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**AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE LANGUAGE EDUCATORS'
APPLICATION OF CONTEMPORARY LINGUISTICS IN
RELATION TO THE LANGUAGE TEACHING SITUATION AT
THE UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-WESTVILLE**

KAMLA MAHARAJ

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THE UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-WESTVILLE**

By

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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts
in the School of Languages and Literature in the Faculty of Humanities at
the University of Durban-Westville.

SUPERVISOR : DR AK AZIZ

DATE SUBMITTED : DECEMBER 2000

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DECLARATION

The Registrar (Academic)
UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-WESTVILLE

Dear Sir

I, Kamla Maharaj

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hereby declare that the dissertation entitled

An investigation into the language educators' application of contemporary linguistics in relation to the language teaching situation at the University of Durban-Westville

is the result of my own investigation and research and that it has not been submitted in part or in full for any other degree to any other University.

K. Maharaj
.....
Signature

11/12/2000
.....
Date

FOR

Tookie, Dilbar, Rosh, Yagambhaiji, Dockie

and

My mamma and pappa

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am greatly indebted to my supervisor, Dr AK Aziz, who has constantly supported me over the years in the course of study. His guidance, supervision, patience and understanding is undoubtedly appreciated.

A deep sense of gratitude to Profs AJ van Wyk and DP McCracken for having given me the go-ahead to pursue my investigation within the School of Languages.

My appreciation to Dr A Jadwat and his fellow students in the Academic literacy programme for administering the questionnaire.

I am grateful to the language educators in the Faculty of Humanities for being overly considerate; for without their co-operation this study would not have been possible.

The financial assistance of the National Research Foundation (NRF South Africa) towards this project is hereby acknowledged. Opinions expressed and conclusions arrived at, are those of the author and are not necessarily to be attributed to the National Research Foundation.

I am particularly impressed with and grateful to Ms Vicky Ireland, Assistant Registrar (Administration) at UND for her prompt attention with regard to UND's Language Draft Policy.

My thanks are due to my family, friends and colleagues for their continued support and cheerful encouragement.

Finally special thanks, appreciation and gratitude are due to the Divine Power who made this all possible.

ABSTRACT

This investigation analyses current issues in the language teaching situation at the University of Durban-Westville (UDW). It defines parameters with which language educators can make choices. Effective language teaching is perceived as essential in order to have competent language learners. Language teaching (be it first, second or a foreign language) usually encompasses a body of knowledge that is drawn from linguistic and language learning theories. A practical component is also included which is based on the choice of teaching methodology. Several historical factors also played a major role in determining the manner in which languages should be taught at the University of Durban-Westville (UDW).

The aim of this study was to evaluate the teaching situation at UDW. The primary focus was to investigate whether educators were applying the principles of contemporary linguistics in the language teaching situation at UDW. It became apparent that not many educators were applying the specific aspects of contemporary linguistics in their teaching. This inquiry considered the role of contemporary linguistics in language teaching and concentrates on the relevance and importance of the various components of linguistics

The chapter on some of the aspects of language teaching, including teaching strategies presented a discussion of the instructional options available for the responsive language educator. Language planning and policy was considered as a potential area of specialization.

Formal and informal seminars, and workshops promoting the importance of contemporary linguistics and a genuine recommendation for language educators to pay some attention to L2 learning research was re-emphasized

TITLE: Language Educators and Contemporary Linguistics

ABBREVIATIONS

| | | |
|-------|---|---|
| AAC | - | Affirmative Action Committee |
| ANOVA | - | Analysis of Variance |
| CLL | - | Community Language Learning |
| EFL | - | English as a Foreign Language |
| EOC | - | Equal Opportunity Committee |
| K-ZN | - | Kwa-Zulu Natal |
| L2 | - | Second Language Acquisition |
| LP | - | Language Planning |
| LOLT | - | Learners of Language Teaching |
| SA | - | South Africa |
| SAIRR | - | South African Institute of Race Relations |
| SLA | - | Second Language Acquisition |
| UDW | - | University of Durban-Westville |
| UND | - | University of Natal, Durban |

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Problem

South Africa is a multilingual country where, since the inception of this decade, socio-political changes are taking place. Constitutionally, eleven languages have been entrenched as officially recognised. In addition, communities may promote their heritage languages.

In such a language contact situation, one of three possible outcomes for the multiple languages is interference from one or more language systems under influence from the other(s). This creates language learning difficulties and problems. The influence of and interference or "intercession" from one or more language systems occurs in all aspects of the second language (L2) but it is highly evident in L2 phonology. Ellis (1986:40) considers "the foreign accent to be ubiquitous". For instance when an English person speaks Hindi, his accent is still very English and when a Zulu speaker converses in English the Zulu accent is still very prominent.

Stevick (1976:3) lends the most essential insight on this crucial role of language when he contends that "By speech we design bridges and fight wars, we express our deep feelings and our inner aspirations, and even set forth our most subtle linguistic theories, we can talk about talk and so on forever. Language is the special treasure of our race. It depends on what we call the mind, but it comes out of the entire person. To learn a second language is to move from one mystery to another".

The level of proficiency in learning and acquiring a second language (L2) is dependent on the manner in which the learner learns the L2 as well as the way it is taught. Teachers and learners should "do it right", according to Krashen cited in (Dulay 1982:3).

Effective language teaching is essential in order to have competent language learners. Language teaching (be it first, second or a foreign language) usually encompasses a body of knowledge, that is drawn from linguistic and language learning theories, namely, Innatist hypothesis, Behaviourist Theory, Functionalist Theory, Universal Theory and Bioprogram Theory. A practical component is also included, which is based on the choice of teaching methodology, for example, the sociological dimension, the ontological dimension, teleological dimension, epistemological dimension and the methodological dimension of teaching. The past ten years has seen a major shift with regard to the awareness of language teaching. There is supposedly a move away from the study of grammar which is seen as compulsory and the main component has ventured to include, discourse analysis, syntax, semantics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, neurolinguistics and so on. Current observation, opinion and research shows that while there is an improvement in theoretical and research matters, very few educators are occupied in researching and developing their linguistic skills. There is a substantial gap between what they know, what they ought to know, what they research and what they are teaching.

Applied linguistics can be of tremendous assistance in overcoming language learning and language teaching problems. I believe that contemporary linguistics has much to offer to language educators. It has made amazing advances, in recent years, in the fields of phonetics and phonology, in syntax and semantics and discourse structure and many more. There have been enormous developments in the fields of psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and neurolinguistics. The result of all this is a formidable body of knowledge of unquestionable relevance to any language educator. Several structured

interviews were conducted at the University of Durban-Westville (UDW). Language educators were required to discuss their approaches in teaching a particular language. Whilst many interviewees gave an elaborate account of their teaching of a language the problem seemed to be that not many were applying the specific aspects of contemporary linguistics in their teaching.

1.2 Definition and Explication of the Concept "Applied Linguistics"

Applied Linguistics is a wide field of study in which linguistic principles and methods are brought to bear on or applied, to a wide variety of language activities. Most familiarly, the term is applied to the analysis of L2 teaching but it can also be applied to the use of linguistics in such fields as mother-tongue teaching, lexicography, translation, and language planning. This term can also be used in the fields like Clinical Linguistics (special disorder and treatment) and Critical Linguistics. (Crystal 1994:24).

In this study, however, analysis will be confined to the use of linguistics in teaching languages as first language (L1) or L2 at the University of Durban-Westville (UDW) campus.

1.3 Definition of Language Acquisition

Language acquisition is regarded as a natural process that occurs subconsciously in an environment where language is spoken naturally in meaningful communication. (Crystal 1994:5).

Language acquisition operates within a particular theoretical framework. These theories concentrate on how acquisition and learning take place. Some of these models highlight

the external contributory factors while others discuss the internal processes involved. The next section looks at these theories.

1.4 Theories of Second Language Acquisition

Seven theories which are seen to be influential in second language teaching, acquisition and learning will be discussed below. The primary variables of each theory will be outlined and this will be followed by a critical evaluation.

1.4.1 The Acculturation Model

Barry McLaughlin (1987:110) states that "second language acquisition is just one aspect of acculturation and the degree to which a learner acculturates to the target group will control the degree to which he acquires the second language." This hypothesis suggests that acculturation is a process of adapting to the culture of the target group.

Schumann's (1978b) social and psychological distance idea cited in Ellis (1986:252) reveals that there are many factors which determine whether the learning situation is good or bad. McLaughlin (1987:111) also agrees that the "good or bad" learning situation is governed by social and psychological variables as described in (Table 1.1) on the succeeding page.

Table 1.1 Factors determining the social and psychological distance

| <u>Social distance</u> | |
|--|--|
| <u>Positive</u> | <u>Negative</u> |
| The L2 and the target language groups see each other as socially equal | Do not see each other as socially equal |
| The L2 and the target language groups hope that the L2 will assimilate | Do not desire for assimilation |
| Both groups wish to share social facilities with the target language group | Do not expect to share facilities |
| The L2 group is small and not very cohesive | The L2 group is large and cohesive |
| The L2 group's culture is congruent with that of the target language group | The L2 group's culture is not congruent |
| Both groups perceive each other in a positive light | Groups do not see each in a positive light |
| The L2 group intends to remain in the target language environment for a lengthy period | The group does not intend to remain in the target language for a long time |
| <u>Psychological distance</u> | |
| <u>Positive</u> | <u>Negative</u> |
| No language shock | Language shock |
| No culture shock | Culture shock |
| High Motivation | Low motivation |
| Low ego boundaries | High ego boundaries |

Based on Schumann 1978a. Adapted from McLaughlin 1987:111

This hypothesis suggests that acculturation is a process of adapting to the culture of the target group. The degree of social and psychological distance between the learner and the target language culture is the determining factor for second language acquisition (SLA). This distance will influence the learning of SLA by determining the amount of contact they have with the target language and the degree to which they are open to the input that is available.

The present language teaching situation at UDW reveals that social and psychological distance between target language and L2 groups are wide and this is due to the lack of knowledge on the part of the language educators.

The central criticism of this model is that it does not look at the internal processes involved in language learning in that it does not "shed light on how L2 knowledge is internalized and used" (Ellis 1986:254).

1.4.2 The Accommodation Theory

This model is based on the research of Giles (1982) cited in Ellis (1986:252) who considers the intergroup uses of language in multilingual communities and operates within a socio-psychological framework.

Ellis (1986:252) postulates that Giles's primary concern is to investigate how intergroup uses of language usage reflect basic social and psychological attitudes in inter-ethnic communication. The Accommodation Model obtains much feedback in the relationship that exists between the learners social group (termed the 'ingroup') and the target language community (termed the outgroup).

But Schumann sees social and psychological distance as static while Giles sees intergroup relations as powerful, dynamic and in keeping with the changing views of the

"identity" held by the "ingroup" and the "outgroup" (Giles 1982:259). A very natural syntactic development occurs during SLA. Meaning is negotiated by conversational strategies as well as when speakers of the target group adjust their speech with the speech of the L2 group (source group). Ellis (1986:258) argues that this theory is "another black box" because it does not explain assembly mechanisms and also does not account for the developmental sequence. The merit of this theory is that it encompasses language acquisition and language use within the same paradigm.

1.4.3 The Discourse Theory

As purported by Cherry (1979:259) and cited in Ellis (1986:259) that "through communicating with other people children accomplish actions in the world and develop the rules of language structure and use". The interpersonal use of language (ie. by communication) helps with development of formal linguistic devices and these are used for understanding/realizing basic language function.

A very natural syntactic development occurs during SLA. Meaning is also negotiated by conversational strategies as well as when speakers of the target group adjust their speech with the speech of the L2 group (source group). Ellis (1986:259) concludes that the 'natural' route is the result of learning how to hold a conversation.

This theory considers describing how the external processes of SLA take place. It does not bear evidence of the internal processes for SLA. Consequently Hatch (1978c; 2978d) cited in Ellis (1986:259) ignores the cognitive processes that are responsible for controlling and constructing discourse between the learner and the target speaker.

1.4.4 The Monitor Model

This model has achieved considerable applause in SLA circles. Krashen's Monitor Theory might be easily understood by researchers and practitioners but it certainly has its limitations which will be made apparent at the end of this particular approach.

There are five basic hypotheses which constitute Krashen's Theory. These will now be discussed.

1.4.4.1 The Acquisition-Learning Distinction Hypothesis

Ellis (1986:261) points out that "acquisition" occurs subconsciously as a result of participating in natural communication where the focus is on meaning. "Learning" occurs as a result of conscious study of the formal properties of language.

This hypothesis concentrates on a process of internalizing new L2 knowledge, storing this knowledge and using the L2 knowledge in real performance. Acquisition occurs when a learner is participating in meaningful interaction in a natural communicative environment. The attention here is on meaning rather than on form. On the contrary language is learnt in a consistent study of the formal properties of language. Here the focus is on form, error detection and correctness.

1.4.4.2 The Natural Order Hypothesis

The primary source of information is obtained from the much researched "morpheme" study that was initially undertaken by Dulay and Burt. This study was known as the order

of acquisition of grammatical morphemes or "function" in English. It was conducted on five to eight year old children learning English as a second language. Krashen (1985:1) cited in McLaughlin (1987:30) outlines "that we acquire rules of language in a predictable order, some rules tending to come early, and others late. The order does not appear to be determined solely by formal simplicity and there is evidence that it is independent of the order in which rules are taught in language classes". Putting it more succinctly, this idea/hypothesis states that grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable order.

Larsen, Freeman and McLaughlin (1991:242) argue that "Krashen's 'natural order' is his synthesis of findings of the morpheme studies; studies which actually addressed accuracy, or difficulty orders, not acquisition orders". This hypothesis is considered mostly on 'morpheme' study and the focus is on final form. It is questionable because it does not provide credible information regarding acquisitional processes.

1.4.4.3 The Monitor Hypothesis

This hypothesis is regarded as a mechanism that learners use to edit language performance. It makes use of "'learnt knowledge by acting upon and modifying utterances generated from 'acquired' knowledge". (Ellis 1986:262).

Krashen (1982:16) cited in McLaughlin (1987:25) maintains that there are three requirements for the use of the monitor, namely that there must be ample time for learning; the attention should be on form, not meaning and the learner should know the rules. This hypothesis is limited in its use and is therefore questionable.

1.4.4.4 The Input Hypothesis

In the Natural Order Hypothesis discussed earlier, Krashen's assumption was that "learning" progresses through natural developmental sequences. The role of the Input Hypothesis is to account for how learners go from one point to another. Krashen (1985:2) argues that "humans acquire language in only one way - by understanding messages, or by receiving 'comprehensible input' ...".

When the learner has slightly understood input which is beyond the current level of competence, then acquisition takes place. The Input hypothesis cannot be tested because it does not offer answers with regard to the fact that acquisition can take place without two-way negotiation of meaning. It fails to see that output is vital in SLA.

1.4.4.5 The Affective Filter Hypothesis

This hypothesis concentrates on the relationship between affective factors and SLA. Affective factors include motivation, self-confidence, aptitude, age, role of the first language, routine and patterns.

Krashen has not given a coherent account for the development of the affective filter and the framework for relating the affective filter to individual differences in language teaching.

Krashen's interpretation of the Monitor Theory certainly stimulated much data-based research and this led to the contemporary perspective in the language teaching sphere. Ellis's (1986:261) standpoint is that "Despite its comprehensiveness the Monitor Theory remains a 'Black Box' Theory. Krashen has not given any coherent explanation for the development of the affective filter to individual differences in language learning.

Though Krashen's Monitor Theory Hypothesis is given much credibility it is very problematic. There are grave shortcomings concerning the usefulness of the acquisition-learning distinction because it is considered in terms of another distinction, namely between conscious and sub-conscious processes. (McLaughlin 1987: 56)

1.4.5 The Variable Competence Model

This model stems from the perspective that the manner in which a language is learnt (the process of language use) is a reflection of the way it is used (product of language). The product of language use consists of a continuum of discourse type ranging from completely unplanned (ie. lacking forethought and preparation) to completely planned (carefully thought out before communicating).

The difference between linguistic knowledge (rules) and the ability to make use of this knowledge (procedures) is known as the process of language. This theory can be improved in the following way:

- 1) A more comprehensive analysis of the primary and secondary processes responsible for use and acquisition
- 2) The overall framework should incorporate the role of input

1.4.6 The Universal Hypothesis

This hypothesis offers some useful information with respect to the linguistic properties of the learners second language (L2) and the learners first language (L1). There are two positive contributions of this hypothesis for SLA. Firstly the hypothesis focuses attention on the nature of the target language itself. Secondly it states that transfer is an important factor in SLA.

It has however impacted negatively in that it is unable to define the markedness construct. The Universal Hypothesis cannot clarify whether markedness should be viewed merely as a linguistic construct or whether it has psycholinguistic validity. Variables are overlooked because it assumes that linguistic knowledge is homogenous. (Ellis1986: 270).

1.4.7 The Neurofunctional Theory

Lamendella (1979:5) cited in Ellis (1986:27) considers "the neurolinguistic perspective on language as attempting to characterize the neurolinguistic information processing systems responsible for the development and use of language".

The fundamental standpoint of this view of SLA is the relationship between language function and the neural anatomy. The neurolinguistic correlates of language functions can be tracked down but the evidence concerning neurofunctions and their neurolinguistic correlates is very vague.

1.5 Organisation of this Project

This project comprises nine chapters. The first chapter introduces the central problem of the dissertation which is the teaching difficulties experienced by language educators. It outlines the theories upon which language teaching, acquisition and learning is based. Some space has been devoted to evaluating the theories as well as briefly informing how each theory will show its relevance with regard to whether the language educators are using one or more of these theories in their language teaching situation. The introductory chapter also defines and explains the concepts, "language acquisition" and "applied linguistics".

