRATED
1	1				3			
2		1			6	1		
4				1	10	1		
5		1			16	1		
7	1				28	1		
8	1				29		1	
9		1			32		1	
11			1		37	1		
12				1	38		1	
13	1				39	1		
14	1				41		1	
15					45	1		
17	1				TOT	7	5	
18	1				%	58.3	41.7	
19		1						
20		1						
21	1							
22		1	1					
23	1							
24	1							
25	1							
26	1							
27	1							
30	1							
31			1					
32		1						
34		1						
35	1							
36		1						
40	1							
42				1				
43		1						
44		1						
TOT	19	11	3	3	32			
%	30.0	34.2	9.4	9.4				

TABLE B-4A DO RESPONDENTS FEEL THAT THEIR PUPILS WILL HAVE SUFFICIENT COMPETENCE IN ENGLISH WHEN THEY LEAVE SCHOOL

	PRE 1966		POST 1966		
	YES	NO	YES	NO	
1	1		3		1
2	1		6	1	
4			10	1	
5	1		16	1	
7	1		28	1	
8	1		29	1	
9	1		32	1	
11		1	37	1	
12			38	1	
13	1		39	1	
14	1		41	1	
15	1		45	1	
17	1		TOT	11	1
18	6		%	97.7	8.1
19	1				
20	11				
21	1				
22		1			
23	1				
24	1				
25	1				
26		1			
27	1				
30	1				
31	1				
32		1			
34		1			
35	1				
36	1				
40	1				
42					
43	1				
44	1				
TOT	25	5			
%	82.1	16.7			

ADDENDUM D.8.1.9(a)

PRE -1986 RESPONSES:

1. Concentrating on skills pupils need in everyday life.
2. I believe pupils should be given enough theory of english (tenses etc) so that they will be able to understand the language, but for the rest everything they do should be based on 'real-life' situations. In CLT everything should be related to communication in everyday situations.
4. -Communication-speaking (comprehensive input)
 -informal talking (shake off inhibitions)
 -groupwork - chatting (relaxed atmosphere)
 -Putting "lookwork" into communication
 -Applying verbally what one has been taught (DO NOT FALL BACK INTO GRAMMAR RULE TEACHING PATTERN)
 -learners need to continue to communicate
 -learners should communicate frequently
5. Teacher must help pupils/students to develop skills required for everyday communication so that students will be able to express their own ideas, needs
7. To stimulate the pupils toward using the language as much as possible in as many different situations as possible in order to strengthen self confidence and the (unconsciously)

correct use of grammatical notions and functions

8. Pupils to be encouraged to express themselves in English-communicate freely and willingly- an everyday language.
9. To teach pupils to communicate with confidence by letting them 'experience' the language through reading, writing, newspaper work, interviews, etc.
11. Teaching a language not through rules and lists to be learnt but by using the language in speaking and discussions, "teaching" structures by using and emphasizing the language in natural communicative situations.
- 12 No Response
- 13 Teaching pupils to communicate in English at the same time placing less emphasis on the formal aspects of language in an effort to encourage a greater tendency to use the language, whether correctly or less so.
- 14 The emphasis on pupils' ability to make contact verbally rather than his ability to write accurately
- 15 The simulation of circumstances that would require the pupils to use functional English.
Exercises must be based on/aimed at the english pupils would need in their everyday interaction with people from various walks of life.
- 17 Exactly what the term "communication" constitutes → interaction between pupil an teacher.
- 18 No drill work is involved in a formal context; pupils word in groups and communicate in English, asking questions to practise various transformations and practising drill work among themselves in an informal context.

- 19 To teach so that the language is picked up/learnt spontaneously and not through formal teaching
- 20 To teach in such a way that pupils become more at ease when using English compared to a style where English becomes stilted
- 21 Emphasis on communication skills to the extent that these are utilized as teaching method
- 22 Aim - pupils must be able to communicate in English which teach reading, speaking, listening and writing in a co-ordinated way.
More practical approach - what can you "do" with the language.
- 23 Teaching the children to speak the language.
- 24 Teach relevant terminology only pupils should be able to communicate both orally and in writing in a fluent and error-free manner.
- 25 Emphasis on USE of English rather than USAGE. Ample opportunities for pupils to speak the language. English taught in context - not mere theory and rules.
- 26 Learning by doing
- 27 Teaching pupils, through communication to go out and be able to help themselves when they have to communicate in English - giving them the confidence to speak the language even if it comes out all wrong at times.
- 30 CLT is the teaching of a language within the framework of "real" language needed for "real" communication as opposed to the linguistic acrobatics of former syllabi and teaching systems.

- 31 Pupil is assisted in his communication with his world where he should successfully live.
- 33 Using English as practical a way as possible.
- 34 All areas of language are taught/used in such a way that the pupils will leave school fully able to read, write and speak English fluently.
- 35 To prepare a pupil for the spoken and written world of every day. Thus material must be centred around regular usage.
- 36 Teaching language in action by means of various language activities. Steering clear of grammatical terminology.
- 40 Little formal grammar is done, but English is taught on an informal basis e.g. a newspaper passage leads to comprehension, an essay, grammar exercises and oral. English as it is spoken and used NOW
- 42 Emphasis on practical usage.
Integration of various aspects.
- 43 Informal learning of language context, concepts, rules, use etc by means of literature, reading, communicating, etc.
- 44 Formal grammar and discussions
When pupils know the "why" they can carry on with communicative talking, writing and expressing themselves.

POST-1986 RESPONSES:

- 3 Teaching English so that it becomes relevant to the pupil. He/She must be able to see why he needs to have knowledge of a particular aspect and how he will be able to use one

- day in his normal daily life.
- 6 Acquisition of language as apposed to learning the language.
- 10 Teaching English so that pupils will be able to use it on everyday situations.
- 16 To get the pupils speaking in your lessons.
To encourage them to speak English and not to be afraid of making errors.
- 28 To enable pupils to correspond with the world outside school - to teach them about life.
Using all possible helping devices e.g. video's newspapers, etc.
- 29 Teaching a student who is not a L1 speaker to communicate effectively - it should be regarded as a life skill - optimize the L2 speaker's potential.
To be understood in all types of situations.
- 32 Pupils must be guided in using English for realistic and every day purposes. The skills to do this effectively must be acquired. The motivation and enthusiasm to enjoy and understand English must be incorporated.
- 37 Language in use → functional use of English as language in which one should be able to communicate, applied to different situations. should be accompanied by basic grammar

- 38 Not learning from text book. Learning the language as it is used. Teacher acts as mediator.
- 39 Emphasis is not placed on formal grammar. The educator places the children in every day situations and emphasis is placed on general communication and comprehension of the language. The teacher becomes more a mediator.
- 41 not rote learning
learning the language as it is used
teacher acts as mediator
- 45 Textbook learning scaled down considerably. Emphasis on integrated teaching by means of worksheets compiled from magazines newspapers, setworks. Maximum pupil participation. Teacher → a guide NOT a lecturer, martinet, orgre.

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SWA/NAMIBIË SE KOERANTE IN 'N TYD VAN VERANDERING

deur

LISEL KRIGE

Tesis ingelewer ter gedeeltelike voldoening aan die vereistes vir die graad Magister in Joernalistiek aan die Universiteit van Stellenbosch.

Studieleier: Prof H.J. Grosskopf

Ingelewer op 16 November 1988

Verklaring

Ek die ondergetekende verklaar hiermee dat die werk in hierdie tesis vervat, my eie oorspronklike werk is wat nog nie vantevore in die geheel of gedeeltelik by enige ander Universiteit ter verkryging van 'n graad voorgelê is nie.