Chapter two describes the historical perspective of the language learning and teaching situation at UDW and Chapter Three states the second language acquisition research methodology. A summary of the outcome of the interviews conducted with the language educators and the analysis and discussion of the questionnaire that was administered to language learners in the Academic literacy programme is presented in Chapter four. Chapter Five statistically illustrates the results of the analysis of the questionnaire. The need for language educators to have some knowledge of linguistics, its application, insights and implications is emphasized in Chapter six. Some salient aspects of language teaching is discussed in Chapter seven. Chapter eight points out the weakness of the language teaching system and goes on to offer some innovative ideas on policy and planning. Chapter nine makes some concluding remarks and re-emphasizes a few recommendations.

1.6 Sources of Data

1.6.9.1 Review of theories of language acquisition and teaching

1.6.9.2 Interviews of language educators

1.6.9.3 Questionnaire administered to learners in the Academic literacy programme

1.7 Conclusion

This chapter has identified the central problem of this study, namely, to determine whether language educators are applying the principles of contemporary linguistics in the language teaching situation at UDW.

The terms "language acquisition" and "applied linguistics" were defined. This was followed by a discussion and an evaluation of seven theories of second language acquisition.

The first three theories in this Chapter concentrate on the external processes that are responsible for language acquisition and learning though Hatch in Discourse Theory (1983:186) cited in Ellis (1987:261) is fully aware that there is a cognitive side to the learning/acquisition process.

The Monitor Theory, The Variable Competence Model, The Universal Hypothesis and the The Neurofunctional Theory discuss various aspects of the internal processes that are responsible for second language acquisition.

The next chapter discusses the historical perspective of the language learning and teaching situation at UDW.

CHAPTER TWO

LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING AT UDW: A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

2.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter seven theories of second language acquisition were discussed and their importance emphasized. The concept, "applied linguistics" was defined.

This chapter will first look at the historical perspective: when and how language was introduced at UDW. Thereafter the investigator will attempt to highlight the variables involved in the establishment of the many languages at UDW. This will include the common platform for studying eastern and western and an African language and development of eastern, western and an African discipline. The dominant influence of English will also be illustrated. A comprehensive picture of the above factors will take the shape of the conclusion.

2.2 Introduction of language learning and teaching at UDW: A Historical Perspective

In 1965 many viable factors were considered when different languages were introduced at UDW. For example, Indian languages were brought on bearing a strong religious cultural background. Despite the negative dominant influences of the western society, Indians held on steadfast to their heritage. The Indian culture faced the danger that a lack of its historical rationale and human significance would have created a purely "ritualistic pattern of unreflective traditions" in that the Anthropologico-Humanistic approach to language teaching is used for what underlies the methods in which the following factors are considered important (Oosthuizen: 1981):

- a) the development of human values
- b) growth in self-awareness and in the understanding of others
- c) sensitivity to human feelings and emotions
- d) active student involvement in learning and in the way learning takes place (student-centred learning) (Stevick 1980)

The University's aim was to "constructively contribute to a strengthening of cultural consciousness and self-respect on the part of the Indian community - bearing in mind that the primary elements could also be taught to the other cultural groups at the University" (Oosthuizen 1981:123).

2.2.1 The Academic Pursuit of Knowledge

The University's decisive role proved to be supportive towards the Indian community. A common platform for studying eastern and western languages was created. The importance of striking a balance between the study of the value of world wide cultures was appreciated. Oosthuizen et al (1981:123) mention that "academically there is greater merit in studying values expressed in world-wide cultures as a whole, than there is in confining oneself to one civilization".

While there were clear differences between the eastern and western cultures and civilization, there were also many glaring similarities. This was observed in the areas of languages, religion and philosophy (Oosthuizen 1981:124).

2.2.2 Eastern disciplines and their development

The primary objective was the study of relevant elements of the political and cultural history of India, the Islamic world and the far east. In 1961 the Department of Oriental studies was established. The department acted as the hub for further development of additional departments offering more specialized studies. (Oosthuizen et al 1981:124).

At the time the Sanskrit and Arabic Departments were also established.

Eastern disciplines were regarded as a highly significant and an integral element of the humanities in South Africa. The university hoped to demonstrate the "living presence of the Indian cultural heritage" (Oosthuizen 1981). This was achieved by making the cultural element an internationally significant study area.

2.2.3 The Subject of Language

According to Oosthuizen et al (1981:126) languages are the bearers of their relevant civilizations. Many people view language as encompassing literature, art, history, philosophy and law. By studying languages as well as their relevant disciplines as outlined above one is able to develop an understanding of different societies.

2.2.3.1 Western Classical and Modern Languages

The study of classical languages revealed some kind of evidence of western civilization. One of the primary reasons for studying these languages was that it created/forged a close connection with modern languages and literature.

Hebrew, Greek and Latin were seen as a necessity. One had to study one of the above languages in order to gain insight into the authentic classical sources of Theology and

Law. During the 1960 period Theology and Law were regarded as highly significant disciplines. Sanskrit was the classical language of India. This study provided a link between the east and the west.

The information offered by Oosthuizen et al (1981:127) contends that "modern western languages gave direct access to western culture and civilization which have become the basis of South African Life. The languages were held in high esteem. They provided easy access to authentic sources in the humanities, natural sciences and theology".

English, which was the official language was spoken by majority of the Indian student population. In 1980 a survey was conducted and this was indicative of the language(s) spoken at home. The results are shown in Table 2.1 (Adapted from Oosthuizen 1981:127).

Table 2.1 Languages spoken at home

| | English | | English and Afrikaans | | English and Vernacular | | Vernacular | | TOTAL |
|----------------|----------------|--------------|------------------------------|-------------|-------------------------------|--------------|-------------------|-------------|--------------|
| | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | |
| Males | 283 | 71,11 | 7 | 1,76 | 81 | 20,35 | 27 | 6,78 | 398 |
| Females | 213 | 69,16 | 2 | 0,65 | 65 | 2,10 | 28 | 9,09 | 308 |
| TOTAL | 496 | 70,25 | 9 | 1,28 | 146 | 20,68 | 55 | 7,79 | 706 |

The above table is self-explanatory. It illustrates the role of English and the subtractive use of the Indian languages.

2.2.3.2 The Importance of English to the Indian Community and the University

In 1960 the Nationalist Government's calculations emphasized an exclusive college for Indians. This encouraged the preservation and promotion of culture and ethnic attributes. The Government seemingly did not anticipate (that a passive minority group would be influenced by the other surrounding race groups, eg. white group). For one century, and more the fourth generation Indians began accommodating to an English community (Non-Indian). Their daily living habits saw a great shift from traditional perspectives. English became the language of wider communication (lingua franca) and they began to adopt the "language of the masters", (Oosthuizen 1981:136) and thus English exerted a subtractive influence on Indian languages, that is, when English became the language of instruction in most instances it replaced the children's first language.

2.2.3.3 Other Western languages

Afrikaans was introduced at the University on the grounds that it was the other official language. In 1966 teachers had to have bilingual qualification in order to gain employment within the civil service. The Afrikaans Department met the needs of many teachers by preparing them for this task.

German and French were introduced purely from an academic perspective. French was viewed as highly relevant to the African continent. The wider communication of the former French territories of Africa is French.

2.2.3.4 An African Language

In 1978 the Zulu Department was established. It presented an opportunity for Indians to learn the language in order to be able to communicate to the Zulu speaking community.

The idea behind this move occurred because it was discovered that many Indians were speaking Fanagalo to their fellow Zulu speakers which at that time was seen as offensive.

2.2.3.5 Eastern languages

The eastern languages included Hindi, Tamil, Telugu, Urdu and Gujarati. The languages were offered according to the linguistic background of the Indian community. The study of the Islamic heritage necessitated the introduction of Arabic and Persian.

2.3 Conclusion

The purpose for doing this historical survey was to gain insight on the main objectives of introducing the many languages at the University. This section has briefly looked at the Academic pursuits of knowledge; the eastern disciplines and their development; the subject of languages; western classical and modern languages and eastern languages.

The investigator's aim was to identify the few underlying factors that led to the establishment of the erstwhile language departments at UDW. The discussion above has clearly revealed that languages were introduced mainly for anthropological, humanistic reasons (training of teachers whose jobs were guaranteed by the Department of Education and Culture). Language was seen as a tool that could help maintain one's cultural heritage. The various eastern and western languages were undertaken in order to generate a commonness amongst the diverse learner population. This University would be seen in a favourable light both internationally and locally - if they could demonstrate that they respect world-wide cultures and values.

The researcher's focus in this project is to study language for language's sake; studying it with the intention of being able to effectively communicate in a particular language and

most importantly studying language in the true sense. By that is meant that languages should be studied by applying the principles of linguistics.

The Department of English (now part of the School of languages) was predominantly a literature department. In 1973 an Indian dimension was introduced (but to a very small extent). The English Department revealed extreme superficiality and lacked the intensity that literature should illustrate. Commonwealth literature (eg. Jane Austen's *Bath* was studied rather than English literature of the local South African community).

Oosthuizen (1981:140) explains that the South African Indian sentiments were "akin to that of Gandhi", who said "The medium created an impassable barrier between me and the members of my family who had not gone through English medium schools ... I was fast becoming a stranger in my own home". A similar perspective was shared by Nadine Gordimer who mentioned that she was "brought up into the life of a South African Mine". Stories about the aristocratic English families, their governesses, ponies, and snowflights were "weird". The content in story books were not about "a girl like Anna" and her parents who were called "Missus and Baas".

History vividly reveals the dynamics of the processes involved during the introduction of the languages mentioned above. Needless to say that this is part of a whole another topic called politics where languages were introduced considering the politics of a particular situation, a particular era and a particular country.

It can unreservedly be mentioned that this is where the entire plan began. Obviously educators were recruited according to what was stipulated in the University Council's decisions. This meant that, for example, one might have possessed good communication skills in Hindi, but this was not vital. I think what was important was that one had the ability to promote the culture of a certain society.

During the researcher's years of studying eastern languages (between 1983 - 1988) which included Hindi as a major and Sanskrit as a compulsory ancillary, it was discovered that a few of the fellow students studied these languages for the purpose of strengthening their religious beliefs. A good knowledge of Hindi, for instance would enable them to understand the contents of Indian mythology and scriptures. Some students studied purely for teaching purposes. Hindi was recognised as a subject in primary schools. Teachers were trained to secure jobs in the Department of Education and Culture. The majority of the part-time students attending lectures were school teachers. The incentive for studying was that with every additional qualification a raise in salary and status would occur. Some studied assuming it was "just one more course in the bag" . A few genuinely studied Hindi for the passion. Being able to communicate in one's own vernacular; to know , understand and appreciate the sounds of the language, being able to construct sentences and communicate effectively. This was an achievement for those who had an inclination towards studying language for language sake and to appreciate the underlying linguistics principles (though linguistic was not taught consciously).

Even phonetics (a component of linguistics) was studied with the intention of research and how it was used in the Al-Quran and in the Hindi Novel (Oosthuizen 1981:128).

In the Section on Western Classical and Modern Language (2.2.3.1) above, one saw that Hebrew, Greek and Latin were pre-requisite courses for subjects taken in theology and law. For instance, studying law meant that Latin had to be studied. A thorough knowledge of Latin was required for the study of many legal aspects and the terminology used in Law.

A well-defined research design and methodology will be discussed in the next chapter. Some of the social research methods used for this study will be outlined and a detailed justification as to the actual steps taken in order to be able to appropriately qualify and quantify the data. The statistical analysis will be dealt with in Chapter Four.

CHAPTER THREE

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION RESEARCH METHODOLOGY



3.1 Introduction

A carefully planned research design is necessary in order to produce a systematic piece of research. Oral interviews quite frequently assist in accumulating data for research purposes. The investigator chose the interview method since it was spontaneous and most of the feedback was direct. Though the subjects being interviewed were allowed freedom of speech, the interviewee did exercise some control since there was limited time and some of the academics had a tendency to deviate to a great length. (See **Appendix 1**)

The principle objective of this study was to determine the varied opinions of the language educators. A questionnaire was administered to learners in the Academic literacy programme. It was used as an ancillary research instrument and one of the primary aims was to determine whether they preferred studying their disciplines through the medium of English. (See **Appendix 2**) The methodology used in the investigation will be discussed in this chapter.

3.2 Aim of this study

This study aims at evaluating whether language educators are applying the principles of contemporary linguistics in their language teaching situation. The person to person interview was conducted in order to provide a reliable account of the teaching situation at UDW. Many language educators made claims of applying the various components of linguistics. This interview method would enable the investigator to measure to what

extent academics were applying (if at all) the principles of one, two or all components of linguistics in the language teaching situation at UDW.

3.3 The Concept: Interview: An Explanation

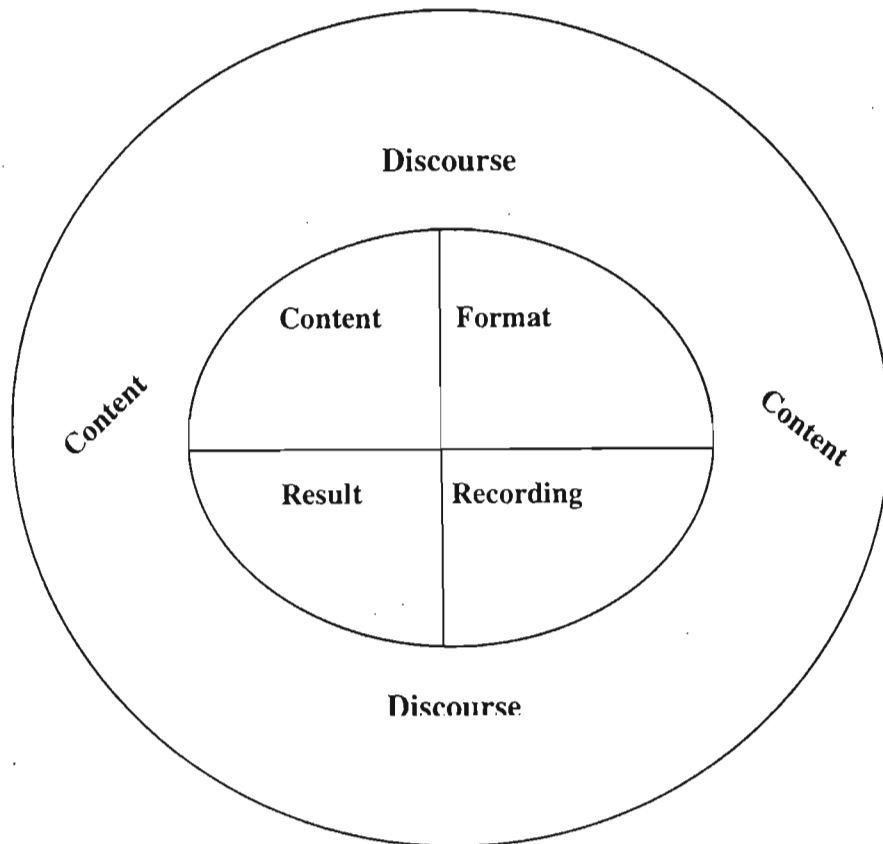
According to the Oxford Dictionary (1990:621), an interview is a "meeting of persons face to face". An interview is directed mainly towards obtaining information. Linguistics and Communication Theories suggest that the processes of interviewing could be made up of interplays among human speech mechanisms and a variety of social and cultural elements. The interviewer and the interviewee "affect one another through their social interaction" (Epstein 1985:2). Breakwell (1990:3) lists the different types of interviews as follows: selection interviews; appraisal interviews; research interviews and media interviews. This study had obviously undertaken the research interview type in order to achieve the potential benefit of the investigator's research question.

3.4 The Interview Schedule

A thoroughly structured interview schedule was used. The interviews were dealt with in accordance with the formal components of an interview. Epstein (1985:31) advocates that the format consists of "a particular interview mode, its planned or accidental sequence and its organization, all designed to deliver a service". The interview consists of patterns of discourse (eg. speech and body language). The discourse which occurs in a context of a particular environment, is made up of content and format. The interview process usually includes recording for the purpose of transcribing and also for the sake of making information easily available. In the taped phase the interviews are transcribed in accordance with one's pre-meditated objectives. In this way the maximum benefit is obtained. During the interviews for this study the topic under investigation was mentioned and the interviewer went on to ask the academics to discuss the four basic components of linguistics. All the interviews were excerpted from the transcript of a tape recorded interview. Figure 3.1 below is an explicit illustration of the above facets which

were utilized by the investigator (Adapted from Epstein 1985:32) on the composition of an interview). The results of which will be discussed in the next chapter.

Figure 3.1 The Composition of an Interview



3.5 Questionnaire design and format

In addition to the interviews being conducted, a questionnaire was executed by the researcher. Babbie (1998:45) reiterates that the items on a questionnaire should be carefully planned and structured. The following factors should be considered during this exercise: "use specific questions; look at the relevance of the study goals; consider the relevance of questions to the goals of the study and the relevance of the questions

individual respondent". This questionnaire was used to complement the interviews and the aim was to look at whether learners were benefiting from some of the components that have now been introduced in the Academic literacy programme.

The current situation at the University of Durban-Westville (UDW) reveals that the majority of the students are using English as their second language. Though there are eleven official languages, English is seen as the national language. The aim and objective of this study has generated the design and structure of this project.

There were four main sections in the questionnaire:

- 1) Biographical data (including age and gender)
- 2) English as a second language and the medium of instruction
- 3) Linguistics in the applied context
- 4) Multiculturalism/multilingualism

The researcher was assisted by an academic of the Academic literacy programme, in the administration of the survey. Respondents were assured of their anonymity. It was also emphasized that their full support would be valuable in determining the success rate of the students studying the components of linguistics.

3.6 Objectives

This section will employ eight factors in order to determine whether language educators are using the principles of linguistics. The fundamental principles of language learning and teaching have stemmed from theories of language. The research project is investigating whether language educators are applying contemporary linguistics in their teaching.

3.7 Sample Size

Eighteen language educators were interviewed. They were primarily from the Faculty of Humanities.

3.8 Sources of Data

Two different sets of interviews formed the major source of information. One being the interviews conducted with the language educators and the other being in the form of a questionnaire which was handed to learners from the Academic literacy programme.

3.9 Conclusion

Methodology is a crucial aspect of research. This chapter highlighted some vital items that were used in undertaking this research. Chapter Four will attempt to statistically analyze and discuss the findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This section is an attempt to illustrate the language teaching situation at UDW. The outcome of the interviews conducted with the language educators is presented. The questionnaire administered to the language sample is also statistically analyzed.

4.2 Outcome of interviews conducted with language educators

Several structured interviews were conducted at UDW. Language educators were required to discuss their approaches in teaching a particular language. Whilst many interviewees gave an elaborate account of their teaching of a language the problem seemed to be that not many were applying the specific components of contemporary linguistics in their teaching.

4.3 Research Instrument

The research instrument is the questionnaire which is used to measure responses registering key variables of the study. Biographic data comprised of the respondents data, that is gender, age, current educational qualification and degree registered for in 2000. The remaining questions were related to applied linguistics.

The “goodness” of the research instrument was evaluated by means of the reliability of the questionnaire. “Reliability” refers to the extent to which an assigned rank will be the same, irrespective of when the measuring instrument was applied, which form of it was used, and by whom it was administered (Huysamen 1994:118). In this study, the reliability estimate was computed, using Cronbach’s Alpha. The reliability of assigned ranks may be defined as the proportion of the variance of observed ranks which is done to true assigned ranks:

$$\text{Reliability} = \frac{\text{true assigned rank variance}}{\text{Observed rank variance}}$$

Where,

$$\text{Observed rank} = \text{true assigned rank} + \text{standard error of the assigned rank}$$

The higher the relationship coefficient, the greater the correspondence between the observed rank and the true assigned rank of the respondent. A questionnaire may be highly reliable, but may not be valid. The reliability of the questionnaire designed is statistically determined by using Cronbach’s Coefficient Alpha. Cronbach (1951) developed an equation for the split-half reliability coefficient, a quantity which he called coefficient alpha (Huysamen 1994:26). Coefficient alpha can be used with dichotomous items as well as multipoint items. Coefficient alpha represents a coefficient of internal consistency. Since it is based on all possible splits, it reflects the degree to which all possible splits measure the same thing, that is, the internal consistency of the respondents. According to (Huysamen 1996), the reliability coefficient is scale-free, in that its value cannot be less than zero or greater than one. It is generally accepted that standardised tests show reliability coefficients in excess of 0,85 if they are used for making decisions about individual persons.

4.4 Method of data collection

A questionnaire was designed by the researcher to establish whether the components being taught in the Academic literacy programme would prove to be a success. The target population was language learners at UDW. The sample consisted of twenty-five language learners.

A lecturer in the Academic literacy programme administered the questionnaire to the learners. It took approximately forty five minutes to complete. The data was captured on excel 5.0 using SPSS.

4.5 Description of the Composition of the Sample

According to Freund et al (1993), if a set of data consists of all conceivably possible observations of a certain phenomenon, we call it a population, if a set of data contains part of these observations, we call it a sample. The sample of language learners participated in the survey in terms of the following:

4.5.1 Gender

The research sample shows that the majority of the respondents were female (68%) and the remaining were male (32%).

4.5.2 Age

The age spectrum of the research sample was mostly between the age of 18 – 24 which represented 80% . The age group 35 – 34 represented (6%) and 35 – 49 age group represented (4%). There were more respondents in the age group 18 – 24 in the Academic literacy programme.

4.5.3 Educational Qualification

The respondents to the 'level of education' show that 100% of the learners had a matric qualification.

4.5.4 Degree registered for in 2000

The response to "degree registered for in 2000 shows that 80% of the respondents were registered for a BA degree. The remaining 20% were registered for some other degree.

4.5.5 Mother Tongue

The response to mother tongue shows that 64% spoke Zulu, 24% spoke English, 4% spoke Sotho, 4% spoke Swati, and 4% spoke Xitsonga.

4.6 Inferential Statistical Analysis of the Data

4.6.1 T-tests: Independent Samples

The t-test statistics is used to test whether or not two means differ in the population. Statistical significance is obtained by comparing the obtained t with the critical value from the t-table. The t-test was used in this study to determine whether a significant difference exists between males and females regarding:

- Their perceptions with regard to applied linguistics

4.6.2 Analysis of Variance

The extremely powerful and commonly used procedure for comparing two or more populations of quantitative data is the analysis of variance.. The analysis allows one to determine whether differences exist among population means. Ironically, the analysis of variance procedure works by analyzing the sample variance of the data to determine whether one can infer that the population means differ (Keller and Warrack 1999).

According to Freund, Perles and Williams (1993), the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the means of the populations, would be supported if the difference among the sample means are small, and the alternative hypothesis that there are differences among the means of the populations, would be supported if the differences among the sample means are large. Therefore, the statistics for tests concerning differences among means is the F-test.

According to Freund, Perles and Williams (1993) the null hypothesis states that there is no difference between the means of the populations and will be rejected when the above calculated F-statistic is greater than the table F-value at a certain level of significance, which means that the alternative hypothesis that the means of the populations are not equal will be accepted when the calculated F-statistic is greater than the table F-value at a certain level of significance. In this study, the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), was used to establish whether a significant difference exists between:-

- The mean rating for the use of contemporary linguistics based on the respondents age
- The mean rating for the use of contemporary linguistics based on the respondents mother tongue

4.7 **Conclusion**

The above relevant statistical techniques were applied to the coded responses of the questionnaire and the results were analyzed by the researcher. The results are represented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to establish whether language learners in the Academic literacy programme were obtaining maximum benefit from some of the principles of linguistics that were being applied in the teaching in this programme. In addition to that the researcher aims to establish whether all the respondents supported the studying of their disciplines through the medium of English. Both description and inferential statistics were used to analyze the results of the study. The relevant statistical techniques were computed using SPSS, and the findings of the study presented.

5.2 Descriptive Statistics

The respondents were requested to reflect whether they were able to communicate fluently in English and without any inhibition, and also whether English as a medium of instruction is important for all UDW students.

Table 5.1 Communicate fluently in English without any inhibitions

| COMMUNICATE FLUENTLY IN ENGLISH | FREQUENCY | PERCENTAGE | CUMULATIVE PERCENTAGE |
|--|------------------|-------------------|----------------------------------|
| YES | 18 | 72.0 | 72.0 |
| NO | 7 | 28.0 | 100.0 |
| TOTAL | 25 | 100,0 | |

The above table indicates that 72% of the learners are able to communicate fluently in English and without any inhibitions. This means that only 28% of the learners are not able to communicate fluently in English.

Table 5.2 English as a medium of instruction

| ENGLISH AS A MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION | FREQUENCY | PERCENTAGE | CUMULATIVE PERCENTAGE |
|------------------------------------|-----------|------------|-----------------------|
| DISAGREE | 1 | 4,0 | 4,0 |
| AGREE | 9 | 36,0 | 36,0 |
| STRONGLY AGREE | 15 | 60,0 | 100,0 |
| TOTAL | 25 | 100,0 | |

For ratings on research of English as a medium of instruction for all UDW learners, only 4% disagreed, 36% agreed and 60% strongly agreed.

5.3 Inferential Statistical Analysis of the data

5.3.1 Analysis of Variance

The analysis of variance is an extremely powerful and commonly used procedure for comparing two or more populations of quantitative data. The analysis allows one to determine whether differences exist among population means. Ironically, the analysis of variance procedure works by analyzing the sample variance of the data to determine whether one can infer that the population means differ (Keller and Warrack 1999).

According to Freund, Perles and Williams (1993), the null hypothesis, that there is no difference between the means of the populations, would be supported if the difference

among the sample means are small, and the alternative hypothesis that there are differences among the means of the populations, would be supported if the differences among the sample means are large. Hence, the statistics for tests concerning differences among means is the F-test.

Hypothesis 1

There is no relationship between the mean ratings for the use of applied linguistics and the respondent's age.

Table 5.3 **Analysis of Variance based on age**

| Age | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|------|------|
| Between Groups | 1.290 | 2 | .645 | .124 | .884 |
| Within Groups | 114.550 | 22 | 5.207 | | |
| Total | 115.840 | 24 | | | |

Fig. 5.1 **Analysis of Variance based on age**

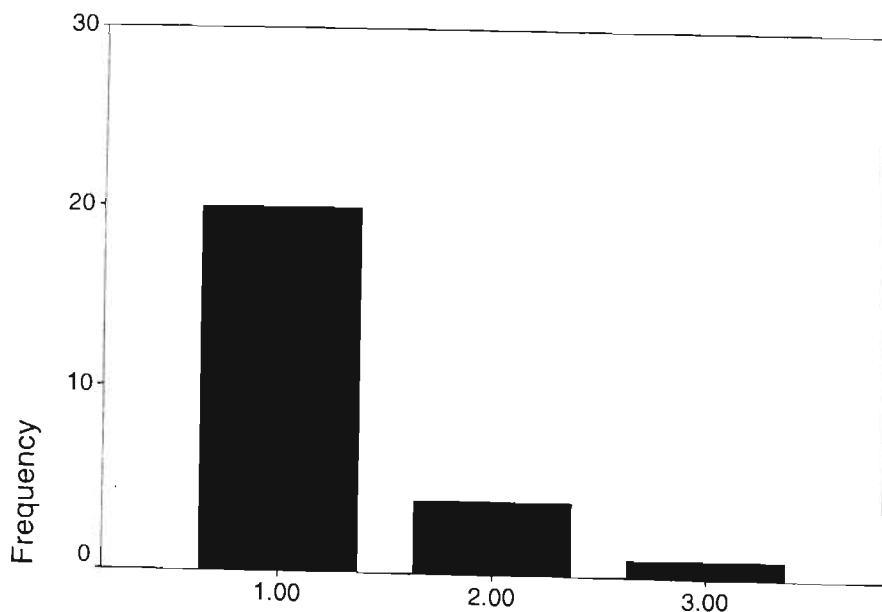


Table 5.3 and the accompanying histogram (Fig. 5.1) on the previous page show that since $p > 0.05$, it may be concluded that the above hypothesis is confirmed. This means that there are no differences in the mean ratings of applied linguistics for the different age groups.

Hypothesis 2

There is no relationship between the mean ratings for the use of applied linguistics for the mother tongue.

Table 5.4 Analysis of variance based on mother tongue

| Mother Tongue | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|----------------------|-----------------------|-----------|--------------------|----------|-------------|
| Between Groups | 11.257 | 4 | 2.814 | .538 | .709 |
| Within Groups | 104.583 | 20 | 5.229 | | |
| Total | 115.840 | 24 | | | |

Fig. 5.2 Analysis of variance based on mother tongue

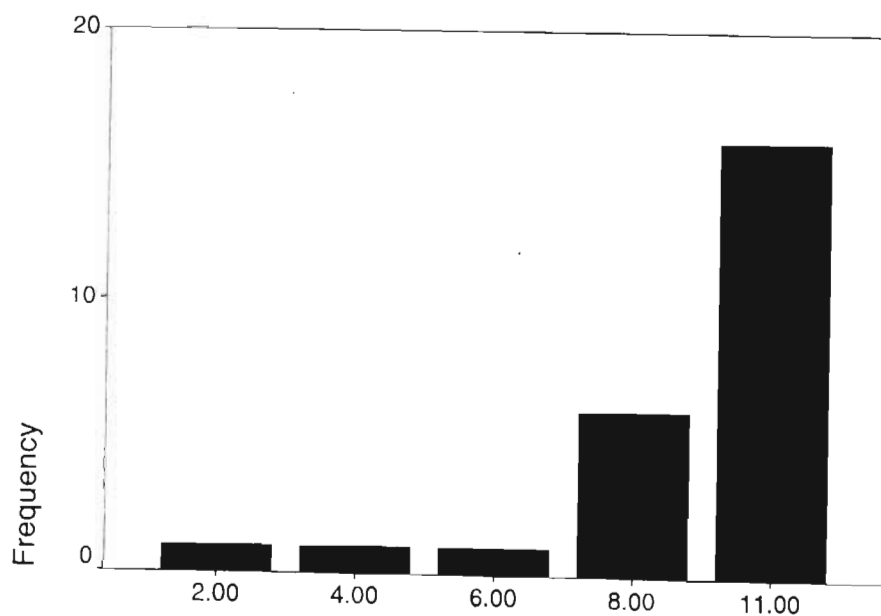


Table 5.4 and the accompanying histogram (Fig. 5.2) reveal that since $p > 0.05$, it may be concluded that the above hypothesis is confirmed. This means that there are no differences in the means of contemporary linguistics for the different mother tongues.

5.3.2 T-test independent samples

The T-test independent statistics is used to test whether or not two means differ in the population. Statistical significance is obtained by comparing the significance level with 0,05. If the significance level is less than 0,05, then the hypothesis is rejected. This means that it may be concluded that there is a significant difference between males and females for the characteristics tested.

Hypothesis 3

There is no difference in the mean ratings on principles of applied linguistics based on gender.

5.3.2.1 T-test samples based on gender

Table 5.5 Gender

| Gender | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | |
|----------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|-------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference |
| LANGSITU | Equal variances assumed | 1.694 | 23 | .104 | 1.5368 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | 1.395 | 9.230 | .196 | 1.5368 |

Table 5.5 shows that since $p > 0.05$, it can be concluded that there is no difference in the means, and hence the above hypothesis is accepted. Thus, no matter what the gender of the respondent is, the mean ratings are the same for the principles of applied linguistics.

5.4 Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha

The internal consistency of the questionnaire among the items was assessed using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Because the method of Likert scale was used in this study, the Cronbach's coefficient alpha was considered the most suitable since it "has the most utility of multi-item scales at the internal level of measurements" (Cooper and Emory 1995:155).

This study produces a Cronbach's coefficient alpha of 0.6. The closer the value of the coefficient alpha is to one, the greater the reliability of the questionnaire. Hence, the coefficient of 0.6 indicates that the questionnaire is moderately reliable.

5.5 Conclusion

The results yielded by the empirical study enables an analysis and understanding of the relationship between different variables concerning the principles of applied linguistics. The aim of this study was to demonstrate whether language learners were benefiting from the principles of linguistics.

This study was viewed as an important milestone in determining whether the respondents were comfortable in studying their disciplines through the medium of English.

CHAPTER SIX

THE IMPORTANCE OF LINGUISTICS

6.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter statistically qualified and quantified the data collected for this research project. On careful examination of the result of the analysis it was noted that language educators should have at least a general knowledge of contemporary linguistics. This chapter will look at the various components of linguistics and each component will attempt to explain its relevance to language teaching, learning and acquisition.

Many educators propound that their language teaching is linguistically oriented. Having spent many years of studying various languages, the researcher discovered that not too many language educators understand what linguistics entails.

One academic once said to me, "You are studying linguistics in Zulu, what is that supposed to be", I teach literature and I do not know anything about linguistics". Another academic said to me, "I teach grammar, not linguistics".

A concise explanation of linguistics is necessary so that any reader who assumes he/she understands the concept would obtain some clarity with regard to this discipline.

Lyons (1981:37) defines linguistics as the "scientific study of language". Linguistics is a discipline that provides a theoretical framework for the study of language. More so contemporary linguistics has focussed attention on language being perceived as a social institution, a system of communication and a medium of thoughts. "Language is many things" and linguistics studies the many facets of language (O'Grady 1981:1).

Human language is highly innovative and creative. This is observed all around us. People respond to each other in a variety of ways to new experiences, situations and thoughts. But language use is still subject to speaker rules and constraints in spite of its creative potentiality.

6.2 Current Perspectives in the field of linguistics

Recent trends have revealed a great shift from traditional linguistics and prescriptive grammar. Linguistics by pure definition is highly descriptive. Contemporary linguistics emphasizes basic concepts and current theoretical ideas in the area of linguistics. Some of which are phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. These components are also applied to the study of language learning and acquisition, psychology, sociology, neurolinguistics, language disorder etc.

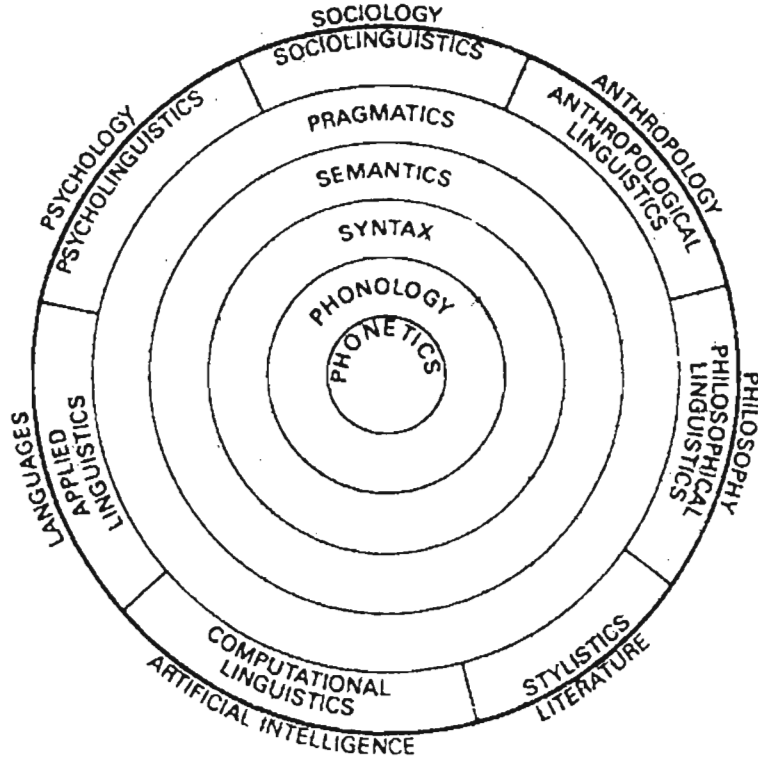
6.3 A brief comment on the level of language learning and understanding at UDW

There is a critical need for academics to become knowledgeable about the current approach to language teaching. A genuine insight of contemporary linguistics would facilitate language learning and understanding at UDW.

6.4 Brief definitions of the components of linguistics

Linguistics embraces a variety of topics. Section 6.2 mentioned some of the sub-divisions of linguistics. An illustration which takes the shape of a wheel displays the different topics under the ambit of linguistics. Figure 6.1 adapted from Aitchison (1992:7).

Figure 6.1 The Wheel illustrating the components of linguistics



We see phonetics which is the study of speech sounds , phonology which surrounds phonetics (as in Fig. 6.1) deals with sound patterns. Syntax refers to the arrangement of the form of words which associates the sound patterns and the meaning which surrounds syntax. At the outer circle, after the grammatical section (phonetics, syntax and semantics) we note, pragmatics - which refers to the manner in which speakers use language in context. Next we note psycholinguistics which is the study of language in relation to the mind and sociolinguistics which involves the study of language in relation to society.

The application of linguistics principles to language is termed applied linguistics. Computational linguistics involves the application of techniques and concepts of computer science in the investigation of linguistic and phonetic problems. Stylistics is the study of language and literature. Anthropological linguistics is the study of socio-cultural patterns and beliefs and lastly philosophical linguistics is the connection between language and logical thought. Historical linguistics is the study of language change. This component is not included in Aitchison's (1992:7) wheel but will nevertheless be discussed by the researcher. (Crystal 1992: 1-428).

6.5 A detailed account of the components of linguistics

6.5.1 The importance of Phonetics

Phonetics involves the study of the characteristics of sounds used in human speech. It offers a method for the description, classification and transcription of sounds. Human beings' ability to communicate depends on their recognizing each other's pronunciation and interpreting the sounds that are being uttered. It is important to note that educators responsible for teaching English as a second language (L2) are not sufficiently aware about accents and pronunciation of their learners. They cannot appreciate the errors and problems experienced by Non- English speaking learners. Phonetics should be an essential component in the educators training syllabus.

6.5.2 The Importance of Phonology

Phonology demonstrates the patterns of distinctive sounds found in a language. It concentrates on the rules that can be written to show the types of phonetic relationships that relate and contrast words and other linguistic units.

A thorough understanding of phonology is necessary, since it facilitates the diagnosis of learner's errors. It provides concepts and notation needed to accurately represent both the learners speech and target pronunciation (Katamba 1989:60).

6.5.3 A Knowledge of Syntax

This component of linguistics seeks to describe the way in which words fit together to form sentences or utterances. Syntax looks at sentences that are well-formed or ill-formed. For example, "I bought a watch" is considered by speakers of English (L1) to be syntactically well-formed whereas "a bought watch I" is not an English sentence.

There is a dire need for educators to study syntax. An analysis and description of sentences in terms of their constituent parts, would help educators to see patterns that words follow when they fit together. A syntax component should be part of a linguistics course for both the educator as well as the learner.

Educators would become knowledgeable on the best possible framework for describing syntactic phenomena to their L2 learners.

6.5.4 The Domain of Semantics

According to contemporary thinking, semantics is the study of meaning "and since meaning is a part of language, semantics is a part of linguistics' (Palmer 1981:1).

Semantics involves the study of linguistics meaning. "Semantics concerns the study of word and morpheme meanings, as well as the study of rules for combining meanings: (Fromkin and Rodmin 1983:193).

A knowledge of semantics would enhance language educators understanding of the relation between word and morpheme meaning as well as the study of rules for combining meaning. They would have the capacity to explain to L2 learners why, for example, some English words have the same sounds but are semantically different. A student studying English as an L2 would experience confusion just with one word, for example the word "bear" could either mean "give birth to", "tolerate" or the animal called "bear".

6.5.5 The Importance of Morphology

Ferdinand de Saussure pointed out that the sounds (morphophonemics) and the meaning of a word are inseparable. Unlike syntax which studies the way words combine into sentences, morphology studies the structure of words (Fromkin & Rodmin 1983: 110). An insight into morphology would enable language educators to enhance their knowledge of word formation and the internal structure of words. They would have the capacity to understand concepts like linguistic performance and linguistic competence. When learners are unable to form proper words in English language educators would be able to determine their level of linguistic competence.

Educators would be able to understand that linguistic competence includes knowledge of the morphemes, words, their pronunciation, their meanings and how they are combined. Language educators are at a loss without the conscious study of morphology. In this study they would understand and interpret how every small unit of a word (morpheme) combines according to morphological rules of language. They would become knowledgeable about certain concepts and how they are applied. For example, some morphemes are bound and others free, When learners are lacking in these areas, an academic with linguistic knowledge will have the ability to make them aware that words like 'chief' and 'king' are free morphemes while -dom as in 'chieftdom' and 'kingdom' are bound morphemes. Words are also either derived or inflected.

A thorough knowledge of the classification of derivational and inflectional morphemes would enhance both educators' and learners' ability with regard to the fact that derivational morphological rules are lexical rules of word formation. On the contrary inflectional morphemes are closely related to the rules of syntax. (Crystal 1992:377)

6.5.6 A Knowledge of Pragmatics

Davis (1991:3) postulates that "pragmatics will have as its domain speakers' communicative intentions, the uses of language that require such intentions and the strategies that hearers employ to determine what these intentions and acts are, so that they can understand what the speaker intends to communicate".

The choices language users make and the constraints they experience in using language in social interaction and the impact their use of language has on other people in their dialogue is an act of communication. Educators need to have, at least, a general knowledge of general pragmatics. Educators experience difficulty in having a simple conversation with their learners and are unable to understand the covert factors that contribute to this lack of communication.

Pragmatics exposes concepts such as " performative verbs, felicity conditions, speech acts, direct and indirect speech acts, literal and nonliteral speech acts, implication and conversational maxim" (Parker 1986:24).

A study of the rules governing the communicative use of language would be most useful to language educators.

6.5.7 Discourse Structure and Analysis

Discourse by definition is a continuous stretch of language, beyond the level of a sentence. It usually constitutes a coherent unit eg. a narrative, a sermon, a joke, an argument, or a speech (Crystal 1992:25). Discourse linguistics or (discourse analysis) is fast becoming one of the rapidly developing areas of linguistics. Educators studying discourse analysis would understand the organization of language and the sentence or clause. Their training in discourse analysis would involve the study of written texts or conversational units.

Learners are part of a larger society and every conversation between educator and learner is part of discourse. The study of discourse or conversational analysis would be beneficial to educators, in that it also concentrates on language in use in social contexts, and particularly with interaction or conversation or communication amongst speakers.

6.5.8 The Importance of Psycholinguistics

Psycholinguistics is essentially useful to those in the language teaching profession. This branch of linguistics concentrates on the relationship between linguistic behaviour and the mental processes that underlie that behaviour.

Educators training in psycholinguistics would look at evidence on how children or adults acquire language. They would understand complex aspects like mental grammar and sentence construction. Psycholinguistics would explain the link of language to thought and culture and the brain. Many educators consider linguistics merely as the description of language. Steinberg (1993:96) argues that even Chomsky staunchly supported cognitive linguistics and that linguistics is a branch of cognitive psychology.

An understanding of this component of linguistics would focus on the manner in which language affects thought and whether language creates thought. The study of psycholinguistics would also focus on whether human beings can think without language and the manner in which language affects our perception of nature and society. (Steinberg 1993:158).

6.5.9 The Domain of Sociolinguistics

A knowledge of sociolinguistics explains the close link between language and society. It is crucial for educators to understand the factors that influence the manner in which people speak. This encompasses race, colour, gender, age, class etc. While many people in the educational sphere are familiarizing themselves with sociolinguistics, not many are focussing on an indepth study. Educators need to be informed about the linguistic diversity that exist. During their training attention should be given to concepts like: dialect and language, for example, in Durban, Zulu speakers speak different dialects as compared to someone living in the south coast of Kwa-Zulu Natal (K-ZN). The dialects of English speakers in Durban are not the same as those, for example, in Johannesburg.

Educators training in linguistics would learn about the existence of varieties of languages which is termed social class dialects. For instance an English speaker could interpret the social status of the following two speakers:

Speaker X

He done the work

Mary ain't coming today

Speaker Y

He did the work

Mary is not coming today

One would estimate that speaker Y is of a higher social status than X. (Trudgehill 1995:22).

South African citizens have over the years developed the ability to recognize the speech of different ethnic groups. Speakers of any language acquire the linguistic characteristics

of those they live with or continue to come into contact with. Some Indian farmers in KZN speak fluent Zulu. If one only heard the person speak, but did not see him/her, one would think it is a Zulu speaker's speech. The English dialect of non-white (Indian, Coloured, Black) children attending model C schools would be interpreted as white children speaking. An awareness of language and ethnic group is critical. Linguistic varieties are learnt in precisely the same way as social class dialects are acquired.

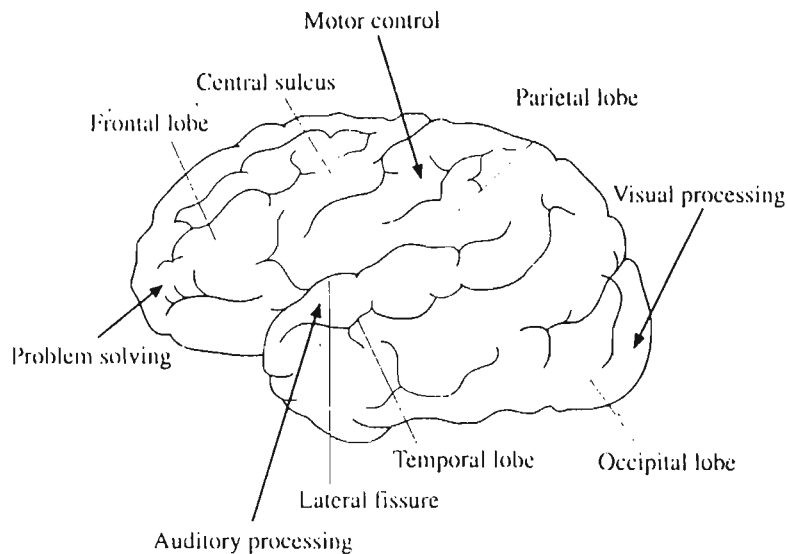
Sociolinguistics also deals with another aspect of linguistic differentiation - the difference in speech between men and women. A knowledge of this aspect would be most valuable to language educators. Training in sociolinguistics would also cover other spheres in relation to language. For example language and geography, language and context, language and social interaction, language and nation and language and humanity.

6.5.10 The Importance of Neurolinguistics

It is assumed that a topic like neurolinguistics is exclusively studied by neurolinguists, psycholinguists, speech therapists, psychiatrists and anyone interested in the intricacies of the brain. In fact linguistics itself endeavours to answer the popular question - what is language and how it is represented in the mind?

Educators should have some awareness of the neurological basis of language development and use. They would learn about the brain's control over the process of speaking, listening, reading and writing. Neurolinguistics lends an understanding and an appreciation of the different types of language disorders. For example, aphasia is a disorder resulting from brain damage. Aphasia occurs in the left side (left hemisphere) of the brain. Those who lose their language completely are diagnosed as suffering from global aphasia. Various parts of the brain control different types of functions. Figure 6.2 adapted from Radford et. Al (1999:13) reveals the cerebral cortex, which contains the grey matter. Here the higher intellectual functions, including languages are located.

Figure 6.2 The human cerebral cortex, with the functions of some areas indicated



Many disadvantaged learners come from very disruptive, chaotic and violent backgrounds. Some of them have experienced physical abuse. They are not even aware that they could be suffering from internal damage. The slow pace of speakers (learners) could encompass many factors, be it sociological or neurological etc. Educators studying neurolinguistics would have an added advantage of understanding the nature of the problem that exists (Radford et al 1999:13).

6.5.11 A Knowledge of Historical Linguistics

Historical linguistics or diachronic linguistics addresses the characteristics of different languages of common origin and their development over a long period of time. (Crystal 1992:24). This century saw a shift from the investigation of long-term changes in

pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary to analyzing languages (termed synchronic linguistics) without reference to their history or in a particular point in time.

Be that as it may, language educators would greatly benefit from a study of historical linguistics. Historical linguistics would approach the changes in pronunciation and syntax. Educators would enhance their insight after having understood the changes that take place in language over a period of time.

Historical linguistics presents an opportunity for educators to understand the viability of reconstructing the past histories of languages. Educators would learn about the factors governing word order and morphological change. An important area of study would be to see whether changes in pronunciation resulted primarily from phonetic factors or changes occurred where a speaker is involved in major realignments of abstract conceptualised phonological organisation (Jones 1993 : 1-345).

6.5.12 The importance of Computational Linguistics

The study of computational linguistics yields many rewards, in that, it would facilitate valuable information and knowledge about the study of computer systems, for understanding and generating language. Language is essentially a tool that is used by people in communication and recording information. It is capable of expressing a string of ideas and at the same time precisely expressing complex thoughts.

Grishman (1986: 1) pointed out that the "aim of computational linguistics is in a sense, to capture" the power of language". By understanding language processes in procedural terms we can give computer systems the ability to generate and interpret natural language. It would be possible for teachers to use computers to perform linguistic tasks which includes translation. Computers would assist in the processing of textual data eg.

books, journals and newspapers. All of this will ultimately help the educator to access computer-stored data.

If contemporary linguistics is seriously considered by educators, it would certainly develop their ability to handle language. Consequently this would have a profound impact on how computers are used in language teaching. Computational linguistics can provide different areas of research for educators. Grishman (1986:5) discusses the "procedural models of the psychological processes of language understanding".

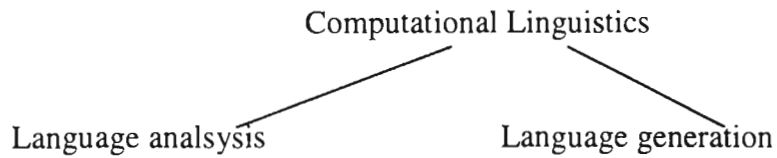
Computational linguistics attempts to look at these model as processes and mimic aspects of human performance. Marcus (1980) cited in Grishman (1986:5) describes (what he calls Marcus's parser) "to mimic human performance on garden path" sentences. (a garden path sentence is one where people get stuck and have to retract their steps in analyzing a sentence, such as "The horse raced past the barn fell"

Many psychologists, researchers and computational linguists have used this model which led to a new subfield called cognitive science. A model like the above is essential in language teaching, learning and acquisition. The educators would develop the ability to teach and also understand how learners could improve in the field of language learning and acquisition.

Large computer systems are engineered by professional people. Computational linguists also face the task of the building of natural language systems by careful engineering. Educators could attend courses, study and undertake certain projects and use formal models in order to simplify complex systems. Let us take a look at Figure 6.3, a simple model adapted from Grisham (1986:8)

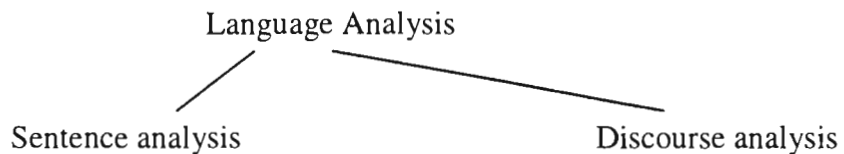
Fig. 6.3 Grisham's Model: The structure of a survey - a tree diagram

Analysis and generation



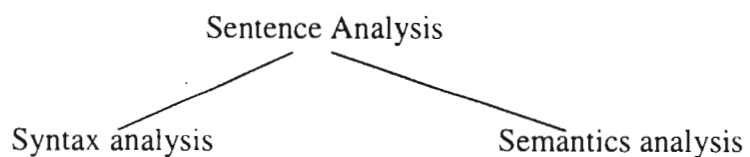
Language systems usually require the ability to both analyse and generate language.

Sentence and discourse analysis



Here educators would focus on the processing of individual sentences rather than the determination of discourse structure

Syntax and semantic analysis



The primary objective of sentence analysis is to determine what a sentence means, Grisham (1986:9) describes this practice as involving "translating the natural language input into a language with simple semantics (eg. formal logic) or into a language which

can be interpreted by an existing computer system (eg. a data base retrieval command language).

6.5.13 Stylistics and its relevance

A branch of linguistics which studies the features of situationally distinctive uses (varieties or 'styles') of language, and tries to establish principles which account for the particular choices made by individual and social groups in their use of language. In a narrower sense, it refers to the æsthetic use of language when literature is the focus of attention, the subject is often called literary stylistics (Crystal 1992:69).

Many educators in the School of Languages are teaching English. Their approach does not include stylistics.

This component is highly significant, especially to those educators who are teaching literature in the School of Languages.

6.5.14 Applied Linguistics and its significance

The fundamental concern of applied linguistics is the application of theoretical methods and findings to the elucidation of language problems obtained from other avenues of experience. (Crystal 1992:11).

Many educators are either consciously or subconsciously applying the principles of linguistics in the language teaching context. Teaching and learning of first languages, second languages and foreign languages is one of the most highly developed domain of applied linguistics.

6.5.15 A Knowledge of Anthropological Linguistics

Anthropological linguistics pays attention to the place of language in its wider social and cultural context. This discipline offers great relevance to language teaching. It is crucial that teachers have some understanding of anthropological linguistics. It is interpretative, in that, it dissects language in order to find cultural meanings. (Foley 1999:1).

Crystal (1992:10) sees anthropological linguistics as being the study of "language variation and use in relation to human cultural patterns and beliefs". Many of the learners at UDW have diverse cultural backgrounds. Majority of the learner population have an African heritage. Anthropological linguistics is a useful area of study for Non-African educators. They would focus on culture and language, which are two key concepts of anthropological linguistics.

It is certainly an essential study in that it generates an awareness towards understanding the role of language in creating and sustaining cultural practices and social structures.

6.6 Conclusion

In the foregoing sections and sub-sections many of the fields and sub-fields of linguistics were discussed. Emphasis was placed on the need for language educators to become knowledgeable about the various components of linguistics. An attempt was made to be put forth factors that necessitate the study of these components. For instance, phonetics would allow one to become acquainted with the many properties of speech sounds and to see the realities of these sounds. Phonology which is represented as a dynamic process was also given much attention. The importance of morphology, syntax and semantics was given equal emphasis. Psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and neurolinguistics were viewed in the applied context. The necessity to have some training in historical linguistics

was also illustrated. Computational linguistics was also emphasized and this section concluded by including anthropological linguistics. In the next chapter attention will be given to some crucial aspects of language teaching.

CHAPTER SEVEN

ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

7.1 Introduction

The purpose of the previous chapter was to emphasize the importance of contemporary linguistics and the need for language educators to have, at least, a general understanding of the various components of linguistics.

Aspects of language teaching is of critical relevance and is the prime concern of this chapter. Language teaching incorporates many aspects and it will not be possible to cover every aspect but an attempt will be made to highlight some salient aspects. The succeeding sub sections will focus on the importance of the pragmatics of language teaching and research and language teaching. In addition to some of the aspects that will be discussed in this chapter it is necessary to include a section on language learning and language teaching strategies. Each strategy attempts to captivate some aspects of the complexity of L2 learning. It is important to emphasize that none of the teaching strategies is complete and one usually overlaps with another when practically used in the lecture-room situation. A boxed summary adapted from Cook will follow after each teaching strategy has been discussed. This chapter will close with some concluding remarks.

7.2 Pragmatics of Language Teaching

The domains of disciplinary research and language teaching are significant concerns for language educators. It is imperative that language academics act as mediators between theory and practice. In this section some useful information will be established that will provide some relevance between theory and practice (Widdowson 1990:29)

7.2.1 The Interdependent Relationship between Theory and Practice

The relationship between theory and practice encompasses several areas of enquiry and their actualization in the achievement of practical outcomes. This relationship bears insights whereby improved and contemporary principles can be applied in the teaching context. Widdowson (1990: 30) contends that "the reflexive nature of pragmatism, with theory realized in practice, informed by theory, brings mutual benefits in that it serves the cause both of effective learning and, as a corollary of the professional development of the educator.

It is important to remember that some recommended approaches of the past were not subject to the reflexive kind of pragmatic treatment. These approaches were non-reflexive and unilateral. Many educators did not look at ideas for themselves and their own experiences of teaching. Their reality was and still is simply implementing "the second order realization of new ideas in the form of teaching materials (Widdowson 1990:30).

Very often teaching materials, strategies and approaches do not demonstrate "explicit rationals" and are designed not for experimentation but for implementation and the educator is usually the medium. The above items should be perceived in the same light as any abstract model of reality and as Widdowson (1990:30) puts it that "their relationship with actual states of affairs is a matter of continual interpretation and reappraisal" The link between the ideal and the real can take place through mediation.

7.2.2 The Mediation Model

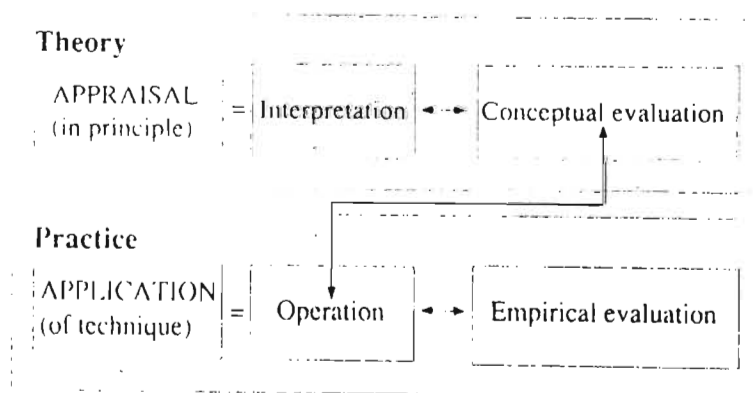
Two independent processes are involved with regard to teaching as a pragmatics activity. The first process, termed appraisal concentrates on theory and involves the interpretation of ideas. Appraisal is viewed as a conceptual evaluation founded on a thorough understanding of the ideas proposed and is aimed at generating a set of valid principles of general relevance.

Application is referred to as the second process, which ties up with practice and can also be looked upon as a two-stage operation. Initially ideas are put in use in the practical domain and thereafter the consequences are monitored in a second process of evaluation. In the second process the ideas are directed as establishing the real effect of ideas as "operationally realized" (Widdowson 1990:31).

From the explanation above one can interpret application as a kind of evaluation that is based on teaching experience and involves the planning of effective approaches relevant to specific circumstances.

There are always weaknesses in the mediation processes. One is sometimes unsure as to whether the flaw is in the validity of the principle or in the specified approach/technique. This then implies that pedagogic mediation should be a process of continued enquiry and experiment. Below is a diagram (Fig. 7.1) adapted from Widdowson (1990:32). It summarizes the mediation process as follows:

Fig. 7.1 The Mediation Process



7.2.3 Language Educators and Applied Linguists

Widdowson (1990:32) posits that the "role of the applied linguist and language teacher [sic] is different". It is mentioned that the former is not in the lecture room full-time and does not practice operational activities and empirical evaluation. The latter is engaged full-time in this process in the lecture room and ultimately cannot pursue relevant insights from informative disciplines.

The researcher does not concur with the above statement made by Widdowson that the role of the educator and the applied linguist are different. Realistically speaking all language educators should be applied linguists if they are to apply the principles of contemporary linguistics in the teaching context.

It is clear then that the appraisal and application activities could then become the task solely of the language educator and not be distributed to the applied linguist and the educator respectively (as stated by Widdowson 1990:32).

The researcher believes it will be the educator's responsibility to mediate through everyday pedagogic activity as well as to identify relevant ideas and demonstrate these arguments and evidence for validity in an accessible way. This necessitates educators to become empowered.

7.3 Research and Language Teaching

7.3.1 Language Educators cum Researchers

The policy at UDW stipulates that academics should devote 75% of their time to lecturing and 25% undertaking research. Unlike the demands of the school classroom

environment where educators do not have the opportunity of 25% research time (this has to be done in their own time - via a research project), university academics can become rigorous researchers because of the research time allotted to them.

It would be useful to emphasize that a thorough understanding of the concept of research and teaching must undoubtedly be discussed.

7.3.2 The Nature of Research

It is best to commence by considering the nature of research in basic terms. Activities and projects that are conducted under the ambit of research are of different varieties. They range from armchair speculation to concentrated accounts and data analysis, from metaphysical thoughts to psychometric measurement. Each activity, though different in approach, seeks to find answers to abstract information underlying familiar phenomena.

However, the fundamental aim of all research is the notion that items are not as they appear to be, but in reality are illustrations of covert categories and connections of one sort or another (Widdowson 1990:56).

Research provides an opportunity for educators to become familiar with the various ways of conceiving the familiar world and, if they act on the new conception, to alter or extend their customary ideas and practices.

Research can be viewed as an endless dialectical process, where "actuality is formulated as an abstraction" and this results in the reformulation of actuality (Widdowson 1990:56). An important element that is worthy of mentioning is the validity of certain reformulations of research projects. The nature of enquiry is such that it is founded on idealization, which in turn is perceived as essential from observable data. Idealization cannot be free of certain influence and beliefs.

This is supported by Widdowson (1990:57), in that "Researchers enquire selectively into what they believe to be essential according to their conceptual bent, leaving the rest aside as incidental". This means that they would only attempt to seek answers to which they are looking for. Validating then becomes a different exercise.

The concept referred to as validity is relative in nature. Researchers in a specific discipline may work within the confines of enquiry directed by that discipline. Yet their findings will be shared by other disciplines. Several disciplinary criteria of appraisal can be applied to research.

The two general types of criteria are: one which is conceptual and focuses on the logical coherence of theory and the other which is empirical and concentrates on the manner in which data of actuality are used to substantiate theory. The utilization of the above criteria is central to the interpretation process (Widdowson 1990:57).

It is clear that conceptual criteria looks at how abstraction is formulated. Empirical criteria then relates to how abstraction is made an actuality in data. Details of the preceding lines are reinforced by the words of (Widdowson 1990:58) in that "conceptual criteria are invoked to establish relevance across cultures or domains (from linguistics and other disciplines to language pedagogy). These criteria are employed in the appraisal process".

Widdowson (1990:58) discusses the examination of validity with regard to empirical criteria. It has "to do with the evaluation of techniques since it is these which refer abstractions back to actuality".

7.3.3 Training and Educating of Language Educators

Many factors are to be considered in order to prepare educators to be part of the pragmatic mediation process. Research perspectives have many points that warrant consideration. Widdowson (1990:62) aptly defines training as a "process of preparation towards the achievement of a range of outcomes which are specified in advance". This process therefore encompasses the attainment of goal-directed (oriented) behaviour. Training is directed at presenting answers to a certain amount of predictable problems.

On the contrary education is not "predicated on predictability". It provides for situation which cannot be accommodated into preconceived patterns of response but which require a reformulation of ideas and modification of established formulae". (Widdowson 1990:62). This means that pedagogy pays special attention to the critical appraisal of the relationship between problems and solution. This entire exercise should be seen as a continual enquiry and adaptable practice.

It is important to note that contemporary training and current trends in education does not necessary discard conventional practices. Educators at UDW are all too comfortable with the familiar bandwagon phenomena and this ultimately results in failure. Ideally old and new notions should be carefully investigated and not accepted at face value.

Educator education should encourage the appraisal of ideas which could then become more effective. In this way a thorough understanding of concepts and their relationships promote the adaptability in their realization.

7.3.4 Techniques

It is interesting to note that the importance of practical techniques cannot be underplayed. In the process of evaluation techniques are tools for making ideas operational and subject to modification, and should not be seen just as goals in themselves.

Techniques or lecturing materials are procedures to be exploited rather than something to abide by. When lecturing material have pedagogic effectiveness and are designed for direct implementation they are said to be prescriptive. Materials that are realization of principles are termed illustrations.

The foregoing lines inform one that a training perspective supports the prescriptive view of lecturing materials. On the contrary, an educational perspective would treat such matters as illustrations.

7.3.5 The Importance of Linguistic Theory

An understanding of Linguistic Theory is of fundamental value. It presents a basic perspective on the nature of language which influence educational principles. Theories are indicative as to how various descriptions could be adapted for use in the lecture room.

The formal study to theories would cover the development of language as a mental construct, and the manner in which it operates in social life. Sinclair cited in Widdowson (1990:77) mentions the notion of "specification of syllabus design, design of materials and choice of method", which according to Widdowson (1990:30) have not been drawn from particular descriptions of language but from ideas, assumptions and beliefs about language in general. It is time for educators to decide on the application and evaluation of theoretical ideas in the pedagogic treatment of language.

7.4 The Role of the Educator and Learner

This section would attempt to cover the rôle between two types of incumbents, that is the educator and the learners. It could also be referred to as the sociology of the lecture room. Defining the term role would imply that it is a "set of norms and expectations applied to incumbents of a particular position. (Banton cited in Widdowson 1990:181).

The lecture room is not just a physical environment but provides the necessary social space in a teaching/learning situation. Widdowson (1990:182) makes appropriate distinctions between the terms: setting and scene. Setting refers to the physical characteristics of the classroom which facilitates or constrains some of the interactive processes. The term scene is conceived as the socio-psychological context. This factor pays special attention in recognizing how roles are assumed by the incumbents in a lecture-room. On one hand there is the lecturer/educator and on the other hand there is the learner. However these terms are not in free variation.

It is important to consider that the role of the lecture room protagonist is no easy task. The term educator and student denote "stable and socially established roles". It implies that this reveals the incumbents identity and this can be socially categorized to a specific occupation. However students are not always perceived as learners. Widdowson (1990:183) asserts that "being a learner is not an occupation but an incidental activity ... denotes a temporary engagement".

It is important to understand the two different types of roles in the lecture room. They are firstly, the occupation and it identifies (the student, and the educator) and secondly the identifying of the activity and it is incidental (the learner) and the term educator, carries much ambiguity because it can denote both.

In France these terms are particularly clear and concise. "Professor, ecolier and etudiant(e) means the "identifying occupation roles", and the terms "enseignant(e) and apprenant(e) refer to the incidental activity (Widdowson 1990:184).

7.4.1 The Two Types of Lecture Room Engagement

The lecture room experience consists of two types of engagements. The first type concerns identifying roles in that the educator is seen to be socially interacting with learners. This can be called interactional engagement. Widdowson (1990:184) maintains that this kind of engagement is a "microcosmic school version of the macrocosm of social life and reflects the way educationists" believe learners should be socialized". In this environment learners are usually acculturated and subconsciously accept certain societal values.

The second type of engagement is what Widdowson (1990:184) refers to as "a transactional purpose". This involves the learning objectives and activities that are relied upon in order to achieve certain goals. In this environment the incidental roles come into action, in that the educator is the person teaching and the learner is the person learning. Here the roles are seen to generate a specific pedagogic purpose which enhances specific knowledge and skills that will empower the learner to face the challenges of the examination.

The researcher practically observed the manner in which many language educators have been conducting their lectures and this really symbolized the traditional ritualistic patterns. This implies that there is a protocol that is observed. The interaction is still very controlled. Educators usually felt the right to initiate exchange. The educator asks questions to which he/she usually knows the answers. The standpoint (that is between the educator and the learner is very clear).

Many educators maintain the ideology that this type of interaction would promote well bred learners. It is assumed that learners who are being acculturated into a certain type of social structure, would be effective in their social and working environment.

Widdowson's (1990:187) challenge is supported in that educators should "think classroom engagement as being not a position-oriented but a person-oriented interaction and so get rid of all this laborious "rituals".

The optimal conditions for learning indicates that rigid definitions of roles impinge upon the natural learning processes. Learners are not given the opportunity to be inventive and intuitive. Learner initiatives are not exploited and certainly learners are unable to engage freely in the learning environment.

It must be emphasized that these points refer to pedagogical and not educational issues. The educator/learner interaction is rated in terms of its degree of congruence with a certain type of pedagogic transaction .

If a certain role-relationship between educator and learner is highly effective in a particular situation then it is assumed that this role-relationship would be transferred to others. However the effectiveness would be dependent on a specific interactional role-relationship which may not be seen as educationally desirable in yet another social situation.

Widdowson (1990:187) contends that "a humanistic group therapy approach to pedagogy may be highly effective in places where different educational ideology calls for a very different kind of interactional engagement in class, one based on clear positional definition established by tradition.

7.4.2 Educator Authority and Learner Autonomy

Two closely connected issues that have a direct impact on the two types of contentious lecture-room engagement (ie. learner oriented and teacher-oriented) are educator authority and learner autonomy. Educator authority is definitely a requisite in lecturing/learning environment. But what is crucial is the manner in which authority is operational.

Interactional authority is not the same as transactional authority. In the interaction mode the educator assumes the dominant role in that the use of authority is regarded as authoritarian. The transitional exercise of authority is based on professional qualification. In this instance rights are not imposed, but a claim to be knowledgeable is respected. This kind of authority is somewhat authoritative.

Extreme clarity between the terms authoritarian and authoritative is clearly evident in the work of Barry Taylor cited in Widdowson (1990: 188). In his publication Taylor speaks about the "need to foster self-investment and whole-person goal accomplishment as a condition for effective learning through engagement with communication tasks" Taylor cited in Widdowson (1990: 188) further discusses the approach as follows when he :

Points at the need to maintain a non-authoritarian presence throughout this process so that learners can feel secure and non-defensive to enable them to learn not because the teacher demands it of them, but because they need to, in order to accomplish their own goals.

Taylor cited in Widdowson (1990:188) further explains that "this approach stresses that sharing the responsibility for structuring learning with the students does not require that teachers [sic] abdicate their fundamental authority to guide and structure their classes".

It is vital for every language educator to perceive lecturing materials as "stimulants of enquiry, calling for appraisal as a prerequisite for application". Lecturing (teaching material) that emphasizes "application without the requirement of appraisal" are seen as prescriptions. This type of perception actually constrains the users into conformity" (Widdowson 1990: 63).

It must be remembered that paedagogy certainly supports learning initiatives but also emphasizes that educator authority has a definite place in the lecture room. The collaborative work in the lecture room does not imply that the educator authority is overly limited or less authoritative. Ultimately the educator is still the guide and must monitor learner progress.

Learner authority has its vital domain in the teaching/learning situation. It has both transactional and interactional aspects. In the transactional mode the learner exercises autonomy according to the limitations requested by the teacher authority. It is important to distinguish the difference between the natural contexts of learning that promotes learner-independence and the instructional contexts that produces constraints. However "natural-learning" which is supposedly self-discovery and self-directed can be misleading at times. This process is usually directed. The point is not whether it should be directed or not but "what kind of direction is most ideologically desirable and most pedagogically effective" (Widdowson 1990:190). The implication here is that learning is somewhat restricted.

Interactional autonomy operates on a different level and its consequences run counter to transactional functions. In the interactional mode learners work in groups indulging in problem solving activities. It is necessary to establish a distinction here that when learners are allowed to work freely and independently they will naturally develop their "own norms and expectations". This then is applicable not to the role of learner but to the role of peer group.

At this point of engagement there are two clear interaction groups in the lecture room in that one consists of the educator and learner collectively and is overt while the learners and their own peer group comprises the covert group. Success of these kinds of issues should be contemplated by one's recognition and resolution of the difficulties inherent in the dual functioning of roles in the lecture room.

7.5 Language Learning and Language Teaching Strategies (Styles)

Various terminology/names can be assigned to the diverse activities that take place in the language learning and teaching situation. Some language advocates refer to them as approaches (as in oral approach); methods, (for example, audiolingual); teaching techniques, (namely drills). On the contrary, Marton cited in Cook (1991:9) discusses teaching strategies. They are "the receptive strategy, which relies primarily on listening, the communicative strategy wherein "students learn by attempting to communicate, the reconstruction strategy whereby "the student participates in reconstructive activities based on a text and lastly the eclectic strategy that involves a combination of two or more of the above strategies. For the purpose of this discussion the researcher decided upon employing two neutral terms (also used by Cook 1991:30). They are "teaching technique and teaching style".

Clark cited in Cook (1992:30) mentions that a technique is a "label for what we do as teachers [sic] ". Teaching encompassed various techniques within a particular teaching strategy. For instance, the combination of a function drill with an information gap exercise and a role-play would result in the communicative style with "assumptions about the importance of communication" in the lecture room. Teaching techniques known to share similar goals of language teaching and views of language and L2 learning are somewhat related to a teaching strategy. Strategy simply refers to "the element of fashion and changeability in teaching". Some innovative educators attempt to switch from one method to another and very often mix methods. The lecture room experience

calls for several teaching strategies since one of them can completely satisfy the requisites of any real class of learners.

7.5.1 The Academic Strategy (Style)

Teaching techniques consist of a reading text extracted from a newspaper or some other source, a grammatical explanation and translation are referred to as the academic strategy. Cook (1991:133) points out that the “academic style is a time-honoured way of teaching foreign languages ... and widespread in the teaching of advanced students in university systems around the world”. This strategy naturally occurs when other strategies are being used in teaching.

This strategy is not aimed at teaching people to use language for purposes outside the lecture room but is seen as individual goals of language teaching targeting mainly L2 as an academic subject. This leads to the creation of linguistic competence in the minds of students. Academic strategy quite often prepares the learner for the actual use of language. The development of academic knowledge allows the learner to use the L2 in real-life situations. This strategy emphasizes the teaching of grammatical competence as rules of a traditional type and as lists of vocabulary. The importance is on what people know and not what they can produce or comprehend. It is ideal for a society or individual that views academic knowledge of the L2 as a favourable objective and one which “holds a traditional view of the lecture room and the teacher’s [sic] role” (Cook 1991:134). However, the description of language is the main weakness. Cook (1991:135) argues that “though the academic style laudably strives to build up relationships between vocabulary items encountered in texts, it has no principled way of doing so”. It gives little attention to components of language other than grammar and vocabulary and pronunciation in spite of this strategy being concerned with linguistic forms. The academic strategy is appropriate for linguistic learners learning language as academic subject. On the contrary the academic strategy would be far-fetched for those learners learning L2 for real-life purposes and may not be academically gifted.

Cook (1991:134) suggests that the academic strategy can be appropriately used if individual goals are seen as primary, language use as a secondary and learners are academically gifted. However, it is the educator who would have to recognise the narrow base. It is crucial that educators develop the ability to understand the profundity of the individual goal of the academic style and not perceive it as mere grammatical explanations that imparts factual knowledge. The educator should effectively plan and conduct lessons in order to achieve goals of awareness, mental training and the appreciation of cultures. Below is a boxed summary of the above adapted from Cook (1991:135).

The academic style of language teaching

Typical teaching techniques:

grammatical explanation, translation etc

Goals:

- directly individual learning of the L2 as an academic subject, sometimes leading to communicative ability
- indirectly ability to use language

Type of student:

academically-gifted, not young children

Learning assumptions:

acquisition of conscious grammatical knowledge, conversion of knowledge to use

Processing assumptions:

none

Weaknesses from L2 research perspective:

- inadequate use of grammar
- no position on other components of language knowledge or use
- inefficiency as a way of teaching use

Suggestions for teaching:

- use it with academic students with individual goals
- supplement it with other components of language and processes
- remember its individual goals

7.5.2 The Audiolingual Strategy (Style)

This strategy concentrates on the learning of a spoken language through conversation and drills. Controlled conversation allows language to introduce a few vocabulary items at a time. Language is divided into four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing and emphasizing the spoken language rather than the written. Educators place importance on the value of practice drills. The academic strategy is not emphasized when pronunciation teaching used audiolingual techniques of repetition and drill. Though many educators have challenged this strategy's assumption with regard to learning, they still use it in language teaching. Language here is seen as form and sentences are learnt by means of learning structures and vocabulary.

The objective of the audiolingual strategy is to encourage learners to respond in the communicative L2 situation. This type of activity then makes it a practical and communication-oriented strategy. It is not restricted to the academically gifted. An understanding of linguistic structure and the generation of knowledge is of little significance, and the emphasis is placed on the learner learning the language through practice. The audiolingual strategy, unlike the academic strategy (which encourages learners to communicate) has one drawback, namely that a learner, who is unable to function in the L2 would not achieve anything more. There will be no academic knowledge or problem-solving activities.

Cook (1991:137) maintains that "many would deny that the distinctive elements of language are in fact learnable through the audiolingual style". Learners who usually perfect the content of an audiolingual course, realize the biggest part of learning is necessary in order to function in a real-life situation. A scrutiny of the syllabus or textbook reveals that this style views structures, phonemes and vocabulary items as the sum total of language. It is interesting to note that many educators usually turn to the citation because it presents a concise framework from which one compares techniques.

Cook (1991:138) asserts that contemporary techniques that emphasize spoken language and practice in speaking actually stems from the audiolingual strategy. Below is a boxed summary adapted from Cook (1991:138).

The audiolingual style of language teaching

Typical teaching techniques:
dialogues, structure drills, etc.

Goal:
getting students to 'behave' in appropriate situations

Type of student:
non-analytical, non-academic

Learning assumptions:
'habit-formation' behaviourist theory

Processing assumptions:
none

Classroom assumptions:
teacher-controlled classroom

Weaknesses from L2 research perspective:

- inadequate form of grammar
- no position on other aspects of language knowledge or use
- inefficiency of habit-formation as way of teaching use

Suggestions for teachers:

- use for teaching certain aspects of language only
- be aware of audiolingual basis for many everyday techniques

7.5.3 The Social Communicative Strategy (Style)

The processes that people use to undertake particular communicative tasks are regarded as communication. There are two distinct communicative strategies. The one is called social communicative strategy and the other is called information communicative strategy. The social communicative strategy is emphasizing the joint functioning of two people in a situation. Here language is defined as communication between people and

not texts for grammatical rules or patterns. Information gap and role play are employed with this strategy. Communicative strategy does not pay attention to grammatically flawless sentences but it attempts to develop the learner's ability to communicate fluently. The social communicative strategy aims to allow L2 learners to be able to use the second language on an international level (ie. with people in another country) rather than being used locally in multilingual societies.

During the use of social communicative strategy the learners assume the primary role and the educator is no longer regarded as the "controlling and guiding" figure. Learners learn through several activities and by conversing amongst themselves (in pairs or in groups). Substantive errorless speech is not a pre-requisite. Learners construct and use sentences (though highly inappropriate from a native perspective) that are relevant to their task and succeed in solving their communication problems. This strategy has its limitations. Field-independent learners might benefit rather than field-dependent. Extroverts and less academically inclined learners might find this strategy more useful as compared to introverts and academic learners. Cook (1991:140) posits that "communication is a dynamic process" and it "stimulates communication" in the lecture room through task-based activities.

Social communicative strategy and interlanguage are closely linked. The technique employed in this strategy changes the educator's roles from direction and control to organisation and support. It is worth noting that the social communicative strategy does not have its own set of techniques for "teaching pronunciation or vocabulary; it has little contact with speech processing and memory and little systematic recognition on the possibilities available to the learner through the L1" (Cook 1991:142). Learners with the same L1 indulging in pairwork or groupwork frequently resort to code switching between

L1 and L2. Those societies and learners who understand the importance of international goals of a non-specific kind realize that the social communicative strategy is highly significant for them. Learners who are interested in language structure or personal liberation would not find this strategy appealing. It is crucial for the educator to make a clear distinction between what goals are valued most by different sectors of the learner community. Summary adapted from (Cook 1990:142).

The social communicative style of language teaching

Typical teaching techniques:

information gap, roleplays

Goal:

getting students to interact with other people in the L2

Type of student:

any

Learning assumptions:

learning by communicating with other students in the classroom: "laissez-faire"

Processing assumptions:

none

Classroom assumptions:

teacher as organiser, not fount of wisdom

Weaknesses from L2 research perspective:

- lack of views on discourse processes, communication strategies, etc.
- black-box model of learning
- lack of role for L1
- possible cultural conflicts because of its configurative basis

Suggestions for teachers:

- use with appropriate students in appropriate circumstances
- supplement with other components of language
- avoid trivialisation of content and aims

7.5.4 The Information Communicative Strategy (Style)

Saussure cited in Cook (1991:143) pointed out that "speech has both an individual and a social side and we cannot conceive of one without the other". The information communicative strategy is used during teaching, whereby information is transferred.

Learners communicate during a lesson where the language content is explained, then they may listen to a tape instructing them to fill a form (for example, with names of guests in a hotel). The educator uses the “listening first” technique and after having paid careful attention, the learners produce sentences. This kind of process is referred to as information transfer. The emphasis is on information to be obtained from language and not on the social relationship between listener and speaker. Sifting through information is the primary factor. The information communication strategy can be used in local and international circumstances. This strategy is educator dominated. The educator provides information personally or through materials, the language input and the organization of the educators’ activities and lecture room strategies. Learners concentrate on listening rather than speaking in the lecture room. Learners are encouraged to comprehend in the lecture room and it is comprehension that leads to learning.

According to Cook (1991:144) the “black box of the social communicative style draws on social interaction” and “the black box of the information communicative style relies on information exchange”. This can be seen as another form of *laissez-faire*. L2 research reveals that information communicative strategy has “partial coverage of language content, components of language and processes of language”. The educator should work upon the learners’ ability to listen, “pay systematic attention to teaching the listening process of access to vocabulary, parsing and linking the text to prior knowledge” (Cook 1991:145). A boxed summary is appended on following page (Cook 1990:145).

The information communicative style of language teaching

Typical teaching techniques:

information gap, roleplays

Goals:

getting students to comprehend information in the L2

Type of student:

any that don't want necessarily to speak

Learning assumptions:

learning by comprehending information in the classroom leads to full ability to use language

Processing assumptions:

blackbox — decoding is the same as codebreaking

Classroom assumptions:

teacher-dominated; classroom type exchanges

Weaknesses from L2 research perspective:

- failure to specify the nature of learning itself
- narrowness of components and processes covered

Suggestions for the teacher

- adapt to goals of students and to less classroom-based language
- develop specific processes of listening

7.5.5 The Mainstream English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Strategy (Style)

The mainstream strategy (EFL) can be characterised by the term “situation” in two ways. Firstly language is taught by means of demonstration in the lecture room situation. Secondly, teaching of the language is organised using language of real-life situations that are normally encountered by learners.

Mainstream EFL strategy has also incorporated some aspects of the social communicative strategy. The lecture room lesson evolves around the grammatical point, paying attention to the structural or traditional grammar. According to Cook (1991:146) “mainstream method is implied every time a teacher [sic] goes through teaching the dialogue to controlled practice”. The goals of this strategy could be said to be “updated versions of audiolingualism”. The important factor here is the manner in which learners use language in the eventual real-world situation rather than their “academic knowledge or the spin-off in general educational values” (Cook 1991:147).

It is interesting to note that some educators would benefit from the grammatical explanation, another from structure practice, and maybe another from role play. However, like all the other strategies that have drawbacks, the mainstream EFL tends to concentrate on certain types of grammar and discourse at the expense of others. Cook (1991:147) maintains that “in terms of teaching methods, this has been discussed in terms of ‘eclecticism’. Some researchers have contested that it is proper to have eclectic mixing of methods provided the mixing is rationally based, while some regard it as being difficult for learners to learn in so many different ways simultaneously.

According to Cook (1991:148) currently, “all teaching methods are partial in L2 learning terms”, in that some areas of language are conveyed by one type of teaching technique. On the other hand there are methods that concentrate on a small portion of the entire L2 learning. The mainstream strategy, therefore, should not be dismissed merely because it is eclectic. See boxed summary on the next page, adapted from (Cook 1990:147).

The mainstream EFL style of language teaching

Typical teaching techniques:

presentation, substitution, roleplay

Goal:

getting students to know and use language

Type of student:

any

Learning assumptions:

understanding, practice, and use

Processing assumptions:

none

Classroom assumptions:

both teacher-controlled and groups

Weaknesses from L2 research perspective:

- combination of other styles
- lack of L1 role
- drawbacks of mixture of styles

Suggestions for teacher

- do not worry about the mixture of different sources
- remember that it still does not cover all aspects relevant to L2 teaching

7.5.6 Other Strategies (Styles)

There has been a major shift with regard to the teaching strategies that were outlined in the foregoing pages. Cook (1991:148) mentions that different names have been assigned to some other strategies. Some are called “alternative methods”, some are referred to as “humanistic methods” and others are termed “self-access or self-directed learning”.

In Community Language Learning (CLL) educators sit in a circle. A learner begins the conversation by saying “Wasn’t the traffic terrible today? This WH-Question is mentioned in the student’s L1. The educator then translates this in the language being learnt by the students and this one learner repeats it. Many other statements and questions are created by the group in their L1 and it is then translated into the language being learnt

and thereafter repeated by the particular learner. (Translation of this type is usually recorded and the educator uses them for conventional practice of an audiolingual or academic kind).

CLL is one of the humanistic methods that encompasses Suggestopedia, with the intention of relaxing the learner; the Silent Way, which concentrates on the expression of meaning through coloured rods and Confluent Language Teaching pays attention on the learners potentiality in the L2 learning process. CLL places importance on the general educational values. Humanistic strategies, however, are usually encountered with learners in part-time classes. The various humanistic strategies attempt to free the learner from several inhibiting factors. This can only occur if the correct learning environment is provided. Cook (1991:149) argues that educators should present “stress-free, non-dependent and value-respecting teaching” in order to promote learning amongst learners.

There are other humanistic strategies that are connected to mainstream L2 learning research. The overall theory of learning and education presents the Suggestopedia. Here the rules for learning are controlled so that the learner can overcome resistance to the new language. However humanistic strategies do not pay much attention to the variation between learners though the aim is on learner centredness. Their principle motivation is usually “self-related” or “teaching-group” related.

An opposing view is a great breakaway towards learner autonomy. Holec cited in Cook (1991:150) appropriately explains the meaning of becoming an autonomous learner when he states that “by gradually and individually acquiring the capacity to conduct his own learning programme, the learner progressively becomes his own teacher and constructs and evaluates his learning programme himself. This statement is indicative of the fact that a well-planned learning system would assist the learner in the autonomous learning system. Learners achieve a realization that they are “producers” of their own learning programme” and this entire exercise is their own right (Cook 1990: 151),

There is much uncertainty as to whether autonomous learning would have a place in the mainstream educational system and at this stage it is not greatly appreciated and used. The lack of its popularity could be attributed to its incompatibility between the individual nature of instruction and the collective nature of most classrooms and assessment. The responsibility to learning a language is totally taken on by the learner. This is supported by the words of Cook (1990:151) where she points out that autonomous learning refuses "to prescribe a patent method" that all learners have to follow. This means that learners come to terms with regard to setting their own goals, methods and self-assessment procedures. The following boxed summary is taken from (Cook 1990:152).

Other styles of language teaching

Typical teaching techniques:

CLL, Suggestopedia, Confluent Language Teaching, self-directed learning

Goals:

individual: development of the potential; self-selected
type of student: those with individual motivation etc.

Learning assumptions:

diverse, mostly learning by doing, or a processing model

Processing assumptions:

none

Classroom assumptions:

usually small groups with colfigurative or even prefigurative aims

Weaknesses from L2 research perspective:

- black box view of learning or partial idiosyncratic views
- little attention to learner variation in humanistic styles
- difficulties in generalising to many educational situations

Suggestions for teachers:

- importance of students feelings and involvement
- provision of student choice throughout

7.6 Conclusion

The issues in this section centred around some salient aspects of language teaching. Under the ambit of the pragmatics of language teaching the interdependent relationship between theory and practice, the medication model and the notion of language educators being applied linguists simultaneously was undoubtedly emphasized. Research and language teaching which is the much talked about topic in language and linguistic circles was also discussed followed by the nature of research and the need for contemporary education and training of language educators which naturally also included teaching materials and techniques employed in the lecturing situation. The theoretical foundation is necessary and its effective application would enhance the insight of the educator.

The role of the educator and the learner was discussed and a detailed version of the subtleties off this aspect was presented. It requires a certain expertise, deep realization and serious consideration. Education and Pedagogy cannot undermine educator authority and yet also learner autonomy should be perceived through telescopic vision. Several language learning and language teaching strategies were discussed and each strategy was followed by a boxed summary of the strategy concerned.

CHAPTER EIGHT

LANGUAGE PLANNING AND POLICY

8.1 Introduction

Chapter seven presented a detailed discussion on the some salient aspects of language teaching and language learning. It is deemed necessary to pay some attention to Language Planning and Policy, since an organization cannot function effectively without proper functioning and policies.

Clearly language planning is a developing field and is a direct component of sociolinguistics. Language Planning (LP) is fast becoming an interdisciplinary activity. It is considered as a potential area of specialization in that knowledge of language, culture and rationality are applied to meet the social demands and requirements of a community.

The decisions arising as a result of careful language planning determines the idea of which language is to be used in specific speech communities. Considering the language goals of a community, LP focuses on how language can be exercised and be successful in a given speech community (Eastman 1983:4).

This chapter will provide information on the concept of language planning followed by a discussion on the language planning academy and its function; knowledge as to who are the language planners and who decides upon language planning will also follow. It will then proceed with details on status and corpus planning and language policy and its components.

Other factors concerning language planning will also be considered. They are looking specifically at the South African context and the implementation of language planning

with regard to specific populations; language planning should be continually revised and evaluated on a national level and so forth. The chapter will round off by discussing the language planning and policy document for tertiary institutions with specific reference to UDW and University of Natal (UND).

8.2 Language Planning

The approach to the study of change in language and language use is termed language planning (LP). During LP, predictions are made in order to bring about changes. Language Planning is defined by Haughen cited in Cluver (1993:31) as the “normative work of language academies and committees, all forms of what is commonly known as language cultivation ... and all proposals for language reform or standardization”.

Rubin and Jernudd cited in Cooper (1993:30) assert that LP is a “deliberate change” that is planned by established organisations who are mandated to perform the function of changes in the system of language code or speaking or both. This thought is further expanded by Jernudd and Das Gupta cited in Cooper (1989:30) who mention that LP is based on politics and administration and not defined “as an idealistic and exclusive linguistic activity”.

It is imperative then that language planning concentrates on problem solving and is distinguished by the formulation and evaluation of different options for the solution of language problems and the generation of the most optimal decisions (Cluver 1993:31).

Tauli cited in Cooper (1993:30) believes that LP is a methodological activity of regulations and improving existing languages or creating new common regional, national or international languages.

The role of authority in language planning is crucial and vocabulary is regarded as the most extensive field of LP. The LP scholar Moshe Nahir cited in Eastman (1983:28) identifies five objectives for language planning:

- Language Purification: The prescription of “correct” usage of the language and the preservation of the language “purity” and the removal of “foreign” elements from it.
- Language Revival: The restoration of an older form of language to the level of normal language.
- Language Reform: Making a language more operational through the functions simplification of its registers eg. the legal language or the vocabulary or spelling system.
- Language Standardization: The definite advancement of one variety of a language as the norm for the nation.
- Lexical modernization: Creating new terminology for a language. It is interesting to note that each of the five LP objectives has been a goal of different planning agencies around the world. French sought language purification, revival with Cornish and Irish, reform with Chinese, standardization with Swahili and lexical modernization with Egyptian, Arabic, Danish and Hebrew and various other languages. (Eastman 1983:28)

Nahir cited in Eastman (1983:29) suggested that LP agencies could undertake action in many of these activities at different times and “shift from one function class to another,

abandon functions, or adopt new ones, when a change in needs, circumstances or ideology in society or speech community takes place. A language agency may engage in more than one objective at a given point and yet at another time it could consider only one of the five objectives.

Karam cited in Cluver (1993:31) views LP as the attempt to guide the course of language development and the various institutions which channel and diffuse that language; it should be, but is not always well planned". She recognises six types of LP activities:

- Developing vernaculars into national languages
- Reviving ancient languages
- Dealing with conflicting language loyalties
- Instituting large-scale language reform such a script replacement, or the purification of the vocabulary
- Using comparative reconstruction to arrive at a norm consisting of a fusion existing past and present dialects
- Attempting to preserve the semi-intelligibility between members of different but related speech communities

Mackey cited in Cluver (1993:32) looks at the activities of LP that is given approval by the government with the intent of changing the function of a language in society in order to bring about solutions to communication problems. Rubin cited in Cluver (1993:32) points out that "modification of a language to certain preferred specification, namely, the modernisation and standardisation of the lexicon, grammar, pronunciation or discourse". She emphasizes the necessity to understand the socio-political motivation underlying the kinds of problems language planners are faced with. One can add that LP is certainly future-oriented and it should be a part of other changes in society.

Eastman (1983:33) identifies the neighbouring subject of LP as follows:

- LP that deals with attitudinal and affective behaviours towards language (such as loyalty) belong to the realm of society

- LP that focuses on the control, change or regulating language use belong to the domain of political science.

It is important to note that LP is an endeavour to identify ones's loyalty to the native language as well as to recognise the need of the community to have a "uniform and efficient means of communication (Eastman 1983:33).

Cluver (1993:33) contends that LP is the deliberate intervention of a government into language matters. Cluver (1993:33) looks at the following aspects with regard to LP. They are: censorship; computer languages; document design; education of language minority groups; foreign language education; gender neutrality in language; graphization; immigrant/citizen requirements; interpretation services; languages and business; language and the law; language maintenance and shift; language modernisation; language officialisation; language purification; language mother-tongue continuity. Language mother-tongue continuity includes the domains of home and family life and elementary schooling; the religious sector and the work domain.

According to Cluver (1993:33) Ruiz perceives these domains as "ones that transmit values, loyalties, ideologies, philosophies and traditions out of which a sense of community arises and is maintained ...". In this way languages could spread into the teaching work sphere. The on-going use of other languages should not be seen as a threat to the revival programme.

Mansow cited in Cluver (1993:51) takes a more critical stance towards LP. LP is reduced to a political tool when politicians engage in language planning. This implies that the aims and achievements of LP should not be regarded as neutral value-free concepts.

Instead they should be critically assessed in order to see if they could be used to achieve political objectives.

The concepts, termed status planning and language planning are of great significance in the planning of languages. The next section (8.3) will discuss these concepts.

8.3 Status Planning

Status planning refers to language planning which stems from government policy which determines the language that would be used in a particular domain, as an official language. Status planning usually occurs in the form of a government statute.

Cluver (1993:59) contends that status changes are usually disputed and ultimately results in residual feelings. It is clear that status planning considers changes in society and not changes in language.

When a specific language operates within functional domains it reveals the status of it itself (ie. the language). Cluver (1993:59) states that “the education or religious function of a language has an important influence on its status”. The use of a language as an administration and legal language also enhances its status”.

Several languages in a multilingual society have similar functions which leads to a competitive relationship between them. Language conflict may occur if the competition is not solved. A loss in the functional domains in which a language is used lead to a loss in the status of a language. This negative action results in the decline of that language. Cluver (1993:59). Government bodies and official institutions are responsible for status planning.

8.4 Corpus Planning

Gorman cited in Cooper (1989:30) emphasized that the “term language planning is most appropriately used in my view to refer to elaborate orthographic, grammatical, lexical or semantic features of a language and to disseminate the corpus agreed upon”.

Corpus Planning emerges during a change in the status of a language. A variety is selected (in the status planning process) as the official language. This official language requires standardisation, graphisation and modernisation and elaboration and purification. This is the corpus planning process (Cluver 1993:7). The changes of the standard language used in official domains, includes the development of an orthography, expansion of vocabulary and changes to the morphology or orthography. In many instances certain forms are selected and standardised as the preferred forms.

The developmental process of a vernacular into a standard language consists of three components, namely graphization, which involves the development of a writing system for a language; modernisation, that deals with the expansion of technical vocabulary including registers to a variety; standardization results in a language norm that determines “correct” usage (Cluver 1993:7). The language norm is codified in official grammars and dictionaries. The objective of the norm is to stabilize the standard language.

Cluver (1993:7) postulates that the modernisation of Hebrew and the development of Afrikaans as an official language are excellent examples of corpus planning. Corpus planning on African languages in South Africa is a slow process and is frequently stigmatised. However in Cameroon sensible corpus planning occurs. Swahili is possibly a highly elaborated language in the African Anglophone countries.

It is interesting to note that corpus planning is undertaken by linguists. The distinction between corpus planning and status planning can result in researchers' misunderstanding the direct relationship between the two processes. It is important to understand that corpus planning "affects the status of a variety and changes to the status of a variety often lead to corpus planning to enable that variety to function in new domains" (Cluver 1993:7).

8.5 Language Planning: The Academy/Agency

Language Planning agencies are actually Language Academies that are responsible for decision making with regard to the language policies and the form their elaboration would take in a specific context (Eastman 1983:8).

Eastman aptly illustrates an example, where three Arab academies, namely, Syrian, Egyptian and Iraqi, have addressed policies concerning the elaboration of classical Arabic. Atlome cited in Eastman (1983:8) posits that each academy has as its main objective "the preservation and renovation of classical Arabic as an effective and unified language for all Arabic-speaking people".

The language academy may nominate a language planning agency to conduct its tasks, for example, the increasing acceptance of an official language, interpreting language policy, monitoring the implementation of this policy and reporting on the effectiveness of LP to the government.

The agency is responsible for "language standards, formulation of language norms, purification of language and promotion of that language as a symbol of a speech community". This type of agency will also provide "spelling lists, pronunciation guides,

style manuals, lists of official abbreviations, place names, technical dictionaries and official grammars. (Cluver 1993:30).

An academy/agency can efficiently pay attention to the elaboration and maintenance of a language. Many agencies translate language maintenance as having the same meaning as language purification.

These objectives are achieved by the effort of many agencies. This is supported by the words of Eastman (1983:10) when she says that “Language academics typically sanction their own official dictionary, orthography and grammar”. Actions of this nature have been undertaken by the French, Spanish and the Suid Afrikaanse Akademie.

An academy also elaborates language policy and implements the language norms of the policy. Members of the academy are requested to “infuse the language and the policy with prestige” in order to enhance the value of the standard language (Eastman 1983:9). The guidance of a language planning academy or agency is highly instrumental for the establishing of most language policies. America and Ireland are two excellent examples that support the preceding statement. According to Eastman (1983:10) most Americans do not believe that an “official English language policy exists”. However a norm is frequently elaborated by an efficient academy. This takes the form of newspaper, radio and television reporting. This implies that in America the media is the message.

In Ireland a Committee Council was founded to establish a policy for implementation to restore Irish and yet preserve and achieve English proficiency.

It is necessary to include some of the specific categories of people who are mandated to conduct their portion of the tasks during the language planning activity. Information on this aspect will follow in the section below.

8.5.1 Planners in various categories of the language academy

LP activities are co-ordinated by authorities such as politicians, educators, economists, linguists, anthropologists and sociologists. The definitions on LP by Rubin and Jernudd and also by Jernudd and Das Gupta cited in Cooper in Section 8.2 on LP testifies that established organisations and politicians are the objects that enforce the LP activity.

Politicians who come under the ambit of the government are responsible for LP. LP is viewed by government as an avenue to foster attachment to and involvement in the national system. Kelman cited in Eastman (1983:33) expresses the notion that language may be regarded as a “uniquely powerful instrument in unifying a diverse population and in involving individuals and subgroups in the national system”.

Economists base their decision-making on LP according to certain models aiming at choosing the best plan. This would entail planning language changes with the least cost and yet providing large benefits.

Sociologists perform their tasks by confirming or disconfirming sociological concepts used for looking at social behaviour that reflect attitudes. They would focus on factors such as social class, social dialect and ethnic or social reality (Eastman 1983:44).

Linguists, more so sociolinguists are now being involved in the language planning activity by attempting to develop methods of language behaviour. They provide input by looking at an in-depth analysis of the social factors motivating change. This is a necessity for the understanding of linguistic change. Labov (1972:64) posits that “sociolinguists discuss language change in progress and perceive it to be on social and dialect maps. The implication of linguistic differences and language in contact bears great emphasis for the sociolinguists.

Contributions to the LP activity is also made by educators. All forms of education, be it establishing literacy or learning a second language (L2), are part of the LP process. LP affects educators who are in a situation to manipulate the choice of orthography and the form of the language in which people learn to read and write. L2 and LP are closely related. The criteria set out for L2 learning are normally linked to the social or political context of the educational system or both (Eastman 1983:83).

Anthropologists provide useful input by socially mobilizing or dignifying a language. They are concerned with intercultural and crosscultural communication. Eastman (1983:69) contends that anthropologists and linguists “reduce language to writing, decide how to standardize them, and determine how the standard is to be socially/culturally mobilized”.

8.6 Language Policy

There are two primary components of language planning. Firstly there should be a policy that is to be followed and secondly the choice of language or language to which the policy relates. Language policies are formulated, codified, elaborated and implemented. The procedure is one of deliberation and decision-making. The primary “political deliberative factor in language policy formulation is the goal of the body eg. the nation formulating the policy” (Eastman 1983:7).

Eastman (1983:7) maintains that much research on political issues on policy formulation has occurred mainly in the African countries, for instance, in East Africa, policy formulation is linked to the development of a Swahili political culture. The Kenyan government has been collaborating with educational and religious bodies in order to formulate a policy. This type of action would generate a Kenyan national culture free of tribal, colonial or religious ties. By definition, a language policy is frequently formulated by a government or an agency selected by a particular government.

The goals of a language policy appear to constitute the inclusion of equal language rights and national feelings in multiethnic states. Cluver (1993:35) asserts that in the idealistic approach ... “the goal of a language policy is to introduce a (new) official language in a multilingual state, eg. Swahili in Tanzania, or it may be aimed at codifying and elaborating a particular variety to serve as a national language”. On the contrary a realistic approach to language policies, reveals that they are often implemented in order to oppress or marginalise minority groups.

Cluver (1993:35) postulates that language policies have a tendency to work within certain confines. Speakers of specific linguistic groups are given the opportunity for exercising mobility and meaningful participation in governmental and economical affairs.

Szepe cited in Cluver (1993:35) recognises two goals of language policy. They are firstly, to handle language conflict in the short term and secondly to avoid language conflict in the long run. The nature of language policy is such that it assists by the mere domination by one group over another. The language policy of the French State after the bourgeois revolution is a case in point.

A language academy or language planning agency usually co-ordinates the implementation process of the language policy. The government is totally supportive of this implementation.

It must be emphasized, however, that the actual policy implementation is activated by members of the language profession.

The following distinctions have been made between official language policy, educational language policy, general language policy and the international aspects of language policy: (Adapted from Cluver 1993:35-6).

- The official language policy in which the government states which languages should be used in what domains
- The educational language policy in which the government states which languages should be used as the initial medium of instruction and at what level school should switch to instruction in an official language
- The general language policy in which the government gives official approval to language use in business, the media and in contact with other countries
- International aspects of language policy such as the policy determining the language of diplomacy or the language of civil aviation

Language policies should operate in conjunction with the activities of a particular community.

Fishman cited in Cluver (1983:36) points out that “language always exists in a cultural matrix, and it is this matrix that needs to be fostered via policy rather than the language per se”. Weinstein cited in Cluver (1993:32) shows that in Francophone countries governments are not very enthusiastic about the implementation of language policies. This then results in the efforts of language planning becoming very futile. They are merely interested in promoting the official language.

Many skilled and well trained professionals contribute to the implementation of language policies. They are lexicographers who assist by way of standardizing a variety by their dictionaries; terminologists who help modernize a variety by producing fresh technical terms; translators obtain information in the national or international languages; language educators help propagate the official or national languages; and lastly journalists who help spread the official language.

8.6.1 People's Perception and Attitude towards Language and Language Planning

Language-related attitudes are not always easily understood. Language planners are continually attempting to discover the possible link between language planning and actual language use. Planners need to consider the following factors when planning: A country could have a designated national language which is not spoken by majority of the people. Most of the students in a country, for example, disrespect the language of education (Eastman 1983:32).

Extensive political changes in a country will obviously lead to a major review of the language policy. English is still seen by the greater community as the language of wider communication. Blacks in particular support the notion that the future generation should learn through the medium of English.

Children often acquire language attitudes during the process of enculturation in a given speech community. Saville-Troike cited in Cluver (1993:19) illustrates three divisions for language attitudes studies:

- A study where general attitudes towards language and language skills are analyzed, for example, the attitudes which lead to evaluation of one variety over another
- Analysis of stereotypes, the speakers and the functions of a specific language
- A study that analyzes the manner in which language attitudes influences language choice, language learning and L2 learning.

Cluver (1993:19) advises that the matched-guise test developed by Lambert is a highly prosperous method in determining language attitudes. He too confirms that LP is responsible for “determining attitude towards a variety that is selected as an official language and that the “correlation between attitudes and achievement in second language” is a significant realm in language studies.

Educational language planning which pays attention to decisions on the language of instruction concentrate primarily on what initial language of instruction should be used in schools for children of minority groups. The decision on the choice of language use is based on two assumptions. They are: that society has a monolithic structure in which one language and culture dominates or the assumption that the social structure is culturally diverse in that linguistic variety “is not only tolerated but actively promoted” (Cluver 1993:12-13).

It is important to decide whether or not the initial mother tongue would be used and for what length of time, and also if the majority language (language of wider communication) is to be used as the language of instruction. Minority groups will experience several setbacks when attending school where the medium is a foreign language.

D’Angelan cited in Cluver (1993:12) lists a few external variables worthy of consideration:

- Societal expectation of the academy
- The comparison of the status of the minority group and their language with that of the dominant group
- Societal anticipation of the minority group students academic success
- Attitudes of parents towards the use of dominant (or minority) language as language of instruction

While it is important to consider the above points, there are also contra-indications, in that, minority languages can be suppressed during the process of promoting dominant languages. Cluver (1993:13) claims that “when underlying objectives of educational language planning becomes clear to members of the affected group, they may reject the

educational language policy as was illustrated by the township school disturbances of 1976 when black school children rejected education through the medium of Afrikaans.

8.6.2 Language Rights

Language rights refers to the right to be educated in the mother tongue or even the language of the country. It is the right to use it in courts, government and the media. Macas cited in Cluver (1993:38) states that language right is the right to freedom from discrimination on the basis of language and “the right to use your language(s) in the activities of communal life”.

Majority groups are capable of withstanding domination by more powerful sectors. This can only happen if the minority groups assert their rights. Tollefson cited in Cluver (1993:38) informs one that it is possible to grant language rights if there is a power insistence on the part of the group demanding the rights.

Willemys cited in Cluver (1993:38) appropriately reveals the manner in which the economic growth in Flanders since 1960 allowed Flemings to accomplish much more in recent times than ever before in the domain of linguistics and culture.

There are laws which take the form of official statements that assist in determining the position in which a specific language may be used. Cluver (1993:38) outlines a few points that bears reference to language rights:

- The right to communicate in a language at home but not in public places
- The right to use a language in public places, but not with government, school or office. A good case is the Indian Languages in South Africa
- The right to use a certain language as a medium of instruction in primary schools but not in secondary schools. The black languages are good examples.

- Create institutes in order to maintain the rights of a language
- The elaboration and modernization of a language and the right to use it in all spheres

Language rights normally concentrates on minority languages, for example, the language of immigrants. According to Cluver (1993:38), Unesco and the United Nations have mentioned that every ethnic group has the right to maintain its language. But the primary issue at this stage is to determine the language rights of immigrant communities. There are two factors that create much uncertainty. Firstly it is not apparent whether “one should forsake all language rights by emigrating to another country and secondly it is not clear as to what the size of an immigrant group should be for the government to recognize their language.

Szepe cited in Cluver (1993:39) differentiates between three separate rights as follows:

- Speakers in a particular territory who are concentrated in large numbers or who can make claims to have been the first settlers or where the language enjoys the highest prestige and are permitted to speak in their mother tongue in education, work and in public, are said to exercise territorial language rights
- Individuals living in any vicinity are given personal language rights
- Community language rights belong to individuals in any community as well as to those living out of the main group. Children using their mother tongue during their early years of schooling are also exercising community language rights
- Linguistic inequality is greatly reduced by the implication of language rights which notably is grouped within the category of human rights



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Human rights encompasses the right to arrange people in ethnic organisations, to practice particular group customs and religion and to regulate the area in which a particular group lives and also to make representations in the central government. It is interesting to note that language right does not secure the individual's rights. According to Magnet cited in Cluver (1993:39) language rights target the institutional form, structure and procedures "through which speech occurs ... [they] protect participation of linguistic minorities in the machinery of government in broadcasting in the media in schools, the public and private workplace.

The refusal to switch to another code during an official encounter implies that multilingual speakers could be attempting to maintain their language rights. When certain linguistically oppressed groups "mobilize around their language and insist on its use in certain domains" the implication is that they are trying to redefine the role of their particular language in society.

8.7 Language Policy and Plan for SA

The above-mentioned policy was compiled by the Advisory Panel on Language Policy for the Minister of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology on 5 June 2000. It was necessary for the researcher to peruse the contents of this draft in order to understand the different aspects that constitute a Language Planning and Policy document for S.A.

It is evident that the focus of this research project is language educators and their application of contemporary linguistics in the language teaching situation at UDW. It is therefore crucial to pay attention to "Language of Learning and Teaching (LOLT)". There is only a "bits and pieces" account of this topic in the draft document.

According to the Advisory Panel on language policy (2000:14), "language is a fundamental instrument of learning and teaching". All educators must be encouraged to

focus on language learning and teaching. Primary languages are now being supported. Educators and learners should make every attempt to utilize their primary languages as their “main LOLT at all levels of school”. It is increasingly apparent that English is the national language and the language for international communication. Educators and learners would have to be given the opportunity to become proficient in English.

8.8 A look at Educational Language Planning and Policy for tertiary institutions with special reference to UDW and University of Natal (UND)

The aim of educational language planning is to train educators in the language of instruction . Educational language planning also assists with the production of text books and the design of curriculum. The educational language policy that is based on educational language planning should accommodate regional variation in multilingual countries. According to Cluver (1993:13) this suggestion may have serious drawbacks. For instance, “some of the education systems of a few African countries use two languages, namely “mother tongue for the first two years and then a language of wider communication” (usually English or French), for secondary and tertiary education. The outcome of this action would be a linguistic stratification of the society. Eastman cited in Cluver (1993:13) discusses Kenya as an example which demonstrates “a minimally educated set of people literate at primary school level in Swahili and an educated elite which used English.

The researcher approached the Acting Academic Registrar’s office at UDW for a document on Language Planning and Policy for UDW. The response was that “there is no policy and they are now in the process of drafting a document”. UND have a draft Language Policy document which was updated on 13 September 1999. They have recognised the aims and objectives of the South African (SA) Multilingual policy and hope to be successful in implementing a definite policy.

It is interesting to note the manner in which UND identified the goal of multilingual SA language policy and is prepared to incorporate this with its own language policy and

practice. They have considered several factors, one of which includes looking at the context of diminishing funding. UND will need to have a language policy that will not add significantly to administrative and teaching costs.

This language policy promotes the usage and respect of minority languages. In order to maintain continued cultural, economic and scientific links, the proficiency of foreign languages will also be encouraged.

A vital imperative is to advance the proficiency of English as well as the promotion of indigenous African languages. English proficiency is undoubtedly emphasized, since it is the vehicle for academic research, trade and industry and the international language of communication.

Below are eight points that have been adapted from UND's amended draft on 13 September 1999:

- The principal language of learning and instruction will be English. The use of other languages, where this is clearly appropriate, will be encouraged eg. in language courses and where such use can facilitate understanding of academic content.
- To gain access to the University students will need to demonstrate that they have communication skills in English sufficient for them to be able to follow lectures and to express themselves sufficiently well to demonstrate their capacity to follow lectures.

- To assist students to achieve cognitive/academic proficiency in English sufficient for academic success in their chosen fields of study, appropriate credit-bearing foundation English courses will be made available in both English and Zulu.
- The University of Natal will encourage staff already in its employment to improve their proficiency in the major languages used in KwaZulu Natal and in South Africa generally and will facilitate the process wherever possible. Where it can be demonstrated to be beneficial, the capacity to interact with students and the wider community will count positively in the performance evaluation of staff. Multilingual competence will count positively in the hiring of staff.
- Ceremonial occasions will be used where practicable to underline the multilingual and multicultural character of South African society.
- The University of Natal, will, to the extent practical, promote multilingual proficiency amongst its students to ensure that they will be able to function effectively as professionals in the multilingual local context, and have proficiency in languages of wider currency in promoting international trade, tourism, cultural and academic contact.
- The University of Natal will promote research and development related to multilingualism and to the expansion of the resources and uses of indigenous South African languages so that they can be used effectively in an interesting range of prestigious public domains.

UND's EO/AA (Equal Opportunity and Affirmative Action) committee should be requested to take responsibility with regard to monitoring the progress in the implementation of the University's multilingual language policy and thereafter advising Senate accordingly.

8.9 Conclusion

In the foregoing pages an attempt has been made to trace, firstly, the broad concept of language planning (including some definitions) and, secondly, to highlight who the language planners should be. This section also described the language policy, including policy formulation, codification, elaboration and implementation.

Some vital information on the SA situation was put forth by way of discussing the Language Policy and Planning which was compiled by the Advisory Panel for Language Policy. A relevant focus area was the planning and policy perspective for tertiary institutions.

The researcher was unsuccessful in obtaining any information with regard to language planning and policy for UDW, like the one for UND. The well prepared document from UND was discussed and its future policy implementation presented.

The next chapter will be summed up by some well researched recommendations for language educators and some concluding remarks.

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1 Conclusions

It is appropriate to re-iterate the achievements of the preceding chapters. Clearly, this study bears evidence to the belief that contemporary linguistics holds a critical position in the language teaching situation. Language teaching should be interpreted within the current linguistic paradigm.

The historical survey revealed the main objectives for introducing the many languages at UDW. The university's decisive role proved to be supportive towards the Indian community. A common platform for studying eastern and western languages was created. A strong balance between the study of the value of world-wide cultures was appreciated and the language departments were subsequently established. The eastern and western languages were undertaken in order to generate a commonness amongst the diverse learner population. It must be emphasized that the researchers focus in this project was to look at the study of language for language's sake; studying it with the intention of being able to effectively communicate in a particular language and most importantly studying language in the practical sense, in that languages should be studied by applying the principles of contemporary linguistics.

This investigation attempted to outline that the complex problem of language pedagogy cannot be elucidated by merely supplicating the concepts of the authenticity of language, nor can the autonomy of learners produce miraculous results. Principled pragmatic enquiry is not static and should be considered as a continuing process. This discussion

highlighted the need for language educators to determine effective conceptual frameworks within which learners can operate. The possibility of innovation is relative to established conventions. The implication here is that the actions of the language learner, language educator and the language user can be distinguished as ways of attaining specific goals by relating to a general conceptual framework which at the same time would delimit their actions and define their significance.

The relevance of contemporary linguistics was firmly demonstrated in this inquiry. Its potentiality was emphasized by discussing the various components of linguistics and several value-laden factors were presented with the intent to generate novel insights into the language teaching situation at UDW. It is hoped that language educators perceive and acknowledge this vibrant and burgeoning discipline as a scholarly endeavour.

Language Planning and Policy necessitated some discussion, since an organization cannot operate effectively without proper planning and policies. The presentation on language planning and policy confirmed that language planners and language planning are the basic pre-requisites if rational deliberations are to be made about pertinent language use in specific speech communities.

Second language (L2) learning research or second language acquisition (SLA) is an essential academic subject. The investigator has attempted to provide some recommendations that are of relevance and importance to the language educator. Quality teaching is relative to good learning and L2 learning research can act as an aid to understanding similar learners responding differently to the same teaching strategies.

9.2 Recommendations

9.2.1 Introduction

This section will provide some recommendations that are of relevance and importance to the language educator. Second language (L2) learning research or second language acquisition research (SLA) is a developing academic subject. Some discussion on understanding the student's contribution to learning, will be followed by a brief account on the understanding of the manner in which teaching techniques and methods work which will then be followed by an understanding of the overall goals.

Language educators can derive substantial benefit from L2 learning research. Quality teaching is relative to good learning, in that, the "proof of teaching is in the learning" (Cook 1991:3). It is assumed that L2 learners (at university level) achieve a certain level of maturity, both mentally and in terms of personality development. Some learners view L2 learning as "extending their repertoire", what they are capable of while other L2 learners feel that their identities are being threatened. Learners' success in learning and acquiring a language is affected by the many ways that are used to learn a language. A lecture room may consist of a group of language learners, yet that which occurs in the room is not "equally productive" for the learner, in that their mental abilities differ and there are several variations between individuals. (Cook 1991:3)

L2 learning research can act as an aid to understanding the "apparently similar students" reacting "differently to the same teaching technique". (Cook 1991:3)

9.2.2 L2 Learning Research and an understanding of Teaching Methods and Techniques

There are many factors that bear evidence to the fact that a certain technique would work and others point out that it would not work. Educators using specific techniques will benefit by understanding the implication of using a particular technique in the language learning and language processing situation. They will also have a fair idea with regard to the appropriateness of a technique, for example, the grammar-translation technique “emphasizes explanations of grammatical points because this fits in with the view that L2 learning is the acquisition of conscious knowledge”. (Cook 1991:3)

Communicative teaching methods encourage learners to converse with each other since they view L2 learning as developing out of communication.

9.2.3 L2 Learning Research and an understanding of the Goals of Language Teaching

An understanding of the overall teaching goals is necessary to the learning and acquiring of language. According to Cook (1991:4) “one avowed goal of language teaching is to help people to think better - brain-training and logical thinking; another is appreciation of serious literature; another the student’s increased self-awareness and maturity; another appreciation of other cultures and so on”. Educators taking an interest in perusing works on L2 research will discover that most of the points stated in the foregoing paragraph have been explored in some specific L2 learning research.

L2 learning research is a scientific discipline and it does not decide on “issues outside its domain” (Cook 1991:4). It remains neutral with regard to the teaching goals though it contributes to the understanding of the several teaching goals. Cook (1991:4) posits that

language educators do not decide on the teaching goals. A specific society or an individual learner is responsible for this decision.

For instance, countries supporting democracy would specify that groupwork should be used in the lecture rooms. Some countries would ban the use of English-speaking culture in textbooks, if the goals are solely for international communication rather than for developing relationships between two countries (eg. England and South Africa). Another country could view language teaching as a means of generating honesty and strong citizen values. Cook (1991:4)

L2 learning research is strongly recommended, in that, it illustrates a type of guideline as to how teaching goals may be achieved and in maintaining a balance between society and the individual. Cook (1991:4) maintains that L2 learning research as a scientific discipline neither “commends” nor “denies” the value of teaching goals, since these goals “depend on morality or politics rather than science”.

9.2.4 Seminars and Workshops

In order to achieve optimum results in the language learning and teaching situation educators should make a deliberate effort to attend structured formal and informal seminars, and workshops.

9.3 Conclusion

The activities in the lecture room should be viewed from many perspectives. This chapter highlighted the crucial role of L2 learning research. L2 learning research is capable of revealing strengths and weaknesses of a specific teaching method/technique. L2 learning research presents knowledge that can steer and influence teaching.

**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE:
FOR LANGUAGE EDUCATORS IN THE FACULTY OF HUMANITIES**

The investigator introduced the topic for the project , that is, “An investigation into language educators application of contemporary linguistics in the language teaching situation at the University of Durban-Westville (UDW)

The following key-questions were raised:

- 1) What are your views with regard to teaching linguistics as an independent discipline?
- 2) Would you support the teaching of linguistics to second language (L2) speakers or first language (L1) speakers?
- 3) Should all four basic components be taught?
- 4) Please discuss some of the advantages and disadvantages of teaching one component.
- 5) What are some of your perceptions on expanding the four basic components?
- 6) Do you concentrate on modern grammar or traditional grammar in your teaching?
- 7) Should linguistics be taught as an independent discipline or should it be incorporated into the language being taught?
- 8) Do you have any objections to teaching linguistics independently?
- 9) Are there any advantages in teaching this discipline consciously?
- 10) What are some of your impressions with regard to stylistics being used to analyze literature pieces?
- 11) Is there a need to create modules in linguistics?
- 12) Would you support the establishment of a General Linguistics Department at UDW?

APPENDIX 2**CONFIDENTIAL QUESTIONNAIRE**

Name: Ms K Maharaj
School: Languages and Literature
Faculty: Humanities

Dear Respondent

You are kindly requested to complete the **attached questionnaire** so as to enable the researcher to investigate the importance of language educators applying the principles of contemporary linguistics in the language teaching situation at the University of Durban-Westville (UDW).

The completed questionnaire will be valuable in determining the success rate of students currently studying the various components of linguistics as well as for future research.

It was not feasible to administer this questionnaire to the entire university population. Your response is therefore very important to the sample. It represents the other students who are not included in the sample.

There are no right or wrong answers. You are merely requested in some instances to give the most appropriate answer and at other times you can respond by giving your direct and honest opinion.

Your response will be totally confidential.

Thank you for your co-operation.

SECTION A : BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Please mark the appropriate box with a tick.

1. Gender

| | |
|--------|--|
| Female | |
| Male | |

2. Age

| | |
|---------|--|
| 18 - 24 | |
| 25 - 34 | |
| 35 - 49 | |
| 50 - 59 | |
| 60+ | |

3. Current educational qualifications

| | |
|------------------------|--|
| Matric | |
| Teacher's Certificate | |
| Teacher's Diploma | |
| ABET Certificate | |
| ABET Diploma | |
| Other (Please Specify) | |

4. Degree registered for this year

| | |
|------------------------|--|
| DEGREE | |
| B A | |
| B A (Honours) | |
| B Paed | |
| Masters | |
| Dlitt/Dphil | |
| Other (Please specify) | |

SECTION B

- 1) What is your mother tongue?

Please tick one

| MOTHER TONGUE | Sepedi | Sesotho | Setswana | siSwati | Tshivenda | Xitsonga | Afrikaans | English | isiNdebele | isiXhosa | isiZulu | Other (Specify) |
|---------------|--------|---------|----------|---------|-----------|----------|-----------|---------|------------|----------|---------|-----------------|
| | | | | | | | | | | | | |

- 2) What is your purpose for studying through the medium of English?

Please tick one

Career (job) opportunities

To learn more about the culture of the target group

Being able to communicate effectively

- 3) Do you see yourself as socially equal to the target language group?

Please tick one

Yes

No

- 4) Is your culture congruent with that of the target language group?

Please tick one

Yes

No

- 5) Are you able to communicate fluently in English and without any inhibitions?

Please tick one

Yes If Yes (Skip Nos. 6 and 7)

No If No (Respond to Qq 6 and 7)

- 6) Do you experience doubt and confusion during your learning of English?

Please tick one

Regularly

Occasionally

- 7) Have you experienced any stress, fear or disillusionment as a result of the differences between your culture and the culture of the target language community? **Please tick one**

Regularly

Occasionally

- 8) English as a medium of instruction is important for all UDW students. Do you agree? **Mark one number only**

| | | | | | | |
|------------------------------|---|-----------------|---|--------------|---|---------------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly Disagree | | Disagree | | Agree | | Strongly Agree |

- 9) Students should be given the opportunity to determine the course content of the language. Do you agree? **Mark one number only**

| | | | | | | |
|------------------------------|---|-----------------|---|--------------|---|---------------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly Disagree | | Disagree | | Agree | | Strongly Agree |

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